T.C.
Marmara Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı
İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı

THE DECISION MAKING SKILLS OF STUDENT TEACHERS, NOVICE AND EXPERIENCED TEACHERS OF ENGLISH IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ SON SINIF STAJINI YAPAN ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ, AZ DENEYİMLİ VE DENEYİMLİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN SINIF YÖNETİMİ KONUSUNDA KARAR VERME BECERİLERİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

Elif ÖZBAŞ SOLTAY

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KISA ÖZET

İngilizce Öğretmenliği son sınıf stajını yapan öğretmen adaylarının, az deneyimli ve deneyimli İngilizce öğretmenlerinin sınıf yönetimi konusunda karar verme becerileri: Bir vaka çalışması

Elif Özbaş Soltay

Bu çalışma, son sınıfta okumakta olan öğretmen adaylarının, 0–3 yıl arası öğretmenlik deneyimine sahip az deneyimli İngilizce öğretmenlerinin ve 3 yıl ve üzerinde öğretmenlik deneyimine sahip olan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin sınıf yönetimi konusunda karar verme becerileri arasındaki farklılıkları incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Araştırmanın deneklerini 2005–2006 öğretim yılında, Marmara Üniversitesi, Atatürk Eğitim Fakültesi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı (İngilizce Öğretmenliği) dördüncü sınıfta okumakta olan 6 öğretmen adayı ve aynı fakültenin dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerini "Öğretmenlik Uygulamaları" stajlarını yapmak üzere gönderdiği, İstanbul'dan seçilen bazı devlet ve özel okullarında görev yapmakta olan 6 az deneyimli ve 6 deneyimli olmak üzere toplam 12 Türk İngilizce Öğretmeni oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmaya katılan öğretmenlerin sayısı 12'dir, öğretmen adayı sayısı ise 6'dır.

Araştırmanın ölçekleri tutum ölçeği, gözlem ve yüz yüze söyleşidir. Çalışmada önce deneklerle yüz yüze söyleşi yapılmış, daha sonra Martin, Yin ve Baldwin (1998) tarafından geliştirilen Sınıf Yönetimine Yönelik Tutum ve İnanç Ölçeği (ABCC Inventory) uygulanmış ve son olarak da deneklerin derslerinde gözlem çalışması yapılmıştır. Gözlem çalışması süresince araştırmacı, sınıf yönetimi üzerine geliştirdiği kontrol listesini (checklist) kullanmıştır. Gözlem çalışmaları 2005-2006 akademik yılının ikinci dönemi boyunca; Nisan, Mayıs ve Haziran aylarında her okulda 3 kez olmak üzere toplam 18 defa uygulanmıştır. Veri toplama süreci 3 devlet okulu ve 3 özel okul olmak üzere toplam 6 okulun yönetimi ve 18 öğretmenin izniyle gerçekleştirilmiştir. Veri analizinde, tutum ölçekleri SPSS 15.0 programında Anova kullanılarak, gruplar arasında eşit varyans olup olmadığını görmek için Levene Testi uygulanarak ve Anova'nın

şartlarının tutmaması ihtimaline karşı ise Anova'nın sayısal olmayan (non-parametric) eşdeğeri olan Kruskall-Wallis testi uygulanarak karşılaştırılmıştır. Yüz yüze söyleşi verileri ise Miles and Huberman'ın (1994) kalıp kodlama (pattern-coding) sistemi kullanılarak, gözlemlerdeki veriler ise önce pattern-coding sistemi kullanılarak, daha sonra da Anova yapılarak, gruplar arasında eşit varyans olup olmadığını görmek için Levene Testi uygulanarak ve Anova'nın şartlarının tutmaması ihtimaline karşı ise Anova'nın sayısal olmayan (non-parametric) eşdeğeri olan Kruskall-Wallis testi uygulanarak çözümlenmiş, karşılaştırılmış ve yorumlanmıştır.

Bu çalışmaya başlanmadan önce öğretmen adayları ile az deneyimli ve deneyimli İnglizce öğretmenlerinin sınıf yönetimine bakış açıları arasında fark olması beklenmiştir. Aynı zamanda öğretmen deneyimi ile sınıf yönetiminde karar verme becerileri arasında bir ilişki olduğu savlanmıstır. İstanbul'daki bazı devlet okullarında ve özel okullarda görev yapmakta olan 3 yıl ve üzeri öğretmenlik deneyimine sahip olan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin, ders esnasında sınıf yönetimine ilişkin karar verme becerilerinin hiç deneyimi bulunmayan öğretmen adaylarına ve daha az deneyimi olan İngilizce öğretmenlerine kıyasla daha gelişmiş olması beklenmiştir.

Araştırmada uygulanan söyleşilerden elde edilen veriler öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetiminde yetersizlik hissetiklerini göstermiştir. Tutum ölçeği sonuçları ise az deneyimli İngilizce öğretmenlerinin ve deneyimsiz öğretmen adaylarının müdahaleci olmayan olmayan bir sınıf yönetimi yaklaşımına sahip olduklarını, deneyimli İngilizce öğretmenlerinin ise etkileşimsel sınıf yönetimi yaklaşımına sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. Gözlem sonuçları ise deneyimli öğretmenlerin ders esnasında sınıf yönetimine ilişkin karar verme becerilerinin hiç deneyimi bulunmayan öğretmen adaylarına ve daha az deneyimi olan İngilizce öğretmenlerine kıyasla daha gelişmiş olmadığını göstermiştir.

ABSTRACT

The decision making skills of student teachers, novice and experienced teachers of English in classroom management:

A case study

by

Elif Özbaş Soltay

This study aims to investigate the differences among decision making skills of student teachers, novice teachers of English with 0-3 years of experience and experienced teachers of English with 3 and more years of experience in classroom management.

The participants of the study involved 6 student teachers in their fourth year as seniors in the Department of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Marmara University in the 2005-2006 academic year; 6 Turkish teachers of English teachers with 3 and more than 3 years of experience and 6 Turkish teachers of English teachers with less than 3 years of experience who work in different private and state schools in Istanbul, Turkey which were appointed as practicum schools for student teachers by the Deanship of the Educational Faculty of Marmara University. Total amount of English teachers who took part in the study was 12 and the amount of student teachers who took part in the study was 6.

The data for the present study were collected through an interview, an inventory and an observation session. In the study, firstly, the participants were interviewed and following that procedure they were asked to answer the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Management Inventory (ABCC Inventory hereafter) developed by Martin, Yin and Baldwin (1998). Later, the classes were observed. During the observations, the checklist adapted from various sources was used. The observations were all implemented with the permission of the administrators and teachers of the 6 schools. Each participant was observed once while lecturing. In sum, the observations were held 4 times in April, 9 times in May and 5 times in June as a total of 18 times during the spring term in the 2005-2006 academic year. All lessons were audio-taped using a digital voice recorder

device. Then, they were meticulously transcribed. Quantitatively, the questionnaire was evaluated utilizing SPSS 15.0 and the results from 3 groups were compared by using ANOVA. In the analyses, results of the Levene's Tests were reported as well. There were some instances where the assumptions were not met. When assumptions of ANOVA are not met, the non-parametric counterpart of ANOVA (i.e. Kruskall-Wallis Test) was reported to be sure of the results. In order to interpret the answers of the open-ended questions of the interview Miles and Huberman's (1994) pattern- coding evaluation system was used. In the analyses of the transcribed and coded observation sessions, results of the Levene's Tests were reported. In addition, when assumptions of ANOVA were not met, the non-parametric counterpart of ANOVA (i.e. Kruskall-Wallis Test) was reported to be sure of the results.

Prior to research, it was estimated that there could have been a difference between student teachers' perceptions of classroom management beliefs and novice and experienced teachers' perceptions of classroom management beliefs. In addition, it was expected that there could have been a relationship between teachers' expertise in teaching (level of experience) and classroom management. Moreover, it was expected to find out that compared to novice teachers and student teachers, experienced teachers' decision making skills in classroom management would be more effective and developed.

The results of the interview indicated that the student teachers perceived themselves inefficient in classroom management. The results of the ABCC inventory revealed that the novice teachers and student teachers had non-interventionist orientations whereas experienced teachers had interactionalist orientations to classroom management. Finally, observation results indicated that compared to novice teachers and student teachers, experienced teachers' observable decision making skills in classroom management were not more effective or developed.

ABBREVIATIONS

ABCC-	Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Management Inventory
ALM-	The Audio-Lingual Method
App.	Appendix
CA-	The Communicative Approach
CBI-	Content Based Instruction
CLL-	Community Language Learning
CLT-	Communicative Language Teaching
DM-	The Direct Method
ELT-	English Language Teaching
GTM-	The Grammar-Translation Method
L1-	Native Language
Ss-	Students
St-	Student
T-	Teacher
TBLT-	Task Based Language Teaching
TPR-	Total Physical Response

I. INTRODUCTION

Decision making ability can roughly be defined as the ability to make the necessary, adequate and appropriate decisions so as to solve a particular problem or several problems in a teaching/learning setting. As in many other fields, in the field of education, decision making ability is seen as not only one of the most necessary, but also the most difficult skill to be gained. Every teacher, in whatever field h/she teaches in, makes a lot of decisions before, during or after their teaching process. As Brumfit and Rossner (1992) point out, "…foreign language teaching is a process which, like most human activities, depends on making choices of various kinds: choices of materials, activities, approach and so on" (p.226). According to Johnson (1992), teachers are decision makers who process information and act upon those decisions within complex environments. The decisions taken at the end of this decision making process can affect the classroom environment, physically or psychologically, both in positive and negative ways.

The most common place where teaching and learning happen is a classroom. As Arends (1997) mentions, "...classrooms can be viewed as ecological systems in which inhabitants -teachers and students- interact within a specific environment to complete valued tasks" (p.17). Thus, classrooms can be complex and demanding places and the decisions teachers make in the classrooms may easily affect the classroom environment in varied ways. As one of the most fundamental variables of teaching and learning processes, Brophy (1999) defines classroom management as "the actions taken to create and maintain a learning environment conducive to the attainment of the goals of instruction" (p.43). It is also viewed as "...one of the most perplexed and difficult aspects of teaching practice, yet one of the most important for pedagogical success that teachers 'must' learn (Lasley, 1994, p.12).

Related to these facts, this research focuses on the decision making skills of student teachers, novice teachers with 0-3 years of experience and experienced teachers of

English with more than 3 years of experience. The participants are 6 student teachers from the Department of English Language Teaching, Marmara University in the 2005-2006 academic year, 6 experienced and 6 less experienced Turkish teachers of English who work in 3 private and 3 state schools in Istanbul, Turkey which are appointed as practicum schools for student teachers by the same university. The research aims to find out participants' perceptions of classroom management and decision-making as well as the relationship between teachers' level of experience and their decision making skills in classroom management.

In the first part of this paper, the introduction which deals with background of the study, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the research hypotheses, the significance and the limitations of the study sections takes place. In the second part, the review of the related literature section examines the English Language Teaching (ELT hereafter) methods in connection with teacher and student roles, classroom management and decision making strategies. In this section definitions of classroom and classroom management were presented followed by a brief history of research on classroom management, a summary of classroom management models, features of the approaches to classroom management, the most commonly used classroom management strategies and techniques, several definitions of teacher decision making and finally a brief history of research on teacher's decision making skills. In the third part of the paper, the method section which includes explanations of the research design, the participants, the instruments, the data collection procedure and the data analysis of the study takes place. In the fourth part results of the study are given to be followed by the discussion in the fifth part. Recommendations for further research take place in the sixth part followed by references and finally appendice.

A. **Background of the Study**

As Crystal (2003) states, in recent years it is quite likely to come across a headline like "English is the global language" in thousands of newspapers and magazines. There are many reasons of English becoming a global language. Nevertheless, before briefly

looking at the reasons, it would be a necessity to clarify what a global language is and how a language is turned into a global language. According to Crystal (2003), "...a language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a role that is recognized in every country" (p.3). He adds that "…to achieve such a status, a language has to be taken up by other countries around the world. They must decide to give it a special place within their communities, even though they may have few (or no) mother-tongue speakers (p.4).

As above mentioned, a language can be a priority in a country's foreign language teaching, despite having no official status. As Crystal (2003) further explains, it becomes the language which children are taught when they start school, and the one most obtainable to adults who either never learned it, or learned it badly, in their early school years. There might be many reasons for choosing a language as a favoured foreign language. It could be because of the desire for commercial, cultural or technological contact or the political or historical reasons which changes its status and turns it into a global language.

As Crystal (2003) states, "...English is the medium of great deal of the world's knowledge...and access to that knowledge is the business of education" (p.110). He adds that English has been made an official language or the chief foreign language in schools mainly because of educational concerns.

Crystal (2003) points out that starting from the 1960s, English has become the medium of instruction in higher education for many countries where the language has no official status. Crystal (2003) also underlines the fact that one of the major growth industries around the world is the English Language Teaching. The development can be seen in the work of The British Council which is a non -departmental public body and a charity sponsored by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and which has offices in 110 countries around the world. (BC-Annual Report-2005-2006). The Council reports that the new millennium would see over 1,000 million people learning English. In addition, another study by the Council in which the participants were people professionally involved in ELT investigated how these specialists regarded the role and future of the

English language. The results of the study confirmed the picture of English as a global language.

For whatever reason a language becomes a global language and is given great consideration in its educational policies, educators are given several responsibilities so as to fulfil the necessary requirements of teaching that global language correctly, efficiently and adequately.

One such responsibility of a teacher as a language educator trained in the field of ELT is to make sure that the learning/teaching atmosphere in the foreign language classroom is well-managed. As earlier mentioned in this paper, managing the foreign language classroom is one of the most fundamental aspects of the teaching process as lack of this skill or knowledge may lead to chaos in the learning/teaching environment.

Another aspect of teaching English includes not only mastering a series of general principles and theories or effective teaching behaviours but also viewing teaching as a continuous decision-making. Calderhead (1987 cited in Richards, 1998) discusses the issue as the following:

> Ideologically, viewing teachers as active agents in. the development of their own practice, as decision-makers using their specialist knowledge to guide their action in particular situations, underlined the autonomous, responsible aspect of teachers' work, and provided an appealing rationale for considering teaching as a worthy, complex and demanding profession, especially when contrasted with the previously dominant view of teaching as the mastering of a series of effective teaching behaviours.
>
> (p. 65)

The relation between decision-making and classroom management is of vital importance as the decisions the teacher makes can change the course of actions while managing the foreign language classroom.

B. Purpose of the Study

Considering the above mentioned facts, this study focuses on the use of classroom management strategies in terms of decision making as it aims to investigate student

teachers', novice and experienced teachers' perceptions of their classroom management beliefs and decision-making skills in classroom management. In addition, this study interrogates the relationship between teachers' level of expertise and their decision making skills in classroom management.

C. Research Questions

The study is guided by the following research questions:

1. Is there a reported difference between student teachers' (of year 4), novice teachers' (with 0-3 years of experience) and experienced ELT teachers' (with more than 3 years of experience) perceptions of their classroom management beliefs and practices?
2. Is there a reported difference between student teachers' (of year 4), novice teachers' (with 0-3 years of experience) and experienced ELT teachers' (with more than 3 years of experience) decision making skills in classroom management?
3. What kind of differences are reported between student teachers' (of year 4), novice teachers' (with 0-3 years of experience) and experienced ELT teachers' (with more than 3 years of experience) decision making skills in classroom management?

D. Research Hypotheses

Accordingly, some hypotheses expected to be confirmed through this research are as follows:

1. Student teachers' perceptions of efficiency regarding their decision making skills in classroom management will differ from both novice and experienced teachers.
2. There will be a relationship between English Language teachers' level of experience and their decision making skills related to classroom management.

3. Compared to student teachers and novice teachers, the decision making skills of experienced ELT teachers will be more developed.
4. Compared to experienced teachers and student teachers, the decision making skills of student teachers will be less efficient.

E. Significance of the Study

In the success of any programme, dealing with education, the competence of the educator plays a vital role. As Harmer (1991) states, the success of many activities performed in language classroom depends on the organization skills of the teacher. Thus, the decisions the educator makes, the way the educator manages his time, the students' behaviours, how s/he reacts to certain discipline problems or how s/he plans the instructions can all be considered as significant factors which affect both the teaching and the learning process.

There has been some research focusing on the decision making skills of teachers and there have been numerous studies which focus on the classroom management strategies of teachers. However, no research aiming to find out the differences between decision making skills of student, novice and experienced teachers in classroom management has been conducted so far.

Thus, with this study it is aimed to investigate student teachers', novice and experienced teachers' perceptions of their classroom management beliefs and decision-making skills in classroom management. In addition, this study aims to find out the relationship between teachers' expertise levels and their decision making skills in classroom management. With the findings of this study some modifications in the current English language education programmes can be made.

Taking these points into consideration, this study may shed some light on the above given aspects of the ELT programmes in Turkey as well as proving a modest point of start for further research.

F. Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of the study should be mentioned for the critical reader. To begin with, the study was conducted at only 6 schools as 3 state and 3 private state schools located in Istanbul, Turkey. Therefore, it should be clearly stated that a participating group of 18 teachers working or practising in these schools; 6 as experienced, 6 as novice and 6 as student teachers may not form a perfect representation. So as to be more beneficial and enlightening, the same study could have been conducted at various secondary and high schools, with a much greater number of participants.

Another limitation lies in the researcher's data collection technique. The researcher observed the lessons and all the lessons were audio- taped by a digital voice recorder device. However, it could have been more beneficial if the lessons had been not only audio-taped but also video-taped. Such a limitation is due to the school managers' resistance to the idea of having the lessons recorded via a video tape.

As later mentioned in the results section, before conducting ANOVAs, coefficients of skewness and kurtosis were reported to check the assumption of normal distribution. In most cases, the assumption was not met due to the limited number of participants in each group. To deal with this limitation, results of Kruskall-Wallis test were provided as well. Limited number of participants also led to have less statistical power and less robust results. If each group had more than 20 or 30 participants, the results might have been more robust and statistically more powerful. As mentioned in descriptive statistics tables, novice teachers mostly had higher means than the other groups, but these differences did not reach significance because of having insufficient power (i.e. insufficient number of participants in each group). It is quite difficult to deal with this limitation, since having more participants requires increasing the amount of qualitative analyses. It is already a huge amount of work to transcribe and analyze observation data for 18 participants. If participant number is increased to an extent to meet the assumption of normal distribution, the amount of observation, transcription and qualitative analysis will increase to an extent that the researcher cannot cope with alone.

Last but not least, it could have been more beneficial if this study had been a longitudinal study in which the participants are observed more than once.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, related research on the decision making skills of student teachers, novice and experienced teachers of English in classroom management was presented.

In the first part, a review of literature on teacher and student roles in language teaching approaches and methods throughout many centuries was given**.** These approaches and methods were namely the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, The Communicative Language Teaching, Silent Way, The Natural Approach, Total Physical Response, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, Content Based Language Teaching, Task Based Learning and finally the Post-Method.

In the second part, definitions of classroom and classroom management were presented. Thirdly, a brief history of research on classroom management was presented. Then, classroom management models were summarized. Next, features of the approaches to classroom management were presented in detail. Following this, the most commonly used classroom management strategies and techniques were briefed. In the next part, several definitions of teacher decision making were examined. Finally, a brief history of research on teacher's decision making skills was presented.

A. **Teacher and Learner Roles in English Language Teaching Methods**

Foreign language education policies have always been an important component of general educational policies in the world. When there is such a consistent and coherent application all around the globe, it would be right to assume that the relationship among the components of foreign language education is quite significant. One such relationship is that of classroom management and interactive decision-making skills of foreign language teachers. Nevertheless, prior to listing several definitions of these terms and the research conducted in these areas, it can be quite beneficial to look at the ways foreign language classes have been managed throughout centuries while briefly

reviewing the history of language teaching methods in terms of teacher and student roles as well as looking at the ways teachers have managed their classrooms and the decisions they have made at the time.

As Richards and Lockhart (1994) state, teachers are influenced by many factors when they approach their work and when they employ strategies to reach their ultimate goals. One of these factors is the context in which teachers work as each different setting leads to different kinds of roles. Ellis and Mcclintock (1990 cited in Richards and Lockhart 1994) define a role as "…the part taken by a participant in any act of communication" (p.97). They add that roles are seen to have the following characteristics:

1. They involve different kinds of work and different levels of responsibility
2. They involve different kind of relationships and different patterns of interaction and communication
3. They involve different power relationships.

(p.98)

In addition to the above mentioned characteristics of teacher roles, Richards and Rodgers (2001) relate teacher roles in methods to the following issues:

1. The type of functions teachers are expected to fulfil
2. The degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place
3. The degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining the context of what's taught
4. The interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners.

(p.28)

Wright (1987 in Richards and Lockhart 1994) emphasizes that although a teacher's role is an occupational one which is determined by the nature of schools and of teaching, teachers have different interpretations of their roles, varying according to the type of school settings, the methods used in that setting, their own personalities and cultural histories.

While Wright (1987 in Richards and Lockhart 1994) states that school settings, methods, teachers' personalities and teachers' cultural background form the basis of teacher roles, Richards and Lockhart (1994) add that an approach or a methodology can also be

considered as factors affecting the role of the teacher. Harmer (1991) states that teacher roles, the way the teacher behaves, may also vary according to the nature of activities (p.235). Harmer examines the roles of *controller*, *assessor*, *organiser*, *prompter*, *participant*, *resource, tutor* and *investigator*. According to Harmer, the teacher as controller "…is closely aligned to the image that teachers project to themselves" (p.236). He explains that "…some are natural leaders and performers while some are quieter and feel happier when students are interacting amongst themselves" (p.236). The second role Harmer discusses is the role as an assessor. In Harmer's point of view, assessing student work is an important part of the teacher's job as "…it's not only important pedagogically, but students quite naturally expect it" (p.237). The third teacher role Harmer describes is the teacher as organiser. Harmer highlights the importance of this role and says "…the success of many activities depends on good organisation and on the students knowing exactly what they are to do" (p.239). In addition, Harmer asserts that giving clear instructions during a task is one of the main duties of the teacher as lack of this may result in various problems. The fourth role is the teacher as prompter. Harmer explains this as "…the teacher's encouraging students to take part in an activity or making suggestions about what to do when students fail to understand what to do next during an activity" (p.241). The teacher role that follows is the participant role. Harmer encourages teachers to participate as an equal in an activity. Yet, he warns that in cases which the teacher will dominate, the students will allow this to happen. Therefore, Harmer reminds that the teacher should be careful and "…make sure it does not" (p.241).

Other roles Harmer discusses are the teacher as a resource and a tutor respectively. In teacher as a resource, as Harmer points out, "…the teacher should always be ready to offer help when needed" (p.242). Harmer talks about the teacher as a tutor " …in the sense of someone who acts as a coach and as a resource where students are involved in their work and call upon the teacher mainly for advice and guidance" (p.242). However, Harmer reminds that this tutorial role is often appropriate at intermediate and advanced levels as "…it incorporates some of the other roles, i.e. organiser, prompter and a resource" (p.242).

Another important component of the teaching/ learning cycle is the learner roles. Richards and Rodgers (2001) claim that how learners are seen considerably influences the design of an instructional system. Attempting to define learner roles, Richards and Rodgers (2001) state the following:

> A method reflects explicit or implicit responses to questions concerning the learners' contribution to the learning process. This is seen in the types of activities learners carry out, the degree of control learners have over the content of learning, the patterns of learner groupings adopted, the degree to which learners influence the learnings of others, and the view of the learner as a processor, performer, initiator and problem solver.
>
> (pp.27-28)

After the application of the Classical Method until the 17th century the first organized method in the ELT history is the Grammar Translation Method (the GTM hereafter). Known as the most traditional foreign language teaching method the GTM pays hardly any attention to the teacher roles and the student roles. As explained in Larsen-Freeman (2000), in the GTM the main concern of the teacher is to teach students how to read literature written in the target language (p. 17). Thus, the roles are very traditional. The teacher is the ultimate authority and doesn't permit students share or discuss (Howatt, 1984; Brown, 1987; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In addition, most of the interaction in the classroom is from the teacher to the students.

As the most traditional foreign language teaching method, the GTM pays no attention to classroom management. Despite the fact that there might have been some exceptions, ELT history records don't mention any occasions where teachers organized their lessons according to classroom management approaches and/or strategies.

The Direct Method (the DM hereafter) became popular when GTM failed to fulfil students' needs in preparing them to use the target language communicatively (Howatt, 1984; Brown, 1987; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2001). In fact, it was developed as one of the reactions against the GTM. Khranke (1987) states that the role of the teacher in the DM is to direct the course activities (p.48). In the DM, the student role is less passive than it is in the GTM. Although the teacher still directs the class activities, the teacher and the students are more like partners in the teaching/learning

progress. In the DM, the initiation of the interaction is both from teacher to student and from student to teacher. However, it is important to point out that although there is an interaction from the student to the teacher, it is still teacher directed.

Looking at the flow of class activities, it could be right to state that the DM teacher is more aware of the strategies regarding classroom management as there is an interaction between the teacher and the student and from student to student. Nevertheless, similar to the GTM, the DM has no principles which relate to the issue of how students' feelings are dealt with, a significant point of discussion in classroom management.

Another oral-based approach is the Audio-Lingual Method (the ALM hereafter) of the late 1940's and 1950's which borrowed certain principles from its predecessor, the DM. As explained in Larsen-Freeman (2000), in ALM the teacher is "…an orchestra leader who is responsible from directing and controlling the language behaviour of the students" (p.45). The teacher is also responsible for providing students with a good model of imitation. In this method students are just imitators of teachers' model and they follow the teacher's directions. In addition, Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that in ALM, the teacher's role is "central and active as it is a teacher dominated method" (p.62).The teacher is responsible for "…modelling the target language, controlling the direction and the pace of learning and monitoring and correcting the learners' performances" (p.62). Brooks (1964 cited in Richards and Rodgers 2001) argues that one of the tasks teachers must be trained to do is "…to reward trials by the student in such a way that learning is reinforced and to formalize on the first day the rules according to which the language class is to be conducted and enforce them" (p.63). Therefore, in ALM, students' successful responses are positively reinforced. The teacher thus uses praise as an effective classroom management strategy. The teacher also uses gestures and body language during class activities. For example, while introducing a new dialogue, the teacher uses actions, pictures or realia to give the meaning (Larsen-Freeman 2000, Richards and Rodgers 2001) and while doing so s/he constantly uses gestures, body language and facial expressions. Similarly, the tone of the teacher's voice and the posture can be considered as other important variables which affect the learning process in a typical ALM classroom**.**

In the 1980's, language teaching methodology focused on the Communicative Approach (CA hereafter). The CA gave way to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT hereafter) which is still used widely with small modifications. Brown (2000) emphasizes that one of the goals of the CLT is to have students become communicatively competent**.**

In CLT, it is the teacher who facilitates communication in the classroom (Larsen-Freeman 2000, Richards and Rodgers 2001). As Larsen-Freeman (2000) states, one of his major responsibilities is "…to establish situations likely to promote communication" (p.128). Larsen-Freeman adds "…during the activities s/he acts as an adviser, answering students' questions and monitoring their performance" (p.129). Breen and Candlin (1980 in Richards and Rodgers 2001) describe teacher roles in CLT and state that one of the roles is "…to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group… A third role for the teacher is that of a researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities…" (p.167). Richards and Rodgers (2001) add that "other roles assumed for teachers are needs analyst, counselor, and group process manager" (p.167).

In CLT, the fact that there is great emphasis on communication results in learner roles different from those in more traditional language classrooms. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) explain, "…the learner is a negotiator-between the self, the learning process and the object of learning" (p.166). Larsen-Freeman summarizes the learner roles as follows:

> Students are, above all, communicators. They are actively involved in negotiating meaning -in trying to make themselves understood and in understanding others- even when their knowledge of the target language is incomplete.
>
> (p.129)

Looking at the key properties of the CLT and the roles it assumes for teachers and learners, it can be stated that it is the method which pays systematic attention to classroom management approaches and strategies. To begin with, one of the most important features of CLT is that unlike the previous methods, it is a method which assumes that learning to communicate will motivate students to study a foreign language as it will give the feeling of doing something useful with the language (Larsen-Freeman 2000). Besides, in CLT,

students are given the opportunity to express their individuality by having them share ideas and opinions. Finally, as Larsen-Freeman explains "…student security is enhanced by many opportunities for cooperative interactions with their fellow students and the teacher" (p.130). Thus, it would be right to claim that CLT is a method which focuses on classroom management as it cares about how students are motivated, how they are given the opportunity to express their feelings and how cooperative interactions are formed between the class members.

Caleb Gattegno's Silent Way is another method which sees language acquisition more than merely forming a set of habits. Harmer (1991) states that the Silent Way "… is marked by the fact that the teacher gives a very limited amount of input…The teacher will not criticise or praise but simply keeps indicating that the student should try again until success is achieved" (p.42). As stated in Richards and Rodgers (2001), the fact that there is no teacher correction leads students develop an "*inner criteria*". Similarly, as there is no explanation provided by the teacher, "students focus, make generalizations and come to their own conclusions" (p.85).

Larsen-Freeman (2000) explains that the teachers' role in the Silent Way is that of a *technician* or an *engineer*. As she states "...only the learner can do the learning, but the teacher can give what help is necessary, focus the students' perceptions, force their awareness..." (p.64). In addition, the role of the students is to make use of what they know as "to learn is seen as one's own responsibility" (p.64).

In terms of classroom management, it would be right to state that Silent Way allows and requires the use of classroom management strategies and techniques mainly for 4 reasons.

To begin with, students are given an opportunity to express their feelings through feedback sessions. Larsen-Freeman (2000) highlights that teacher takes students' feelings into consideration and works with the students to help them overcome difficulties which might interfere with the learning process (p.66). Secondly, although the teacher allows students to make choices, she constantly observes them and helps them whenever she feels necessary. Thirdly, as Larsen-Freeman (2000) points out, teacher's silence not only "…frees the teacher to closely monitor their behaviour"

(p.63), it also makes her use nonverbal gestures and tools more effectively. Finally, through teacher silence students are encouraged to cooperate as they find out that they can learn from one another as well (Khranke, 1987; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

In the 1960s and the 1970s, research gave rise to the hypothesis that language learning should start first with the understanding and later proceeds to production. There are several methods being practiced today that have in common an attempt to apply this hypothesis to foreign language instruction. One such method is Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach. As briefly explained in Richards and Rodgers (2001), in the Natural Approach, the teacher has three central roles. To begin with, the teacher is seen as "the source of comprehensible input" (p.187). Secondly, the teacher is responsible from "… creating a friendly and interesting classroom environment" (p.187). Finally, in the Natural Approach, the teacher is responsible from choosing and applying a variety of classroom activities "…involving a variety of group sizes, content and contexts" (p.188). However, according to Krashen and Terrell (1983 in Richards and Rodgers 2001), the teacher should be able to collect materials which are elicited on student needs and interests rather than those based on teacher perceptions (p.188).

In terms of learner roles Richards and Rodgers (2001), add that one of the roles of learners' is to "…have the responsibility to take an active role in ensuring comprehensible input" (p.187). That is, learners are expected to participate in communication activities with other learners which expand collaborative work in class. In addition, as Richards and Rodgers add, "…they are to decide with the teacher the amount of time devoted to learning exercises and they should be ready for occasions when they complete or even correct such exercises independently" (p.187).

Having looked the teacher roles it would be quite acceptable to state that the Natural Approach requires the teacher to be effective in classroom management as she is responsible from creating a friendly and an interesting classroom environment as well as choosing and using various classroom activities prepared with materials which are chosen according to student needs and interests.

