

2011

Examining the perceptions of teachers' efficacy in handling student misbehavior (TEHSM) in classroom and physical education settings

Costas Nicou Tsouloupas

Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_dissertations



Part of the [Kinesiology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Tsouloupas, Costas Nicou, "Examining the perceptions of teachers' efficacy in handling student misbehavior (TEHSM) in classroom and physical education settings" (2011). *LSU Doctoral Dissertations*. 2695.

https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_dissertations/2695

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at LSU Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in LSU Doctoral Dissertations by an authorized graduate school editor of LSU Digital Commons. For more information, please contact gradetd@lsu.edu.

EXAMINING THE PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS' EFFICACY
IN HANDLING STUDENT
MISBEHAVIOR (TEHSM) IN CLASSROOM AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION SETTINGS

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
Requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

In

The Department of Kinesiology

By
Costas Nicou Tsouloupas
Bachelor of Science, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, 2003
Bachelor of Arts, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, 2004
Master of Arts, California State University, Fresno, 2006
May, 2011

EPIGRAPH

“Success comes from knowing that you did your best to become the best that you are capable of becoming.”

--Coach John Wooden

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to recognize the primary and secondary public school teachers who participated in this dissertation research. Also, I want to express my appreciation to the Superintendents who allowed me to conduct my research and to recruit teachers from their School Parishes. In addition, I would like to thank the Superintendent Secretaries for their help in getting out my surveys. Completing my research would have been impossible without the involvement of the School Parishes.

I was fortunate to have exemplary faculty on my dissertation committee. Unequivocally, each member's unique contributions and guidance throughout my research helped me to arrive to the completion of my doctoral degree and dissertation research. Dr. Amelia Lee, it is an honor to have you, a celebrated professor and scholar, as part of what is the most important work that I have produced thus far. Thank you for your constructive feedback and directions through my dissertation and graduate school experience. Dr. Kim MacGregor, I thank you for the wonderful learning experience through your qualitative course. The tools that I have gained from taking your class along with your strong support and encouragement gave me the confidence to incorporate this type of methodological approach to conduct two of my dissertation studies. I would also like to express my immense appreciation to Dr. Melinda Solmon. I always viewed you as the "mother of all." You have been a supremely positive, supportive figure throughout my research and overall graduate experience. The wealth of information that you have provided me in our numerous discussions has been very influential in helping me to grow as a person and as a scholar. Dr. Russell Matthews, as my minor professor from Industrial and Organizational Psychology, you have played a crucial role in teaching me advanced statistical techniques and helped me expand my research horizons and conduct my research using a cross-sectional perspective. Through your teachings and exposure to various theoretical perspectives, I am now able to make the connection between the organization structure and the psychosocial factors embedded in school systems. Finally, I am especially grateful to my major advisor, Dr. Russell Carson, for giving me the opportunity to work with him. Dr. Carson, I would like to express my deepest feelings of gratitude to you for taking me under your supervision and believing in my abilities in completing successfully my doctoral degree. You exposed me

to the “teacher aspect” of Education that helped me to understand the importance in continuing to improve teachers’ teaching experiences in order to accomplish class objectives and to achieve higher student performance levels. Through your support and guidance, I have been privileged to participate in numerous projects and studies that resulted in my authorship and co-authorship in several publications and presentations that received national and international exposure. Together we took this journey. My success in all my teaching and research endeavors thus far came from your continuous direction and assistance which reflects your success also. I know that we will always share this special connection with me being your first doctoral student and I hope that the bar is set really high for other students that will follow. I am proud that I have worked under your supervision and looking forward to continue our collaboration beyond completing my degree.

In the Department of Kinesiology, I would like to express my deep appreciation to Dr. Maria Kosma. Thank you for the chance to participate in your research with elderly population, our countless enjoyable and constructive discussions, and your constant support and vote of confidence in me and my work. Dr. Brigitta Baker, you are an excellent professor and researcher and I thank you for your time and advice to improve my statistical approaches and qualitative methodologies. Drs. Alex Garn, thank you for always having your door open and finding the time to answer my questions.