Another method in the ELT history is James Asher's Total Physical Response (TPR hereafter) which enjoyed some popularity in the 1970s and 1980s because of its support by those who emphasize the role of comprehension in second language acquisition (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p.78). Harmer (1991) summarizes how language is learned as follows:

> In TPR (as it is known) the teacher gives students instructions. The students don't have to speak; they simply have to carry out teacher's commands. When they are ready for it they can give commands to other students. The students thus learn language through actions, through a physical response rather than drills.
>
> (p.42)

In TPR, learners have the primary roles of *listeners* and *performers* and they are expected to respond both individually and collectively and as the content of learning is determined by the teacher learners have little influence (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p.76). As stated in Larsen-Freeman (2000), "…the teacher is the director of all student behaviour and students are imitators of her nonverbal model" (p. 113). Although TPR is a learner-centred method, the first step is always given by the teacher. As Asher (1977 in Richards and Rodgers 2001**)** states "…the instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors" (p. 43).

TPR can be considered as one of those ELT methods which in some ways pays attention to effective use of classroom management strategies and techniques by the teacher for various reasons. Initially, in TPR one of the first criteria for successful learning is to create and maintain a stress-free environment in which "…the learner is able to devote full energy to learning" (Asher 1977 in Richards and Rodgers 2001, p.75). Secondly, especially for absolute beginners, the teacher's voice, actions and gestures are considered as a sufficient basis for classroom activities (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p.77). Next, in TPR giving clear instructions is of vital importance as it is "…a powerful linguistic device which the teacher can direct student behaviour" (Larsen-Freeman 2001, p.112). Last, in TPR language learning is considered more effective when elements of fun are included.

Suggestopedia**,** also known as Desuggestopedia, is a method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator Georgi Lozanov. As stated in Richards and Rodgers (2001), "in order to be able to set up access to memory banks (reserves), the information should come from an *authoritative source* as people remember best and are most influenced by information coming from an authoritative source" (p.101). Richards and Rodgers (2001) underline that "... commitment to the method, self-confidence, personal distance, acting ability and a highly positive attitude give an authoritative air to the teacher (p.101).

As the method suggests, the teacher is the only authority in the classroom. One of the most significant principles of Suggestopedia is that the students must trust and respect the teacher so as to be successful. As Larsen-Freeman (2000) states "...once the students trust the teacher they can feel more secure and if they feel secure, they can be more spontaneous and less inhibited" (p.81).

In Suggestopedia, apart from how the teacher manages his/ her class, another factor such as the class environment is taken into consideration. The proponents of the method claim that the learner learns from the environment in which the instruction takes place as well as the effect of direct instruction. For example, the bright setting of the classroom, the musical background, the shape of the chairs and the personality of the teacher are thought to be important points in instruction. Also, as explained in Richards and Rodgers (2001), "The teacher's varying tone and rhythm while presenting the material helps to avoid boredom through monotony of repetition and to dramatize, emotionalise, and give meaning to linguistic material" (p.102).

Suggestopedia can be considered as a language teaching method which highlights the importance of effective teacher behaviour which results in well managed classrooms. Lozanov (1968 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) lists several expected teacher behaviours that contribute to the success of the method as follows:

> The teachers should …"Show absolute confidence in the method", "Display fastidious conduct in manners and dress", "Organize properly and strictly observe the initial stages of the teaching process-this includes choice and play of music, as well as punctuality", "Maintain a solemn attitude toward the session", "Give tests and respond tactfully to poor papers", "Stress global

> rather than analytical attitudes toward material", "Maintain a modest enthusiasm".
>
> (p.104)

Suggestopedia was precedessorred by Community Language Learning **(**CLL hereafter) which takes its principles from the more general Counseling-Learning approach developed by Charles A. Curran. In CLL, the teacher is not in the centre, but initially structures the course, and then allows the students take the responsibility. As stated in Larsen-Freeman (2000), the teachers' initial role is primarily that of a *counselor.* (p. 98). While describing the key principles of CLL*,* Richards and Rodgers (2001) state the following on teacher' role in CLL:

> ...The teacher's role derives from the functions of the counselor in Rogerian psychological counseling. The counselor's role is to respond calmly and nonjudgmentally, in a supportive manner, and help the client try to understand his or her problems better by applying order and analysis to them.
>
> (p.95)

In CLL, the relationship between the teacher and the students as well as amongst students is considered very important as it provides the basis for the anxiety-free learning environment. Another important feature of CLL is the way it responds to students' feelings. When the student talks about his feelings, the teacher comments carefully and shows he understands their feelings.

Recent curriculum design urge some approaches to teaching and learning process such as the Task-Based Language Teaching and Content-Based Instruction (CBI hereafter) which anticipate varying roles for both teachers and learners.

To illustrate, drawing on the principles of CLT, CBI aims to teach merely the content in the target language without any specific effort to focus on the language itself and thus anticipates a change in the typical roles of language teachers (Richards and Rodgers, 2001 and Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Stryker and Leaver (1993 cited in Richards and Rodgers 2001) insist that "…instructors must be more than just good language teachers; they must be knowledgeable in the subject matter and able to elicit that knowledge from their students" (p.214). In addition, they suggest that one of the most essential skills for

any CBI teacher is to use group work and team building techniques, develop and maintain high levels of student esteem and help students develop coping strategies. Therefore, it can be stated that in CBI, it is expected that learners become autonomous in order to be aware of their own learning and be responsible from their learning right from the beginning of the learning process.

Another approach presented as a logical development of CLT is Task- Based Language Teaching (TBLT hereafter). As TBLT has its roots in the CLT, it is assumed that language has to be meaningful to the learner so as to support the learning process. Therefore, it is believed that to activate and support the learning process it is the learner's responsibility to carry out meaningful tasks. Listed in Richard and Rodgers (2001), some of the roles assumed for learners in TBLT overlap with those in CLT are "…the learner as a group participant, a monitor, a risk taker and an innovator" (p.235).

As stated in Richards and Rodgers (2001), the roles assumed for teachers in TBLT include teacher as "a selector and a sequencer of tasks, as a task- preparator and as a consciousness raiser" (p.236). As the names suggest, the teacher should be in a continuous effort to select the appropriate tasks, have some pre-task activities as warm-ups and use highlighted material to raise the learners' consciousness.

By the end of the 20th century, methods were no longer regarded as the key factor in accounting for success or failure in language teaching. Some spoke of the death of methods and approaches and the term "post-methods era" was sometimes used. Kumaravadivelu (1994) states this fact as the following:

> Having witnessed how methods go through endless cycle of life, death and rebirth- this century seems to have reached a state of heightened awareness-awareness that as long as we are caught up in the web of method, we will continue to get entangled in an unending search for an unavailable solution. Such a search drives us to continually recycle and repackage the same old ideas and nothing short of breaking the cycle can salvage the situation. This awareness is fast creating what might be called a post method condition.
>
> (p.28)

As Kumaravadivelu (2003) mentions, "the role of the teacher has been a perennial topic of discussion not only in the field of general education but also in language education"

(p.7). The teacher has been variously referred to as "...an artist and an architect; a scientist and a psychologist; a manager and a mentor; a controller and a counselor; and the list goes on" (p.7). In Kumaravadivelu's terms, the post-method teacher, like the post-method learner, is an *autonomous individual*. Teacher autonomy is shaped by a professional and personal knowledge base that has evolved through formal and informal channels of educational experience (p.9). Table 1 displays teacher and learner roles in ELT methods and approaches.

Table 1

Teacher and learner roles in ELT methods and approaches

Period (the most prominent years)	Method	Teacher roles	Learner roles
17th, 18th and 19th centuries	The Grammar -Translation Method	Source of authority	Passive learners
1880-1920	The Direct Method	The director of all classroom activities	Less passive than in the GTM
1960-1970	The Audio-lingual Method	An orchestra leader, a good model for imitation, central and active	An imitator
1970-onwards	The Communicative Language Teaching	A facilitator An adviser An independent participant A researcher and learner A needs analyst A councelor A group manager	A communicator A negotiator between the self and the learning process
1970-onwards	The Silent Way	A technician, An engineer	More responsible from his own learning Group cooperation rather than competition
1970-onwards	The Natural Approach	The source of input The creator of a friendly atmosphere	An active participant A responsible and an independent learner
1960-onwards	Total Physical Response	The authority in the classroom A director	A listener and performer An actor
1970-onwards	Suggestopedia	The only authority Creator of a cheerful environment Highly aware of classroom management strategies	More spontaneous and less inhibited only when s/he trusts the authority (the teacher)
1970-onwards	Community Language Learning	A councelor	A client Dependent at first becomes more independent as he learns
1980-onwards	Task-based Language teaching	A task selector and sequencer A consciousness raiser	A group participant A monitor A risk taker &An innovator
1980-onwards	Content-based Approach to Language Learning	A group manager & a needs analyst Creator of learner-centered classrooms	An autonomous learner
1980-onwards	The post -method era	An autonomous educator A researcher A professional	An autonomous learner

Sources: Harmer (1991), Richards and Lockhart (1994), Larsen-Freeman (2000), Richards and Rodgers (2001), and Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2003).

As can be seen from Table 1, teacher and learner roles vary from one approach or one method to another. A change over time may be observed from these definitions of teacher and learner roles. Looking at the table, it can be stated that as methods and approaches develop, more emphasis is given to learners' feelings, classroom environment and teachers' management styles and techniques. To exemplify, while the most traditional method the GTM pays no systematic attention to learners' feelings or the classroom environment, in the Natural Approach, the teacher is responsible from creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Similarly, other methods such as the Suggestopedia, CLL, and CLT pay systematic attention to what's going on in the classroom both from the teacher and the learner perspective.

Larrivee (2005) summarizes the change in teacher and student roles as the following:

> The teacher role is changing from controlling learning to deliberately facilitating learning. The student role is changing from passive recipient of teacher directed instruction to interactive participant, often functioning in a variety of collaborative modes with peers. This transformation is guided by assumptions about teaching and learning which move us from the belief that students learn from paying attention to the teacher and repetition and rote memory, to the belief that students construct their own meaning and have responsibility for their own learning. These changing classroom demands call for classroom management and interaction styles that better align with emerging metaphors of teacher as social metaphor and learning facilitator.
>
> (p.6)

There is a common belief that whatever roles the ELT approaches and methods assign for teachers, teachers see a teaching approach as something unique and developed by experience. Attempting to discuss this issue, Richards and Lockhart (1994) state the following:

> … For many teachers, a teaching approach is something uniquely personal which they develop through experience and apply in different ways according to the demands of the specific situations. Teachers create their own roles within the classroom based on their theories of teaching and learning and the kind of classroom interaction they believe best supports these theories.
>
> (p.104)

Focusing on the roles again, the following statements (Richards and Lockhart 1994) illustrate how teachers regard their roles in the teaching process:

> I believe students learn best when the classroom atmosphere is focused and where the bright students are not held back by those who don't want to work. I arrange the class so that the students who are likely to be disruptive are in front of the class and I group the brighter students together so that they can stimulate each other.
>
> I believe the best lesson is a well- planned lesson. I find it much easier to teach when I have a detailed plan to follow. I find that I am more likely to use the time efficiently in the classroom if I know exactly what I will do and what I expect students to do during the lesson.
>
> … I like to keep my lessons flexible so that students can have a choice over what they want to learn and how best to learn it.
>
> (p.105)

According to Richards and Lockhart (1994), how teachers view their roles causes varieties in how they approach their teaching. They point out that a teacher's own interpretation of his/her role affect the way they respond some other dimensions of teaching such as classroom management and organization, teacher control, curriculum, content and planning, motivational techniques and instructional strategies (p.106).

After looking at the historical development of approaches and methods in Language Teaching in terms of teacher and student roles, the section that follows presented various definitions of classroom and classroom management.

B. **Definitions of the Classroom and Classroom Management**

Various definitions of classroom management can be found in the related literature. Yet, prior to listing these several definitions, it is equally significant to give a brief definition of the term 'classroom' as it is the setting in which many decisions regarding its management are made.

1. **The Classroom**

Despite the fact that both learning and teaching may happen in many settings, school teaching occurs mainly in a setting called 'classroom'. As Arends (1997) states "… classrooms everywhere are busy places characterized by a variety of simultaneous activities such as individual and group instruction, socializing, conflict management, evaluation activities, and in-flight adjustments for further events" (p. 16). Arends also adds that "…in addition to being a specially designed learning environment, classrooms are social settings where friendships form and conflicts occur" (p16).

Doyle (1979, 1986 cited in Burden 1995), views classrooms as "…ecological systems in which a set of inhabitants interact within a specific environment for the purpose of completing valued activities and tasks" (p.3). Using this perspective to study classrooms, Doyle points out that classrooms have six intrinsic features that make them complex and demanding places. One feature of the classroom is its 'multidimensionality' and Doyle (1986 in Arends 1997) explains that classrooms are "...crowded places where many people with different backgrounds, interests and abilities compete for scarce resources" (p.16). Another feature of a classroom is its 'simultaneity'. That is to say, in a classroom different events may occur simultaneously. A third important feature of the classroom life is the rapid pace of classroom events and the immediate impact they have on the lives of teachers and students. In Doyle's words this feature is the 'immediacy' of the classroom. Another feature of the classroom is its 'unpredictability' as classroom events not only demand immediate attention as many take unexpected turns and confront teachers in unexpected ways. In a classroom distractions and interruptions are frequent. The fifth feature of a classroom is its publicness. As Doyle (1986 in Arends 1997) states, "…unlike many places where people perform their work, classrooms are very public places where almost all events are witnessed by others" (pp 18-19). Last but not least, as Doyle points out "…classrooms and their participants gradually become a community that shares a common 'history' as they meet five days a week for several months and thereby accumulate a common set of experiences, norms and routines" (p.19).

Arends (1997) and Zabel&Zabel (1996) agree that these properties directly affect the overall classroom environment and shape the behaviour of the participants. The classroom therefore, is defined as a kind of ecosystem of various components in which

teachers and students live and interact with each other and it affects how they behave in the class.

Celep (2002) labels the term with a clear definition as "…the place where the teaching and learning acts occur" (p.1). Another definition of the classroom comes from Ada and Ünal (2003) who view classroom as "…the smallest but the most fundamental part of a school where people spend a valuable period of their lives" (p.28). Ada and Ünal (2003) further point out that a classroom is a specially designed environment composed of students with similar properties. Ada, Ünal and Balay (2003) emphasize the uniqueness of classrooms. According to Balay, each classroom is "…unique in terms of human communication and behaviour control as well as being a living laboratory" (p.18). He further comments that a classroom is "…where one is face to face with students and where student behaviours are moulded" (p.18).

Başar (2004) argues that the term classroom is commonly misused when it is merely defined as the place where teachers are face to face with students. According to Başar (2004), a classroom consists of a group of people with similar properties. He believes that the students in the same classroom are similar in terms of their ages, their background knowledge and etc. Therefore, as Başar states, "…classroom is the name of the group formed by the students with such similar properties" (p.6).

2. Classroom Management

Various definitions of the term have been stated by the key figures in the field of education. Duke (1987 cited in Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcalf 2003) defines classroom management as "…the provisions and procedures necessary to create and maintain an environment in which teaching and learning can occur". (p.382) Burden (1995) points out that classroom management focuses on "…ways to establish and maintain workable systems for classroom groups rather than ways to spot and punish misbehaviour, resolve behavioural disorders and capture the attention of individual students" (p.3). Brophy (1999) describes classroom management as "…actions taken to create and maintain a learning environment conducive to successful interaction

(arranging the physical environment of the classroom, establishing rules and procedures, maintaining attention to lessons and engagement in academic activities)" (p.43). In a more recent definition of the term by Burden (2003) classroom management is said to "… involve teacher actions to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning and self-motivation" (p.3). As Mccormack (1997 cited in Cothran, Kulinna and Garrahy 2003) states "…classroom management is the most common concern cited by pre-service, beginning, and experienced teachers as well as being the focus of media reports, professional literature and school staff room conversations" (p.7). According to Cothran, Kulinna and Garrahy (2003), classroom management is necessary for a safe and functional class in addition to "…being a prerequisite that allows other effective teaching behaviours to be successful" (p.435).

Ada and Ünal (2003) state that one of the aims of classroom management is to increase the amount of time for appropriate learning activities and to enable teachers achieve their educational goals. They define classroom management as the following:

> … classroom management can be defined as a combination of the acts such as making the necessary changes in student behaviour, changing the inappropriate behaviour, being able to create a positive psychosocial environment in the classroom, being able to create and maintain an effective organization and being able to use the time effectively.
>
> (p.29)

A similar definition comes from Karip (2002) who refers classroom management to the actions taken "…so as to provide an appropriate learning environment in the classroom while taking points such as the physical arrangement of the classroom, people management, time management, and providing student motivation into consideration" (p.1). Aydın (2004) also describes classroom management as "… the activities attempting to provide an effective learning and communication design" (p.15). Aydın further states that managing a classroom then requires being aware of the variables affecting education such as the teacher, the student, the school itself, the curriculum, the class atmosphere, the family and the environment.

In an attempt to define classroom management, Balay (2003) states that classroom management is "…the management of classroom activities with the students and for the students so as to provide an effective learning" (p.19). Başar (2004) gives the description of classroom management as "the management of a group of people with similar properties" (p.6). Nevertheless, Başar argues that classroom management cannot be solely considered as the act of providing a disciplined environment where students are silently listening.

Other definitions of classroom management focus on the relationship between the teacher as an effective manager and well-managed classrooms. In the related literature it is possible to see that there is a well-developed body of evidence which shows that a major role of the teacher is to make effective use of classroom management techniques such as setting rules, keeping eye contact, using praise, beginning and ending lessons effectively, being clear, assertive and brief when instructing, preventing misbehaviour and so forth (i.e., Long and Frye (1985 cited in Marzano *et al.* 2003), Wragg (1993), Brophy (1999), Visser (2000) and Emmer, Evertson, Worsham (2003 cited in Marzano *et al.* 2003)).

One of the educators, Marland (1993) asserts that a good teacher is a good classroom manager and he supports the idea that whatever subject matter or skill is being employed, managing the classroom is the first task of a teacher. According to Marland, managing the classroom involves "…planning of the environment, planning of the time, the relating of the curriculum content to specific learning activities, the organization of study materials, and the control of the group" (p.7). In addition to these, as Marland comments, classroom management involves the teacher's own voice and manner.

Another comment comes from Brophy (1999) who insists that "…teachers who establish and maintain effective learning environments are more successful than teachers who emphasize their roles as authority figures or disciplinarians" (p.48). Brophy continues as follows:

> The key to successful management is the teacher's ability to maximize the time students spend actively engaged in worthwhile academic activities and to minimize the time spend waiting for activities to get started, making

> transition between activities… good classroom management does not just imply that the teacher elicits the students' cooperation in minimizing misconduct and intervening effectively when misconduct occurs; it also implies that worthwhile learning activities occur more or less continuously and that the management system as a whole is designed to maximize students, engagement in those activities. The learning activities are planned and implemented effectively, and the management interventions made during and between these activities support their continuity and impact, restoring student engagement in learning activities in ways that do not disrupt the flow of the activities themselves.
>
> (pp.48-49)

Similarly, Visser (2000) believes in the existence of a relationship between being an effective teacher and an effective classroom manager. He states that "…the better managed the relationship, the greater the satisfaction for the teacher in a job well done and the greater learner's achievements" (p.4). Justifying the same perspective, Visser further states that "…classrooms without teacher-managed behaviour tend to be chaotic places where little academic learning takes place and where teacher's stress levels are high" (p.5). While giving a clear definition of the term, Wragg (1993) discusses the same issue as the following:

> Inability to manage classes skilfully is often the single most common reason for failure of teaching practice…. Fear of being unable to control a class is often the greatest anxiety of student teachers before teaching practice. The management of people, time, and resources is right at the heart of human skill in a variety of occupations, not just teaching. Those who waste resources, fritter away time or alienate their work mates or their customers are often a source of intense irritation. In teaching, the ability to use time skilfully, to win the support of children and to make use of often what are scarce resources lies at the heart of professional competence. Time devoted to improving class management is time well spent.
>
> (p.4)

Highlighting the importance of classroom management both for the teachers and the students Fontana (1994) comments as follows:

> By management I mean the way in which individual teachers organize their approach to learning and organize the classroom as an aid to that learning.

> Through good management, teachers are able to present themselves... good management allows the students get a clear picture of what's going on and what is expected of them, and allows them to see more clearly the consistent consequences of their own behaviour, both desirable and undesirable. It also allows teachers think more clearly about their own work, to identify more accurately the successful and unsuccessful strategies in their teaching repertoire, and to make changes as they appear necessary. … good classroom management also helps the teacher focus more clearly upon the task in hand, maintain a more accurate picture of what's going on in the classroom and develop a more positive and confident image of professional competence.
>
> (pp. 122-123)

Emphasizing the critical role of classroom management in education and underlying the significant roles teachers play in establishing and maintaining an effective learning environment Marzano *et al.* (2003) add the following:

> Teachers play various roles in a typical classroom, but surely one of the most important is that of classroom manager. Effective teaching and learning can not take place in a poorly managed classroom. If students are disorderly and disrespectful, and no apparent rules and procedures guide behaviour, chaos becomes the norm. In these situations, both students and teachers suffer. Teachers struggle to teach, and students most likely learn less than they should. In contrast, well- managed classrooms provide an environment in which teaching and learning can flourish. But a well-managed classroom doesn't just appear out of nowhere. It takes a good deal of effort to create-and the person who is most responsible for creating is the teacher.
>
> (p.1)

Kellough and Kellough (1996 in Martin *et al.* 1998) define effective classroom management as "the process of organizing and conducting a classroom so that it maximizes student learning" (p.91). Finally, Larrivee (2005) lists the following assumptions about what constitutes effective classroom management:

> "Effective classroom management begins with teacher self-awareness, self-control and self-reflection, not with the students", "Effective classroom management supports a climate for teaching and learning that validates and accommodates the psychological, emotional, sociocultural, and academic needs of both teachers and students", "Effective classroom management is

> a reflective, purposeful and caring way of interacting with students", "Effective classroom management models democratic values. The teacher's role is to help students internalize these values and learn that freedom is tied to responsibility" and "Effective classroom management is much more than a compilation of skills and strategies. It's a deliberate philosophical and ethical code of conduct".
>
> (pp.8-9)

Looking at the definitions of classroom management presented above, it can be stated that classroom organization and classroom management lie at the heart of the teaching and learning process as it is a prerequisite for establishing and maintaining an effective learning environment.

Several definitions for classroom management provided by many experts and educators have been defined so far. Along with this information, to gain a better understanding of how classroom management strategies developed throughout ages, a brief history of the research regarding classroom management was presented in the following section.

C. A Brief History of Classroom Management Research

Classroom management with its various components is a vast area to investigate. The research on classroom management is well developed as there have been several studies on the way teachers manage their classrooms. (i.e., Kounin; 1970, Sanford and Evertson; 1981, Long and Frye; 1985 in Marzano 2003, Brophy; 1999, Doyle; 1983 in Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcalf; 2003, Fenwick; 1998 and Emmer, Evertson, Worsham; 2003 in Marzano 2003).

1. Early studies of classroom management from the 70s to late 80s

Traditionally, classroom management has been focused on how teachers react after students misbehave. The emphasis was on discipline, or as Wolfgang & Kelsay (1995 in Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcalf 2003) explain "…the specific actions teachers or others take in response to a student who disobeys a reasonable classroom or school rule"

(p.381). In the 1970s, research in the related area shifted attention from reactive disciplinary strategies to proactive or preventive, views of classroom management.

As stated earlier, classrooms are ecological systems in which a set of inhabitants (teachers and students) interact within a specific environment (classroom) to complete valued tasks. As Arends (1997) briefly explains, one approach to studying classroom management has its roots in the so-called *ecological* view of classroom life. From this point of view "…a teacher's major function is to plan and orchestrate well conceived activities that flow smoothly and student misbehaviour is conceived as actions that disrupt this activity flow" (p.39).

Taking the above mentioned view as the basis of his studies, one of the first researchers who conducted regular studies on classroom management was Jacob Kounin whose primary concern was to find out how order and discipline were established and maintained in classrooms. Thus, in his researches he mainly focused on the impact of teacher behaviour on students. By analyzing several video recordings of lessons he concluded that one of the primary differences between effective versus ineffective managers was not in how they handled disruptive behaviour of students, but in disposition of the teacher to quickly and accurately identify the potential problem and take the necessary measures immediately. In Kounin's terms this is *withitness*, "…the only thing that correlated with management success" (p.7).

The results of his study also revealed that teachers who could maintain good activity flow, who were "with it", and who used concepts he labelled 'overlappingness", 'smoothness', and 'momentum' all appeared to increase student work involvement.

As Kounin (1970) states, some of the dimensions that made a difference in student behaviour are as follows:

> …withitness (demonstrating that she knew what was going on), overlapping (attending two issues simultaneously); transition smoothness (absence of dangles, flip-flops and thrusts); and programming for learning related variety in seat work.
>
> (p.74)

As Marzano *et al.* (2003) stress, of the four-dimensions, 'withitness' is the one that consistently separates the excellent managers from the average or below-average classroom managers (p.5).

Apart from Kounin studies which started in the late 1960, the Texas studies of the 1980s provided rich source of data for classroom management. As stated in Arends (1997), and Marzano *et al.* (2003), Texas studies conducted by researchers such as Edmund Emmer, Carolyn Evertson, Julia Sanford and a number of their colleagues in the late 1970s and early 1980s provided valuable information. The data collection instrument used in Texas studies was observation and after careful observation sessions, researchers like Emmer, Evertson and Anderson (1980 cited in Marzano 2003, Arends 1997) discovered that effective classroom managers started their school years differently than less effective teachers. The results of their study also indicated that more effective managers were sensitive to student needs and concerns during the first few days of school. In addition, they stated that more effective teachers exhibited better listening and affective skills.

While Emmer, Evertson and Anderson (1980 in Marzano *et al*.) were looking at the stability between beginning of the year management effectiveness and what happened later on, another researcher in the same group was in an attempt to identify effective classroom management behaviours. The results of Sanford's studies (1980 cited in Arends 1997) revealed that the more effective classroom managers had procedures that governed student talk, participation, movement, turning in work, and what to do during instructional downtimes. In addition, it was found out that in effective managers' classrooms all activities run smoothly and efficiently. Last but not least, the results of her study indicated that effective managers had very clear work requirements and monitored student progress carefully (p.40).

Sanford and Evertson (1981) conducted their studies in a high school. By observing and taking detailed notes describing all classroom activities and interactions, the identification of more or less effective teachers was made. The results of the study indicated that the effective teacher spent more time presenting rules and procedures the first day than the less effective teacher. The second finding of their study was that the effective teacher was consistent in desisting any off-task behaviour whereas the less

effective teacher was unaware of some misbehaviour and ignored constant social talks, inappropriate comments and so forth. In addition, the results revealed that the effective teacher had clear instructions and directions whereas in less effective teacher's class a lot of confusion was noted. In addition, the effective teacher had good understanding of his/her students' abilities, interests and background whereas the less effective teacher was unaware of the very low academic level of her class. Another finding of their study was that the effective teacher stressed accountability for work more than the less effective teacher. Finally, it was found out that the effective teacher had better time-use strategies than the less effective one (pp. 35-37).

Another striking study in this field was conducted by Brophy and Evertson (1976). In their study, a comparison of exceptional teachers with average teachers was made. The results of the study revealed that from a wide variety of teaching behaviours classroom management was found out to be the most critical aspect of effective teaching (p.5). Brophy and Evertson (1976) revealed the findings of their study as the following:

> …. Probably the most important point to bear in mind is that almost all surveys of teacher effectiveness report that classroom management skills are of primary importance in determining teaching success, whether it is measured by student learning or by ratings. Thus, management skills are crucial and fundamental. A teacher who is grossly inadequate in classroom management skills is probably not going to accomplish much.
>
> (p.5)

Another researcher who conducted a study was Doyle. The results of Doyle's (1983 in Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcalf 2003) study revealed that curriculum and daily academic work are an integral part of classroom management because they can motivate students, engage them in challenging activities and thinking, and prevent them from drifting into misbehaviour (p.382).

2. Recent studies of Classroom Management from the early 90s - onwards

Admittedly, the Kounin and Texas studies have had significant influences on the way educators approach classroom management as they produced various recommendations and guidelines so as to create and maintain well- managed classrooms where effective teachers open the path for effective learning. Subsequent studies by other investigators have also elaborated on their findings.

A comprehensive study by Wang, Haertel, and Walberg (1993 in Larrivee 2005) indicated that classroom management was rated first in terms of its impact on student achievement. Another study by Brophy (1996 cited in Marzano 2003) which involved in-depth interviews with and observations of effective and ineffective teachers revealed that effective teachers tended to employ different types of strategies with different types of students whereas ineffective managers used the same strategies regardless of the type of student or situation.

The study by Fenwick (1998) aimed to examine what teachers believed they managed in their daily work and how teachers use and think about strategies in management. The results of the study revealed that one of the first dimensions was the management of 'space' in their classrooms. That is, as Fenwick explains, "…organizing objects, coordinating people's movement, creating the central structures determining practice,… shaping the community that unfolded the classroom" (pp.620-621). Secondly, it was found out that the teachers managed the 'energy' of the people. In other words, "… balancing the various dynamics of adolescent emotion … while stimulating student interest and maintaining a flow of engagement in classroom activity" (p.621). Finally, teachers were found out to be managing the 'self'. According to Fenwick (1998), managing the self is crucial to teacher effectiveness as it is "…the ability to shape a strong but flexible teacher identity in relation to students" (p.621).

Other researchers, who focused on teachers' classroom management strategies, yet from a different point of view, were Martin and Baldwin (1998). The studies they conducted primarily interrogated the relationship between teachers' beliefs and the impact these beliefs had on teachers' classroom management. For their studies the researchers used a continuum of control prepared by Glickman and Tamashiro (1980). The continuum reflected the extend to which teachers want to exert control over students and it ranges

from interventionist to interactionalist to non-interventionist. According to Glickman and Tamashiro (1980), the non-interventionist presupposes the child has an inner drive that needs to find its expression in the real world (p.460). The interventionist, on the contrary, emphasizes what the outer environment does to human organism to cause it to develop in its particular way (p.460). Finally, the interactionalists focus on what the individual does to modify the external environment, as well as what the environment does to shape the individual (p.460).

The non-interventionalist is the least directive and controlling, while the interventionist is the most controlling. As Martin et al (1998) say "…midway between these two extremes are the interactionalists who strive to find solutions satisfactory to both the teacher and students" (p.7). As Wolfgang (1995, 1980 cited in Martin et al 1998) state, while it is assumed that teachers believe and act according to all three approaches, one usually predominates.

Investigating the differences between the beliefs of experienced and preservice teachers regarding classroom management, Martin and Baldwin (1992) found out that preservice teachers scored significantly more non-interventionist than did experienced teachers.

In another study, Martin and Baldwin (1993) interrogated the differences between the beliefs of novice and experienced teachers regarding classroom management. The results of their study revealed that novice teachers were more interventionist than the experienced ones.

Martin (2004) examined three beginning teachers' efforts to put their visions about classroom management into practice and found out that although all beginning teachers shared common conceptions of management as establishing positive environments only two beginning teachers were successful in doing so.

Turanlı (1999) investigated teachers' orientations to classroom management in relation to their management behaviours, students' responses to these behaviours and to the learning environment and how these variables are interrelated with some other classroom dynamics. The results indicated that teachers' orientations to classroom management are related to how they manage their classes, how the students respond to these behaviours and the learning environment.