Finally, I would like to express my genuine appreciation to Idashelly Arnold, Melvin Carter, Ellen Albarado, Kathie Hill, and the Department Chair Dr. Gilmour Reeve for their ongoing commitment and selfless efforts to provide me with a smooth and pleasant graduate school experience. I would also like to acknowledge my fellow graduate students, past (Drs. Elizabeth Domangue and Tao Zhang) and present (Rusty Ware, Xiangli Gu, Ashley Samson, Emily Givens, Iksu Seo) for their kindness and friendship.

Also, I am so grateful for my Master’s degree major advisor, Dr. Wade Gilbert at California State University, Fresno. I am glad that we are still in touch throughout all these years and until this day you continue to look after me, give me great advice, challenge my thoughts, inspire me with new ideas, and help me become a better scholar. Overall, the invaluable knowledge, experience, and professional

growth gained through interacting with my dissertation committee members along with other faculty and professionals inside or outside the Department of Kinesiology at Louisiana State University will carry over with me throughout my future research and teaching endeavors.

I would also like to thank a few special people that I am blessed to have in my life, who unremittingly stand by my side in every step that I take, and inspire every aspect of my existence. First, I would like to thank my girlfriend and “princess,” Renada Pichon, for bringing so much happiness and joy in my life. Before coming to Louisiana I was told about the alluring Louisianan women and I am now a believer sharing my life with one. Thank you, “honey μου,” for pointing me towards the light on cloudy days and making bright days brighter. Your love is priceless. I would also like to thank the Pichon family and especially Mr. Duke and Ms. Lynn for accepting me and treating me like their own son.

I would like to express my appreciation to my close friends in Cyprus and especially to Σταυρο Σταυρινιδη, Στεφανο Χριστοδουλου, Demes Vassiliades, and Chris Sofocleous who have been true friends and brothers to me for the last 23 years. Also, I want to express how grateful I am to have my Uncle Ευθυμιο and my godmother Ευγενεια in my life. They have been always giving unconditional love and support to me and my family. Also, I want to send all my love to my sister Αναστασια, my brother-in-law Αλεξανδρο, and my baby nephew Νικολα. Summer time is always so exciting because I know I will spend a lot of time with you, drinking coffee, having fun, going to our little excursions, and running after the little mischief-maker Νικολα.

Finally, there are no words to describe or to capture my love and appreciation for my father Νικολα and my mother Νεδη. Thirty-six years ago you became refugees due to a foreign invasion to our country. You lost everything you owned, and mom’s brother, my uncle Μαριο, is still missing in action [MIA]. Despite the hardships you went through, you never lost your love for living and went above and beyond to provide me and my sister with the best life and education possible. No matter the challenge I faced, whether it was me taking a step as a baby, a tennis competition, military, or school, you have been always there for me showing your love, support, and encouraging me to never give up. Father, you taught me to be strong, resilient, independent, and always to go after my dreams and aspirations. I always look

up to you and have you as an example on how to lead my life, which is to be honest, resourceful, defy the adversities, and always find my way to the top. Mother, you taught me to be humble, kind and caring; respectful to others, giving without expecting to receive, and appreciative of the small things in life that can bring happiness. Both of you have been the brightest beacons in my life guiding my actions to live by faith and exercise good judgment.

In closing, I dedicate this dissertation to my dear grandparents Σολομο and Αναστασια Τσουλουπα; grandparents Κωστα and Ειρηνη Πατσαλιδη; aunt Λευκη Αιμηλιανιδου; and godfather Παντελη Γεωργιαδη who are no longer with us on earth. This dissertation is also dedicated to my dearest uncle Μαριο Πατσαλιδη who has been reported missing in action during active military service 37 years ago. You are all remembered, loved, and cherished in my heart.

PREFACE

This dissertation consists of three manuscripts that will be submitted for publication. The first manuscript, Chapter 2, is a quantitative study. The second and third manuscripts, Chapter 3 and Chapter 4, are qualitative studies. All three of the manuscripts explore the perceptions of teachers' efficacy in handling student misbehavior in classroom and physical education settings.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

EPIGRAPH	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
PREFACE	vii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
ABSTRACT	xi
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
2 PERSONAL AND SCHOOL CULTURAL FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS' EFFICACY IN HANDLING STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR	6
3 PERCEPTIONS OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS' EFFICACY IN HANDLING STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR (TEHSM): A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY	27
4 TEACHER ACTIONS TOWARDS STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION SETTINGS: EXPLORING THE PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS' EFFICACY IN HANDLING STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR (TEHSM)	77
5 GENERAL DISCUSSION	109
REFERENCES	114
APPENDIX	
A EXTENDED REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	123
B RECRUITMENT E-MAIL	170
C INSTRUMENTATION	171
D PRE-DISSERTATION STUDY	180
E LETTER OF PERMISSION	202
VITA	204

LIST OF TABLES

1.	Measurement Characteristics for Study's Variables	14
2.	Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations Among All Variables (N=344)	17
3.	Summary of the Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for the Study Predictors of TEHSM (N=344)	19
4.	Teacher Recruitment Criteria	32
5.	Teacher Information	35
6.	Selected Examples of Significant Statements and Related Formulated Meanings as Part of the Horizontalization Process	37
7.	Examples of Three Subthemes with their Associated Clusters of Meanings	38
8.	Teachers' Representations of their Perceptions of Student Misbehavior	40
9.	Examples of Proactive Strategies and Reactive Disciplinary Actions Utilized by High TESHM Teachers to Manage Student Misbehavior	66
10.	Sources that Influenced TEHSM Beliefs	68
11.	Type and Severity of Observed Student Misbehaviors, based on Kulinna et al. (2003) Categorizations, in Jane's and Renée's Classes	90
12.	"I" Poem Excerpt for Jane- High Self-Reported TEHSM	93
13.	"I" Poem Excerpt for Renée- Low Self-Reported TEHSM	94

LIST OF FIGURES

1.	Conceptual model for studying personal and school cultural factors associated with TEHSM by integrating models used by Chang (2009) and Tsouloupas et al. (2010)	9
2.	Taxonomic analysis for Jane's actions with regards to student misbehavior	88
3.	Taxonomic analysis for Renée's actions with regards to student misbehavior	89

ABSTRACT

Research has found dealing with student misbehavior as the most prominent source associated with teachers' negative behavioral outcomes at work. One approach for understanding teachers' behavioral responses to student misbehavior is through the efficacy beliefs of teachers. This line of inquiry has led to the advancement of the concept of teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior or TEHSM. TEHSM was found to significantly and negatively mediate the relationship between teachers' perception of student misbehavior, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions respectively. To date, limited information is available regarding the makeup of TEHSM which gives emphasis to the significance of this dissertation. The purpose of this dissertation was to (a) identify factors that influence TEHSM beliefs and (b) describe and contrast TEHSM in classroom and physical education settings.

The first (quantitative) study investigated personal and school cultural factors associated with TEHSM beliefs. Together, personal (i.e., extraversion, conscientiousness, teaching experience) and school cultural (i.e., professional development, student socioeconomic status) factors contributed significantly in explaining the amount of variance in TEHSM with the greatest proportion of variance explained by professional development and low student SES. The second (qualitative) study investigated TEHSM beliefs and teaching experience in classroom and physical education settings. Common sources of misbehavior were reported in classroom and physical education settings. Further, low TEHSM related to inadequate skills/knowledge, inconsistent actions (i.e. proactive, reactive) to gain control, and debilitating feelings. High TEHSM related to strategizing, being the authoritative figure, and building trusting relationships. Low and high TEHSM teachers reported improving TEHSM by taking personal charge of professional growth.

The third (qualitative) study contrasted physical education teachers' actions towards student misbehavior based on TEHSM beliefs. Findings depicted how teachers with different TEHSM beliefs used teaching and coping strategies; student behavior management (i.e. proactive) strategies, and disciplinary actions (i.e. reactive) to deal with misbehavior. High TEHSM related to authoritative teaching; approach/problem focused coping style; and proactive management. Knowledge gained from