Daloğlu (2002) conducted a study to investigate the perceptions of teachers on particular aspects of classroom management such as beginning the lesson, time management, lesson planning, motivating the students and student misbehaviours. The results of her study indicated that all 4 teacher groups (the trainee, the novice, the experienced I and the experienced II) regarded the amount of teaching experience and planning as important factors in classroom management (p.38). In addition, the results of her study revealed that the teachers with less teaching experience had more difficulty in motivating students. (p.62). It was also found out that teacher groups have different perceptions and strategies when coping with student misbehaviours. Last, the study revealed that pair work and group work activities are used by experienced teachers more often.

D. Models of Classroom Management

Two of the most difficult aspects of managing classrooms are stated to be managing misbehaviour and thus maintaining discipline. The literature on these aspects of the issue indicates the existence of different approaches which are based on four management models.

The first of these classroom management models is the "Reactionist model" (Jacobsen and others 1985) which proposes the use of praise and punishment to deal with the misbehaviour of the student. Thus, it can be stated that this is the most traditional classroom management method applied. As Başar (2004) exemplifies, warning a student disturbing his peers or talking to the parents of a student who has attendance problems are typical behaviours of a teacher applying this model (p.15). Nevertheless, Başar (2004) highlights that a teacher constantly applying this model to prevent misbehaviour or to deal with it is not effective in classroom management as s/he fails to apply the other models adequately.

The second classroom management model is the 'Provisionist Model' (Jacobsen and Others, 1985). As Başar (2004, p.16) explains, this model aims to provide a social classroom system which doesn't allow any misbehaviour to occur. The one and only

way to achieve and maintain such a classroom environment is through a conscious pre-planning of classrooms rules, plans and programs to prevent misbehaviour. Başar (2004) exemplifies some typical behaviours of teachers who choose to apply this model in their classrooms as talking to the parents of a student who is bound to fail before the failure itself or making the necessary changes in the lesson plans and taking students needs and interests into consideration (p.16). In both cases it is clear that the teacher is aware of the problems likely to arise and takes the necessary precautions to prevent them.

The model that follows is the 'Developmental Model'. Jacobsen (1985, p.244) categorises students' developmental stages in four phases. The first step is up to the age of 10 when the child learns the properties of a student. This is also the period when teachers' responsibilities are at peak. The second step is the period between ages 10 and 12. During this period, the students are considered more mature and more willing to please the teacher. Thus, teachers' responsibilities regarding classroom management are less than that of the first period. In the third period between ages 12-15, students may choose to be under peer pressure and they start questioning the reasons of classroom management rules. The fourth period is the high school years when students know how they should behave; the problems regarding management decrease as students are more social and aware of their social status. As Başar (2004, p.16) explains this model requires the teacher to develop an appropriate attitude matching with the students' physical and physiological development described above. The model suggests that as an effective classroom manager, the teacher should be aware of these characteristics and act accordingly as each phase in this development has different effects on the students (p.16).

In the last model of classroom management, namely the 'Integrated Model' Jacobsen (1985) suggests that finding out the main cause of misbehaviour is the one and only way to achieve the desired behaviour. As Başar (2004) states this model can be said to be the 'system model' to classroom management and the teacher is responsible for providing the appropriate environment while getting constant help and support from the school, family and friends circle (p.16).

E. Approaches to the Classroom Management

According to Burden (1995, 2003), one of the greatest challenges as a teacher is to maintain order in the classroom to achieve academic objectives. As stated earlier, Doyle (1979, 1986 cited in Burden 1995) states that "…classroom management refers to the actions and strategies teachers use to maintain order" (p.2). Burden (1995) describes order as "…order means that the students are following within acceptable limits the actions necessary for a particular classroom event to be successful…Order does not mean rigid conformity, conformity to the rules, or passive student behaviour" (p.3). In addition, Burden (2003) states that in a classroom where there is order "…students are focused on the instructional tasks and are not misbehaving" (p.12).

Looking at the definitions given above it can be stated that one of the biggest factors which affect the teachers' classroom management effectiveness is their ways of maintaining order. Therefore, it might be useful to have a look at the ways other educators dealt with this issue of control.

There are mainly three different approaches to classroom management. Low-teacher control approaches, medium-teacher control approaches and finally high-teacher control approaches (Burden, 1995, 2003, and Charles 2005).

Low-Teacher Control Approaches

Burden (1995, 2003), describes *low-control approaches* as those in which students have primary responsibility for controlling their own behaviour. In low-control approaches it is assumed that the students have the capability to make these decisions. Burden (2003) says that "…the teacher has the responsibility for structuring the environment to facilitate students control over their own behaviour. When determining rules, for example, teachers guide the discussion and help students recognize appropriate behaviour and select the related rules and consequences"(p.16).

Many educators have described cohesive approaches that are characteristic of the low control approach. Among those, the 'transactional analysis' of Berne and Harris

primarily dealt with communication between adults. According to Berne (1964), people have three different ego states as 'parent ego state', 'child ego state' and 'adult ego state' (p.24). Berne explains that these ego states are developed from life experiences and retained consciously and subconsciously in the brain. He adds that they are stored as if on an audiotape and then played back as situations arise. Berne describes the parent ego state as "… all the tapes stored from experiences we have had from our parents or parent substitutes when we were young… statements from the parent ego state may include 'Never tell lies', 'Don't go out alone at night'" (p.26).

Berne calls the *child ego state* as "… the responses that children make to things before they see and do. … feelings are often expressed through the child ego state, such as 'Why do I always have to clean up after you. I hate this work, and I'm not going to do it' (p.30).

In the *adult ego state*, according to Berne, "…the adult tests the rules of the parent ego state and updates and changes them if necessary…. The adult ego state helps express rational, problem solving statements" (p.38).

As Burden (1995) explains, the *transactional analysis* of Berne and Harris emphasizes that a teacher needs to remain in the adult ego state and teach his/ her students to do the same. Their approach suggests that if students are given opportunities to have their adult ego states develop they will become more rational people with an understanding of themselves and others. Also, as both the students and the teacher will be speaking from the same ego state (e.g., adult- to- adult) effective communication will be impeded (pp.38-39).

As low control approaches to classroom management view children as the ones who have the inner potential and opportunity to make decisions enabling personal growth, it is vital that students' thoughts, feelings, ideas and preferences are taken into account when dealing with instruction, management and discipline (Burden, 1995, 2003).

The second low control approaches to classroom management is Ginott's model. In the Ginott Model, Haim Ginott (1965) strongly emphasizes that adults should avoid attacks on the child's character and instead focus on the situation or actions. Ginott (1965) proposes that "…teachers maintain a secure, humanitarian and productive room through

the use of 'congruent communication' and 'appropriate use of praise'" (p.40). Ginott describes *congruent communication* as "… a harmonious and authentic oral approach in which teacher's messages to students match the students' feelings about the situations and about themselves. He further states " … in this way, teachers can avoid insulting and intimidating their students and instead express an attitude of helpfulness and acceptance while showing increased sensitivity to student needs and desires (p.40).

As Burden (2003) explains, delivering sane messages, expressing anger appropriately, inviting cooperation, accepting and acknowledging student feelings, not using sarcasm are some of the ways teachers can express 'congruent communication'(pp.16-17). Some of Ginott's principal teachings exemplified (in Charles 2005) are as follows:

> Learning always takes place in the present tense, meaning teachers must not prejudge students or hold grudges.
> Teachers at their best, use congruent communication, do not preach, moralize, impose guilt, or demand promises.
> Teachers at their worst label students, belittle them, and denigrate their character.
> Effective teachers invite cooperation from their students by describing the situation and indicating what needs to be done.
> Teachers should feel free to express their anger and other feelings, but when doing so use I- messages rather than you-messages.
> It is wise to use 'laconic language' (short, concise and brief) when responding to or redirecting student misbehaviour.
> Evaluative praise is worse than none at all and should never be used.
> Teachers should use appreciative praise when responding to effort and improvement.
> Always respect students' privacy.
> Sarcasm is almost always dangerous and should not be used when discussing situations with students.
>
> (pp.28-29)

In his review of Ginott's Model, Charles (2005) comments that although Ginott's model and his suggestions were helpful in maintaining good relationship with students, it lacked something vital; immediate solutions to deal with disruptive behaviours (p.30).

Another low control approach is Group Management Model of Redl and Wattenberg who presented the first theory-based approach to discipline. As Charles (2005) says their model of management was designed specifically to help teachers understand and deal

considerately with group misbehaviour and the effects it had on individual students (p.22).

Through their observations Redl and Wattenberg find out that students behave differently in groups than they do individually. Redl and Wattenberg (1972 in Burden 1995) view the group as an 'entire organism' and state that "… group expectations influence individual behaviour and individual behaviour affects the group" (p.42).

Redl and Wattenberg further state that as groups create their own psychological forces which affect individual behaviour, teachers need to be aware of group dynamics in order to maintain effective control. Redl and Watternberg (cited in Burden 2003) underline the importance of the group dynamics and they add "…these group dynamics are unwritten codes of conduct, and when the group's code of conduct runs counter to that of the teacher, conflicts can occur" (p.18).

Another factor which affects the group behaviour is how the group perceives the teacher and the roles the teacher plays. Redl and Watternberg exemplify that the teacher might have a role as "…helper in learning, friend, detective, referee, ego supporter, or other roles…in the group management model it is highly important that the teachers remain consistent with the roles they assume (p. 42).

As Charles (2005) mentions, although Redl and Watternberg contributed to the modern classroom management, their approach was never put widely into practice. As Charles comments, "… teachers couldn't seem to get a handle on the concept and implications of group dynamics, nor did they understand how to deal with the roles that they and students assumed in the group" (p.23).

In sum, some of Redl and Wattenberg's principal teachings (cited in Charles 2005) are as the following:

> People in groups behave differently than they do individually.
> Group dynamics, forces generated by and within groups, produce the group currents that strongly affect behaviour.
> Students adopt identifiable roles in the classroom.
> Teachers are also cast into many different roles that affect student behaviour.
> Teachers should involve students in setting class standards and deciding how transgressions should be handled.

> Teachers should use influence techniques rather than punishment to control behaviour.
> Punishment is a last resort when dealing with misbehaviour.
>
> (pp.22-23)

The fourth low control approach is Discipline as Self-Control. In his approach Thomas Gordon (1991 cited in Burden 2003), maintains that "…effective discipline cannot be achieved through rewards and punishments, but rather through techniques to promote students' own self-control" (p.19). Gordon proposed approaches to help students make positive decisions, become more self-reliant, and control their own behaviour. He pointed out that teachers' job is to create an environment where students can make decisions about their behaviour. The following lines briefly explain his classroom management philosophy:

> Dr. Gordon's classroom management philosophy is based on a belief that traditional power-based methods of discipline are ineffective in the long run. Punitive methods--besides not being a guarantee that "misbehaviours" won't be repeated--often are the cause of problems ranging from rebellion to withdrawal. Praise and reward, too, are ineffective as students learn to work only for rewards and not true learning, or ignore praise they feel undeserving of.
> (http://www.gordontraining.com/schools-classroom-philosophy.html)

Some of Gordon's principles (1974, 1987, and 1989 cited in Charles 2005) are listed as the following:

> Teachers should try to influence students rather than control them
> Teachers should use I-messages (statements in which people tell how they personally think or feel about another's behaviour and its consequences) when attempting to influence students.
> Teachers shouldn't use You-messages (statements of blame levelled at someone's behaviour) when attempting to influence students.
> Participative classroom management makes students more inclined to abide by rules they have helped formulate. (Students share in problem solving and decision-making concerning the classroom, desirable behaviour and class rules)
>
> (pp.33-34)

According to Charles (2005), Gordon's greatest contribution to classroom management was 'collaborative classroom management', a concept widely emphasized in all application models of classroom management and discipline, "…in which students and teacher jointly plan and make decisions about certain aspects of classroom, curriculum, and procedures….includes using a style of management that motivates students, encourages them to take risks, and helps them conduct themselves responsibly" (p.35).

The low-control approach that follows is the Teaching with Love and Logic Approach by Jim Fay and David Funk. In a similar attempt to create a classroom environment in which students can develop their own discipline and independent problem solving skills, Fay and Funk (1995 cited in Burden 2003) suggest the following:

> …if a teacher maintains the student's self-concept, if control is shared with the students, if the consequences are balanced with empathy and if the thinking is shared by questions and modelling, the students will be given the ability to solve their own problems and the chances of creating an environment where the students have the opportunity to make such decisions will be higher.
>
> (p.20)

According to Charles (2005), this approach gives students "…considerable credit for having the ability to solve their own problems, and teachers create an environment where students have the opportunity to make such decisions" (p.20).

Another approach emphasizing the issue of guiding students so as to make their own decisions and take responsibility for their choices is the Inner Discipline Approach by Barbara Coloroso. In her model Coloroso (1994 in Burden 2003) proposes that "…if students are treated with respect and dignity and if they are given the opportunities to make their own decisions, the students will be able to develop their inner discipline" (p. 21). Coloroso defines *inner discipline* as students' learning how to think and reason, and thus taking responsibility for themselves. As Charles (2005) mentions, in order to have well-managed classrooms teachers who follow Coloroso's approach must do three things which are presented below:

> "Treat students with respect and dignity", "Give them a sense of positive power over their own lives", "Give then opportunities to make decisions, take responsibility for their actions, and learn from their success and mistakes"
>
> (p.148)

The last low-control approach is Alfie Kohn's From Discipline to Community Approach. Criticizing many of the programs that offer well- managed classrooms for merely focusing on handling and training children rather than promoting meaningful learning environments, Kohn (1996) proposes to make the classroom a 'community' and describes 'community' as the following:

> In saying that classroom is a 'community' then I mean that it is a place in which students feel cared about and are encouraged to care about each other. They experience a sense of being valued and respected… they feel connected to each other; they are part of an "us". And as a result of all this, they feel safe in their classes, not only physically but emotionally.
>
> (pp.101-102)

In the introduction of his book Beyond Discipline: From Compliance to Community, Kohn (1996) interrogates the term 'classroom management' and states the following:

> 'Management' is a term borrowed from business, of course, with overtones of directing and controlling employees. Like, discipline, it seems relevant to 'groups of strangers rather than to people who are working together as a community". In fact the uncritical use of such terms reflects a willingness to accept some troubling assumptions about the relative roles and rights of those who are managing vis-a vis those who are managed. The fact that classroom management systems rarely prove satisfactory over the long run should lead us to consider the whole enterprise of managing… thus I want my educators to move beyond discipline or management.

Kohn (1996) invites educators "…to develop a sense of community in their classrooms where students are continually brought into making decisions, expressing their opinions and working cooperatively toward solutions that benefit the class" (pp.122-128).

Other strategies Kohn suggests teachers to create and maintain greater sense of community include building relationships between teachers and students, enhancing connections among students, undertaking class wide and school wide activities and using academic instruction.

As stated above, in low teacher control approach students have a high degree of autonomy while the teacher exerts a low degree of control. However, as Burden (1995) states, "…this doesn't mean that the classroom is a chaotic place for learning. There are standards that the students will develop and the teacher is ultimately responsible for enforcing the standards to enable learning to take place in an orderly environment" (p. 38).

Medium-Teacher Control Approaches

As Burden (2003) explains, "…medium control approaches are based on the belief that development comes from a combination of innate and outer forces…the control of student behaviour is a joint responsibility of the student and the teacher" (p.23). In medium control approaches, the teacher places the needs of the group as a whole over the needs of the individual students. That is, the student's feelings, thoughts, ideas and preferences are taken into account when dealing with instruction, classroom management and discipline, but the ultimate focus is on meeting the academic needs of the group (p.23).

As stated in the previous section, the first regular research conducted on the way teachers managed their classrooms was by Kounin who later became known for his detailed investigations into the effects of classroom management and lesson management on student behaviour. According to Burden (1995), Kounin's work on lesson and group management falls into the medium teacher control category.

Kounin (1971 cited in Charles 2005) describes what teachers should understand about operating their classrooms:

> …the business of running a classroom is a complicated technology having to do with developing a nonsatiating learning program; programming for progress, challenge, and variety in learning activities; initiating and

> maintaining movement in classroom tasks with smoothness and momentum, coping with more than one event simultaneously; observing and omitting feedback fro many different events; directing actions at appropriate targets, maintaining a focus upon a group; and doubtless other techniques not measured in these researches.
>
> (pp.144-145)

Some of Kounin's principal teachings (in Charles 2005) are as follows:

> Teachers need to know what is going on in all parts of the classroom (withitness)
> Good lesson momentum keeps students on track
> Smoothness in lesson presentation keeps students involved.
> Effective teachers have systems for gaining student attention and clarifying expectations.
> Teachers good in behaviour management are able to attend to or more events simultaneously.
> Effective teachers see it to that students are not overexposed to a particular topic.
> Effective teachers make instructional activities enjoyable and challenging.

As Charles (2005) states, although Kounin's principal teachings provided valuable service in drawing attention to the close connection between teacher effectiveness, student behaviour and classroom management, teachers found little in his work that helped prevent disruptive student behaviour.

Another medium-teacher control approach is Dreikur's Logical Consequences Approach. As Burden (2003) explains, "…at the heart of his suggestions is the use of logical consequences, events arranged by the teacher that are directly and logically related to the behaviour" (p.24).

According to Dreikur (1982 in Burden 2003, p.24), there are several techniques teachers can use to establish and maintain well-organized classes where disruptive behaviours don't occur. Dreikur suggests teachers first identify the goal of the misbehaviour to heighten the student's awareness of the motives for the misbehaviour. Secondly, teachers should alter their reactions to the misbehaviour. Thirdly, teachers should provide encouragement statements to students. However, Dreikur warns teachers not to confuse encouragement with praise as praise is an expression of teacher approval after a

student has gained something whereas encouragement consists of actions that acknowledge student work. Finally, Dreikur suggests teachers use logical consequences. As explained in Burden (2003), a logical consequence is "… an event that is arranged by the teacher that is directly and logically related to the misbehaviour" (p.24). An example of a logical consequence is when a student breaks the rule of speaking out without raising his or her hand and when the teacher ignores the response and calls on a student whose hand is up.

Some of Dreikur's principal teachings (in Charles 2005) are presented as the following:

> Discipline is at its best seen in student self-control based on social interest
> Good discipline occurs best in a democratic classroom.
> Good discipline cannot occur in autocratic classrooms (where teacher makes all decisions and imposes them on students) or permissive classrooms (where the teacher fails to require that students comply with the rules and endure consequences for their misbehaviour.
> Almost all students have a primary compelling desire to feel they are a valued member of the class that they belong. This sense of belonging is the genuine goal of most school behaviour.
> Teachers should learn how to identify mistaken goals and deal with them.
> Rule for governing class behaviour should be formulated jointly by teacher and students. Associated with those rules should be logical consequences for compliance and violation.
> Punishment should never be used in the classroom.
>
> (pp.31-32)

According to Charles (2005), one of the greatest contributions Dreikur made in the field of classroom management and discipline is the awareness of the interconnections between "…democracy, prime motive, mistaken goals, social interest and logical consequences" (p.32). Nevertheless, as Charles (2005) mentions, teachers found his approach lacking "…in the ingredient they most wanted, namely, what to do to put an immediate stop to student disruptions, aggression and defiance (p.33).

Based largely on the philosophy and psychology of Alfred Adler and Rudolf Dreikurs, Linda Albert (1996) developed a classroom management and discipline plan called 'cooperative discipline' which is founded on three concepts of behaviour. Burden (2003) indicates these three concepts as the following:

….Students choose their behaviours
The ultimate goal of student behaviour is to fulfil the need to belong
Students misbehave to achieve one of four immediate goals (attention, power, revenge, avoidance of failure).
(p.25)

Albert (1996 in Charles 2005) offers a number of strategies to implement her cooperative plan. Some of her principal teachings are as the following:

Students need to feel they belong in the classroom.
When students misbehave, their goal is usually either to gain attention, gain power, exact revenge, or avoid failure.
Teachers can only influence student misbehaviour, they cannot directly control it.
Teachers in general reflect three styles of classroom management: permissive, autocratic and democratic.
The three C's- capable, connect, contribute- are essential in helping students feel a sense of belonging.
Teachers should work cooperatively with students to develop a classroom code of conduct.
Teachers should also work cooperatively with students to develop a set of consequences to be invoked when the classroom code of conduct is transgressed.
When conflicts occur between teacher and students, the teacher should remain calm and relaxed.
Encouragement is the most powerful teaching tool available to teachers.
(p.201)

In an analysis of Albert's Cooperative Discipline Approach, Charles (2005) mentions some strengths of the model as the following:

Cooperative discipline powerfully helps students achieve their ultimate goal of belonging, which in turn reduces the amount of misbehaviour…. It can be put into effect at any time. Teacher and class, working together, envision an environment that would meet their needs. They identify specific behaviours that would contribute to such an environment as well as behaviours that would work against it…. Teachers and students jointly decide on the consequences to be invoked for violations of the standards they have agreed to, remembering that consequences should be related to specific misbehaviours. They write out the agreement, which becomes known as the

> classroom code of conduct. Before it is finalized, copies of codes are sent to parents for input and support…When serious violations of the code occur, procedures of conflict resolution are applied. All the while, teachers make ongoing efforts to help students feel capable, connected with others and contributors to the class and elsewhere.
>
> (p.214)

Similar to Albert and Dreikur, Nelsen, Lott and Glenn (1997 in Burden 2003) believe that classrooms can be managed only when there is an environment that encourages rather than discourages and humiliates. In Positive Discipline, issues such as kindness, respect, firmness and encouragement are considered as the main ingredients.

The following illustrates their point:

> Students need to perceive themselves as capable, significant, and in control of their own lives.
> Teachers must show they truly care about their students.
> Teachers demonstrate caring by showing personal interest, talking with students, offering encouragement, and providing opportunities to learn important life skills.
> Class meetings should emphasize participation by everyone, group resolution of problems, and win- win solutions.
>
> (p.113)

As Charles (2005) points out, Positive Discipline in the Classroom is intended to "… empower students at all levels to become more successful, not only in the classroom but also in all walks of life (p.113). Charles adds that although they provide several suggestions and cautions, their approach to classroom management and discipline is not highly structured. This, according to Charles, "…can be seen as a strength by teachers who like the ideas but want to make them part of their personal style of teaching… its benefits may not be realized immediately, but over time they will be effective and lasting" (p.124).

Other medium-teacher control approaches to classroom management and discipline include 'Noncoercive Discipline' (also known as Reality Therapy) by William Glasser, 'Discipline with Dignity' by Curwin and Mendler and 'Judicious Discipline' by Forrest Gathercoal.

In Noncoercive Discipline, Glasser maintains that solutions to problems in the classrooms could best be found in the present. As Charles (2005, p.75) states, Glasser believes that improvement in areas such as classroom management, education and discipline can only be accomplished by changing the way classrooms function. Glasser also asserts that the nature of school management must be changed so as to meet students' needs and promote effective learning. One of his suggestions is to provide a naturally attractive curriculum. According to Glasser (in Charles 2005), activities that attract student interest, involve students actively, provide enjoyment and lead to meaningful accomplishments will help most learning difficulties and behaviour problems disappear.

To conclude, Glasser finds much fault with the curriculum and believes that it is one of the major causes of management problems in classroom. Glasser further states that if teachers provide a warm and supportive classroom climate, if they use lead teaching (teachers who provide a stimulating learning environment and help them as much as possible) rather than boss teaching (teachers who dictate procedures and order students to work), if they ask students only to do work that is useful and ask students to evaluate and improve work they have done, their teaching can be Quality teaching.

In Discipline with Dignity' by Richard Curwin and Allen Mendler, the central focus is on establishing a classroom management system based on maximizing student dignity and hope (Charles, 2005, p.130). By 'dignity', one's respect for life and for oneself is mentioned. Also, 'hope' (cited in Charles, 2005) is defined as "…the belief that things will be better in the future… it inspires one and helps one live meaningfully" (p.133).

According to Curwin and Mendler (1999 in Burden 2003), chaos in the classroom may be the result of "…student boredom, feelings of powerlessness unclear limits and attacks on dignity (p.27). To create an effective learning environment, Curwin and Mendler have developed a plan dealing with prevention, action and resolution. In Burden (2003) the plan is explained as the following:

> The prevention dimension focuses on what teacher can do to actively prevent discipline problems and how to deal with the stress associated with classroom disruptions. The action dimension deals with actions the teacher

> can take when misbehaviour occurs. The resolution dimension addresses the ways teachers can resolve problems with chronic rule breakers and more extreme, out of control students.
>
> (p.28)

Some of the points that provide functionality in Curwin and Mendler's approach (1999 in Charles 2005) to classroom management and discipline are identified as the following:

> Let students know what you need.
> Provide instruction at levels that matches students' abilities.
> Listen to what students are thinking and feeling.
> Use humour.
> Vary your style of presentation.
> Offer choices.
> Use hugs and pats when communicating with students.
> Accept that you will not effectively help every student.
> Start fresh every day.
>
> (p.143)

Charles (2005) comments on Curwin and Mender's model as the following:

> Most teachers have found ways to deal with minor behaviour infraction such as talking, speaking out,… and failing to complete homework. But all teachers dread dealing with students whose behaviour is so unacceptable they not only disrupt learning but also threaten others. Such behaviours make teachers feel trapped and overwhelmed. Curwin and Mendler have provided realistic help for working with such students and for reducing behaviour that is hostile, aggressive and violent.
>
> (p.142)

The final medium-teacher control approach is Judicious Discipline by Gathercoal. Burden (2003) describes Gathercoal's approach as the following:

> …this model allows teachers and students relate to one another in a democratic way and teaches students about their responsibilities to other class members. When students are involved in selecting classroom rules, they will have a level of leadership required to make democratic principles operate in the classroom. … through their schooling experiences, students

> are expected to govern themselves within a social context and to learn to think for themselves and make decisions that are a blend of personal rights and social responsibilities. The classroom, therefore, serves as a model of the same system of laws under which students will live when their schooling is completed.
>
> (p.29)

Gathercoal (1990 in Burden 2003) maintains that educators must understand "…human growth and development, learning theory and classroom management as they teach their students to be democratically involved in the classroom (p.29)

High-Teacher Control Approaches

High control approaches are based on the philosophical belief that students' growth and development are the result of external conditions. Burden (1995) explains that in this approach children are considered as "…being molded and shaped by influences from the environment, they are nor seen as having an innate potential" (p.49). Therefore, as Burden (2003) states, "…teachers and adults need to select desired student behaviours, reinforce appropriate behaviours, and take actions to extinguish inappropriate behaviours (p.29).Burden (2003) continues describing the approach as the following:

> Teachers using high control approaches believe that student behaviour must be controlled because the students themselves ate not able effectively to monitor and control their own behaviour. The teachers select the rules and procedures for the classroom, commonly without student input. Teachers then reinforce desired behaviour and take action to have student stop inappropriate undesired behaviour. When misbehaviour occurs, teachers take steps to stop the disruption quickly and redirect the student to more positive behaviour. …compared to the previous models, there is more emphasis on managing the behaviour of the individuals than the group.
>
> (pp.29-30)

High teacher control approaches described in the following section are Behaviour modification by B. F. Skinner, Assertive Discipline by Lee and Marlene Canter, Positive

Classroom Discipline by Fredric Jones and finally Behaviourism and Punishment by James Dobson.

Although Skinner never concerned himself directly with issues such as classroom management and discipline, his principal teachings, primarily those concerning 'behaviour modification', are used everywhere in teaching. As Burden (2003) explains, behaviour modification is "a technique that uses reinforcement and punishment to shape behaviour" (p.30).

Some of Skinner's principal teachings (in Charles 2005) are as follows:

> Much if not most of our voluntary behaviour is shaped as we receive reinforcement immediately after we perform an act.
> If stimuli are to have a reinforcing effect on behaviour, they must be received soon after the behaviour occurs.
> Behaviour modification refers to the overall procedure of shaping student behaviour intentionally through reinforcement.
> Constant reinforcement, given every time a student behaves as desired, help new learning becomes established.
> Behaviours that are not reinforced eventually disappear or become extinguished.
> Punishment often has negative effects in behaviour modification and hence is not used in the classroom.
>
> (pp.24-25)

Although at first Skinner's behaviour modification was found to be unusually effective by teachers in promoting desired behaviour, it soon made teachers worry that reinforcing might simply be bribing students to behave properly. In addition, even it was effective teaching students the appropriate classroom behaviours, it failed to teach them not to do in classrooms.

Kohn (1996) criticizes Skinner's views which he calls "…odd, shrunken view what is to be human" (p.69). Kohn discusses the issue as the following:

> … Even to aim at getting certain behaviours from students is problematic. To focus on changing student *acts* virtually guarantee the use of carrots and sticks, which manipulate actions. Or to put it the other way round, the techniques of applied Behaviourism suggest a tacit reliance on behaviourist theory. … we are nothing more than repertoires of behaviours, that can, in turn, be completely explained in terms of things outside of us

> (environmental contingencies)… any time educators frame the issue in terms of the need to change a child's behaviour, they are unwittingly buying into a larger theory, one that excludes what many of us argue that the things really matter: the child's thoughts, feelings, needs and perspectives, motives and values- the things in short that result in certain behaviours. The behaviour is only the surface phenomenon; what matters is the person who behaves…and *why* she does so.
>
> (pp.68-69)

The second high teacher control approach is the Assertive Discipline by Lee and Marlene Canter. In their recent Assertive Discipline plan Canter and Canter (2001) maintain that the teachers' assertive attitude is necessary to deal with classroom management and discipline. Canter and Canter further explain that an assertive teacher is a teacher "…who is willing and able to set consistent, positive behavioural limits while providing warmth and support to students for their appropriate behaviour" (p.7). Canter and Canter add that the words and actions of an assertive teacher send the following message to students:

> I am committed to being the leader in this classroom, a leader who will establish an environment in which I can teach and my students can learn. To reach this goal, I am committed to teaching my students the behaviour they need to allow them to succeed in school. In turn, I will guide them to make choices that lead to success in life.
>
> (pp.7-8)

According to Canter and Canter (2001), the whole purpose of keeping behaviour problems in the classroom to a minimum is "…to create for students an environment conducive to creativity and achievement (p.1). Thus, the primary goal of assertive discipline is to teach students to choose responsible behaviour and in doing so raise their self esteem and increase their academic success.

The Canters' model focuses on establishing a classroom climate in which students needs are met, behaviour is managed humanly and learning occurs as intended. In order to establish and maintain such classrooms Canters (2001) advise teachers to follow their principal teachings which are presented below:

> The most effective teachers are those who remain in control of the class while always remembering that their main duty is to help students learn and behave responsibly.
> A good discipline plan is necessary for helping students limit their counterproductive behaviour.
> Teachers should practice positive repetitions (positive statements to students who are complying with class rules).
> Teachers can successfully teach the majority of students typically thought of as difficult to manage (by reaching out to those students, learning about their needs, interacting with them personally and showing a constant willingness to help).
> Teachers are most effective when they use a proactive rather than a reactive, approach to discipline (in reactive approach the teacher waits until misbehaviour occurs and then decides how to handle the situation whereas in proactive approach the teacher anticipates student misbehaviour and applies the plan she already has to deal with the matter).

The Canters (2001) also emphasize that a discipline plan works effectively only if teachers teach that plan to their students. They state that teachers should explain the necessity for rules, teach the specific ones, check for understanding and teach how corrective actions are taken.