this dissertation provides a vital step towards understanding the role of TEHSM, informs teacher training programs on how to improve TEHSM, and provides a foundation for future studies.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Classroom management represents a significant aspect of teachers' pedagogical knowledge and is highlighted as a central element to teachers' daily agenda in the classroom (Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kingston, & Gu, 2007; Emmer & Stough, 2001) and a major determinant of teacher effectiveness (Garrahy, Cothran, & Kulinna, 2005; Jones, 1989, 1996). Among various classroom management responsibilities, the management of student misbehaviors has been identified as the most prominent cause of teachers' distress (Blasé, 1982; Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2004, Cothran, Kulinna, & Garrahy, 2009). Specifically, teacher perceptions of student misbehavior have been linked to adverse teacher behavioral outcomes such as stress (Kuzsman & Schnall, 1987), burnout (Carson, Plemmons, Templin, & Weiss, in press; Lee & Ashforth, 1996), and turnover intentions (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Liu & Meyer, 2005; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010). For these reasons, teachers' ability to successfully managing student misbehavior is considered a vital skill that has troubled researchers and educators alike (Lewis, 1999). Therefore, it is advanced throughout this dissertation research that this specific skill should not be overlooked. In order to understand why student misbehavior is such a challenging task, it may be valuable to research teachers' perceptions of their abilities to deal with student misbehavior through the understanding of teachers' efficacy beliefs. Teacher efficacy beliefs may influence their feelings of control over this stressor and determine teachers' actions, regulation of effort or emotions, behavioral choices, actions, and well-being when dealing with disruptive students. Such domain-specific efficacy beliefs associated with student misbehavior have been recently termed "Teacher Efficacy in Handling Student Misbehavior" (TEHSM) (Tsouloupas et al., 2010). Consequently, the focus of this dissertation was to examine TEHSM in classroom and physical education settings

The extant literature illustrates ongoing efforts to understand why some teachers feel less capable and become overwhelmed with the task of managing student misbehaviors. Researchers have focused on a wide range of related topics, including: (a) teachers' and students' reports of student misbehavior and attributions of that behavior (Cothran & Kulinna, 2007; Cothran et al., 2009; Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2006), (b) teacher actions and reactions to student misbehavior (Goyette, Dore, & Dion, 2000),

(c) how teachers learned to manage students' misbehavior (Garrahy, Cothran, & Kulinna, 2005), and (d) actions of effective versus ineffective teachers (Fink & Siedentop, 1989). Despite these efforts, the present research is in agreement with Veiga's (2008) statement that current research on student misbehavior is vast but "... scattered, regarding theoretical explanations or acting models" (p. 204). This argument is particularly true with regards to how teachers gain confidence in their abilities to better manage student misbehaviors without becoming overwhelmed. Insufficient evidence on how teachers gain confidence in their abilities to manage misbehaviors may be the reason why this task is identified as cumbersome. Therefore, this dissertation argues that there is a lack of studies that examine teachers' efficacy beliefs (i.e., perceived abilities) to manage challenging student misbehaviors that could relate to the likelihood of success when managing student misbehaviors.

Information regarding teachers' perceived efficacy to manage misbehaviors comes from a variety of supporting studies. Teachers whose lessons were found to be more susceptible to misbehavior problems reported less confidence and less security regarding their knowledge of student behavior management (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Emmer & Stough, 2001). In addition, adverse teacher behavioral outcomes (e.g. stress, turnover intentions, teacher burnout) have been shown to be more prevalent among teachers who not feel capable to deal with student unrest and discipline problems (Slider, Noell, & Kashunda, 2006). It is apparent that teacher efficacy beliefs can play a key role in determining the outcome of managing student misbehavior. Therefore, exploring teachers' perceptions regarding their efficacy to effectively manage student misbehavior could help identify important factors (personal and/or environmental), teaching or coping strategies, and learning sources associated with high efficacy beliefs that increase the likelihood of successfully managing challenging student behaviors without becoming distressed.

The argument for considering teachers' sense of efficacy as a plausible theoretical approach to explore their ability to handle student misbehavior can be drawn from Bandura's (1997) postulations that self-efficacy beliefs influence the time, effort, and persistence individuals spend on dealing with adverse situations. Particularly, Bandura asserts that individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs are more resilient

and more persistent in their efforts to overcome demanding events influencing their lives. In addition, these individuals are expected to overcome stressing events without becoming emotionally or physically drained during that process. By contrast, individuals with low self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to become stressed and disinterested with a challenging task faster than individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). Over time, individuals with low self-efficacy may develop negative feelings due to their perceived inability to efficiently deal with a recurrent demanding task. Consequently, self-efficacy beliefs can be viewed as powerful predictors of behavior that may determine choices of action, regulation of effort, and, in turn, behavioral outcomes regarding a specific stressor. For these reasons, exploring teachers' sense of efficacy regarding the task of managing student misbehavior can be a useful approach to understand how teachers perceive and describe their successes and failures with this task. Despite the suggested importance of these specific efficacy beliefs, research on this topic is scarce (Almog & Shechtman, 2007, Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010) and this dissertation research recognizes that a further investigation is needed on teacher efficacy and the task of managing student misbehavior.