Although Charles (2005) supports Canters' model of classroom management and discipline and claims that "…their approach has broken new ground in several ways such as effectiveness, ease of implementation, meeting teachers' and students' needs…." (p.51), Kohn (1996) argues that the overriding goal is merely to get students do whatever they are told without question. Kohn stresses that the model is not terribly effective and supports this by giving examples from published research which proves that the technique has no meaningful effect at all (Emmer and Aussiker 1990, Render, Padilla and Krank 1989). Kohn further criticizes the belief that the teacher should be in control of the classroom and the principal objective is to get students to comply (p.58) and debates that "desirable outcomes are harder to achieve if we rely on bribes and threats" (p.62). Kohn challenges the issue as the following:

> Trying to keep control of the classroom and get compliance, as virtually every discipline program assures us, is inimical to our ultimate objectives. What we have to face is that the more we manage students' behaviour and

> try to make them do what we say, [sic] *the more difficult it is for them to become morally sophisticated people who think for themselves and care about themselves.*
>
> (p.62)

Kohn (1996) opposes the view in which students are seen as "passive receptacles into which knowledge is poured" and claims that "…skills are acquired in the course of arriving at that deep personal understanding" (p. 66), something which programs like Assertive Discipline underestimate.

Being the first to place major emphasis on the importance of 'nonverbal communication' such as the teachers' body language, facial expressions, gestures, eye contact and physical proximity, Fredric Jones emphasizes the importance of good classroom management and stresses the importance of teaching students to behave responsibly. The approach advocated by Jones is called as 'Say, See, Do Teaching'; an approach which calls for frequent student response, thus ensuring attention and active participation (Charles 2005, p.56).

Jones (in Charles 2005) asserts that the best way to manage behaviour problems is to prevent their occurrence, something which can be accomplished by providing a classroom structure that gives specific attention to room arrangement, class rules and routines to begin class (p.59).

According to Jones (in Charles 2005), efficient arrangement of the classroom improves the likelihood of successful teaching and learning. Another important issue in maintaining successful classrooms is the teachers' proper use of body language, including eye contact, facial expressions, gestures and body carriage. In addition, as John points out, students will work hard and behave well when given incentives to do so. Finally, Jones states that the goal of management and discipline is for students to assume responsibility for their own actions (p.57).

Although Charles (2003), Burden (1995) find Jones model of classroom management and discipline effective in terms of preventing misbehaviour and supporting proper behaviour, Kohn (1996) on the contrary, argues especially against the use of incentives in Jones' model. Kohn (1996) has the following to say about the issue:

> Like punishments, rewards warp the relationship between adult and child… in neither case we have established a caring alliance, a connection based on warmth and respect. Like punishments rewards try to make bad behaviours disappear through manipulation. They are ways of doing things *to* students instead of working *with* them… make no mistake: the issue is not which reward or punishment we use, or how such a program is implemented…the problem rests with the very nature of these basic tools of traditional discipline.
>
> (p.36)

Below is a table summarizing the three theories of classroom management as elaborated on Levin and Nolan's (2000) summary table of theories of classroom management:

Table 2

Theories of Classroom Management

Question	Student- directed	Collaborative	Teacher-directed
Primary responsibility for management	Student	Joint	Teacher
Goal of management	Caring community focus and self-direction	Respectful relationships, academic focus	Well organized, efficient, academic focus
Time spent on management	Valuable and productive	Valuable for individual but not for group	Wasted
Relationships within management system	Caring, personal relationships	Respect for each other	Non-interference with each others rights
Provision of student choice	Wide latitude and freedom	Choices within teacher defined options	Very limited
Primary goal in handling misbehaviour	Unmet need to be explored	Minimize in group, pursue individually	Minimize disruption, redirect
Interventions used	Individual conference, group problem solving, restitution, natural consequences	Coping skills, natural and logical consequences, anecdotal record keeping	Clear communication, rewards and punishments, behaviour contracting
Individual differences	Extremely important	Somewhat important	Minor importance
Teacher power bases	Referent, expert	Expert, legitimate	Reward, coercive
Theorists	Charney, Faber and Mazlish, Gordon, Kohn, Putnam and Burke	Curwin and Mendler, Dreikurs, Glasser	Axelrod, Cangelosi, Canter, Valentine

Source: Levin and Nolan (2000, p.92)

To sum up, many educators, psychiatrists and psychologists have contributed to the issue of creating a successful learning community by approaching it from different angles. Some like Ginott, Redl and Wattenberg, Gordon, Fay and Funk, Coloroso and Kohn emphasized the significance of maximized communication between the teacher and the students whereas some like Dreikurs, Albert, Nelsen, Lott and Glenn, Glasser, Curwin and Mendler and Gathercoal underlined the importance of involving students in their own decisions. Unlike the proponents of low-teacher control and medium teacher control approaches to classroom management and discipline, the proponents of high

teacher control approaches asserted that teaching the desired behaviour by establishing behaviour modifications or consequences, setting clear limits and boundaries (Skinner, Canter, Canter and Jones) should be considered as the key factors leading to successful management of classrooms.

F. Classroom Management Strategies

So far in this paper several definitions of classroom management have been presented, classroom management models and approaches have been summarized and related research on classroom management was revealed in detail. The following section could be seen as an attempt to review classroom management strategies.

One of the most important areas of classroom management is discipline, or roughly a teacher's ability to control students' behaviour. As Larrivee (2005) mentions, classroom management and discipline are "…a [sic] topics of concern to everyone-teachers, parents, administrators, teacher trainers, as well as community at large" (p.1). When teachers are asked to generate synonyms for classroom management, discipline is always listed as there is a common belief that discipline is a must and no teacher can proceed to teach without first establishing classroom discipline (Mackenzie, 1996; Robertson, 1996; Kraut, 2000; Levin and Nolan, 2000; Cummings, 2000; Canter and Canter; 2001).

Fontana (1994) states that classroom control is simply the process of running an organized and effective classroom "… a classroom in which the abilities of individual children are given due opportunity for development, in which teachers can fulfil their proper function as facilitators of learning…" (p. 3). Fontana believes that children's classroom behaviour should never be considered in isolation and adds the following:

> The kind of classroom which I am speaking, therefore, is a control based upon an enlightened understanding of child behaviours, and upon a genuine interest in children and in the fostering of their psychological and academic development.
>
> (p.4).

Fontana (1994) underlines the fact that the teacher should be well-equipped to understand the reasons behind children's behaviour before taking the steps to deal with it. Piaget (1960 in Fontana 1994) suggests that until the age of 12 years the child finds it difficult to cope with certain abstract ideas. At or about the age of 12 the child of normal development passes from what Piaget called the *concrete operational stage* into the *formal operational stage* and becomes able to handle hypotheses and concepts. Fontana explains that from the perspective of classroom control, the implications of Piaget's work are that "…the teacher must be informed and sensitive as to the level of thinking at which a child is operating" (p.37).

As Fontana (1994) exemplifies, affective factors (those associated with emotions and personality) are potentially highly significant influences upon classroom behaviour. Fontana asserts that "…the teacher should be responsive to the child's emotional state and thus organize class work in such a way that emotional levels are not allowed to rise to the point at which control problems begin to manifest themselves" (p.40). In addition to the emotional states of the students, Fontana insists that the teacher should be aware of the cognitive style which contains both cognitive and affective element.

Another educator who underlines the importance of discipline in classroom is Ur. Ur (2003) highlights the fact that the relationship between discipline and learning in a lesson is a crucial one. According to Ur, in a disciplined classroom "…it is easier to activate students in the way the teachers want, and the time will probably be spent on-task, rather than organizational problems or disruptive behaviour" (p.260).

Ur gives three preventive strategies to deal with discipline problems. As Ur states, the first strategy is to prevent the arising of discipline problems by meticulous planning of the lesson, giving clear, quick and assertive instructions and keeping in touch with the students. Ur (2003) explains that by being constantly aware of what's going on in all quarters of the room, keeping your eyes and ears open, students know that you are aware of them all the time and as a teacher you are able to detect certain problems before they become problematic (pp. 264-265).The second strategy Ur proposes is to deal with the problem quietly without drawing the attention of the whole class. In addition, Ur advises teachers not to take things personally. That is, "…the teacher should relate to the

problem instead of the student, as the object to be attacked and dealt with" (p.266). Finally, Ur reminds the teachers to act quickly, take a decision rather than to hesitate and do nothing when the problem has exploded. Yet, Ur reminds that the teacher should not lose his temper and become too aggressive. (pp. 266).

Like Ur (2003) Robertson (1996) insists that one of the ways to deal with unwanted behaviour is to understand it. As Robertson states "… if we can understand the reasons why students misbehave we will be better to create conditions in which there is less need of fewer opportunities for such behaviour." (p.105). Robertson lists the most common causes of unwanted behaviour as seeking attention, seeking power, seeking revenge, displaying inadequacy, causing excitement, malicious teasing, and avoiding work. (pp.111-122). As Charles states, as a result of these factors types of misbehaviour teachers typically encounter are "… inattention, apathy, needless talk, moving about the room, annoying others, disruption, lying, stealing, cheating, sexual harassment, aggression or fighting and defiance of authority" (p.4).

According to Mackenzie (1996), one of the reasons students misbehave is the lack of '*effective structure'* in the classroom. Mackenzie describes '*effective structure'* as "one of the easiest, least expensive and least time-consuming forms of classroom management" (p.23). Mackenzie adds that despite its benefits, the importance of *effective structure* in the beginning of the year is overlooked by many teachers (p.23). Discussing the issue, Mackenzie (1996, p.23) comments as the following:

> The lesson of structure will be taught one way or another. There is no way to avoid it. The real issue is who controls the lesson. When students control the lesson, the cost to cooperation and learning are much greater. Time should be spent in instruction is spent instead testing, disruptions and damage control. The choices are clear. Either we begin early and invest the time required to teach our rules,… or we exhaust ourselves trying to accomplish these tasks… Creating structure early in the year leads to smoother sailing later on.

Roberson (1996) discusses the issue of preventing and controlling misbehaviour and states that by adopting a '*planned approach'* to classroom discipline teachers do not have to consider what course of action they should take (p.174). Robertson adds that "…

having a planned approach particularly helps inexperienced teachers who lack confidence in their right to intervene and are uncertain about what they should and should not do"(p.175).

Similarly, Canter, Canter (2001) and Cummings (2000) advocate a systematic approach, namely, a '*proactive approach'* to deal with unwanted behaviour. Canter and Canter (2001) explain the approach they advocate to classroom management as follows:

> In order to establish an effective learning environment, a teacher must teach behaviour early in the school year. He must approach the management of behaviour with as much as thought and planning as he would any instructional or curriculum practice. In short, the most successful way to achieve the optimum environment is ….to use a *proactive approach*. This means that before you meet your students, you will have developed a systematic manner of dealing with behaviour, commonly called a discipline plan and you will have determined all the routines and behavioural procedures you will need for building cooperative and independent behaviour.
>
> (pp.11-12)

Cumming (2000) believes that the first step in classroom management is "…taking time to connect with students and to win them over" (p.14). Deiro (1996 in Cummings 2000) identified strategies to form healthy connections with junior high students as the following:

> "Creating one-to-one time with students", "Using appropriate self-disclosure", "Having high expectations with a belief in students' abilities", "Networking with family and friends", "Building a sense of community in the classroom", "Using rituals and traditions".
>
> (p.193)

Similarly, Robertson (1996) summarizes how good relationships with students are expressed and maintained by as the following:

> "Maintaining a relaxed manner", "Fostering solidarity with students", "Expressing intimacy where appropriate", "Using positive evaluations when appropriate", "Using humour where appropriate.
>
> (p.140)

Dealing with the issue of discipline, Marland (2000) focuses his attention to creating a set of conventions in the classroom as he believes "a convention is a way of economizing

on decision-making energy" (p.64) and that together with the routines they assist classroom management. As Marland mentions, one of the most significant factors contributing to establishing well managed classrooms is to run "a calm, well ordered, active classroom, in which no on is allowed to go far wrong and collaboration is mode" (pp.32-33).

As mentioned earlier, classroom management is a vast area to investigate. Although the issue of discipline, which is ways to deal with unwanted behaviour, is considered as one the most important aspect of classroom management, there are other factors which affect the managing process.

Apart from the way they handle the issue of control in their classrooms, teachers who are found to be effective in classroom management are also watchful about the way they prepare and present their lessons (Marland 1993, Visser 2000 and Robertson 1996). To illustrate, these teachers are careful about the beginning and ending of their lessons and have clear instructions to enable clarity in communication.

Robertson (1996) reminds the teachers the importance of conveying from the outset that they are the authority and asserts that "in the first meetings with new classes, the task for the teacher is mainly one of reinforcing his initial authority" (p.75). Robertson discusses the issue of authority as the following:

> …it has been argued that authority exists in a relationship and is to large extend granted by the students. It is everyone's interest that there should be a context in which teaching and learning can take place and teachers must be granted the authority required to perform this role. For their part, they will have to earn this authority by the quality of their teaching, but it is also helpful from the outset to behave as if they already have it, in a more formal manner consistent with their rank.
>
> (p.75)

In addition to the above mentioned aspects of classroom management, Wragg (1993), Burden (2003) and Cummings (2000) emphasize the role of managing time and space effectively as their ineffective use leads to diversion from the successful management of classrooms. Wragg also underlines that what Kounin once called 'withitness', the ability to split your attention between the individual and the group you are with and the rest of

the class, or "to have eyes in the back of your head, is helpful in terms of anticipating problems and monitoring work as well as personal and social education of students" (pp.45-48). Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcalf (2003) also underline the importance of time management as they believe "…controlling the time available for a task also keeps students engaged in learning activities" (p.398). Cruickshank *et al.* (2003) add that during group activities and independent work teachers should give students just enough time to complete the task and remind the students about the time left so as to "prod students who are off task toward more appropriate behaviour" (p.398).

One of the areas of responsibility for an effective classroom manager is to organize the physical environment. Marland (1993) sees arrangement of classroom environment as another important component of good management and thus teacher success and states that "the physical impression of the classroom can be an ally or an enemy in teaching and part of the craft of the classroom is to use the room itself" (p.49). Marland highlights the importance of classroom arrangement, displays, atmosphere and practical details as he believes "they contribute to classroom management, the learning, the relationship and the pleasure of working together collaboratively" (p.49).

In addition to what Marland states, Burden (2003) asserts "the way the desks, the tables, and other classroom materials are arranged affects instruction and has an influence on order in the classroom" (p.5). According to Burden, an effective classroom manager handles the following seven areas of responsibility:

> Select a philosophical model of classroom management and discipline
> Organize the physical environment
> Manage student behaviour
> Create a respectful, supportive learning environment
> Manage and facilitate instruction
> Promote classroom safety and wellness.
> Interact with colleagues, parents, and others to achieve classroom management objectives.
>
> (p.5)

Marland (1993) puts forward the idea that a teacher is a 'performer', using voice, facial expression and gesture and strongly supports that teachers' clothing, teachers' manners

when addressing to the class, (an intense and clear voice, right intonations), facial expressions and gestures (changing expressions, using gestures economically but significantly), keeping eye contact (looking students in the eyes, and being aware of their expressions) questioning (asking questions that can be answered, easy and short, as specific as possible) responding (as it is a form of teaching) using the board (starting with a perfectly clear board, having an eligible handwriting) are the most important aspects of classroom management and play a very active role in maintaining and establishing well managed classrooms (pp.97-121).

Finally, the use of questions is another variable affecting the management process as a great deal of teaching involves asking questions. According to Robertson, "…the ability to do this effectively with groups and sometimes whole classes will have beneficial effects on both their behaviour and learning" (p.98). However, Roberson reminds teachers that in large groups instead of questions which require thought and extended contributions from students, short, closed questions can be useful to check understanding (p.104).

The above strategies indicate that there is no single skill involved when teachers manage their classes. According to Wragg (1993), effective teachers gather a whole repertoire of related skills such as the ability to "prepare and plan, to use time and space effectively, to make intelligent decisions in the light of context cues, to handle disruption, to establish good relationships and set of rules and conventions, and to handle resources skilfully" (p.37). Thus, classroom management needs to be considered as a coherent whole rather than a set of isolated techniques.

G. Teachers' Decision Making

In the research literature on teaching, the decision making concept already has a history. Traditionally, teaching has been viewed as a decision making process. To illustrate, Borko, Cane and Shavelson (1979 in Woods 1996) characterize 'teaching' as:

> … a process of decision-making: sometimes teachers are aware of their decisions, and sometimes they make them automatically. From this perspective each teacher has a repertoire of teaching strategies and materials that are potentially useful in a particular teaching situation. The choice of a particular strategy depends on the teacher's goal for the lesson, beliefs about teaching, and information about students.
>
> (1979:138)

Linhardt and Greeno (in Woods 1996) underline the significance of decision-making in teaching and define teaching as:

> …a complex cognitive skill requiring the construction of plans and the making of rapid on-line decisions. The task of teaching occurs in a relatively ill-structured, dynamic environment. Goals and problem-solving operators are not specified definitely, the task environment changes in a way that is not always under control of teachers' actions, and information appears during the performance that is needed for successful completion of the performance.
>
> (1986:75)

A general definition of the term decision-making is as follows:

> The cognitive process leading to the selection of a course of action among alternatives. Every decision making process procedures a final choice which can be an action or an opinion. Decision making begins when we need to do something but we do not know what. Therefore, decision making is a reasoning process which can be rational or irrational, and can be based on explicit assumptions or tacit assumptions.
>
> Decision making is said to be a psychological construct. This means that although we can never "see" a decision, we can infer from observable behaviour that a decision has been made. Therefore, we conclude that a psychological event that we call "decision making" has occurred. It is a construction that imputes commitment to action. That is, based on observable actions, we assume that people have made commitment to affect the action (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Decision_making/html. p.1).

Teachers' decision making is considered as on of the most important components of the whole teaching process. Woods (1996) defines teachers' decision- making process and highlights the role of teacher decisions during a course as the following:

> Clearly, the structure of events in a course is the result of a decision-making process. All participants are involved in making decisions about

> what will be done when in order to accomplish the course. Decisions lead to actions, which when carried out in classroom events- ultimately in the form of a series of verbal and nonverbal events involving students and teacher. It is this series of events which over the period of a term, we call a course. Decision making is thus the cognitive work which culminates in a course. Decisions are based on knowledge and beliefs about the current state of the world (such as students' knowledge and abilities, the contents of the curriculum, and about what is happening in the classroom) and about what is good and bad about this current state. Part of understanding a course is therefore understanding the decisions which create it…. And part of understanding the decisions is understanding the knowledge and belief that underlie them.
>
> (pp.117-118)

Turning her attention mainly to language teaching, Woods (1996) emphasizes the relationship between the decision making process and teacher effectiveness. In addition, Woods (1996) makes the point that in order for new language teachers to improve their effectiveness, they need to know what experienced language teachers do in the course of planning, implementing and modifying their instruction.

Concurring wholeheartedly to Woods, Nunan and Lamb (1996) subscribe to the belief that "monitoring and adjusting what a teacher does in the course of instruction is not something that can be reduced to a set of techniques" (p.106). Nunan and Lamb (1996) further comment that "making appropriate decisions on the spot is a skill that develops over time as a result of self-monitoring and reflection" (p.106).

Another definition comes from Richards and Lockhart (1994) who categorize teacher decisions as 'planning decisions', 'interactive decisions' and 'evaluative decisions'. According to Richards and Lockhart (1994) teaching involves making a lot of individual decisions. They name the decisions teachers make before the lesson as 'planning decisions'. According to Woods (1996), the issue of planning is not as simple as it seems. Woods explains this and states that when one is talking about planning, on the one hand, it can be about decision-making as it occurs in time and on the other hand, it can be about decision-making at various levels of generality. Woods adds that even planning itself can be planned (p.119).

Neely (1986 in Richards and Lockhart 1994) states that planning decisions are made after a process of reflection during which the teacher has to consider the questions such as the following:

> "What do I want my students to learn this lesson?", "Why should I teach this lesson?", "How well do I understand the content of the lesson?", "What activities will be included in the lesson?", "How much time will I need for each activity?", "How will I check on student understanding?", "What grouping arrangements will I use?", "How will I handle interruptions to limit interference in this lesson?", "What are my alternative plans if problems arise with some aspects of the lesson?", "What will I do if I have too little or too much time?.
>
> (pg.82)

What happens during a lesson can not be solely determined by planning decisions as "lessons are dynamic in nature, to some extend unpredictable, and characterized by constant change" (Richards and Lockhart 1994, pg. 83). During the lesson, as Richards and Lockhart (1994) mention, teachers have to make on the spot decisions "… concerning different aspects of the lesson, many of which may not have been planned" (p.78). These decisions are known as 'interactive decisions'. Parker (1984 cited in Richards and Lockhart 1994) presents his observations as follows:

> Teaching-learning contexts change, and teachers behaviours must change accordingly. The basic problem for teachers is, therefore, to acknowledge that there is no one best way to behave, and then to learn to make decisions in such ways that their behaviours are continually appropriate to the dynamic moment-to moment complexity of the classroom.
>
> (p.84)

Similar to Nunan, Lamb (1996) and Woods (1996), Richards and Lockhart (1994) also highlight the significance of making appropriate interactive decisions and they comment as the following:

> "…the ability to make the appropriate interactive decisions is clearly an essential teaching skill, since interactive decisions enable teachers to assess students' response to teaching and to modify their instruction in order to provide optimal support for learning. A teacher whose teaching is guided solely by a lesson plan and who ignores the interactional dynamics of

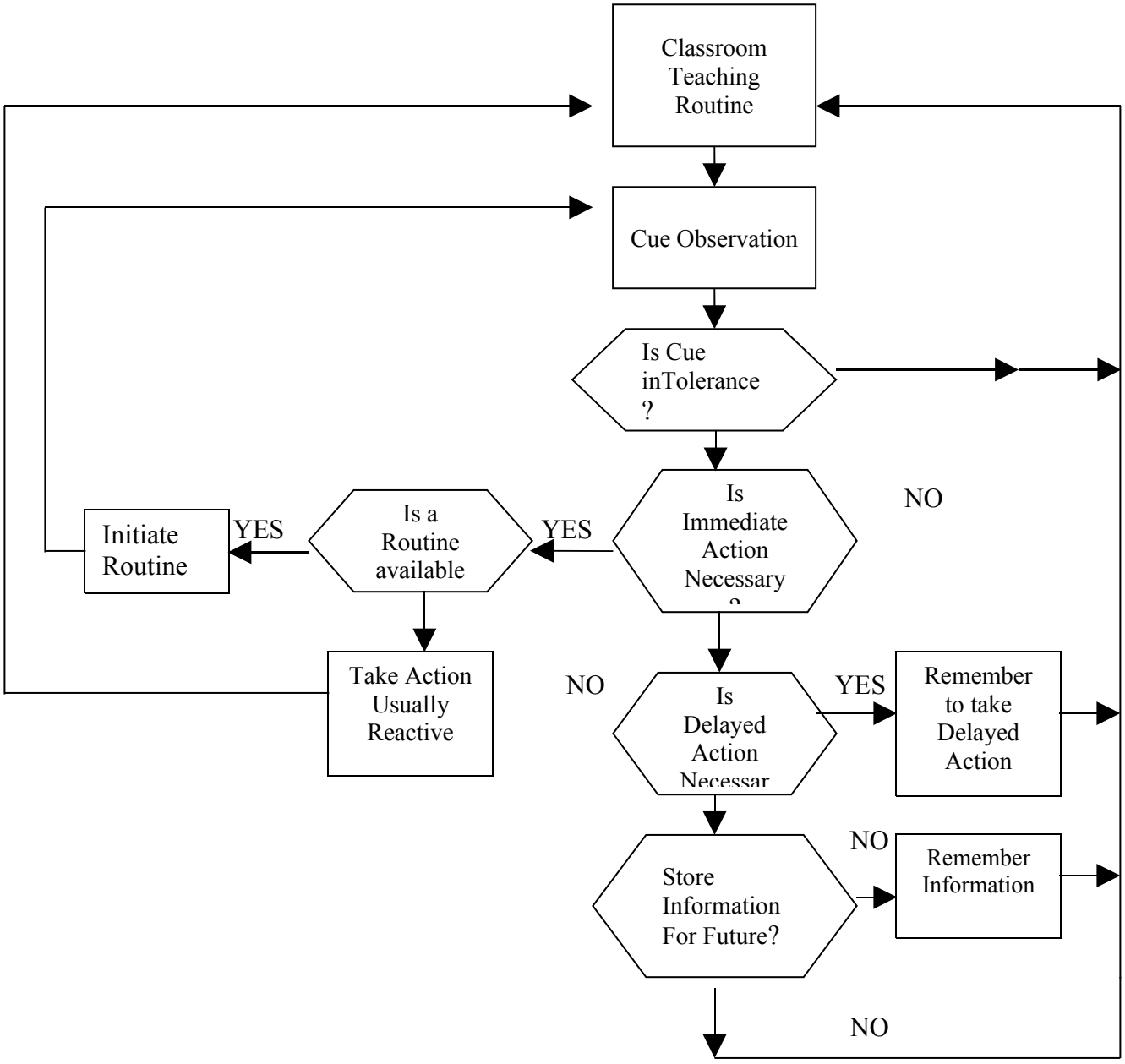
> teaching-learning process is hence likely to be able to respond to students' needs.
>
> (p.84)

The ability to monitor one's own instruction and evaluate it in terms of its appropriateness within a specific and immediate context is considered as central to interactive decision making. Richards and Lockhart (1994) state that interactive decision making involves asking questions of the following kind:

> "Do the students understand this?", Are my instructions clear and understood?", "Do I need to increase student involvement in this activity?", "Should I try teaching this a different way?", "Is this activity going as planned?", "Do students need more information?", "Is this teaching students something that they really need to know?", "Am I teaching to much rather than letting the learners work it out for themselves?".
>
> (p.84)

The following figure (Figure 1) taken from Shavelson and Stern (1981) presents a model of teachers' interactive decision making

Figure 1 Model of teachers' decision-making during interactive teaching



Source: Shavelson and Stern (1981, p.483)

Figure 1 is interpreted by Shavelson and Stern (1981) as the following:

> …it posits that teachers' interactive teaching may be characterized as carrying out well-established routines. In carrying out the routine, the teacher monitors the classroom, seeking clues, such as student participation for determining whether the routine is proceeding as planned. This monitoring is probably automatic as long as the cues are within an acceptable tolerance. (e.g., student out-of-seat behaviour during discussion). The teacher has to decide if immediate action is called for. If so, the teacher has to decide if a routine is available for handling the problem. The teacher may take action based on a routine developed from previous experiences. If no routine is available, the teacher reacts spontaneously and then continues the teaching routine. If an immediate action is not called for, the teacher considers whether delayed action, say after the lesson or in future planning, is necessary. The teacher stores the action in memory and carries on his or her teaching routine. If no action is necessary, the teacher decides whether or not to retain the information and continues with his or her teaching routine.
>
> (pp.483-484)

The last type of decision teachers make are 'evaluative decisions' which Richards and Lockhart explain as "the decisions teachers make about the effectiveness and what the follow –up to the lesson will be" (p.78). They arise from asking the flowing questions about a lesson:

> "Was this lesson successful?", "What were the main strengths and weaknesses of the lesson?", "What did the students get out of the lesson?", "Were all students involved in the lesson?", "Did I do sufficient preparation for the lesson?", "Do I need to re-teach any aspect of the lesson?", "Should I have employed alternative teaching strategies?", "Will I teach the material in the same way next time?".
>
> (Richards and Lockhart, p.87)

H. Research on Decision- Making Skills of Teachers

One of the first studies examining decision making skills of teachers was conducted by Peterson, Marx and Clark (1978 in Shavelson and Stern 1981). Using the 'think aloud procedure' as a data collection procedure the researchers found out that teachers spent most of their planning time dealing with the subject matter to be taught. The next most frequent category was instructional processes and the least amount of time was spent on objectives.

Review on literature indicates that studies of interactive decision making, that is decisions made in the course of teaching, are comparatively rare. According to Nunan and Lamb (1996), this rarity is partially due to the difficulty of obtaining data as it is not possible to ask teachers to explain what they are doing and why they are doing so while they are actually teaching.

In one of the studies which aimed to determine the extent to which decision are reflective or reactive (Clark and Yinger 1976 in Nunan and Lamb 1996) it was found out that alternative teaching strategies were considered only when the lesson was going poorly. In addition, the study revealed that the primary cue used by teachers in determining how well the lesson was going was learner behaviour.

Another study (Morine and Valence cited in Nunan and Lamb 1996) investigated the interactive decisions of teachers and identified types of decisions teachers made. The great majority of decisions were planned (decisions related to preactive decisions) or interchanged (decisions relating to instantaneous verbal interaction). In addition, contrary to what Woods (1996) stated, the study revealed that there were no significant differences between the decisions of more or less effective teachers.

A third study examining the interactive decisions was conducted by Marland (1977 cited in Nunan and Lamb 1996). The results of Marland's study indicated that there was little or no evidence that teachers self-monitored, verified interpretations of student behaviour, considered alternative teaching behaviour or sought to optimize instruction. In addition, the study revealed that teachers tended to act on intuition when making decisions.

The four preceding studies (Clark and Yinger, 1976; Peterson, Marx and Clark, 1978; Marland, 1977; Morine and Valence, 1996) on decision making skills of teachers were all carried out in content classes. Although beginning to change, there are relatively few parallel studies of decision- making by language teachers.

The study by Nunan (1988 in Nunan and Lamb 1996) is considered as one of the earliest studies which aim to investigate the planning and decision-making behaviour of teachers with varying degrees of experience. The results of the study revealed that there was no difference in the decision-making of teachers with different levels of experience.

Following the 1988 study, in 1991 Nunan conducted another study investigating the classroom decision-making processes of experienced and inexperienced ESL teachers. The results revealed that inexperienced teachers focused on classroom dynamics, discipline, and the general flow of classroom events significantly more than experienced teachers and "seemed more concerned than experienced teachers about keeping things on an even keel" (p.112). Moreover, Nunan's study indicated that the pacing and the timing of the lesson, the quantity of teacher talk and the quality of teachers' explanations and instructions were the most frequent concerns by both experienced and inexperienced teachers (p.112).

In 1992, Johnson started a study which aimed to investigate teachers' actions and decisions during their initial teaching experiences. For the purposes of the study, Johnson (1992) asked 6 preservice ESL teachers first to view videotapes of their own teachings and then to comment on their interactive decisions while teaching. The results suggested that for preservice teachers a major factor affecting the decisions made in the classroom was managing the learning process. In addition, the findings supported the previously held belief that "unexpected student behaviour is the most prominent antecedent condition of pre-service teachers' instructional behaviour" (p.527). Looking at the results of the study, Johnson argues that second language teacher education programmes should go beyond the methods and techniques and provide opportunities for teachers "to understand the dynamics of how they think and act as they learn to teach" (p.507).

The exploratory study by Smith (1996) focused on teacher decision making in the adult ESL context. The study data revealed that teacher decisions were guided by a coherent set of personal beliefs. In addition, it was found out that teachers' use of theory was eclectic. As all teachers in the group emphasized the need to build a positive and supportive learning environment it was obvious that this belief was a central factor in the decisions these teachers made (p.208). Another important finding of the study was that while making decisions, at the lesson level, teachers were mostly influenced by student characteristics. For example, teachers reported that their interactive decisions were influenced by student language learning goals and needs (p.210).

In one of her studies, Woods (1991 in Woods 1996) found out that teachers' evaluative decisions were consistent with their underlying beliefs and assumptions about language learning and teaching.

Richards, Ho and Giblin (1992 in Richards and Lockhart 1994) studied the decision making employed by teachers-in-training completing the UCLES Certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults. The study illustrated that as teachers gain experience in teaching and develop a deeper conceptualization of teaching, the criteria they use for evaluating teaching change to reflect their new assumptions, beliefs and levels of awareness.

The study by Richards et al (1992 in Richards and Lockhart 1994) also found out that the evaluative decisions teachers made provided the input to planning decisions. Thus, the results of the study highlighted the fact that planning, interactive and evaluative decisions are interconnected.

A more recent study by Osam and Balbay (2004) aimed to investigate the decision making skills of cooperating teachers and student teachers of English. The findings of their study indicated that while 'timing' and 'classroom management' were major motives for student teachers to make changes in their plans, cooperative teachers were more concerned about discipline problems. In making instant, interactive decisions, it was found out that both groups of teachers were equally affected by 'motivation', 'physical conditions' and 'language skills'.

All things considered, the review of literature underlines the importance of teacher decision making for several reasons. First of all, the link between teachers' intentions, thoughts, beliefs and their behaviour should be examined owing to the fact that a solely behaviour model is far from representing a real picture of what is going in the classrooms. Secondly, research has proved that there is a strong relationship between teacher decision- making and teacher effectiveness (e.g., Woods 1996, Nunan and Lamb 1996, Richards and Lockhart1996, Shavelson and Stern 1981). The research in the related subject also highlights that teacher preparation programmes should create opportunities for preservice teachers to become conscious of the ways they perceive and act upon information during second language instruction. As Johnson (1992) rightly

states, “the goal of such opportunities is to understand not only what they do during second language instruction that but also why they do it” (p.531).

III. METHOD

In this part of the paper the research method used in the study is presented. The 'Research Design' section presents a brief explanation about the types of research conducted in the study. The 'Participants' section provides detailed information on the selection of participants. Their general backgrounds are presented in this section as well. In the 'Instruments' section the instruments used in the study are explained. Following this, the 'Data Collection Procedure' section presents the procedure utilised during the study. Finally, the 'Data Analysis' section displays how the data of the study were analysed and evaluated. This research aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference between student teachers' (of year 4), novice teachers' (with 0-3 years of experience) and experienced ELT teachers' (with more than 3 years of experience) perceptions of their classroom management beliefs and practices?
2. Is there a difference between student teachers' (of year 4), novice teachers' (with 0-3 years of experience) and experienced ELT teachers' (with more than 3 years of experience) decision making skills in classroom management?
3. What kind of differences are there between student teachers' (of year 4), novice teachers' (with 0-3 years of experience) and experienced ELT teachers' (with more than 3 years of experience) decision making skills in classroom management?

Research Design

In order to achieve the purposes of the study, quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques are used. Following more of a descriptive design, this research makes use of the "triangulation" technique which consists of both quantitative and qualitative instruments. The nature of the method is explained as the following:

> Triangulation is the application and combination of several research methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon. It can be employed in both quantitative (validation) and qualitative (inquiry) studies. Triangulation method is preferred line in the social sciences due to its strengthens to combining multiple observers, theories, methods, and empirical materials in which Sociologists hope to overcome the weakness or intrinsic biases and the problems that come from single method, single-observer, single-theory studies.
>
> (Zulkardi, 2006)

The research was carried out with student teachers From Marmara University and teachers of the ELT departments of 3 private and 3 state schools in İstanbul. The research instruments included an interview, an inventory and an observation with a checklist and field notes.

Participants

This study was conducted in 3 state and 3 private schools in İstanbul, Turkey. The participants of this study included 12 teachers of English working at the ELT departments in 6 schools during the spring term of the 2005-2006 academic year and 6 student teachers of the Department of ELT at Marmara University in the 2005-2006 academic year.

The names of the participating schools and the participants' ages, sexes, their level of experience together with their educational backgrounds and their fields of study can be seen in the following table (Table 3)

Table 3
The distribution of demographic information related to subjects

Name of participating School	Participating teachers	Age	Sex	LEVEL of experience	Educationl Background	Field of Study
Anabilim Private High School (School I hereafter)	Participant 1	37-40	Female	Experienced	B.A	ELT
	Participant 2	27-31	Female	Novice	B.A	ELT
	Participant 3	22-26	Female	Student teacher	B.A*	ELT
Çevre Private High School (School II hereafter)	Participant 4	32-36	Female	Experienced	B.A	ELT
	Participant 5	27-31	Female	Novice	B.A	Amer. Cult.& lit
	Participant 6	22-26	Male	Student teacher	B.A*	ELT
Doğa Private High School (School III hereafter)	Participant 7	27-31	Female	Experienced	B.A	E.L. &LIT.
	Participant 8	22-26	Female	Novice	B.A	E.L. &LIT.
	Participant 9	22-26	Female	Student teacher	B.A*	ELT
İhsan Kurşunoğlu State High School (School IV hereafter)	Participant 10	41-45	Female	Experienced	B.A	ELT
	Participant 11	27-31	Female	Novice	B.A	ELT
	Participant 12	22-26	Female	Student teacher	B.A*	ELT
Kenan Evren State High School (School V hereafter)	Participant 13	41-45	Female	Experienced	B.A	ELT
	Participant 14	27-31	Female	Novice	B.A	Amer. Cult.& lit
	Participant 15	22-26	Female	Student teacher	B.A*	ELT
Tahran State High School (School VI (hereafter	Participant 16	37-40	Female	Experienced	B.A	ELT
	Participant 17	27-31	Female	Novice	M.A	ELT
	Participant 18	22-26	Female	Student teacher	B.A*	ELT

n# 18 participant

*the student teachers were about to obtain their B.A degrees from Marmara University. see App. A for personal background form

As can be seen in Table 3, out of 6 experienced teachers, 1 was at the age interval of 27-31, 1 was at age interval of 32-36, 2 were at 37-40 and the remaining 2 were at 41-45. All experienced teachers were female. They all had a B.A degree. In addition, out of 6 experienced teachers only 1 teacher had a degree in English Language and Literature but not in ELT.

In Table 3, it can be seen that out of 6 novice teachers, 5 were at the age interval of 27-31 and only 1 was at the age interval of 22-26. Similar to experienced teachers, all novice teachers were female. 5 novice teachers held a B.A degree and 1 held an M.A. In addition, 3 of the novice teachers had a degree in the field of ELT. Finally, 2 of them had a degree in American Culture and Literature and the remaining one held a degree in English Language and Literature.

Table 3 also shows that the number of student teachers who took part in the study was 6. As can be seen in Table 1, all student teachers were at the age interval of 22-26. In addition, out of 6 student teachers 1 was male. Finally, they all held a B.A degree in the field of ELT.

Instruments

There were mainly three instruments used in this research; an interview, an inventory (ABCC inventory) and an observation session supported by a checklist and field notes.

Interview

The first instrument used in the study was the interview carried out with experienced teachers, novice teachers and student teachers. The interview (see App. B) consisted of 4 open-ended questions as the following:

1. a) How would you define classroom management?
   b) What is the goal of classroom management?
2. Do you find yourself efficient in classroom management? In which areas do you find yourself efficient in classroom management? Why? Why not?
3. Do you find yourself efficient in decision- making? Why? Why not?
4. What factors affect your decision- making in classroom management?

Inventory

The second instrument was an inventory which was adapted from the ABCC Inventory by Martin, Yin and Baldwin (1998) and was given to all of the participants. The ABCC Inventory is an instrument designed to measure teachers' perceptions regarding classroom management beliefs and practices and it consists of 48 items in a four-point Likert scale format. Response categories were accomplished by scoring 4 to "describes me well" 3 to "describes me usually", 2 to "describes me somewhat" and 1 to "describes me not at all". Originally the inventory was composed of three subscales with 48 items underlying the proposed classroom management dimensions. The ABCC Inventory can be found in Appendix C.

Instructional management category was composed of 24 items, Behaviour management had 15 items and finally people management category included 9 items. Sample questions for each category are as follows:

Instructional Management

Item 2: I believe the teacher should direct the student's transition from one learning activity to another.

Item 14: I believe the teacher should decide what topics the students study and the tasks used to study them.

People Management

Item 1: I believe teachers should nurture and encourage student independence and self-expression.

Item 41: I believe that students need direction in how to work together.

Behaviour Management

Item 8: When students do well, I will most likely do nothing since doing well is its own reward.

Item 22: When a student bothers other students, I will immediately tell the student to be quiet and stop it.

Observation

The qualitative data was gathered through observation sessions. As stated in Creswell (2003) "…one of the collection procedures in qualitative research is observations, in which the researcher takes field notes on the behaviour and activities of individuals at the research site" (p.35). In these field notes, the researcher records in an unstructured or semi-structured way, and activities at the research site.

For the previously mentioned purposes of the study, such an observation was used as another data collection instrument. During these observations, the researcher kept taking unstructured field notes. Besides, she used a checklist prepared beforehand to fit the participants' behaviours related to classroom management into certain categories.

The checklist (was divided into 5 categories as planning, time management, instructional management, people management, and discipline. Response categories were accomplished by scoring 4 "when it is a totally accurate reflection of what went on", 3 "when it describes rather what went on", 2 "when it only marginally reflects what went on" and 1 "when it does not reflect what went on".

Sample statements from the checklist are as follows:

Time Management:

The pacing of the lesson is appropriate.

The teacher monitors the students' use of time during individual or group tasks.

Planning:

The teacher selects stimulating, appropriate topics and tasks.

The teacher has a weekly/daily lesson plan which includes decisions about instructional goals and objectives, content and teaching strategies.

Instructional Management:

The teacher speaks clearly and makes sure his/her instructions-explanations, presentations; questions and feedback- are clear, assertive and brief.

People Management:

Every student is involved at some point.

The teacher uses praise when appropriate.

Discipline:

The teacher is able to anticipate discipline problems and act quickly.

In case of a problem, the teacher keeps cool and doesn't take things personally.

During the observation session, the lessons were recorded by a digital voice recorder. All lessons were audio-taped to be transcribed and analysed later. Sample transcriptions of the observations can be found in Appendix D, Appendix E and Appendix F.

Data Collection Procedure

The present study exploited the triangulation technique which consists of both quantitative and qualitative instruments. In this study, the data collection procedure included three different steps.

Table 4 presents the types of instruments used in the study, with their flow and frequency of application. In addition, the duration of the applications and the total number of applications for each instrument is given.

Table 4
The types of instruments and frequency of application for each instrument

Participants (3 in each group)	Type of Instrument	Frequency of application (for each participant)	Duration	Total number of applications
Student teachers/novice and experienced teachers	Interview	Once to each participant	15 minutes	18
Student teachers/novice and experienced teachers	Inventory	Once to each participant	15 minutes	18
Student teachers/novice and experienced teachers	Observation	Once to each participant	1 class hour (45 minutes)	18

The first step was interviewing the participants. As can be seen in Table 4, all participants were interviewed once for approximately 15 minutes. The interviews were

conducted prior to the observation sessions. The aim of the interview was to learn what the participants knew on the topics of classroom management and decision making skills as teachers. The participants were not given any prior academic information. All the answers to the questions of the interview were written down during the interviews to be analysed later.

The second step of the data collection was giving the participants the ABCC inventory which consisted of 48 items. As can be seen in Table 4, all participants were given the inventory once. The inventory was given after the interview prior to the observation session.

As the last procedure, the lessons were observed. In Table 4, it can be seen that the observation sessions were conducted after the interview questions were answered and the inventory was applied to the participants. All observations lasted for one class hour which was equal to 45 minutes. During the observation sessions, related and necessary field notes were taken by the researcher. While taking the field notes, the researcher also used the checklist whose details are given above. Besides, the researcher did recordings for the observations using a digital voice recorder device. Then she transcribed and decoded them according to dimensions of classroom management. At the end of the study, these data were analyzed to interpret and these results were discussed.

Data Analysis

All data were submitted to triangulation technique. Quantitatively, the inventory (ABCC Inventory) was evaluated using SPSS 15.0 and the results from 3 groups were compared by using ANOVA. In the analyses, results of the Levene's Tests were reported as well. There were some instances where the assumptions were not met. When assumptions of ANOVA were not met, the non-parametric counterpart of ANOVA (i.e. Kruskall-Wallis Test) was reported to be sure of the results. Pattern coding (Miles and Huberman, 1994) was used to interpret the open-ended questions and to reach more well-grounded conclusions quantitatively. For this pattern coding 6 codes, being TM for time management, PL for planning, IM for instructional management, PM for people management, D for discipline and GM for group management, were used. The interpretations of the researcher and her supervisor were compared for inter-rater

reliability. Following this, transcribed and coded observation data was evaluated using SPSS 15.0. In the analyses of the transcribed and coded observation sessions, results of the Levene's Tests were reported. In addition, when assumptions of ANOVA were not met, the non-parametric counterpart of ANOVA (i.e. Kruskall-Wallis Test) was reported to be sure of the results.

IV.RESULTS

In this chapter, the results of the data analysis were presented. As the initial point, the results of the interviews with the participants were provided in the 'Interview' section. Next, the data obtained from the inventory (ABCC inventory) given to participants were supplied in the 'Inventory' section. After this, the results of the observation sessions which were later transcribed and coded were presented.

A. Results of the participants' interviews on Classroom Management and Decision-making

Out of 18 participants, 6 experienced teachers, 6 novice teachers and 6 student teachers, were given an interview with 4 questions. The questions were as follows:

1. a) How would you define classroom management?
   b) What is the goal of classroom management?
2. Do you find yourself efficient in classroom management? In which areas do you find yourself efficient in classroom management? Why? Why not?
3. Do you find yourself efficient in decision- making? Why? Why not?
4. What factors affect your decision- making in classroom management?

The purpose of the first question was to have an idea about the participants' general knowledge on the topic of classroom management. In the second part of the first question, it was attempted to see whether the participants had an idea on the goal of classroom management. The second part was provided so as to make sure the participants give supporting replies with the use of relevant or irrelevant keywords and expressions on the topic. The second question aimed to find out participants' perceived effectiveness on classroom management. In this question, the participants were asked to state the areas they perceived themselves efficient and they were requested to tell the

reasons for that as well. The third question was similar to the second question as it attempted to find out whether the participants perceived themselves efficient in decision making and the reasons for that. The final question of the interview was a further aim of trying to understand and evaluate the answer to the third question. That is to say, in case the participants merely gave a yes or no response to the third question, the fourth question would get relevant information from the participants related to their positive or negative responses.

Original quotations from the replies of the participants can be found below in Table 5. The responses to each question were first analyzed separately, then similar responses were grouped and presented below starting from question one by forming 5 categories.

Table 5.
Participants' relevant answers to the question 1a
"How would you define classroom management?"

Category	Definitions of participants	Number of participants	Participants	Percentile (whole)
Aid to students' learning	Being able to set and maintain an atmosphere where students can learn from the teacher and from each other	7	Novice teachers: 8,11*,14 &17 Student teachers: 3, 6 &18	39%
Class rules	A set of rules the teacher needs. Yet, the rules should be fair, not too strict.	5	Expert teachers: 1,12 &13 Novice teachers: 2 &11*	28%
Behaviour control	To have control over the behaviour of students, being able to cope with them.	3	Expert teacher: 10 Novice teacher: 11* Student teachers: 9*	17%
Discipline	To create an atmosphere where there aren't any discipline problems	4	Expert teachers: 7&16 Student teachers: 9*& 15	22%
Promoting positive behaviour	Encouraging students positively and promoting positive student achievement and behaviour	2	Expert teacher: 4 Novice teacher:5	11%

*Participants 9 and 11 gave more than one definition to classroom management and for that reason they were listed twice in the list.

As displayed in Table 5, participants defined classroom management variously.

Out of 7 participants, 4 novice teachers and 3 student teacher participants, defined classroom management as being able to set and maintain an atmosphere where students can learn from the teacher and from each other. Out of 5 participants, 3 expert and 2 novice teachers stated that classroom management was a set of rules the teacher needed. Most of these participants added that the rules should be fair, not too strict. Another response to this question was given as having control over the behaviour of students and being able to cope with them. Out of 3 participants, one expert teacher, one novice teacher and one student teacher participant gave this definition for classroom management. Out of 4 participants, 2 expert teachers and 2 novice teachers described classroom management as creating an atmosphere where there aren't any discipline problems. Final definition came from two participants. Participant 4 who is an expert teacher and participant 5 who is a novice teacher stated that classroom management was encouraging students positively and promoting positive student achievement and behaviour.

As Table 5 shows, 39 % of the participants stated that classroom management was an aid to students' learning whereas 27 % regarded classroom management as a set of class rules the teacher needed. 22 % indicated that classroom management meant discipline.17 percent viewed it as behaviour control. Finally 11% of the participants stated that classroom management was promoting student behaviour.

The following table, (Table 6) displays the list of Duke's (1987), Marland's (1993), Fontana's (1994), Brophy's (1999), Burden's (2003) and Cothran, Kullina and Garrahy's (2003) definitions on classroom management. This table was prepared to see whether there are any similar definitions of the participants which could match to these expert definitions.

Table 6
Duke's(1987), Marland's (1993), Fontana's(1994), Brophy's (1999), Burden's (2003) and Cothran *et al*'s (2003) definitions on classroom management

Pioneers	Definitions
Duke (1987) defined classroom management as	"the provisions necessary to create and maintain an environment in which teaching and learning can occur"
Brophy (1999) described classroom management	"as actions taken to create and maintain a learning environment conducive to successful interaction and it involved establishing rules and procedures, maintaining attention to the lessons and engagement in academic activities"(p.43).
Marland (1993) stated that classroom management involved	"…planning of the environment, planning of time, the relating of the content to specific learning activities, the organization of study materials, the control of the group and the teacher's own voice and manner"(p.7).
Fontana (1994) reported that classroom management	"means the ways in which individual teachers organize their approach to learning and organize the classroom as an aid to that learning" (p.122).
Burden (2003) pointed out that classroom management	"involved teacher actions to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning and self-motivation"(p.3).
Cothran *et al* (2003) stated that	"classroom management is necessary for a safe and functional class in addition to being prerequisite that allows other effective teaching behaviours to be successful"(p.435).

The following table (Table 7) displays the list of participants' own definitions of classroom management compiled with Duke's (1987), Marland's (1993), Fontana's (1994), Brophy's (1999), Burden's (2003) and Cothran *et al'*s, (2003) definitions.

Table 7
Definitions of participants compiled with the experts in classroom management

Definitions	Number of teachers	Percentile %
Duke	7	39
Marland	7	39
Brophy	5	28
Burden	2	11

As seen in table 7, 7 participants whose definitions were similar to that of Duke's (1987) signified that it was the provisions necessary to create and maintain an environment in which teaching and learning can occur. 7 participants whose definitions of classroom management were similar to Marland's (1993) indicated that it was planning of the environment, planning of time, the relating of the content to specific learning activities, the organization of study materials, the control of the group and the teacher's own voice and manner. 5 teachers out of 18 whose definitions were similar to Brophy's (1999) designated that it was actions taken to create and maintain a learning environment conducive to successful interaction and it involved establishing rules and procedures, maintaining attention to the lessons and engagement in academic activities. Finally, 2 participants whose definitions were similar to Burden's (2003) signified that classroom management involved teacher actions to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning and self-motivation.

When coming to the second part of the first question, it is observed that the majority of the participants considered making students learn as the goal of classroom management. In table 8, the goals of classroom management according to the participants can be seen. Based on the participants' responses, 7 categories were formed which are 'aid to learning', 'a positive classroom atmosphere', 'discipline', 'learning process', 'communication in class', 'rationale' and finally 'student success'.

Table 8
Participants' relevant answers to the question 1b
"What is the goal of classroom management?"

Category	Definitions of participants	Number of participants	Participants	Percentile (whole)
Aid to learning	To make students learn	11	Expert teachers: *1,*7&*10 Novice teachers: *2,*5,11,14 &*17 Student teachers: 3,15 &18	61%
A positive class atmosphere	To make students feel comfortable and relaxed/ to get students enjoy the lesson	7	Expert teachers: *7,*10 &16 Novice teacher:*2 Student teachers: 6,9 &*12	39%
Discipline	To control the class, to make it a disciplined area	3	Expert teacher: *1 Novice teacher:8 Student teacher:*12	17%
Learning process	To help students focus, concentrate on the learning process	2	Novice teacher: *17 Student teacher:*15	11%
Communication in class	Creating a means of communication	2	Expert teacher: 4 Novice teacher:*5	11%
Rationale	Having students remember why they are at school	1	Expert teacher:13	5.5%
Student success	To improve student success	1	Student teacher: *15	5.5%

*These participants had more than one answer to the question.

As mentioned earlier, 11 out of 18 participants, 3 expert teachers, 5 novice teachers and 3 student teachers indicated that making students learn was the goal of classroom management. 7 out of 18 participants, 3 expert teachers, 1 novice teacher and 3 student teachers considered creating a positive atmosphere in the classroom as the goal of

classroom management and these participants stated that making students feel comfortable and relaxed or making them enjoy the lesson was the primary goal of classroom management. Out of 18, 3 participants, 1 expert teacher, 1 novice teacher and 1 student teacher, emphasized the discipline issue and stated that to control the class and make it a disciplined area was the goal of classroom management. 2 participants, 1 novice teacher and 1 student teacher pointed out that the classroom management should focus on the learning process first and said that the goal was to help students focus and concentrate on the learning process. Creating a positive means of communication was reported to be the goal of classroom management by 2 participants who were an expert and a novice. Other answers were given only once and they were; having students remember why they are at school which is a matter of rationale and improving student success which is the goal of the whole teaching and learning process according to these participants.

As Table 8 shows 39 % of the participants stated that the goal of classroom management was to make students learn. 39 % said the goal was to create a classroom where students felt comfortable and relaxed. 17 % of the participants viewed discipline as the goal of classroom management whereas for 11 % of the participants it was an aid to the learning process. 5.5 % of the participants stated that the goal of classroom management was to remind students why they were at school and finally another 5.5 % of the participants stated that the goal was to improve student' success.

The second open-ended interview question aimed to find out participants' perceived effectiveness on classroom management. In this question, the participants were first asked to state the areas they perceived themselves efficient and then they were requested to tell the reasons. The participants' responses to the first part of the question can be seen in Table 9.

Table 9.
Participants' answers to question 2
"Do you find yourself efficient in classroom management?"

Question	Answer	Number of participants	Participants	Percentile (whole)
Do you find yourself efficient in classroom management?	Yes	12	Experienced teachers: 1,4, 7,13 &16	67%
			Novice teachers: 2, 5, 8, 11, 14 &17	
			Student teacher: 9	
	No	5	Student teachers: 3, 6, 12, 15 & 18	28%
	Not always	1	Experienced teacher: 10	5%

As the table indicates, majority of the participants, 67 %, perceived themselves effective in classroom management. However, the results revealed that apart from 1 student participant, participant 9, those who perceived themselves effective in classroom management consisted mainly of expert and novice teachers. Out of 6 expert participants only 1 participant, namely participant 10, stated that there were times she found herself quite ineffective in classroom management. On the contrary, all of the novice teacher participants claimed that they were efficient in classroom management. As can be seen in the table, except for one student teacher, all of the student teacher participants stated that they found themselves ineffective in classroom management. The reasons for this inefficiency was explained in table x in the following section of the study.

After analyzing and categorizing participants' answers, the answer to the second part of this question was sought. Firstly, the responses of the participants who taught they were efficient in classroom management were analyzed. Below is a table (Table 10) showing the number and names of the participants who consider themselves efficient in classroom management and the areas these participants perceive themselves efficient. 7 categories were formed which are 'relationship', 'motivation', 'class atmosphere', 'students' learning', 'discipline', 'body language ' and 'feedback'.

Table 10
The participants who consider themselves efficient in classroom management
and the areas in which they believe they are efficient.

Category	Perceived efficient areas	Number of participants	Participants	Percentile (among 12 efficient)
Relationship	Understanding students' feelings, being fair, responding to students' needs, teaching students respect the teacher & each other.	5	Expert teachers: 1*&7 Novice teachers: 14*&17* Student teacher: 9	42%
Motivation	Encouraging students join the lesson & drawing students' attention to the lesson	5	Expert teacher:13 Novice teachers: 5*,8*,11*,17*	42%
Class atmosphere	Creating a relaxed and silent atmosphere necessary for teaching.	4	Expert teachers: 1*,4* Novice teachers:11*,17*	33%
Students' learning	Monitoring students' learning &helping students focus on subjects being taught	4	Expert teacher: 4* Novice teachers: 5*,8*&11*	33%
Discipline	Controlling student behaviour& having authority in classroom	2	Expert teachers: 1*, 4*	17%
Body language	Using body language effectively, sending signals to the students' via body language	1	Novice teacher: 2	8%
Feedback	Providing feedback regarding the quality of performance	1	Expert teacher: 16	8%

*these participants had more than one answer to the question. Therefore, they are displayed in more than one category.

As the table shows, 5 participants (42%) perceived themselves efficient in keeping healthy relationships with the students. Out of 5 participants, 2 expert teachers, 3 novice teachers and 1 student teacher claimed that they were efficient in issues such as understanding students' feelings, responding to their needs, being fair in the classroom and teaching students respect the teacher and each other. Being fair in the classroom was the response given by the student participant who was the only participant who claimed to be effective in classroom management. The second category noted was motivation which was stated mainly by novice teachers as their effective area in classroom management. Discipline was another area which 2 expert teachers asserted

that they were efficient in. Discipline was followed by classroom atmosphere. Out of 4 participants, 2 expert teachers and 2 novice teachers considered themselves efficient in being able to create a relaxed and silent atmosphere necessary for teaching. Monitoring students' learning and helping students focus on subjects being taught were other responses given to this interview question. Out of 4 participants, 3 novice teachers and 1 expert teacher perceived themselves efficient in actions that foster students' learning. 1 participant, a novice teacher, claimed to be efficient in using body language effectively. Finally, one participant, an expert teacher, stated that she was efficient in classroom management as she provided feedback regarding the quality of performance.

Following this analysis, the responses of the participants who taught they were inefficient in classroom management were analyzed. Below is a table (Table 11) showing the number and names of participants who consider themselves inefficient in classroom management and the areas these participants perceived themselves to be inefficient.

Table 11
The participants who find themselves inefficient in classroom management and the areas in which they think they are inefficient.

Category	Perceived inefficient areas	Number of participants	Participants	Percentile (among 6 inefficent)
Giving instructions	Using voice effectively	3	Student teachers: 6*, *12 & 18	60%
Discipline	Controlling students' behaviour and having discipline problems accordingly	2	Student teachers: 3& 9	40%
Time management	Setting time, being able to go as planned	2	Student teachers: *12 & *15	40%
Setting goals	Being able to set goals and stay within plans	1	Student teacher: *15	20%
Using body language	Using gestures, mimics, facial expressions	1	Student teacher:6*	20%
Motivation	Motivating students and being able to attract their attention during the lesson	1	Student teacher: 6*	20%

*these participants had more than one answer to the question.

As can be observed in Table 11, all the responses to this question came from student teachers. Out of 6 participants who perceived themselves inefficient in classroom management, 3 student teachers stated that they had difficulty in using their voice effectively. Controlling student behaviour and thus having discipline problems was

another inefficient area stated by two student teachers. 2 of them admitted that during group work activities they failed to set time limits or they failed to stay within plans. 1 participant said that he couldn't use his body language, gestures and mimics effectively and 1 participant said that she had difficulty in setting goals. The final response was motivating students and attracting their attention which was stated by 1 participant.

Looking at table 11, it can be stated that 50% of the participants who perceived themselves inefficient in classroom management explained that they failed to give instructions. 33%of them regarded discipline as their inefficient area and another 33% viewed time management as their inefficient area in classroom management. 17% of the participants stated that they failed to set goals whereas 17% said they couldn't use their body language effectively. Finally, another 17% of the participants regarded motivating students as the skill they needed to gain expertise in.

Before going on with the analysis of the third question, it is important to add that 1 participant, who takes part in the expert category stated that she wasn't always efficient in classroom management. Below is the transcription of participant 10's interview question 2:

> Participant 10 from school 4:
>
> Well, I find myself efficient in motivating students, I have good relationships with most of my students, but in some activities like group work and speaking, it's sometimes difficult to manage the class. I think I am inefficient in managing groups during activities. I feel like….I lose control of my students. That's all.

The third question was similar to question 2 and it was an attempt to find out whether the participants perceived themselves efficient in decision making or not. The table presented below (Table 12) demonstrates the responses given to question 3:

Table 12
Participants' answers to question 3
"Do you find yourself efficient in decision-making?"

Question	Answer	Number of participants	Participants	Percentile (whole)

Do you find yourself efficient in decision-making?	Yes	13	Expert teachers: 1,4,10,13&16 Novice teachers: 2, 5, 8, 14 &17 Student teachers: 3, 6 & 15	72%
	No	5	Expert teacher: 7 Novice teacher: 11 Student teachers: 9,12 & 18	28%

As can be observed from Table 12, overall 72% of the participants that is 13 participants out of 18 stated that they found themselves efficient in their decision-making whereas 28 %, as 5 participants out of 18 stated that they were inefficient in decision-making regarding classroom management. Out of 18 participants 1 participant, participant 17 from school 6, added that she was sometimes efficient in decision making. Below is the transcription of participant 17's answer to the interview question 3:

> Actually yes, but since decision-making is such a concept that may vary in accordance with the dynamism of the class and its atmosphere, it's rather difficult to say something like I'm fully efficient in decision making. Sometimes I am, sometimes I am not. Indeed, I try to do my best to be efficient.

As mentioned earlier, the last question of the interview was a further aim of trying to understand and evaluate the answer to the third question. That is to say, in cases where the participants merely gave a yes or no response to the third question, the fourth question helped to obtain relevant information from the participants. The factors which the participants' perceived reasons which they claimed affected their decision-making in classroom management, number of participants who gave similar answers and their names are presented in Table 13:

Table 13
Participants' answers to question 4
"What factors affect your decision-making in classroom management?"

Categories for Factors	Participants responses	Number of participants	Participants	Percentile (whole)

Mood of the students	Students' attitudes, their feelings and their needs	11	Expert teachers: 1,4,7,10,16 Novice teachers: 2,5 &*17 Student teachers: 6,12 &*18	61%
Discipline problems	Sudden or chronic problems in class	7	Expert teacher: 13 Novice teachers: 8 &11 Student teachers: 3, 9 & *15	39%
Planning	Changes in plans due to time constraint or aims of the course taught	2	Novice teacher:*17 Student teacher: *15	11%
Physical conditions of the classroom	Lighting, noise, seating arrangements	1	Student teacher: *18	5%

*these participants had more than one answer to the question.

As seen in Table 13, participants implied various factors affecting their decision-making regarding classroom management. Most of the teachers, that is, 11 teachers out of 18 stated that they regarded mood of the students, their attitudes to that particular lesson and their feelings as the factors which affected their decision-making. 7 participants out of 18 regarded discipline problem, either chronic or sudden, as the main factor affecting their decision making. Level of students was another factor which two participants stated. Other factors were planning and finally the physical conditions of the classroom and each was indicated only once.

As the table above demonstrates, 61% of 18 participants regard students' moods as the factor affecting their decision-making in classroom management. 39% of them view chronic or sudden discipline problems as a factor whereas 11% state that their decisions regarding classroom management are influenced by the changes in the plans they make. Finally, 5% of the participants regard physical conditions of the room as a variable affecting his/her decisions.

The results of the interview indicated that the participants had an idea on classroom management, the goals of classroom management and decision making in general.

In terms of classroom management the results revealed that contrary to expert and novice teachers who perceived themselves effective in classroom management student teachers perceived themselves ineffective in classroom management. Student teachers explained that they hoped this inefficiency would decrease in time by experience.

In terms of decision-making, interview results indicated that most of the expert and novice teachers who perceived themselves efficient in classroom management stated that they were efficient in decision-making as well. However, 3 student teachers who perceived themselves inefficient in classroom management claimed that they were efficient in decision- making.