Teacher efficacy is generally defined as: "The teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998, p.233). To a degree, the study of teacher efficacy has been marked with some uncertainty relative to the level of specificity when examining this construct. This may explain why studies on teachers' specific efficacy beliefs regarding student misbehavior are scarce. This dissertation research agrees with existing research that views teacher efficacy as context and domain- specific (Bandura, 2006; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Wheatley, 2005; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 2009). Supporting this view, Bandura (2006) explained that different aspects of perceived efficacy operate within a domain such as the teacher efficacy domain. Wheatley (2005) suggested that research on teacher efficacy should be reevaluated in order to be useful to teacher educators. Specifically, Wheatley argued that the problems with global teacher efficacy can be easily avoided by considering more specific efficacy beliefs. Similarly, Tschannen-Moran and colleagues

(1998) explained that teacher efficacy beliefs may differ since not all teachers feel equally capable across all teaching tasks or situations.

Brouwers and Tomic (2001) explained that measuring global teacher efficacy beliefs regarding classroom management can be problematic since efficacy beliefs may differ from one classroom management task to another. For instance, one may consider a teacher perceiving him/herself as highly capable in his/her instructional skills (e.g. lesson preparation, lesson administration, student interaction) while feeling much less capable in his/her behavioral management skills (e.g. management of various types of student misbehavior). This example illustrates how the same teacher's efficacy beliefs can significantly differ from one classroom task to another.

Altogether, the arguments for specificity when studying teacher efficacy beliefs substantiate the advancement of TEHSM (Tsouloupas et al., 2010) in the pursuit of understanding teachers' efficacy beliefs in managing student misbehavior and explaining the process in which these beliefs can predict behavioral outcomes. TEHSM is viewed as a domain-specific type of teacher efficacy that is defined as the extent to which teachers believe in their capabilities and knowledge to successfully handle student misbehaviors (Tsouloupas et al., 2010).

Thus far, research on TEHSM has shown that teacher perceptions of high levels of student misbehavior are negatively related to TEHSM, which was, in turn, TEHSM was negatively related with teachers' emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions (Tsouloupas et al., 2010). This line of research was further confirmed by researchers who made similar advancements to differentiate classroom management/discipline efficacy from other general teacher efficacy scales (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). The importance of considering TEHSM beliefs is also evident with reports of student behavior significantly impacting teachers' perceptions about their competence to teach (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Henson et al., 2001; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Shechtman et al., 2005; Tucker et al., 2005). Clearly, further TEHSM research is warranted, specifically relative to understanding the factors associated with TEHSM beliefs and the role that these beliefs play with the management of student misbehaviors.

The overall purpose of this dissertation was to expand on existing research on student misbehavior by examining factors associated with TEHSM beliefs and exploring teachers' descriptions in regards to the make-up of TEHSM. Three studies, one quantitative and two qualitative, were conducted to accomplish this objective. The quantitative study (Chapter 2) investigated public, full-time, elementary, middle, and high school teachers' reported relationships between personal (i.e., personality, teaching experience) and school cultural factors (i.e., school demographics, working conditions) and their perceptions of TEHSM. The first qualitative study (Chapter 3) utilized a phenomenological approach to investigate 24 full-time, high-school teachers' (12 male, 12 female; 8 Math, 8 Science; 8 Physical Education) representations with regards to their ability to manage student misbehavior. This study portrayed teachers' TEHSM beliefs based on their years of teaching experience and primary subject taught. The second qualitative study (Chapter 4) utilized a multiple-holistic case study design and an ethnographic methodological lens (Yin, 2009) to explore and describe two female, physical education teachers' TEHSM beliefs. The two teachers were identified prior to the study as having significantly different self-reported TEHSM scores. This study contrasted the teachers' actual experiences and actions related to their ability to manage student misbehavior. As a result of these studies, this dissertation research was able to advance the concept of TEHSM, extend current knowledge on TEHSM beliefs in classroom and physical education settings, inform teacher educators about the importance of TEHSM in current teacher practices and training, and provide a basis for future studies.