B. Results of the participants' inventory (ABCC inventory)

A total number of 18 participants, from 6 different schools were given the ABCC Inventory that was developed by Martin, Yin and Baldwin (1998) for the measurement of teachers' perceptions regarding classroom management beliefs and practices. A total of 48 questions comprised the inventory where participants gave each statement a point from 4 to 1. Reliability of this part was evaluated and none of the items were deleted. In the current study the Crombach alpha coefficient was .76. According to Martin, Yin and Baldwin (1998) for the total sample Crombach's coefficient alpha was 69 (See in Appendix A).

Do experienced teachers, novice teachers and student teachers differ in terms of their scores on the ABCC inventory?

In order to compare expert teachers, novice teachers and student teachers in terms of their perspectives regarding classroom management styles, four one-way between-groups analyses of variance (ANOVA) was conducted.

The first ANOVA was conducted for the total score of the ABCC inventory. That is, the total score for 48 items was calculated after the reverse coded items were recoded as suggested by the developers of the scale. The second ANOVA was conducted for the

instructional management scores, the third one was conducted for the people management scores and the last one was conducted for behaviour management scores. Since four ANOVAs were conducted, the accepted significance level of .05 was divided to four. This procedure is called Bonferroni Adjustment which is done to decrease the likelihood of conducting a statistical error called Type I Error (Huck, 2000). Thus, the significance level was determined as .0125 for ANOVAs conducted here.

ANOVAs can be conducted either for the total scores or for the average scores. They both lead to the same results in terms of the F value of the ANOVA and observed significance level in the current study. Besides, the indices of normality are the same in each situation. In the current case, the first ANOVA was conducted for the total scores. Since subscales (i.e. instructional, people, behaviour management) have different number of items, the total scores might be misleading for the readers. Besides, if averages rather than total scores are calculated, readers can compare subscales and make inferences on how these subscales range out of the score of 4.

While conducting ANOVAs, descriptive statistics (e.g. mean, standard deviation) for each group (i.e. expert, novice and student teachers) are given first. Descriptives of all inventory items are provided below in Table 14.

Table 14
Descriptives of the ABCC inventory items

Item	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
1. I believe teachers should nurture and encourage student independence and self-expression.	Expert	3	4	3,500	0,548
	Novice	3	4	3,167	0,408
	Student	2	4	3,167	0,753
2. I believe the teacher should direct the student's transition from one learning activity to another.	Expert	3	4	3,167	0,408
	Novice	3	4	3,167	0,408
	Student	3	4	3,167	0,408
3. If a student sat at my desk it would be okay.	Expert	1	3	1,833	0,753
	Novice	1	4	2,500	1,378
	Student	1	4	2,000	1,095
4. I believe student's emotions and decision making processes must always be considered fully legitimate and valid.	Expert	2	4	2,833	0,753
	Novice	2	3	2,667	0,516
	Student	2	4	3,167	0,753
5. I believe it's important to continuously monitor students' learning behaviour during seatwork.	Expert	3	4	3,667	0,516
	Novice	2	4	3,000	0,632
	Student	2	4	2,500	0,837
6. If students agree that a classroom rule is unfair, I will explain the reason for the rule.	Expert	3	4	3,833	0,408
	Novice	3	4	3,833	0,408
	Student	3	4	3,667	0,516

7. I believe students should create their own daily routines as this fosters the development of responsibility.	Expert	2	4	3,167	0,753
	Novice	2	3	2,833	0,408
	Student	3	4	3,500	0,548
8. When students do well, I will most likely do nothing since doing well is its own reward.	Expert	1	3	1,833	0,753
	Novice	1	4	1,833	1,169
	Student	2	3	1,833	0,983
9. When a student is repeatedly off-task, I will most likely remove a privilege or require detention.	Expert	2	3	2,833	0,408
	Novice	1	4	2,500	1,049
	Student	1	3	2,167	0,753
10. I assign students to specific seats in the classroom.	Expert	2	3	2,833	0,408
	Novice	1	4	3,000	1,095
	Student	1	3	2,167	0,753
11. Students naturally feel good about themselves when they behave appropriately; there is no need for me to say or do anything	Expert	1	3	2,333	0,816
	Novice	1	3	2,000	0,632
	Student	1	3	2,000	1,095
12. I believe teachers should provide feedback regarding the quality of performance.	Expert	2	4	3,500	0,837
	Novice	3	4	3,833	0,408
	Student	3	4	3,667	0,516
13. I believe students will be successful in school if allowed the freedom to pursue their own interests.	Expert	2	4	3,000	0,632
	Novice	2	4	3,000	0,632
	Student	3	4	3,333	0,516
14. I believe the teacher should decide what topics the students study and the tasks used to study them.	Expert	1	3	2,667	0,816
	Novice	2	4	3,000	0,894
	Student	2	3	2,500	0,548
15. During the first week of the class, I will announce the class room rules and inform students of the penalties for disregarding the rules.	Expert	3	4	3,333	0,516
	Novice	3	4	3,800	0,447
	Student	1	4	2,833	1,329
16. I believe the primary purpose of homework is to provide supplementary activities that enhance student's learning.	Expert	3	4	3,167	0,408
	Novice	3	4	3,833	0,408
	Student	3	4	3,333	0,516
17. I believe students will find their own ways of interacting with each other.	Expert	1	3	2,500	0,837
	Novice	2	4	2,833	0,753
	Student	2	4	2,833	0,753
18. The teacher knows best how to allocate classroom materials and supplies to optimize learning.	Expert	2	4	3,167	0,753
	Novice	2	4	3,000	0,894
	Student	2	4	3,000	0,632
19. I do not specify a set time for each learning activity because that can only be determined by the students.	Expert	1	4	2,333	1,211
	Novice	1	3	2,000	0,632
	Student	1	3	1,500	0,837
20. I believe that friendliness, courtesy, and respect for fellow students is something that teachers should demand.	Expert	2	4	2,800	0,837
	Novice	1	4	2,500	1,225
	Student	2	4	2,667	0,817
21. When a student does not complete an assignment on time, I will assume that the student has a good reason.	Expert	1	4	2,333	1,033
	Novice	2	3	2,333	0,516
	Student	2	4	2,833	0,753
22. When a student bothers other students, I will immediately tell the student to be quiet and stop it.	Expert	1	4	2,833	1,169
	Novice	2	4	3,333	0,816
	Student	2	4	2,833	0,753
23. I believe class rules stifle the student's ability to develop as a personal moral code.	Expert	2	3	2,500	0,548
	Novice	2	4	2,833	0,753
	Student	2	3	2,800	0,447

24. While teaching a lesson on library skills, a student begins to talk about the research she is doing for her book report. I would remind the student that the class has to finish the lesson before the end of the class period.	Expert	1	3	2,167	0,753
	Novice	1	3	2,167	0,983
	Student	2	3	2,500	0,548
25. I believe teachers should require student compliance and respect for law and order.	Expert	2	4	3,000	0,707
	Novice	2	4	3,167	0,753
	Student	2	4	3,000	0,632
26. When moving from one learning activity to another, I will allow students to progress at their own rate.	Expert	2	4	2,833	0,753
	Novice	1	3	2,333	0,816
	Student	1	4	2,500	1,049
27. I would be annoyed if a student sat at my desk without permission.	Expert	1	2	1,667	0,516
	Novice	2	4	2,833	0,983
	Student	2	4	3,167	0,983
28. I believe student's emotions and decision making processes must always be considered fully legitimate and valid.	Expert	2	4	2,833	0,753
	Novice	2	3	2,500	0,548
	Student	2	4	3,167	0,983
29. I believe students can mange their own learning behaviour during seatwork.	Expert	1	3	2,333	0,816
	Novice	2	3	2,333	0,516
	Student	1	3	2,167	0,753
30. If students agree that a classroom rule is unfair, then I would replace it with one that students think is fair.	Expert	1	4	2,500	1,049
	Novice	1	3	1,833	0,753
	Student	1	4	2,500	1,225
31. I believe students need the structure of a daily routine that is organized and implemented by the teacher.	Expert	2	4	2,667	0,816
	Novice	1	4	2,667	1,211
	Student	1	4	2,833	0,983
32. I believe my responsibility as a teacher is to reward those students who do well.	Expert	2	4	3,500	0,837
	Novice	3	4	3,667	0,516
	Student	1	4	2,833	1,169
33. When a student is repeatedly off-task, I will most likely ask the student if something is wrong.	Expert	3	4	3,167	0,408
	Novice	3	4	3,667	0,516
	Student	2	4	3,333	0,817
34. I allow students to select their own seats.	Expert	1	3	2,333	0,816
	Novice	1	3	1,833	0,753
	Student	2	3	2,667	0,516
35. When students behave appropriately, I will provide a reward of some kind such as points toward a party or free time.	Expert	2	4	3,333	0,816
	Novice	2	4	3,000	0,632
	Student	2	4	3,000	0,632
36. I believe students should judge the quality of their own work rather than rely on what the teacher tells them.	Expert	1	3	2,500	0,837
	Novice	2	3	2,333	0,516
	Student	1	4	2,667	1,033
37. I believe students will be successful in school if they listen to adults who know what's best for them.	Expert	1	3	2,167	0,753
	Novice	2	4	3,000	0,894
	Student	1	3	2,000	0,894
38. I believe students should choose the learning topics and tasks.	Expert	2	4	3,000	0,632
	Novice	2	3	2,500	0,548
	Student	1	4	2,500	1,049
39. During the first week of the class, I will allow the students to come up with a set of classroom rules.	Expert	2	4	3,167	0,983
	Novice	1	4	2,500	1,049
	Student	2	4	3,000	0,894

40. I believe the primary purpose of homework is to provide drill and practice of skills learned in the classroom.	Expert	2	4	3,000	0,894
	Novice	2	4	2,833	0,753
	Student	2	4	3,167	0,753
41. I believe that students need direction in how to work together.	Expert	3	4	3,333	0,516
	Novice	2	4	3,167	0,753
	Student	2	4	3,000	0,632
42. Students in my classroom are free to use any materials they wish during the learning process.	Expert	1	4	2,667	1,211
	Novice	2	4	2,667	0,816
	Student	1	4	2,500	1,049
43. I specify a set time for each learning activity and try to stay within my plans.	Expert	2	3	2,667	0,516
	Novice	2	4	3,167	0,753
	Student	2	4	3,167	0,753
44. I believe that friendliness, courtesy and respect for fellow students is something that students have to learn firsthand through free interaction.	Expert	3	4	3,400	0,548
	Novice	1	3	2,333	0,816
	Student	2	4	3,333	0,817
45. When a student does not complete an assignment on time, I will deduct points accordingly.	Expert	2	3	2,333	0,516
	Novice	1	4	2,833	1,169
	Student	1	3	2,333	0,817
46. When a student bothers other students, my first reaction would be to say nothing and let the students work it out themselves.	Expert	1	3	2,167	0,983
	Novice	1	3	2,000	0,894
	Student	1	4	2,167	0,983
47. I believe class rules are important because they shape the student's behaviour and development.	Expert	3	4	3,500	0,548
	Novice	2	4	3,167	0,753
	Student	2	4	2,833	0,753
48. During a lesson on the Bill of Rights, a student begins to tell a story about a neighbor who was falsely arrested for selling drugs, I would let the student tell the story and relate it to the lesson.	Expert	2	4	3,000	0,632
	Novice	2	4	3,000	0,632
	Student	3	4	3,500	0,548

Expert N=6, Novice N=6, Student N=6, Total=18

The descriptives regarding both average scores and total scores of the ABCC inventory are provided below in Table 15.

Table 15
Descriptives of ABCC inventory (Total and subscales)

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Total score for the ABCC inventory	Expert	119,000	137,000	126,400	7,767
	Novice	108,800	141,000	132,300	13,028
	Student	113,000	140,000	123,033	10,763
Average of all items in the ABCC inventory	Expert	2,479	2,854	2,633	0,162
	Novice	2,267	2,938	2,756	0,271
	Student	2,350	2,920	2,563	0,224
Instructional Management Total	Expert	57,000	69,000	62,000	5,020
	Novice	52,000	71,000	65,000	6,957
	Student	54,000	74,000	62,500	6,804
Instructional Management Average	Expert	2,375	2,875	2,583	0,209
	Novice	2,167	2,958	2,708	0,290
	Student	2,250	3,080	2,604	0,284

People Management Total	Expert	17,000	23,000	20,900	2,093
	Novice	19,000	26,000	22,500	2,588
	Student	18,000	22,000	20,000	1,673
People Management Average	Expert	1,889	2,556	2,322	0,233
	Novice	2,111	2,889	2,500	0,288
	Student	2,000	2,440	2,222	0,186
Behaviour Management Total	Expert	41,000	47,000	43,500	2,168
	Novice	37,800	50,000	44,800	4,463
	Student	35,000	46,000	40,533	4,170
Behaviour Management Average	Expert	2,733	3,133	2,900	0,145
	Novice	2,520	3,333	2,987	0,298
	Student	2,330	3,070	2,702	0,277

Expert N=6, Novice N=6, Student N=6, Total=18

After descriptives are provided, indices of normality along with the result of Levene's Test for the Equality of Variances are provided. Since ANOVA is a parametric test, it is important to meet the assumption of normal distribution first. To calculate normal distribution, indices of skewness and kurtosis are used. Skewness and kurtosis coefficients are numeric values that indicate the degree to which a given distribution deviates from normality. In a perfect normal distribution, coefficients of skewness and kurtosis turn out equal to zero. Skewness is not considered to be too extreme if the coefficient of skewness turns out to be between -1.00 and +1.00. Besides, kurtosis is not considered too extreme if the coefficient of kurtosis turns out to be between -1.00 and +2.00 (Huck, 2000). The second important assumption of ANOVA is the homogeneity of variances among groups. This assumption is tested through the Levene's Test. In the analyses, results of the Levene's Tests were reported as well. There were some instances where the assumptions were not met. When assumptions of ANOVA are not met, the non-parametric counterpart of ANOVA (i.e. Kruskall-Wallis Test) should be reported to be sure of the results. This rule was followed in the current study.

1. Comparison of groups in terms of total scores:

First of all, descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of total scores are provided in Table 16 below:

Table 16

Descriptive statistics regarding the total scores

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Total score for the ABCC inventory	Expert teachers	119,000	137,000	126,400	7,767	0,562	-1,970*
	Novice teachers	108,800	141,000	132,300	13,028	-1,548*	1,618
	Student teachers	113,000	140,000	123,033	10,763	0,896	-0,681

Skewness and kurtosis values with an asterisk (*) suggests that those values are problematic in terms of normal distribution. Levene's Test did not produce a significant result suggesting that the homogeneity of variance assumption was met (F=.842, p>.450). As indicated in the table, novice teachers had a higher mean than other groups. However, to see whether this difference was statistically significant, one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Since there were problems with the assumption of normality, result of the Kruskall-Wallis test was reported as well. Summary of ANOVA is given in Table 17 below:

Table 17

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of the ABCC inventory total scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	264,031	2	132,016	1,145	0,345
Within Groups	1729,533	15	115,302		
Total	1993,564	17			

The F value of 1.145 with a corresponding significance of .345 revealed that the differences among groups were not statistically significant. As mentioned before, since the number of individuals in each group was quite few, the assumptions of ANOVA might not be met. Thus, Kruskall-Wallis Test was conducted as well. It revealed a similar result. The test value of 2.956 with a corresponding significance of .228 revealed that the differences among groups were not significant at all.

2. Comparison of groups in terms of instructional management:

First of all, similar to above analysis, descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of instructional management scores are provided in the table below:

Table 18

Descriptive statistics regarding instructional management scores

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Instructional Management Scores	Expert teachers	2,375	2,875	2,583	0,209	0,285	0,845
	Novice teachers	2,167	2,958	2,708	0,290	-1,646*	2,873*
	Student teachers	2,250	3,080	2,604	0,284	0,780	1,305

Skewness and kurtosis values with an asterisk (*) suggests that those values are problematic in terms of normal distribution. Similar to the previous analysis, Levene's Test did not produce a significant result suggesting that the homogeneity of variance assumption was met (F=.055, p>.947). As indicated in the table, novice teachers had a higher mean than other groups. However, to see whether this difference was statistically significant, one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Since there were problems with the assumption of normality, result of the Kruskall-Wallis test was reported as well. Summary of ANOVA is given in Table 19 below:

Table 19

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of instructional management scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0,054	2	0,027	0,388	0,685
Within Groups	1,041	15	0,069		
Total	1,095	17			

As the table indicates, the F value of .388 with a corresponding significance of .685 revealed that the differences among groups were not statistically significant. The normality assumption of ANOVA was not met. Thus, Kruskall-Wallis Test was conducted as well. It revealed a similar result. The test value of 1.268 with a corresponding significance of .530 revealed that the differences among groups were not significant.

3. Comparison of groups in terms of people management:

First of all, similar to above analysis, descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of people management scores are provided in the table below:

Table 20

Descriptive statistics regarding instructional management scores

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
People management scores	Expert teachers	1,889	2,556	2,322	0,233	-1,528*	0,845
	Novice teachers	2,111	2,889	2,500	0,288	-0,208	-0,880
	Student teachers	2,000	2,440	2,222	0,186	-0,384	1,786

Skewness value with an asterisk (*) suggests that distribution of experienced teachers was problematic in terms of normal distribution. Similar to the previous analysis, Levene's Test did not produce a significant result suggesting that the homogeneity of variance assumption was met (F=.571, p>.577). As indicated in the table, novice teachers had a higher mean than other groups. However, to see whether this difference was statistically significant, one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Since there were problems with the assumption of normality, result of the Kruskall-Wallis test was reported as well. Summary of ANOVA is given in Table 21 below:

Table 21

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of people management scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0,238	2	0,119	2,079	0,160
Within Groups	0,857	15	0,057		
Total	1,094	17			

As shown in the table, an F value of 2,079 with a corresponding significance of .160 indicated that the differences among groups were not statistically significant. The normality assumption of ANOVA was slightly problematic. Thus, Kruskall-Wallis Test was conducted. It revealed a similar result. More specifically, the test value of 3.842 with a corresponding significance of .175 revealed that the differences among groups were not significant.

4. **Comparison of groups in terms of behaviour management:**

Descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of behaviour management scores are provided in the table below:

Table 22

Descriptive statistics regarding behaviour management scores

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Behaviour management scores	Expert teachers	2,733	3,133	2,900	0,145	0,795	0,845
	Novice teachers	2,520	3,333	2,987	0,298	-0,612	-0,389
	Student teachers	2,330	3,070	2,702	0,277	0,304	-1,057*

Kurtosis value with an asterisk (*) suggests that distribution of student teachers was problematic in terms of normal distribution. Similar to the previous analysis, Levene's Test did not produce a significant result suggesting that the homogeneity of variance

assumption was met (F=1,776, p>.203). As indicated in the table, novice teachers had a higher mean than other groups. However, to see whether this difference was statistically significant, one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Since the assumption of normality was slightly problematic, result of the Kruskall-Wallis test was reported as well. Summary of ANOVA is given in Table 23 below:

Table 23

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of behaviour management scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0,255	2	0,128	2,049	0,163
Within Groups	0,933	15	0,062		
Total	1,189	17			

As indicated in the table, the F value of 2,049 with a corresponding significance of .163 indicated that the differences among groups were not statistically significant. The normality assumption of ANOVA was slightly problematic. Thus, Kruskall-Wallis Test was conducted as well. It revealed a similar result. The test value of 3.024 with a corresponding significance of .220 revealed that the differences among groups were not significant.

C. Results of the observations; transcribed and coded

To compare experienced teachers, novice teachers and student teachers in terms their frequencies on time management, planning, instructional management, people management, group management and discipline, one-way between-groups analyses of variance (ANOVA) should be conducted. First, an ANOVA is conducted for the total score on these variables. If there seems to be differences among groups, further ANOVAs will be conducted on the sub-parts as well.

While conducting ANOVAs, descriptive statistics (e.g. mean, standard deviation) for each group (i.e. expert, novice and student) are given first as done before. Descriptives of all parts are provided below in Table 24

Table 24
Descriptives of the transcriptions

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Time management	Expert	0,000	15,000	3,833	5,776
	Novice	0,000	10,000	3,667	4,457
	Student	1,000	14,000	5,000	4,940
Planning	Expert	0,000	5,000	2,167	2,137
	Novice	0,000	9,000	4,000	3,406
	Student	0,000	5,000	2,000	2,098
Instructional management	Expert	26,000	71,000	47,500	17,695
	Novice	37,000	111,000	67,000	25,931
	Student	19,000	62,000	42,167	15,039
People management	Expert	0,000	17,000	8,667	6,218
	Novice	2,000	13,000	9,000	4,472
	Student	1,000	15,000	7,000	5,657
Group management	Expert	0,000	9,000	1,500	3,674
	Novice	0,000	37,000	6,667	14,909
	Student	0,000	12,000	3,667	4,320
Discipline	Expert	12,000	48,000	31,500	13,217
	Novice	0,000	43,000	19,833	18,258
	Student	0,000	19,000	5,667	7,062
Total score	Expert	68,000	123,000	95,167	17,600
	Novice	62,000	152,000	110,167	36,967
	Student	50,000	111,000	65,500	22,828

Expert N=6, Novice N=6, Student N=6, Total=18

After descriptives are provided, indices of normality and the result of Levene's Test for the Equality of Variances are provided in order to control for the normality and homogeneity of variance assumptions. Indices of skewness and kurtosis are reported to check normal distribution. Coefficients of skewness between -1.00 and +1.00 and coefficients of kurtosis between -1.00 and +2.00 are considered ideal (Huck, 2000). When assumptions of ANOVA are not met, the non-parametric counterpart of ANOVA (i.e. Kruskall-Wallis Test) is reported to be sure of the results.

1. Comparison of groups in terms of total scores:

First of all, descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of total scores are provided in Table 25 below:

Table 25

Descriptive statistics regarding the total scores

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Total score	Expert	68,000	123,000	95,167	17,600	0,088	2,106*
	Novice	62,000	152,000	110,167	36,967	-0,542	5,860*
	Student	50,000	111,000	65,500	22,828	2,206*	5,027*

Skewness and kurtosis values with an asterisk (*) suggests that those values are problematic in terms of normal distribution. Levene's Test did not produce a significant result suggesting that the homogeneity of variance assumption was met (F=2.653, p>.103). As indicated in the table, novice teachers had a higher mean than other groups in terms of the total score. However, to see whether this difference was statistically significant, one-way analysis of variance is conducted. Since there were problems with the assumption of normality, result of the Kruskall-Wallis test is reported as well. Summary of ANOVA is given in Table 26 below:

Table 26

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of the total transcription scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6200,44	2	3100,22	4,23	0,03
Within Groups	10987,17	15	732,48		
Total	17187,61	17			

The F value of 4.23 with a corresponding significance of .03 revealed that the differences among groups were statistically significant. As mentioned before, since the number of individuals in each group was quite few, the assumptions of ANOVA might not be met. Thus, Kruskall-Wallis Test was conducted as well. It revealed a similar result. The test value of 7.387 with a corresponding significance of .025 revealed that the differences among groups were statistically significant. To see the source of this

difference, multiple comparisons were conducted. The result of the Scheffe multiple comparison test revealed that the significant difference was between novice teachers (χ =110.167) and student teachers (χ=65.500) at a probability value of .038. More specifically, scores of novice teachers was significantly higher than those of student teachers. The differences between experienced teachers and novices, and differences between experienced teachers and student teachers were not statistically significant.

After this significant difference was found, six ANOVAs were conducted to compare groups in terms of six categories (i.e. time management, planning, instructional management, people management, group management, and discipline). Thus, the accepted significance level of .05 was divided to six. This procedure called Bonferroni Adjustment is done to decrease the likelihood of conducting a statistical error called Type I Error (Huck, 2000). Thus, the significance level was determined as .008 for ANOVAs conducted here.

a. Comparison of groups in terms of time management

Descriptive statistics regarding time management are provided in Table 27 below.

Table 27

Descriptive statistics regarding time management

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Time management	Expert	0,000	15,000	3,833	5,776	1,949*	3,846*
	Novice	0,000	10,000	3,667	4,457	0,635	-1,809*
	Student	1,000	14,000	5,000	4,940	1,493*	2,105*

Skewness and kurtosis coefficients with an asterisk (*) suggests that those values are problematic in terms of normal distribution. Levene's Test did not produce a significant result suggesting that the homogeneity of variance assumption was met (F=.047, p>.954). As indicated in the table, student teachers had a higher mean than other groups in terms of the time management score**.** To see whether this difference was statistically significant, one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Since there were problems

with the assumption of normality, result of the Kruskall-Wallis test is reported as well. Summary of ANOVA is given in Table 28 below:

Table 28

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of time management

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,333	2	3,167	,122	,886
Within Groups	388,167	15	25,878		
Total	394,500	17			

The F value of .122 with a corresponding significance of .886 revealed that the differences among groups were not statistically significant at all. Since the number of individuals in each group was quite few, the assumptions of ANOVA might not be met. Thus, Kruskall-Wallis Test was conducted as well. It revealed a similar result. The test value of .819 with a corresponding significance of .664 revealed that the differences among groups were not statistically significant at all.

b. Comparison of groups in terms of planning

Descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of planning scores are provided in Table 29 below:

Table 29

Descriptive statistics regarding planning

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Planning	Expert	0,000	5,000	2,167	2,137	0,232	-2,150*
	Novice	0,000	9,000	4,000	3,406	0,547	-1,709*
	Student	0,000	5,000	2,000	2,098	0,586	-1,550*

As mentioned before, coefficients with an asterisk (*) suggests that those values are problematic in terms of normal distribution. Skewness values were ideal but kurtosis values were problematic. Levene's Test suggested that the homogeneity of variance assumption was met ($F=1.107$, $p>.356$). As indicated in the table, novice teachers had a higher mean than other groups in terms of planning. To see whether this difference was

statistically significant, one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Result of the Kruskall-Wallis test is reported since there were problems with the assumption of normality. Summary of ANOVA is given in Table 30 below:

Table 30

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of planning

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14,778	2	7,389	1,078	,365
Within Groups	102,833	15	6,856		
Total	117,611	17			

The F value of 1.078 with a corresponding significance of .365 indicated that the differences among groups were not statistically significant at all. As mentioned before, since the number of cases in each group was quite few, the assumptions of ANOVA might not be met. Thus, Kruskall-Wallis Test was conducted as well. It revealed a similar result. The test value of 1.316 with a corresponding significance of .518 revealed that the differences among groups were not statistically significant at all.

c. Comparison of groups in terms of instructional management

Descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of instructional management scores are provided in Table 31:

Table 31

Descriptive statistics regarding instructional management

	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Instructional management	Expert	26,000	71,000	47,500	17,695	0,164	-1,488*
	Novice	37,000	111,000	67,000	25,931	0,912	-1,809*
	Student	19,000	62,000	42,167	15,039	-0,235	0,189

Two of the kurtosis coefficients were problematic as indicated through asterisks (*). Levene's Test indicated that the homogeneity of variance assumption was met (F=.837, p>.452). As indicated in the table, novice teachers had a higher mean than other groups

in terms of instructional management**.** To see whether this difference was statistically significant, one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Result of the Kruskall-Wallis test is reported as well. Summary of ANOVA is given in Table 32 below:

Table 32

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of instructional management

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2050,778	2	1025,389	2,539	,112
Within Groups	6058,333	15	403,889		
Total	8109,111	17			

The F value of 2.539 with a corresponding significance of .112 indicated that the differences among groups were not statistically significant at all. As mentioned before, since the number of cases in each group was quite few, the assumptions of ANOVA might not be met. Thus, Kruskall-Wallis Test was conducted as well. It revealed a similar result. The test value of 3.554 with a corresponding significance of .169 revealed that the differences among groups were not statistically significant at all.

d. Comparison of groups in terms of people management

Descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of people management scores are provided in Table 33:

Table 33

Descriptive statistics regarding people management

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
People management	Expert	0,000	17,000	8,667	6,218	-0,105	-0,946
	Novice	2,000	13,000	9,000	4,472	-0,966	-1,709*
	Student	1,000	15,000	7,000	5,657	0,716	-1,481*

As indicated in the table, two of the kurtosis coefficients were problematic in terms of normal distribution. Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances had an F value of .471 with a corresponding significance of .633 indicating that the assumption of homogeneity

of variances was met. Similar to previous tables, novice teachers seemed to have higher means than other groups. Besides, experienced teachers seemed to have higher means than student teachers. To see whether these observed differences were statistically significant, a one-way ANOVA was conducted whose summary is provided in Table 34 below:

Table 34

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of people management

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13,778	2	6,889	,228	,799
Within Groups	453,333	15	30,222		
Total	467,111	17			

The F value of .228 with a corresponding significance value of .799 suggested that the differences among groups in terms of people management were not statistically significant. Kruskall-Wallis Test, which was conducted because the assumption of normality was not met, indicated a similar result. More specifically, the test value of .224 with a corresponding significance of .894 suggested that the differences were not significant at all.

e. Comparison of groups in terms of group management

Descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of group management scores are provided in Table 35:

Table 35

Descriptive statistics regarding group management

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Group management	Expert	0,000	9,000	1,500	3,674	2,449*	6,000*
	Novice	0,000	37,000	6,667	14,909	2,415*	0,975
	Student	0,000	12,000	3,667	4,320	1,881*	3,919*

As indicated in the table, most skewness and kurtosis coefficients were problematic in terms of the normal distribution assumption. However, the assumption of the

homogeneity of equal variances was met as indicated by the Levene's Test (F=2.895; p>.086). Novice teachers seemed to have higher means than the other groups. The significance of this observation was tested through one-way between-groups ANOVA whose summary is provided in Table 36 below:

Table 36
Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of group management

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	80,778	2	40,389	,476	,630
Within Groups	1272,167	15	84,811		
Total	1352,944	17			

As indicated in Table 20, the F value of .476 with a corresponding significance of .630 indicated that the differences among groups in terms of group management were not statistically significant. Kruskall-Wallis Test was conducted because the assumption of normality was not met. The test indicated a similar result. More specifically, the test value of 3.412 with a corresponding significance of .182 suggested that the differences were not significant at all.

f. Comparison of groups in terms of discipline

Descriptive statistics regarding each group in terms of discipline are provided in Table 37 below:

Table 37
Descriptive statistics regarding discipline

Variable	Group	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Discipline	Expert	12,000	48,000	31,500	13,217	-0,243	-0,747
	Novice	0,000	43,000	19,833	18,258	0,403	-0,867
	Student	0,000	19,000	5,667	7,062	1,776*	3,061*

As indicated in the table, skewness and kurtosis coefficients of the student teacher group were problematic in terms of the normal distribution. Levene's Test revealed an F value of 3.236 with a corresponding significance of .068 suggesting that the assumption of equal variance was met. Experienced teachers seemed to have higher means than

novices, and novices seemed to have higher means than students in terms of discipline. To see the source of this difference, one-way between-groups ANOVA was conducted whose summary is provided in Table 38 below:

Table 38

Summary of one-way ANOVA comparing groups in terms of discipline

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2008,333	2	1004,167	5,399	**,017**
Within Groups	2789,667	15	185,978		
Total	4798,000	17			

As indicated in Table 22, the F value of 5.399 with a corresponding significance value of .017 indicated that the difference was not significant at our probability value which was determined after the Bonferroni Adjustment (i.e. .008). However, we might be too strict in determining the probability value. Compared to other sub-titles of classroom management, discipline was the most important issue leading to a difference among groups. Kruskall-Wallis Test revealed similar results as well. More specifically, it revealed a test value of 7.940 with a corresponding significance of .019. In brief, if the probability value is accepted as .05, the above result becomes significant. In such a situation, multiple comparison test is necessary to see the source of the difference. Scheffe Test of Multiple Comparison suggested that the significant difference was between experienced teachers (χ=31.500) and students (χ=5.667). More specifically, experienced teachers had significantly higher means than students at a probability value of .017.

V. DISCUSSION

In this section, the discussions of the results were presented in the same order as the results were provided. Accordingly, the initial point was the discussion of the results of interviews with 18 participants on the topics of classroom management and decision-making. Following this, the discussion of the results of the ABCC Inventory was presented. Finally, the results of the observation sessions which were later transcribed and coded were provided.

A. Discussion of the Results of the Participants' interviews on Classroom Management and Decision – Making

Major findings which have emerged from the interviews can be found below starting from question 1 of the interview.

To begin with, the answers to the first question of the interview "How would you define classroom management?" revealed that most novice and student teachers viewed

classroom management as an aid to students' learning. This definition is similar to many other definitions of the term (i.e., Duke 1987 cited in Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcalf 2003; Fontana, 1994; Brophy, 1999; Kellough and Kellough 1996 in Martin *et al.* 1998; Larrivee 2005). When providing definition of the term, all experienced teachers mainly focused on the areas of classroom management which included class rules, behaviour control and discipline whereas student teachers rarely related the term to these issues. In addition, none of the student teachers defined the term in terms of promoting positive behaviour whereas 1 novice and 1 experienced teacher indicated that classroom management could be defined as promoting student achievement and behaviour by encouraging students positively.

When coming to the second part of the first interview question "What is the goal of classroom management?", it was observed that for most of the experienced teachers, novice teachers and student teachers the goal was to make students learn. In other words, the participants believed that the goal of classroom management was to aid student's learning. The results also displayed that although some experienced teachers defined classroom management as being able to set and maintain an area without discipline problems, discipline was not seen as the goal of classroom management by these participants.

The participants' answers to the second part of the first question "What is the goal of classroom management?" supported the first part of the question as it was intended. That is to say, from the analysis of the research data, it is reasonable to state that all of the participants were aware of the term classroom management as their answers indicated that all three groups, as experienced teachers, novice teachers and student teachers, had clear conceptions about the term as well as its goals. The results also signified that the majority of the participants regarded classroom management as an aid to students' learning.

Secondly, the second question of the interview "Do you find yourself efficient in classroom management?" and "In which areas do you find yourself efficient in classroom management?", "Why? / Why not?" interrogated the participants' perceived efficiency in classroom management. The results of this question indicated that the

majority of the participants who perceived themselves efficient in classroom management were experienced and novice teachers. The interview results showed that all novice teachers perceived themselves efficient in classroom management. All experienced teachers, except for 1 experienced teacher, stated that they perceived themselves efficient in classroom management. On the contrary, the results revealed that all student teachers, except for 1 student teacher, perceived themselves inefficient in classroom management. This finding is similar to the finding of the research by Woolfolk (1998) which reveals that most of the pre-service teachers regard classroom management as their most serious problem.

Thirdly, through the second interview question, it was also aimed to find out the reasons that lay behind participants' perceived efficiency or inefficiency in classroom management. The results designated that majority of the experienced and novice participants who perceived themselves efficient in classroom management believed they were able to keep healthy relationships with their students and motivate their students. Related literature in the field supports the idea that there is a strong relationship between motivation, positive student-teacher relationship and effective classroom management. Revealing this fact, Nelsen, Lott and Glenn (1997 in Burden 2003) assert that teachers should demonstrate caring by showing personal interest, talking with students, offering encouragement, and providing opportunities to learn important life skills. In addition, Cumming (2000) believes that the first step in classroom management is "…taking time to connect with students and to win them over" (p.14). Some other research also reveals that motivation is the key ingredient in learning and activities which attract students' interest, which involve students actively, provide enjoyment and lead to meaningful accomplishments will help most learning difficulties and behaviour problems disappear (Glasser in Charles 2005, p.77).

Another finding emerged from the second question was that the issue of discipline was only mentioned by the experienced teachers as the reason of their perceived efficiency in classroom management. Neither the novice teachers nor the student teacher regarded discipline as their area of success in classroom management.

As stated earlier, an important finding of the interview was that, all student teachers, except for 1 student teacher, perceived themselves inefficient in classroom management. According to these participants, the reason that lay behind their inefficiency was their lack of experience in giving instructions and using their voice effectively. As research indicates, teachers who are found to be effective in classroom management are also careful about the beginning and ending of their lessons, have clear instructions to enable clarity in communication and use their voice effectively (i.e., Marland, 1993; Visser, 2000 and Robertson 1996). Therefore, it could be right to state that the participants who perceive themselves inefficient in classroom management have spotted an important reason for their perceived inefficiency.

Other factors stated by the student teachers for their perceived inefficiency were discipline and time management. Reviewing the related literature in the field, it could be quite right to state that the student teachers have again detected important reasons for their perceived inefficiency. Firstly, as Ur (2001) says in a disciplined classroom "…it is easier to activate students in the way the teachers want, and the time will probably be spent on-task, rather than organizational problems or disruptive behaviour" (p.260) and as Marzano *et al.* 2003 point out "…effective teaching and learning can not take place in a poorly managed classroom" (p.1). Secondly, as Cruickshank, Jenkins and Metcalf (2003) mention "…controlling the time available for a task also keeps students engaged in learning activities" (p.398).

The answers to the third question revealed that a great majority of the experienced and novice teachers considered themselves efficient in decision-making. This is not surprising as these teachers had previously mentioned that they perceived themselves efficient in classroom management as well. However, half of the student teacher participants who perceived themselves inefficient in classroom management stated that they perceived themselves efficient in decision-making whereas the remaining half said they were inefficient in decision-making. In order to discuss the reasons for this inconsistency, it could be better to look at the question that follows as it could provide more information.

The aim of the fourth question "What factors affect your decision- making in classroom management?" was to support the third question and get relevant replies from the participants regarding their decision-making in classroom management. The results pointed out that most of the participants (61%) were firstly affected by the mood of the students when giving decisions regarding classroom management. This finding is similar to Smith's (1996) who found out that while students' affective states had an impact on teacher's interactive decision-making, student's language learning goals and needs influenced preactive decisions (p.210). In addition, the finding of the study support the view that teachers were most affected by their concern for the students and based many of their decisions on what they believed was happening with their students.

The results also displayed that the second factor affecting the decision-making process was discipline problems. This finding is also supported by the research in the field. To illustrate, the study by Clark and Peterson (1986 in Smith 1996) revealed that student misbehaviour was one of the factors that resulted in interactive changes (p.211).

Most of the participants who considered discipline as the factor affecting their decision making were the student teachers in this study. However, there was an inconsistency in the experienced teachers' answers to this question. That is to say, although the experienced teachers had related classroom management to the issues such as discipline, class rules and behaviour control, (except for one of them) neither of them perceived these as factors affecting their decision-making in classroom management. This may be due to the fact that decision-making is not something teachers are always aware of. This idea is supported by Borko, Cane and Shavelson (1979 in Woods 1996) who state that teaching itself is "… a process of decision-making: sometimes teachers are aware of their decisions, and sometimes they make them automatically" (p.138).

Finally, planning was considered as a factor affecting the decision-making skills of 1 novice and 1 student teacher. Neither of the experienced teachers regarded planning as a factor affecting their decision-making. As a matter of fact, as it is clear in the related literature, the issue of planning is not as simple as it seems (Woods, 1996, p.119) and should be taken into consideration.

B. **Discussion of the Participants' Inventory (The ABCC Inventory)**

In this study, the participants were given the ABCC Inventory developed by Martin, Yin and Baldwin (1998) which is an instrument designed to measure teachers' perceptions regarding classroom management beliefs and practices. The inventory was originally composed of three subscales with 48 items underlying the proposed classroom management dimensions such as instructional management, behaviour management and finally people management.

One of the questions of the study was to find out whether there were any differences between the 3 groups of participants' perceptions of classroom management beliefs and practices. The overall results revealed that out of 18 participants, 8 participants (%44) scored non-interventionist belief, 6 participants (33%) scored interactionalist belief and 4 participants (22%) scored interventionist belief.

When the scores of the participants in each group of participants are examined, it possible to find out that those who scored the non-interventionist belief were mainly the novice teachers as 67% of them scored non-interventionist. In addition, the results indicated that 50 % of the student teachers scored the non-interventionist belief whereas only 17% of the experienced teachers scored the non-interventionist belief. According to Glickman and Tamashiro (1980, p.460), teachers who score *non-interventionist* believe that the students should be given high control and teachers should allow students to reason for themselves.

The results also revealed that a great majority of the experienced teachers (67%) scored the interactionalist belief. As Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) explain, teachers who score *interactionalist* believe that both teacher and the student share equal control over each other, "…thus, the solution to misbehaviour is a reciprocal relationship between student and teacher" (p.460).

To conclude, the results of the ABCC Inventory revealed that novice teachers and student teachers held a more non-interventionist belief toward classroom management than experienced teachers. This result is similar to Martin and Baldwin's (1992) study

which revealed that pre-service teachers scored significantly more non-interventionist belief than did experienced teachers. In addition, as the results of the ABCC Inventory reveal, majority of the participants either held a non-interventionist or an interactionalist belief toward classroom management instead of an interventionist one which exerts high control over the student and believes "… inner and reciprocal worlds of the student are not important" (Glickman and Tamashiro 1980, p.460).

Apart from the total scores of the ABCC inventory, the results of the study displayed that there were not any significant differences in 3 groups of participants' beliefs regarding instructional management, behaviour management and people management dimensions.

It should be noted that in the entire analysis, the novice teachers had higher scores than both the experienced teachers and the student teachers who took part in the study. As mentioned earlier in the limitations section of the study, the limited number of participants can be considered as a reason to obtain less statistical power and less robust results from the data. That is, the results might have been statistically more powerful if each group had included more than 20 or 30 participants instead of 6 participants. This obviously does not explain why novice teachers had higher means than other groups, but it is apparent that these differences did not reach significance because of having insufficient power (i.e. insufficient number of participants in each group).

C. Discussion of Observations

In this study, the qualitative data was gathered through the observation sessions. One of the aims of the observation sessions was to find out whether there was a mismatch between the participants' perceptions of their classroom management style and their behaviour in the classroom. In addition, it was aimed to find out whether the experienced teachers, novice teachers and student teachers differed in terms of their frequency of demonstrating behaviours related to time management, planning, instructional management, people management, group management and discipline.

The results of the study revealed that in terms of their total scores there was a significant difference among groups. The significant difference was between the student teachers and the novice teachers. That is to say, the novice teachers demonstrated behaviours (χ =110.167) related to the above mentioned dimensions of classroom management more than the student teachers (χ=65.500). The differences between the novice teachers and the experienced teachers and differences between the experienced teachers and the student teachers were not statistically significant.

Although there was a statistically significant difference among the groups in terms of total scores, comparisons of groups in terms of time management, planning, instructional management, group management and people management did not yield any differences. However, despite not being statistically significant, the novice teachers had higher means in planning, instructional management and people management dimensions of classroom management. In addition, the student teachers had higher means in the time management dimension of classroom management.

The most striking finding of the study was that discipline was found to be the most important dimension leading to a difference among groups if the probability value was accepted as .05. The results revealed that the significant difference in terms of discipline was between the experienced teachers and student teachers which meant that in experienced teachers' lessons there were more instances (χ=31.500) related to discipline and in student teachers' lessons there were less instances(χ=5.667) related to discipline. This contradicts to both the experienced teachers' and the students teachers' perceptions regarding their efficiency in classroom management. In the interviews most of the experienced teachers had stated that they perceived themselves efficient in classroom management. According to these teachers, one reason for this was the way they handled discipline. However, the results of the observations revealed the opposite.

In the student teachers' part, one reason of experiencing very few instances related to discipline can be that they had their only experience in a limited time during the practicum period in which student teachers spend time in schools under the supervision of their cooperating teachers. During these lessons, the student teachers were being observed by their supervisors from their universities and were evaluated for their lesson

presentations. The students in these practicum schools might have been in an effort to do their best and not to cause any problems for the student teacher with whom they had spent a period of time during that student teacher's practicum. In addition, the presence of a researcher, a supervisor and their cooperating teacher in the classroom during the lesson might have been another factor affecting these students' behaviours. Besides, the presence of an observer might have affected not only the students in the classrooms but also the teachers participating in this study. Although classroom observation is seen as an indispensable component in teachers' professional development, it is not well received by teachers in general. Hargreaves (1980 in Thomas 1992)supports this idea by emphasizing the privateness of teaching as follows:

> The most startling feature of teachers in their relations with adults including colleagues is their sensitivity to observation whilst teaching. Like sexual activity, teaching is seen as an intimate act which is most effectively and properly conducted when shrouded in privacy. To be watched is to inhibit performance. Most teachers simply prefer to work alone with a class of pupils.
>
> (p.141)

Original quotations of an experienced teacher who had the highest instances (52%) referring to the discipline dimension of classroom management and some notes the researcher took during the observations are provided below:

(Beginning of the lesson)

The bell rings. During the break time the teacher informed me that the class I was about to observe was a very noisy class. As we enter the classroom I choose a place to sit and the teacher goes directly to her desk, one of the students greets her, and she smiles back. Some students are moving about the room, some are talking to each other. Teacher warns them, but they don't seem to care. Teacher warns them again and again. 2 minutes have gone by. The teacher gets angry and yells at one of the students who is still not seated, but instead walking around the classroom and singing. (All in L1)

T: Burak sana söylüyorum Burak!!!

T: Burak!!!

T Tamam hadi lütfen rica ediyorum otur, yeter!!!

T: O.K. Tamam, yeter, Sshhh.

[T: Burak, I'm talking to you Burak!!!

T: Burak!!!

T: O.K. Come on, please sit down, that's enough!!!

T: O.K. That's enough, Sshhh.]

(10th minute of the lesson)

The teacher has assigned a written exercise. Some students, especially those sitting at the back of the classroom and some others don't participate; some students are dealing with their mobile phones. One of the students is eating a big sandwich and another one is doing make-up. Two students start kicking each other. The teacher is sitting in her desk while waiting for the rest to finish doing the exercise she has assigned.

(25th minute of the lesson)

There is too much noise in the classroom and it's not possible to follow the lesson.

Knocking on the board

T: O.K hey, sınıf, Kemal!!!

T: (goes to her desk, takes her pen out)Ya ben niye sizin isminizi söyleyip duruyorum ki? Yok yazıyorum sizi, Yok Kemal sus, yok Ali bilmem ne!!, İlla böyle tehdit olacak yani; kendisine bu kadar saygısız davranan başka birilerini tanımadım, hadi konuşun bakalım.

[T: O.K. hey, class, Kemal!!!

T: (goes to her desk, takes her pen out), Why do I have to call out your names, I will consider you absent. Kemal, don't talk, Ali don't, bla bla bla!!! I have to threaten you all the time; I have never met people who are so disrespectful to themselves, go on talking now.]

Now there is silence in the classroom.

As the notes and the quotations presented above reveal, participant 16 encountered several discipline problems during the 45 minute lesson. According to Charles (2005), teachers typically encounter 13 types of student misbehaviour. The misbehaviours

participant 16 encountered were namely *inattention, apathy* (not caring), *needless talk*, *moving about the room* and *disruption*. To blame the teacher or the students for this undesirable situation is not what the researcher intends to do. However, it is highly recommended that attention should be given to the factors which result in such discipline problems so as to maximize time spent in learning rather than time dealt with organizational problems or disruptive behaviour. As Burden correctly mentions, low teacher control approach to 'classroom management' does not mean "…the classroom is a chaotic place for learning. There are standards that the students will develop and the teacher is ultimately responsible for enforcing the standards to enable learning to take place in an orderly environment" (p. 38).

To conclude, at the beginning of the study under discussion, it was hypothesized that the student teachers' perceptions of efficiency regarding their classroom management would differ from both the novice and experienced teachers' perceptions of efficiency in classroom management. The results of the interview affirmed this hypothesis of the researcher as it revealed that compared to the novice teachers and experienced teachers who participated in the study, the student teachers perceived themselves inefficient in classroom management.

At the beginning of this research other hypotheses were that there would be a relationship between English language teachers' level of experience and their decision making skills in classroom management and that compared to student teachers and novice teachers, the decision making skills of experienced ELT teachers would be more developed. Nevertheless, both the statistical analysis and the researcher's own observations revealed that experienced teachers did not turn out to be more efficient in their decision-making skills regarding classroom management which falls contrary to the hypotheses of the researcher where the reverse was expected. On the contrary, this is similar to the study by Nunan (1988 in Nunan and Lamb 1996) which revealed that there weren't any differences in the decision-making of teachers with different levels of expertise.

Recommendations for further research

Based on the results of the study, the following are the recommendations for further research.

First of all, an important finding of the study is that student teachers perceived themselves inefficient in classroom management. Therefore, to find out the reasons that lay behind this perceived inefficiency the current study should be replicated with a larger sample including more student teacher participants from different universities.

Secondly, although statistically not significant, the results of the ABCC inventory designated that compared to student and experienced teachers, novice teachers had higher means. It could be more enlightening to interrogate the reasons of this. In addition, the number of participants should be increased to a number which would not lead to any statistical problems.

Thirdly, another research in which the lessons are not audio-taped but also video-taped should be conducted. These videotaped lessons could later be viewed together with the participants and their opinions on their behaviours regarding their decision-making in classroom management can be taken.

In this research, the participants were observed only once mainly due to time constraint on both the researcher's and participant teachers' side. In order to compare teachers' classroom management beliefs with their actual behaviours in their classrooms, there is a strong need to observe the participants more than once. Therefore, for further research this should be taken this into consideration.

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APPENDICE

APPENDIX A

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0,763	0,747	48

Item-Total Statistics

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1. I believe teachers should nurture and encourage student independence and self-expression.	125,522	116,537	0,032	0,765
2. I believe the teacher should direct the student's transition from one learning activity to another.	124,078	115,384	0,211	0,761
3. If a student sat at my desk it would be okay.	124,356	117,763	-0,071	0,775
4. I believe student's emotions and decision making processes must always be considered fully legitimate and valid.	124,356	120,280	-0,234	0,774
5. I believe it's important to continuosly monitor students' learning behavior during seatwork.	124,189	113,776	0,166	0,762
6. If students agree that a classroom rule is unfair, I will explain the reason for the rule.	123,467	112,160	0,544	0,754
7. I believe students should create their own daily routines as this fosters the development of responsibility.	125,411	111,565	0,407	0,754

8. When students do well, I will most likely do nothing since doing well is its own reward.	124,078	102,796	0,727	0,736
9. When a student is repeatedly off-task, I will most likely remove a privilege or require detention.	124,744	116,145	0,030	0,767
10. I assign students to specific seats in the classroom.	124,578	115,025	0,085	0,765
11. Students naturally feel good about themselves when they behave appropriately; there is no need for me to say or do anything	124,356	106,916	0,561	0,745
12. I believe teachers should provide feedback regarding the quality of performance.	123,578	115,331	0,124	0,763
13. I believe students will be successful in school if allowed the freedom to pursue their own interests.	125,356	114,986	0,155	0,762
14. I believe the teacher should decide what topics the students study and the tasks used to study them.	124,522	112,137	0,287	0,757
15. During the first week of the class, I will announce the class room rules and inform students of the penalties for disregarding the rules.	123,922	120,641	-0,212	0,778
16. I believe the primary purpose of homework is to provide supplementary activities that enhance student's learning.	125,689	122,147	-0,455	0,776
17. I believe students will find their own ways of interacting with each other.	124,967	113,060	0,228	0,759
18. The teacher knows best how to allocate classroom materials and supplies to optimize learning.	124,189	112,435	0,280	0,758
19. I do not specify a set time for each learning activity because that can only be determined by the students.	124,189	108,788	0,389	0,752
20. I believe that friendliness, courtesy, and respect for fellow students is something that teachers should demand.	124,589	115,118	0,069	0,766
21. When a student does not complete an assignment on time, I will assume that the student has a good reason.	124,744	109,627	0,427	0,752
22. When a student bothers other students, I will immediately tell the student to be quiet and stop it.	124,244	110,916	0,289	0,757
23. I believe class rules stifle the student's ability to develop as a personal moral code.	124,956	118,657	-0,138	0,770
24. While teaching a lesson on library skills, a student begins to talk about the research she is doing for her book report. I would remind the student that the class has to finish the lesson before the end of the class period.	124,967	123,507	-0,407	0,782
25. I believe teachers should require student compliance and respect for law and order.	124,189	117,235	-0,027	0,767
26. When moving from one learning activity to another, I will allow students to progress at their own rate.	124,800	107,219	0,526	0,747
27. I would be annoyed if a student sat at my desk without permission.	124,689	109,770	0,294	0,756
28. I believe student's emotions and decision making processes must always be considered fully legitimate and valid.	125,078	106,890	0,601	0,745
29. I believe students can mange their own learning behaviour during seatwork.	124,522	111,172	0,400	0,754
30. If students agree that a classroom rule is unfair, then I would replace it with one that students think is fair.	124,522	119,008	-0,125	0,776
31. I believe students need the structure of a daily routine	124,522	105,337	0,560	0,744

that is organized and implemented by the teacher.				
32. I believe my responsibility as a teacher is to reward those students who do well.	123,911	107,841	0,456	0,749
33. When a student is repeatedly off-task, I will most likely ask the student if something is wrong.	125,633	125,695	-0,646	0,784
34. I allow students to select their own seats.	124,522	111,243	0,344	0,755
35. When students behave appropriately, I will provide a reward of some kind such as points toward a party or free time.	124,133	110,654	0,433	0,753
36. I believe students should judge the quality of their own work rather than rely on what the teacher tells them.	124,744	105,510	0,690	0,741
37. I believe students will be successful in school if they listen to adults who know what's best for them.	124,856	110,404	0,313	0,756
38. I believe students should choose the learning topics and tasks.	124,911	109,065	0,475	0,750
39. During the first week of the class, I will allow the students to come up with a set of classroom rules.	125,133	105,713	0,536	0,745
40. I believe the primary purpose of homework is to provide drill and practice of skills learned in the classroom.	124,244	116,939	-0,016	0,768
41. I believe that students need direction in how to work together.	124,078	113,855	0,230	0,760
42. Students in my classroom are free to use any materials they wish during the learning process.	124,856	111,321	0,242	0,759
43. I specify a set time for each learning activity and try to stay within my plans.	124,244	109,927	0,478	0,751
44. I believe that friendliness, courtesy and respect for fellow students is something that students have to learn firsthand through free interaction.	125,267	111,285	0,295	0,757
45. When a student does not complete an assignment on time, I will deduct points accordingly.	124,744	112,945	0,197	0,761
46. When a student bothers other students, my first reaction would be to say nothing and let the students work it out themselves.	124,356	110,068	0,338	0,754
47. I believe class rules are important because they shape the student's behavior and development.	124,078	110,278	0,437	0,752
48. During a lesson on the Bill of Rights, a student begins to tell a story about a neighbor who was falsely arrested for selling drugs, I would let the student tell the story and relate it to the lesson.	125,411	118,882	-0,148	0,771

APPENDIX B

Personal Background:

1. Gender: Male Female

2. Age:

22-26 27-31 32-36 37-40 41-45 46-50 over 50

3. Name of the university you graduated from: _____

4. Field of Study: English Language Teaching
   English Language and Literature
   American Culture and Literature
   Translation and Interpretation
   Other: (please specify) _____

5. Highest academic degree you have: University

   MA (in)_____

   PhD (in)_____

6. Teaching experience:

   None 0-5 years 5-10 years over 10years

APPENDIX C

Interview questions

1. a) How would you define classroom management?

   b) What is the goal of classroom management?

2. Do you find yourself efficient in classroom management? In which areas do you find yourself efficient in classroom management? Why? Why not?

3. Do you find yourself efficient in decision- making? Why? Why not?

4. What factors affect your decision- making in classroom management?

APPENDIX D

ABCC Inventory

Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.

4 (describes me well) 3 (describes me usually) 2 (describes me somewhat)
1 (describes me not at all)

1. I believe teachers should nurture and encourage student independence and self-expression. 4 3 2 1
2. I believe the teacher should direct the student's transition from one learning activity to another. 4 3 2 1
3. If a student sat at my desk it would be okay.
   4 3 2 1
4. I believe student's emotions and decision making processes must always be considered fully legitimate and valid. 4 3 2 1
5. I believe it's important to continuously monitor students' learning behaviour during seatwork. 4 3 2 1

6. If students agree that a classroom rule is unfair, I will explain the reason for the rule. 4 3 2 1
7. I believe students should create their own daily routines as this fosters the development of responsibility. 4 3 2 1
8. When students do well, I will most likely do nothing since doing well is its own reward. 4 3 2 1
9. When a student is repeatedly off-task, I will most likely remove a privilege or require detention. 4 3 2 1
10. I assign students to specific seats in the classroom. 4 3 2 1
11. Students naturally feel good about themselves when they behave appropriately; there is no need for me to say or do anything. 4 3 2 1
12. I believe teachers should provide feedback regarding the quality of performance. 4 3 2 1
13. I believe students will be successful in school if allowed the freedom to pursue their own interests. 4 3 2 1
14. I believe the teacher should decide what topics the students study and the tasks used to study them. 4 3 2 1
15. During the first week of the class, I will announce the class room rules and inform students of the penalties for disregarding the rules. 4 3 2 1
16. I believe the primary purpose of homework is to provide supplementary activities that enhance student's learning. 4 3 2 1
17. I believe students will find their own ways of interacting with each other. 4 3 2 1
18. The teacher knows best how to allocate classroom materials and supplies to optimize learning. 4 3 2 1
19. I do not specify a set time for each learning activity because that can only be determined by the students. 4 3 2 1

20. I believe that friendliness, courtesy, and respect for fellow students is something that teachers should demand. 4 3 2 1
21. When a student does not complete an assignment on time, I will assume that the student has a good reason. 4 3 2 1
22. When a student bothers other students, I will immediately tell the student to be quiet and stop it. 4 3 2 1
23. I believe class rules stifle the student's ability to develop as a personal moral code. 4 3 2 1
24. While teaching a lesson on library skills, a student begins to talk about the research she is doing for her book report. I would remind the student that the class has to finish the lesson before the end of the class period. 4 3 2 1
25. I believe teachers should require student compliance and respect for law and order. 4 3 2 1
26. When moving from one learning activity to another, I will allow students to progress at their own rate. 4 3 2 1
27. I would be annoyed if a student sat at my desk without permission. 4 3 2 1
28. I believe student's emotions and decision making processes must always be considered fully legitimate and valid. 4 3 2 1
29. I believe students can mange their own learning behaviour during seatwork. 4 3 2 1
30. If students agree that a classroom rule is unfair, then I would replace it with one that students think is fair. 4 3 2 1
31. I believe students need the structure of a daily routine that is organized and implemented by the teacher. 4 3 2 1
32. I believe my responsibility as a teacher is to reward those students who do well. 4 3 2 1
33. When a student is repeatedly off-task, I will most likely ask the student if something is wrong. 4 3 2 1

34. I allow students to select their own seats.

4 3 2 1

35. When students behave appropriately, I will provide a reward of some kind such as points toward a party or free time. 4 3 2 1

36. I believe students should judge the quality of their own work rather than rely on what the teacher tells them. 4 3 2 1

37. I believe students will be successful in school if they listen to adults who know what's best for them. 4 3 2 1

38. I believe students should choose the learning topics and tasks.

4 3 2 1

39. During the first week of the class, I will allow the students to come up with a set of classroom rules. 4 3 2 1

40. I believe the primary purpose of homework is to provide drill and practice of skills learned in the classroom. 4 3 2 1

41. I believe that students need direction in how to work together.

4 3 2 1

42. Students in my classroom are free to use any materials they wish during the learning process. 4 3 2 1

43. I specify a set time for each learning activity and try to stay within my plans.

4 3 2 1

3

2

1

4

3

2

1

4

3

2

1

44. I believe that friendliness, courtesy and respect for fellow students is something that students have to learn firsthand through free interaction.

4 3 2 1

45. When a student does not complete an assignment on time, I will deduct points accordingly. 4 3 2 1

46. When a student bothers other students, my first reaction would be to say nothing and let the students work it out themselves.

4 3 2 1

47. I believe class rules are important because they shape the student's behaviour and development. 4 3 2 1

48. During a lesson on the Bill of Rights, a student begins to tell a story about a neighbour who was falsely arrested for selling drugs, I would let the student tell the story and relate it to the lesson.

4 3 2 1

Thank You☺

APPENDIX E

A sample tapescript of the recordings for an experienced teacher

School: School 1, Anabilim Private High School
Section: 9
Date: 27.04. 2006
Time: 14.30 a.m.
Number of ss: 15
Teacher: Participant 1
Material: New Snapshot Intermediate

Management code:

The bell rings. This is the second phase of the lesson; the teacher is planning to go on with the book. On the board there are some vocabulary exercises. One of the students erases the board as we enter the classroom. The teacher thanks him. The student goes back to his seat. All the students are sitting properly in their seats and waiting for the teacher to start her lesson. The teacher opens her book, comes to the middle of the classroom and starts her lesson:

T: Alright let's start. **TM**
St 1: Hocam ne yazıyorduk?
T: I don't know.
St1: Aaaaa.

The teacher is trying to select a proper place for the researcher to sit and observe the lesson.

T: So, let's finish writing this. **IM**
T: A good education…
T: In your notebooks, you are writing down a little paragraph. **IM**
T: Alright, yes now what we are going to do is; I'm going to read out something and when we finish writing it down, remember that vocabulary bank…. **IM**
T: …state school , private school, compulsory, optional and to pass an exam, to fail an exam, to take an exam. So you are going to write down a paragraph, then I want you to underline the vocabulary we studied in the vocabulary bank.

IM

T: Ready? **TM**

When I was at school, when I was at school ***quickly please****,* **TM**
I did well,….. in most subjects,….subjects but I was really …..bad at geography, bad at geography….I wanted to drop it …but my teachers persuaded me, persuaded me, not to… and when I took my…. public exam I got…..