CHAPTER 2: PERSONAL AND SCHOOL CULTURAL FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS' EFFICACY IN HANDLING STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR

Introduction

Student misbehavior, usually described as any source of student distractibility, disengagement or disobedience in the classroom (Epstein, Atkins, Cullinan, Kutash, & Weaver, 2008; Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2003), can impede teachers and the teaching process in many ways (Doyle, 1986). For instance, student misbehavior might force teachers to (a) disrupt the lesson to confront and reprimand misbehaving student(s), (b) try to reinstate order in the classroom, and (c) recompose themselves before carrying on with their teaching (Putnam, Luiselli, Handler, & Jefferson, 2003). Certainly, having to handle student misbehavior and all that it entails on daily basis can be emotionally draining to teachers.

The magnitude of student misbehavior as a source of teachers' emotional drainage has been clearly demonstrated in the education literature. A recent study found that frequent dealings of student misbehavior was the only explored job stressor that positively predicted teachers' emotional exhaustion level, beyond one's dispositional affect (Carson, Plemmons, Templin, & Weiss, in press). Another recent study found that teachers' perceptions of student misbehavior was directly linked to increased feelings of emotional exhaustion, and indirectly linked to greater turnover intentions through elevated feelings of emotional exhaustion (Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010). Furthermore, Liu and Meyer (2005) analyzed data from the Schools and Staffing Survey and its supplement Teacher Follow-Up Survey collected by the National Center for Education Statistics and found that concerns related to student misbehavior was one of the two greatest contributors (besides salary) to teachers' job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions across all ages or experience levels. Given these findings, it is clear that further work is needed to understand how student misbehavior can be handled to lessen its potentially harmful effects on teachers.

Perceptions of Teachers' Efficacy in Handling Student Misbehavior (TEHSM)

One approach for understanding why such detrimental manifestations of student misbehavior might exist is through Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy construct. *Self-efficacy* is defined as the beliefs an

individual holds about his/her abilities to successfully carry out a specific task that requires specific knowledge and cognition (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy beliefs are considered powerful predictors of behavior that have been utilized to understand the events, choices or effort regulation associated with adverse outcomes such as emotional stress (Friedman, 2006). Applied to the teaching domain, it is reasonable to expect then that teachers with high efficacy perceptions would also report favorable behavioral or even emotional outcomes at work. Teacher efficacy scholarship has confirmed these relationships. Studies have shown that teacher efficacy beliefs were positively related to teachers' feelings of efficiency, enjoyment with workplace interactions, and the maintenance of teaching behaviors through taxing work events such as student misbehavior (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Gordon & Debus, 2002).

This line of research has led to the advancement of a specific perceived concept known as *teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior* or TEHSM (Tsouloupas et al., 2010). TEHSM is viewed as a domain-specific type of teacher efficacy that is defined as the extent to which teachers believe in their capabilities to handle disruptive student behaviors successfully. This concept evolved from previous theorizations and empirical findings in four ways.

First, as Bandura (1997, 2006) theorized, TEHSM is aligned with the notion that efficacy beliefs relative to domain-specific tasks can easily vary across individuals and situations. Second, it is important and also relevant to mention that similar research endeavors have been proposed and pursued by other researchers in the past who considered domain-specific aspects of teacher efficacy. A critical review of the literature on sources of self-efficacy in schools by Usher and Pajares (2008) presented findings from a compilation of studies that assessed specific aspects of teacher efficacy (e.g. academic self-efficacy, learning efficacy, writing self-efficacy, math self-efficacy, online learning self-efficacy) which clearly depict that sources of teacher efficacy function best at appropriate levels of specificity and when the efficacy beliefs are in close agreement with the efficacy outcome designed to predict.

Third, early efforts that support the advancement of TEHSM come from Emmer and Hickman (1991) who constructed and validated a scale that measured teachers' discipline efficacy. Also, more recent findings substantiating the concept of TEHSM come from Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) who

showed that the task of disciplining students is a domain-specific type of teacher efficacy. Specifically, Skaalvik and Skaalvik found strong evidence for six domain-specific types of teacher efficacy namely: (1) Instruction, (2) adapting education to individual students' needs, (3) motivating students, (4) keeping discipline, (5) cooperating with colleagues and parents, and (6) coping with changes and challenges. Finally, past research has demonstrated that teachers' perceived efficacy beliefs related to handling misbehavior (or lack thereof) have been associated with decreased confidence, job dissatisfaction emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions (Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999; Safran, 1989; Tsouloupas et al., 2010).

Conceptual Model to Study TEHSM

Considering the crucial role that TEHSM beliefs can play in determining teaching experiences and behaviors, a conceptual model to study TEHSM beliefs has been proposed. This model is presented in Figure 1.

This model reflects Bandura's (1997) notion that efficacy beliefs are by-products of both personal and environmental factors. Subsequently, the model presented in Figure 1 proffers that personal and school cultural factors help frame and predict TEHSM levels, which in turn, predict adverse outcomes. The relationship between TEHSM and the presented adverse outcomes has been already modeled and tested in the education field (Chang, 2009; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Tsouloupas et al., 2010). However, what has yet to be examined, and could prove useful for understanding how to shape teachers' perceptions of TESHM in the future, are the relationships that the proposed personal and school cultural factors have with TEHSM. *The purpose of the current study* was to investigate the relationship and predictive ability of each proposed personal and school cultural factors with perceptions of TEHSM. The guiding literature and corresponding research questions pertaining to each of the personal and school cultural factors are discussed in order below.

Personal Factors

Personal factors are those personal attributions/qualities that can assist or enhance a teachers' perceived capability to handle misbehavior. Two main topics have dominated researchers' interest

relative to efficacy beliefs and unfavorable work experiences and outcomes, namely *personality* (Goddard, Patton, & Creed, 2004, Kokkinos, 2007; Larsen 2000) and *teaching experience* (Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Onafowora, 2004; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005).