The door opens and a late comer appears at the door. Teacher approaches him, takes the student out and talks to him outside the class. **D**

St2: I got dedi bıraktı hoca
St2: Yeter işte, ha ha
St3: Ya ben çok kötü yazdım baştan yazıcam
St2: Ya şu Geography nasıl yazılıyor yaaa?
St2: Geography yazamadım
St3: Geo-g-ra-p-hy

The teacher and the late comer come back, teacher tells the student to go and sit down properly without disturbing others (using body language-non verbal clues) and then she goes on dictating the paragraph. ***D***

T: *Alright a really good grade, grade …in geography , so I suppose they were right.*
St4: Hocam bir saniye
St4: Yazmıyor bu kalem
St4: Allah cezanı vermesin
T: Stop talking, go on writing **D**
T: *I have studied hard*
St1: Daha devam ediyor muyuz?
T: Yes
T: ***(to the late comer)*** You will write later. **D**

Repeating that sentence

T: I *have studied hard, so I got good results in my other subjects, but I decided not to… go on to university…go on to university because I had spent …I had spent… so much of my time, so much of my time studying*.
T: Studying. *I wanted*
St1: Hocam bunu niye yazıyoruz???
T: I told you why and I won't repeat why. **D**
T: *I wanted a grade so …I worked and traveled for a year. Then I got into an art school. I had… a really good time, I had a really good time, I passed all my exams too and got a certificate…*

Writes 'certificate' on the board

T: *…..in fabric design*

St4: Fabrika mı bu?
T: No!!!
T: What's this? ***(pointing to a t-shirt)*** A kind of cloth
St4: Kumaş
T: Well done. **PM**
St4: Heey, ben buldum
T: O.K
T: Last sentence is coming, **IM**
T: *And now, I teach at the art school*.
T: (***Explains the students)*** I teach at the private school, that person teaches at the art school. **IM**
T: O.K, Buse look at the first sentence and tell us what we are going to do is,…. Remember this vocabulary bank here, you have studied some words based on education and in that writing some of them I used in the sentence. That means you will be better in understanding those parts. **IM**

T: And Buse look at the first sentence and tell me which ones I've used **IM**
St5: ***…….. can't be heard, too silent***
T: Speak up, I don't understand **IM**
T: Do well var in subjects, so that is used in the sentence.
T: O.K to do well in a subject what else? **IM**
St5: …….
T: Do you understand what we are doing? We are trying to find out words **IM**
St5: To be bad at
T: To be bad at yes, to be bad at smth
T: Mete, what about the next? **IM**
T: The next sentence is..
St6: ***No answer, thinking***
T: I wanted to drop it, but my teachers persuaded me not to, and then I took my public exam, you can stop me. **IM**
St6: Go to university.
St: Where is go to university in this sentence? **IM**
St6: Hocam bir de to get good grades vardı.
T: Alright.
T: You help your friends, the sentence is… I wanted to drop it, and the end will be they were right, so which ones are given in the bank?
St6: Get good grades.
T: and before that,
St6: I wanted to drop it
St6: Take exam
T: Do you understand? There is take exam and then good grades.
T: It is your turn Can. **IM**
St7: Bir alt satırda studied hard var, I got good results var, and then I got into art school var
T&Sts: Go on university, university, go to college, go to university

T: Alright, that is over for you. **TM**
T: And yes Volkan? **IM**
St8: I got into……..
St 8: And got a certificate var,
T: Alright, so there is a vocabulary bank given, I want you to pick up some words, remember that typical HW, I want you to pick up some words and create a story. This time I did it,
T: A very important question

Music coming from outside, the students are disturbed, the teacher explains why and tries to maintain a better and a more silent atmosphere by closing some windows and the curtains as well. **IM**

T: This is the third fourth floor, so you can hear some music.
T: Alright, now one minute break is over. **TM**
St7: One minute olmadı.
St9: Daha 30 saniye var.
T: ***(ignoring st 7&9)*** Serkan, we are going to talk about rules, school rules.
T: Let's listen to your friend please, because you are going to add other things. **D**
St9: The rule is O.K. for me, it is good.
T: Good is too general, be more specific . **IM**
T: Something was very bad, for example, not very, (***showing the band on his wrist)***
T: ***(Smiling)*** you shouldn't have that band on the wrist **D**

Students are talking altogether

T: ***(Shouting)*** I don't hear you sorry. **D**
T: We are talking about rules.
St7: Oh my God!!!
T: Alright yeah, so you are satisfied with the school rules, you think that they are O.K?
St9: ***No answer.***
T: Do you remember the vocabulary bank part, two words? **IM**
T: Obeying or disobeying, is he obeying or disobeying?
St7: He is disobeying the rules,
St7: Kolunda bant var.
Sts: Ama hiçbişey demiyorlar.
St9: Yok hocam bana bişey söylemiyorlar,
T: Alright, now İlknur, I want you to read a part here, pg 63 please, It says our school charter **IM**
St7: May I?
T: İlknur is going to read **IM**
T: This is … teacher and students go and agree on something, So that everybody can obey the rules.

T: Can you read the left hand column please? **IM**

St 10 reads the right one and the teacher warns her

T: No the left one **IM**

The student is reading

T: Now, what about teachers' comments, can you read that please? **IM**
T: ***(warning tone)*** Let's listen to Ece. **D**

St 11 is reading.

T: Now I'm going to do a group activity, Buse come here, you are a group, whenever he says something, he is going to…. one piece of paper is enough,, and you two, yeah, you work together .Alright, Yiğitcan you go there, Serkan you three, take a piece of paper. **GM**

T: Now everybody, take a piece of paper, first of all, don't forget to write your name, and then just divide it in two, in one part you are going to write your promises, and what about the teacher? The other part is going to write teachers promises. **IM**

Sts ask questions (not clear as the class became too noisy all of a sudden)

T: Only five minutes, it will be enough (24 min 10 sec) **TM**

Students are doing group work.

T: 4, 5 minutes left **TM**
……
T: 4 minutes, go on **TM**
……..
Teacher listens to the students, tries not to interfere, just nods and smiles

T: 3 minutes left **TM**
…….
T: Two and a half **TM**
…….
T: Write down your last sentence, I'm going to collect them, quickly **TM**
T: Time is up (30 min.40 sec) **TM**

T collects papers

Sts: Hayıııır

T: Buse go back, quickly **GM**
T: Gürkan here, İlknur don't move, come here Ece. Kaan you go there. **GM**
T: Alright, of course we are going to read it loudly, but next lesson, First of all, no I gotta check first **IM**

St7: Hocam okuyalım lütfen.
T: No!!! I said next lesson, I want to check them first otherwise. **D**

T: Now, take a piece of paper, 7 people in one group now. One will be enough for each **GM**
St4: Take a piece of paper
T: Quickly **TM**
T: Alright now you know, now we'll do the same, while we were studying the first type
(From their facial expressions, she understands that her students have no clue what she is trying to explain)
T***:*** What am I talking about? **IM**
Sts: Hocam valla anlasak?
T: Let me give you an example, this group (***pointing the group***) is going to write 3 if types, but this time you are going to write *if I were you structure*, not if I went somewhere, type 2 and you ***(pointing to the other group)*** are going to write 3 *would* parts **GM**
T: You know how to use the papers, fold them **IM**
St4: Hocam if I were olmak zorunda mı?
T: Yes, 7 of you here, please. **GM**

Students are talking loudly as they are forming groups.
T: I don't want you to stand up **D**
……
St6: Hocam **(shouting)** birşey sorabilir miyim?
St 6: ***…….(not clear)***
T: Agree olur tabi.
T: Don't let them hear you. **GM**
T: I just want you to remember ……
T: You know the rules; never look at the back of the paper, and you know the rules, never change anything. **GM**

T: Alright, today you are ***(pointing to the left hand side of the room)*** "if group" and they are (***right hand side of the room***) "would group". **GM**
T: Finished? **TM**
Sts: Çabuk yaa, finish işte
T: Finish it quickly. **TM**
T: Buse, take the paper, go to the board and let's listen to your friend **IM**
St5: If I got a .., we would ……
St5: If I were a rich girl we would get away from school

T: Which one is the best?
St10: If I was a teacher, she would get married
St10: If I were a teacher, I would be married.
Sts laugh……..
St10: If I made a joke I would go to Africa
Sts laugh……
T: Your HW is written here ***(the teacher had written their HW on the board***), and for the time left, start the if part……. **IM**
T: Can? **IM**
S 7: I would……

The bell rings

APPENDIX F

A sample tapescript of the recordings for a novice teacher

School: School 6, Tahran State High School

Section: 9 Classic

Date: 12.05. 2006

Time: 12.30

Number of ss: 28

Teacher: Participant 17

Material: CB (not mentioned)

		Management Code
Teacher and I enter the class .Students are all around		
T:	Good afternoon	**PM**
Sts:	Good afternoon teacher	
Students go on talking to each other,		
T:	Arkadaşlar üstünüzü başınızı düzeltir misiniz?	**D**
T:	Beyler,bayanlar,lütfen!	**D**
St1:	Ali nereye oğlum?	**D**
T:	Zaten gördüğüm kadarıyla herkes turist modunda	**D**
St:	Hocam	
T:	Arkadaşlar bir şey sormayın yerleşir misiniz?	**D**

Continuous talking in the class while she is taking the attendance;

T: Kim yok bugün?
Sts: x ***(not clear)*** yok hocam

Students are shouting at each other from one corner of the class to other, making jokes, some of them aren't in their seats yet.

St2: Hocam dönem ödevlerimizi okudunuz mu?

Teacher doesn't reply

She takes the book in her hands, and stands in the middle of the class and starts her lesson.

(3 minutes 39 seconds)

T:	Page 90 please, open your books everyone.	**IM**
T:	***(patiently)*** Arkadaşlar tamam artık, tamam artık Halilcim tamam.	**D**
T:	Arkadaşlar burada ne görüyorsunuz?	**IM**
St1:	Aile	
St2:	Bir nikah töreni	
T:	Bir nikah toreni görüyorsunuz başka?	**IM**
St3:	Gelin var,damat var,	
St4:	Kurban bayramı	
St5:	Şeker bayramı	

Students are shouting

T:	Beyler bayanlar !!!	**D**
T:	Biraz yavaş ama	**D**
St1:	Hocam bir tane cami görüyorum oralarda	
T:	Peki sizce nasıl kelimeler,bunlar neyle ilgili kelimeler?	**IM**
Sts:	Özel günlerle ilgili	
T:	Hangi özel günler, bütün özel günler mi?	**IM**
St1:	Bayramlar	
St2:	Dini bayramlar	

Students are shouting

T:	Firstly, it's about wedding.	**IM**
St1:	Hocam bayramlar.	
T:	Do you know what wedding is?	**IM**
Sts:	Yes, düğün	
T:	This is a wedding ceremony	
T:	Düğünde kimler olur? Öncelikle kimler olur?	**IM**
Sts:	Gelin, damat	

Students are constantly talking to each other, teacher writes down some vocabulary on the board

T:	Çocuklar bugün susacak mısınız acaba?	**D**
T:	Bir zahmet, bir zahmet Şafak!	**D**
T:	So in this book, the first part is talking about wedding, wedding ceremony	
T:	Biraz önce de sordum, in a wedding ceremony we have …..	
T:	***(writes on the board)*** The bride and the groom	
T:	This one, (pointing at the book) this lady is the bride	
T:	Repeat after me, bride	
Sts:	Bride	
T:	Groom	

Sts: Groom
T: And the man is the groom, O.K.?
T: The lady is the bride and the man is groom
T: Burda küçük bir bayan var gelinin arkasında
St6: Medine
Students laugh
T: Arkadaşlar lütfen biraz yavaş **D**
T: Biraz yavaş **D**
T: Biraz yavaaaas **D**
T: Evet, nedime kim var dedik

Teacher writes bridesmaid on the board

T: We call her bridesmaid
T: Uykudan kalk bakayım sen **D**
St7: Hocam yaaa
T: Peki gelinin üzerinde ne var?
Sts: Gelinlik
T: In English **IM**
T: Wedding gown, repeat after me
Sts: Wedding gown
T: Repeat after me, Mesuuut? **D**
Sts: Wedding gown
T: Peki gelinlik harici neler var?

Students are shouting their answers, teacher frowns

T: Şu gürültü kirliliğini bir yapmasanız **D**
T : Şu gürültü kirliliğini bir yapmasanız **D**
T : Uffffffffff **D**

Silence in class

T: Teşekkürler **PM**

T: So the bride wears a wedding gown and a veil on her head. The bride wears a wedding gown and a veil on her head, plus she has a bouquet of flowers in her hands, yes?***(uses gestures, mimics)*** **IM**
Sts: Çiçek?
T: And of course in this ceremony, bride, groom, plus bridesmaid plus there are ***(Writes it down)*** wedding guests
T: Repeat after me; wedding guests **IM**
Sts: Wedding guests
T: So in a wedding ceremony, we have we have the bride with the bridesmaid, Mesut-cuğum(***as he's dealing with something else***)

here, we have the groom, **D**

T: The bride wears a wedding gown and a veil on her head and she has flowers in her hands

T: And there are lots of wedding guests O.K.?

St8: Guest?

T: What does guest mean? **IM**

St8: Ben de size soruyorum.

T: People who are invited to a wedding ceremony

T: Bir düğüne katılan davetliler

T: Alicim burda mısın? (***as he put his head on the desk, sleeping mode)*** **D**

St2: Evet.

T: Emin misin?

T: Peki başka evlilik,ya da düğün,tören neyse başka aklınıza neler geliyo?

Sts: Gelin alma,

T: Simdilik burdaki kelimelere bakarmisiniz?

St2 : Altın çil çil altın

St6: Hocam bunlar yemek bunlar yemek

T: Sssh **D**

T: Ayy dilinizi eşek arısı soksun,vır vır vırrrrr,yeter **D**

St2 : Allah korusun

T: First here

T: Mesut!!! **D**

T: Wedding cake

St: Düğün pastası

T: What's reception?

T: Evet resepsiyon ama oteldeki değil tabi

Sts: Evet

Sts: Kokteyl

T: So

Writes honeymoon down on the board

Sts: Balayı

T: What's honeymoon?

Sts: Balayı

T: Sshhh, Emine!!! **D**

T: If my ring is on my right hand side, that's get engaged,
if my ring, Sema, on my left hand side that's get married

T: First you get engaged, then you get married, O.K.?

T: So repeat after me please: get married, get engaged ***(twice)*** **IM**

T: Selceni duymadım ama olsun. **PM**

St 9: Valla söyledim

T: So if someone gets married, the man and the woman become a couple a couple?

Sts: Çift

T: And after the ceremony they go to the honeymoon

Sts: Balayı
T: Tam Türkçeye çevirirsek de böyle oluyor zaten

Students are talking

T:	Sohbeti sonra yapsak	**D**
St5:	Biz sohbet yapmıyoruz ki	
St2:	Sen de sohbet yapmıyorsan	
T:	The first exercise please	**IM**
T:	Hemen yapıyoruz arkadaşlar	**TM**
T:	Match the numbers with the words	**IM**
St9:	Ya işte numaraları şeylerle eşleme	
T:	Match the numbers with the pictures please	**IM**
T:	Halil (***as he's chatting***) have you finished?	**D**
St10:	Bitti hocam	
T:	Tümay have you finished?	**TM**
T:	O.K, so picture one is what?	**IM**
T:	O.K picture one is what?	**IM**
T:	Sema!!!	**D**
T:	O.K picture one is what?	
T:	Picture one is what?	**IM**
St11:	Three	
St11:	O ne hocam, groom, veil, bride	
T:	Kendi aranızdaki sohbeti bırakır misiniz artık,yine sesim yükseliyor!	**D**
T:	What's picture 1?	**IM**
T	Arkadaşlar birinci resim ne?(a bit surprised that they can't answer)	**IM**
St:	Gelin	
T:	So picture 1 is bride	
T:	What about picture 2?	**IM**
StS:	Wedding guests	
T:	What about picture three? Picture 3, Emine?	**IM**
St12:	Wedding gown	
T:	Picture four	
Sts:	Bouquet of flowers	
T:	Picture five?	
Sts:	Bridesmaid, Medine ha haa	
T:	Ne demek bridesmaid?	**IM**
St2:	Medine	

Students are laughing

T:	Ne yapıyor?	
T:	O.K. picture 5 is bridesmaid	
T:	What about picture six?	**IM**
Sts:	Groom	
T:	Picture 6 is groom.	

T: What about picture seven? **IM**
Sts: Veil
St2: Bu kadar bitti

T: I'm reading once more**…** ***(Teacher reads aloud the answers again.)*** **IM**

T: O.K. bir alttaki alıştırmayı yapıcaz ama iyice bu 5 tane kelime anlaşıldı mi? **IM**
Sts: Eveeet
T: Biraz süre veriyorum arkadaşlar,çünkü orda cümleleri de anlamanız gerekiyor, bizim öğrendiğimiz ecek-acak kalıbı var,going to future kalıbı var ,ona göre acaba arkasından fiil mi gelecek gelmicek bi düşünün bakalım **TM**
T: Herkes ama herkes lütfen . **PM**

Students are talking to each other

T: I am the bride, he's the groom; we are a couple
Sts: Ooooh
St11: Couple ne demek?
St2: Hocam uyku bastırdı bi yüzümü yıkayabilir miyim?
Teacher ignores him **D**
St5: Otelde sandı bu kendini

Student are laughing

T: Bugün neden bu kadar dağınık olduğunuzu sorabilir miyim? **D**
St2: Hocam bahar yorgunluğu

T: Arkadaşlar devamlı uyarmam mı gerek sizi ya? **D**
St2: Hayır
T: Rica ediyorum***!(patiently)*** **D**
T: Sema!!(***now angrily)*** ***D***

Silence for the first time in class.

T: Eveeeet devam edebilir miyiz?
T: Tom and Mary are engaged
T: As I said engaged is…….
Sts: Nişanlı
T: Nişanlı olduklarına göre
T: They are going to get married in July
T: They are going to get married in July, Kaancım1 **IM**
T: After, wedding
T: Wedding ne?
T: Nesi?
T: Wedding ceremony değil de ne? **IM**

St5: Reception
T: Reception, good
T: at the wedding reception bakalım ne olacakmış Büşrağ? **IM**
St14: They are going to cut the wedding cake
T: and serve a piece, dilim parça, to each other
T: After the wedding, the newlywed, yani yeni evlenen ne? **IM**
Sts: Couple
T: Yes, are going to go on their honeymoon.
T: Bir kere daha okur musunuz arkadaşlar, rahat anlayabiliyor musunuz? **IM**
St12: Hocam wedding ne?

She goes next to student 12 and explains silently **PM**

St 15 is reading:
T: Ok so when are they going to get married? **IM**

T: When are they going to get married?
T: When are they going to get married?

St2: In july
T: Bu kadar kişi mi? **PM**
T: Çok yazık!!! **PM**
St2: In July
T: Make a full sentence **IM**
St: They are going to in July
T: Going to what? **IM**
Sts Get married
T: O.K.
T: Are they going to cut the wedding cake? ***3 times)***
T: Bu kadarcık mı yine? **PM**
St5 Yes they are
T: After cutting the wedding cake, what are they going to do?
St5 Bir daha
T: After cutting the wedding cake, what are they going to do? **IM**

T: Vedatçım burada mısın oğlum?(***as he's been sleeping***) **PM**
T: In English of course. Yes Ödül? **IM**
St17: they are going to go serve a piece to each other.

T: After the wedding Mesut? What are they going to do? **IM**
St8: Honeymoon
T: Make a sentence please **IM**
St8: Go on their honey moon
T: O.K, they are going to go on their holiday

T: Biraz kurban bayramina geçelim mi? **IM**

T: Çünkü, bu arada arkadaşlar bisey söyleyebilir miyim izninizle? Bu bizim kültürümüzle ilgili bir bayram oldugu için , ben bu kelimeleri biraz daha dikkatli öğrensek daha iyi olur , bir yabanci misafirimiz geldiğinde ,kendimizi ya da kültürümüzü tanıtmak istiyorsak ,Tunacım, böyle bir firsatimiz olursa bence bu kelimeleri iyice öğrensek iyi olur diyorum.

St11: Kurban bayramına İngilizce ne diyorlar?

T: Kurban bayram diyorlar.

Students are laughing

T: Evet geri dönduk, hepimiz kurban bayramında neler yaptığımızı biliyoruz kendi kültürümüzü tanıyoruz ama…….. ama ……. Ama **D**

Students are laughing

T: Ya ben bugün beğenmedim sizi, gitmiyor farkındaysanız **D**

T: (***looking at the students a bit disappointed)*** Ben de çok gülmek istiyorum ama gülemiyorum **D**

T: We sacrifice

T: Bu kelimeyi hiç duydunuz mu?

T: Adamak

T: Peki kurban bayramında ne yapıyoruz? **IM**

T: We sacrifice the sheep

St11: Sheep ne

St2: Meeeee

St: Koyun

T: Ya ben anladım,siz tenefüse çıkmak istemiyorsunuz, ben anladım derdinizi **D**

Sts: Yok hocam

St2: Ben istiyorum da arkadaşlar istemiyolar

Silence in class

T: Bu mudur ya?

T: Ben sizi yetişkin olarak kabul ediyorum arkadaşlar, böyle tenefüse çıkma çıkmama cezalarıyla susturmak istemiyorum, kendiliğinizden susun bence **PM**

T: Can you have a look at the blue box please? **IM**

T: Eşleştirmeden önce bilmediğiniz kelime var mı önce ?

T: Olması lazım bence de o yüzden

Sts: Feast

T: Festival ya da kutlama

St: Mosque, mosque?

Students are shouting

T: Hepinizi aynı anda duymam mümkün degil **D**

T: Yes, Kübra? **IM**

St18: Traditional dessert?

T: Geleneksel tatlı, Baklava is a traditional dessert

St2: Hocam Mosque?
T: Mosque, cami
T: Repeat after me please, mosque **IM**
St9: cemetery?
T: Mezarlık
T: Kübracım!!! **D**
T: Traditional dessert means geleneksel tatlı
St4: Clothes?
T: Shoes, skirts all of them are my clothes
St15: Funfair ne?
T: Lunepark, eğlence merkezi
St: Meat?
T: bu iki e ile yazılan değil dikkat edin,
T: We give meat to poor people when?
T: In kurban bayram
T: yani, meat is et, poor is fakir.
T: Baska bilmediğimiz var mı?
T: Kübracım başka var mı? **IM**
St5: feast?
T: Feast means festival ya da kutlama
T: Bir eşler misiniz lütfen, bir önce yapmaya çalışın **IM**
T: Biraz emek harcadığını görsem **PM**
St2: Harcıyorum, çalışıyorum.
St9: Hocam
St9: Funfair ne demek?

Despite her warnings and threatening, the students don't obey classroom rules. They don't stop talking to each other, and they never raise their hands when they are willing to answer. Also, whenever they have a question to ask, such as the meaning of unknown vocabulary they shout altogether.

T: Bir daha mümkünse herkes aynı yerde oturmasın.Benim söylediğim yerde oturacak herkes, bir dahaki derse. **D**
St2: O zaman uzaktan uzağa
T: Hayır(***firmly)*** **D**
T: O.K the first one, **IM**
St: to make a traditional dessert
St14: geleneksel tatlı yapmak
T: Visit ne? **IM**
St16: Cemetery
T: Or for our dead relatives
T: 2 b, 3 I wear what? **IM**
Sts: New clothes
T: di mi hep bayramda özen gösterilir.
T: Go ne? **IM**

Sts: Go to the mosque

T: Early in the morning go to the mosque or go to the funfair di mi?
T: Give what? **IM**
St11 Give meat to the poor
T: or sweet to the children
T: have **IM**
Sts: have a feast ne güzel.
T: Kiss? **IM**
Sts: old people's hands.
T: O.K. repeat after me please **IM**

T: Make a traditional dessert **IM**
Sts: Make a traditional dessert
T: Wear new clothes **IM**
Sts: Wear new clothes
T: Go to the fun fair **IM**
Sts: Go to the fun fair
T: Go the mosque **IM**
Sts: Go the mosque
T: Give meat to the poor **IM**
Sts: Give meat to the poor
T: Kiss old peoples' hands **IM**
Sts: Kiss old peoples' hands

T: Bunları iyi anladığımıza göre o zaman hemen resimlerle de yapalım **IM**
St 5: 1 is give sweet to children
T: Number 2 ne acaba? Vedat ? **IM**
St16: Traditional dessert
T: Make a traditional dessert
T: Number 3, yes Ayşegül **IM**
St19: Wear new clothes.
T: 4 ? Yes **IM**
St3: have a feast
T: Five Tunacım? **IM**
St: visit the cemetery
T: Number 5 visit the cemetery
T: Number 6, Sema? **IM**
St 11: Go to the mosque
T: Yes Halil, number 7 **IM**
St10: Give meat to the poor
ST: Hocam?
T: Number 8, Kaan? **IM**
St13: Go to the funfair
T: Number 9?
St14: Kiss old people's hands
T: The last one, bir kişi mi, only one? **IM**

Sts: Visit relatives
T: O.K. close your books everyone **IM**

Sts: Niye?
T: Close your books .
Sts: Neden?
T: Close your books everyone. **IM**
T: Ne kaldı aklınızda ?
Sts: Hiçbirşey
St2: Bayramlar güzeldir
Students are shouting again
T: Bir saniye hepinizi aynı anda dinleyemiyorum,sadece 2 kulağım var, **D**
T: Yes Barış? **IM**
St21: give meat to the poor
T: Güzel, başka? **PM**
St5: Go to the fun fair
T: O.K.
St16: Give sweet to the children
St: Make a traditional dessert
T: desert dersen çöl oldu ,olmadı, be careful!!!
T: What else?
St: give sweet to the children
St18: Kiss old people's hands
T: Good, kiss old people's hands
St: Visit relatives,
T: Esra? **IM**
St15: Wear new clothes
T: Başka? **IM**
St 13: Go to the cemetery
T: Başka, what else? **IM**
St 21: Hocam şey, bir dakika
St21: Sacrifice the sheep
T: O.K.
T: So
T: So, so ***claps her hands*** **D**
T: So at Kurban bayram, early in the morning we go to the mosque, then we sacrifice the sheep O.K.? Then we kiss old people's hands and our visit relative or we go to the cemetery, then old people give sweet to children, sometimes money sometimes sweet, now we have a feast with our family after we sacrifice the sheep, we give meat to the poor, sometimes we go the cemetery.
T: Unuttuğumuz bir şey var mı?
St: Yok
St: go to the cemetery
T: I said that, go to the cemetery

T: Peki evlilikle ilgili ne kaldı ?
Sts: Honeymoon
T: For example this one? ***pointing the pictures on the book)*** **IM**
Sts: Veil, veil
T: This
Sts: Wedding cake
T: This
Sts: Groom, groom

T: I am the what
Sts: Bride
T: He is the
Sts: Groom
T: We are the
Sts: Couple

End of the lesson

APPENDIX G

A sample tapescript of the recordings of a student teacher

School: School 2, Çevre Private High School

Section: 6-C

Date: 09.06. 2006

Time: 11.15 a.m

Number of ss: 13

Teacher: Participant 6

Material: Network 2 Unit 6-2 pg. 59 "Festivities"

Management Code

As we (Mrs. Hamiloğlu & I) enter the classroom, the student teacher, participant 6 is already there, ready for his presentation. Mrs. Hamiloğlu introduces herself and the student teacher shows us a proper place to sit and observe his lesson.

T: Good morning . **PM**
T: Today we are going to do a lesson altogether. **PL**
T: ***(very low voic)*** First of all, I want to ask you about the festivals in Turkey, you know the festivals? For example? **IM**
St1: Yes
T: Anybody? For example, 1 Nisan **IM**
St2: ***not clear***
T: Anybody? You can say it in Turkish, their names, for example, 1 Nisan.
T: Anybody else, who wants to say about festivals? **IM**
T: Think about it, think about our festivals **IM**
St1: The 30th of the August
St2: and there is the thirty oneth of December?
No correction by the teacher

T: Now, we,…. we are going to talk about the festivals in United Kingdom, you know there are different festivals **IM**
T: Festivals in United Kingdom Anybody , who knows? **IM**
Sts: ***not clear***
The teacher had prepared some visual materials in power point:

T: Look at the first one, love, rose, sweet, flowers, when you see them you can see think that it's about love. **IM**

Sts giggle, say yes

T: St Valentine's Day and you like it very much **PM**
St1: We can't see it because the projection is out
T: Oh ,I'll do it for you **PM**
T: What does snow white tell you, stand up please **D**
T: Presents, tree, turkey, and
Sts: Halloween
St1: We are not celebrating new years
St2: Yes, we don't celebrate Halloween
T: Who wants to talk about Halloween? Who wants to say anything about it? **IM**
St3: Children take sweets from homes***.(very low voice, can be hardly heard by the class)*** **IM**
T: Today we are going to talk about "Guy Fawkes" **PL**
T: Do you know anything about it?
T: I want you to look at the verbs before we start, ***blow out, gunpowder, fireworks***,
T: Do you know the meaning of them?
Sts: Yes
T: Do you know ***blowing up*** for example, you know most of them
Sts: Yes
T: ***(too low can't be heard)*** and now you will see the Guy Fawkes day meaning and its history **IM**
T: Who wants to read it?
St1: Please
T: Yes go on **IM**

St 1 is reading……
Teacher corrects some pronunciation mistakes

T: O.K thank you, who wants to continue? **PM& IM**

St 4 is reading…….

T: Did you understand the story? Did you get it? **IM**
Sts: Yes
T: On the 5th of November, Guy Fawkes tries to do something, he has a plan, he wanted to blow up the parliament, didn't he? **IM**
St1: Yes
T: Look at the story again and I have quiz for you **PL**
T: Just read it <u>carefully</u>, a one minute quiz, **TM**

Sts are reading the text again and answering the questions……...

T: Finished? **TM**
Sts: Yes
T: This is the man .Who is it?
Sts: Guy Fawkes
T: The first one, who wants to do it? **IM**
T: Yes, please **IM**
St2: Guy Fawkes was a protestant, no, false, he was a Catholic
T: That's right, yes please, **IM**
St5: It's not James two, it's James one
T: Yes, that's right go on. **IM**
St6: Guy Fawkes used gunpowder, yes it's true.
T: And the fourth one, who wants to do it……yes please. **IM**
St1: Guy Fawkes was executed on the king's order, yes it's true
T Yes, and last one now **IM**
St2: Not the last one
T: Yes, not the last one, O.K who will do it? **IM**
St: There is a lot of fire on Guy Fawkes Day, true
T: Yes, it's true
T: Now, the last one **IM**
St2*:* ***not clear***

T: Thank you very much **PM**
T: Now I want you to listen the tape and I want you to listen to the tape carefully, we don't have enough time, so we are going to listen it only once, just one time only. **IM&TM**
T: Open your books, page 59. **IM**
St2: Yes, I find
T: Here ,there are some pictures, look at the pictures and think about them, what they are telling us , this is the story of Guy Fawkes, look at the pictures, you will put them in an order after you listen the tape. For example, what's happening in the first picture? In A? Yes please **IM**
St6: There's a man, a prisoner I think, he tells everything about Guy Fawkes,
St2: No, he's a torturer
St2: Yes, he wants to know, but he doesn't say to the torturer.
T: Yes, the other one? **IM**
St3: They are carrying I think the gunpowder and somebody is
T: Somebody is doing something
St1: Looking at them
T: Yes, And c **IM**
St1: I think they are writing a letter and he wants to tell king and a man will take this……
T: And d, quickly please **IM&TM**
St6: There's a man who is King of England and Scotland, there's a parliament too,

T: Yes
St6: He opens the parliament.
T: O. K. We will go on.
St8: There's a man writing a letter
T: What's the topic?
St3: Can I read?

St 3 is reading

St3: I think b and c are related
St3:: He says you shouldn't go to the parliament,
St3: Yes, to the opening because he knows
T: What?
St3: That it's going to blow up
T: The other one, who wants to do it? **IM**
St2: They are going to hang three people, everyone … that
T: and h, who wants to do it? Look at the picture **IM**
T: There's a war, he's an old man…….
T: The last one, O.K quick please **IM**
St5: I think they are catching Guy Fawkes, by the help of his man, the letter and
T: and they are going to arrest him
St5: Yes
T: We are going to listen the tape; you will put an order, the questions, O. K we will start **IM**

Sts are talking while the teacher is preparing the tape……

T: O.K. everybody listen please **D**

Tape is on…….
The students are all listening silently, some are taking notes.

T: Did you put them in an order? **IM**
Sts: Yes
T: The first one then **IM**
St2: ***not clear***
T: Yes
St3: H
T: third one **IM**
St1: B
T: and the fourth one **IM**
St3: E
T: The other one **IM**
St6: C
T: Next **IM**

St7: I
T: Yes, please **IM**
St8: D
T: The other one……. **IM**
St2: A
T: The last one is…… **IM**
St1: G

T: O.K, now I am going to give you something about Guy Fawkes, and our lesson is going to finish, and with different subjects my friend will go over with the lesson. **PL**
T: Take them and at the end I will give you the key.