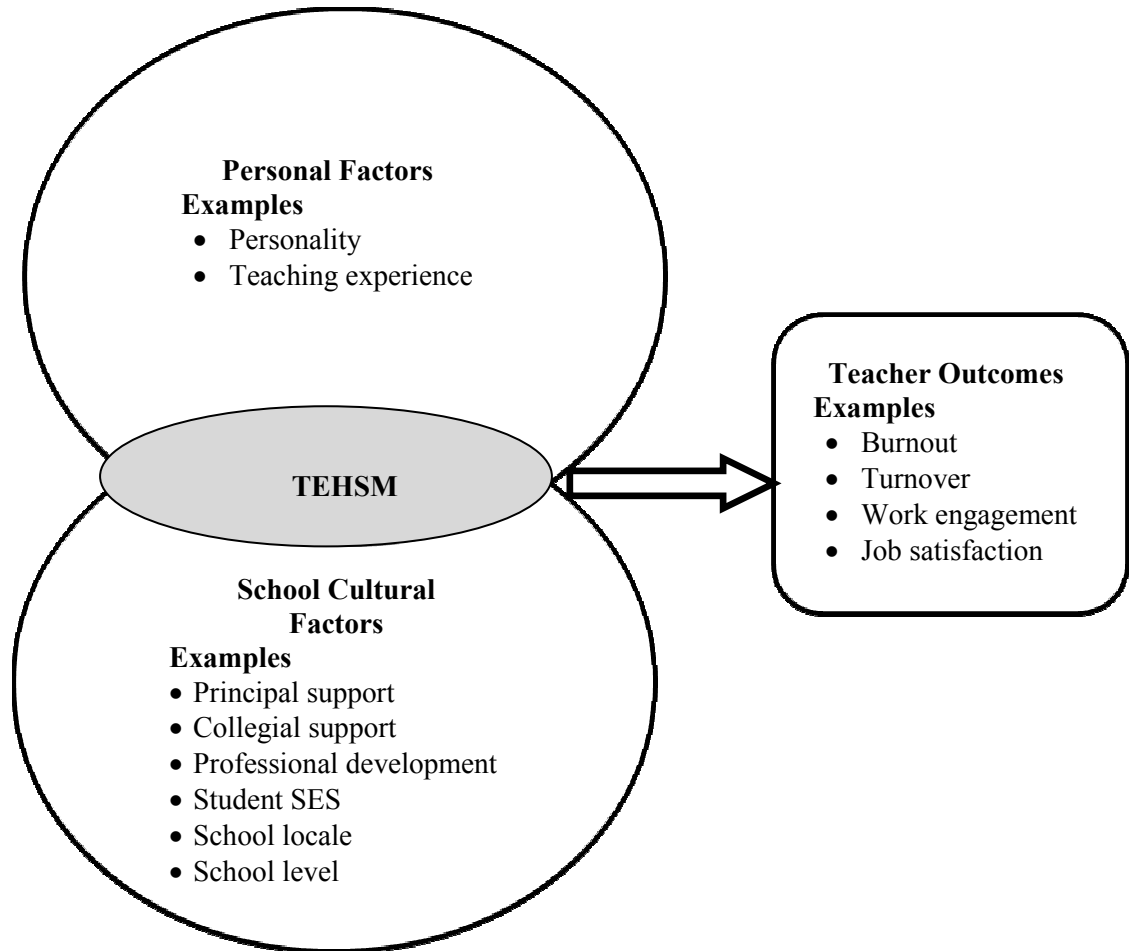


Figure. 1 Conceptual model for studying personal and school cultural factors associated with TEHSM by integrating models used by Chang (2009) and Tsouloupas et al. (2010). The listed factors are based on previous findings from the general self-efficacy or teacher efficacy literature relevant to teachers' perceptions of student misbehavior (e.g. Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Chang 2009; Friedman, 2003; Galand, Lécop, & Philippot, 2007; Tsouloupas et al., 2010).

Personality. Personality traits can help determine why individuals with comparable educational backgrounds and work conditions might perceive and handle similar job stressors differently (McCroskey, Valencic, & Richmond, 2004). Among various personality variables (e.g. caring, helping type, empathetic, lack of hardiness, type A) that have been investigated in relative to adverse job-related feelings and outcomes in teachers (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008), the current study used the most

extensive and widely accepted conceptualizations of personality -the Five-Factor Model (FFM; McCrae & John, 1992). The only traits that have been shown to be the strongest and most consistent correlates of self-efficacy (i.e., *extraversion*, *conscientiousness*, and *neuroticism*) were examined in this study (Judge & Ilies, 2002).

Teaching Experience. One line of inquiry relative to teacher efficacy has been the comparison of actions of more experienced teachers (10+ years of full-time teaching) with those of less experienced teachers (≤ 5 years of full-time teaching) (Campbell, 1996; Egyed & Short, 2006; Schaufeli, & Buunk, 2003). The argument has been that more experienced teachers are likely to have higher beliefs in their abilities to control their class and manage challenging student behaviors (Egyed & Short, 2006), while less experienced teachers will likely feel ineffective in their ability to deal with student misbehavior and defiant students (Onafowora, 2004; Rushton, 2000). As a result, the research questions formulated relative to the personal factors were:

RQ_{1a}: What is the direction and magnitude of the relationship between self-reports of TEHSM and extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and teaching experience, respectively?

RQ_{1b}: How well does extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and teaching experience predict teachers' self-reports of TEHSM?

School Cultural Factors

School cultural factors are those working conditions that can contribute to the change or enhancement of teachers' perceived capability to handle misbehavior. The concept of school culture refers to the shared beliefs, dynamics, structure, and reality of a school setting; all components found to play a significant role in empowering teachers and influencing their overall feelings about their job (Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kingston, & Gu, 2007; Moore Johnson, 2004; Moore Johnson & Birkeland, 2003). Factors that have been systematically shown to influence teachers' efficacy beliefs are (a) *workplace support* from principals or colleagues, (b) *teacher autonomy*, (c) *professional development*, (d) *student socioeconomic status* (SES), and (e) *school locale and level*.

Workplace Support. Support at school can come from many sources. The two that seem most influential to teachers' efficacy beliefs are *principal support* and *collegial support*. Support received from school administrators and colleagues can be key factors in the professional growth of the inservice teachers relative to the maintenance or acquisition of new skills and knowledge over time (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2007). For instance, leading educational researchers reported that 76% of the 300 teachers studied stressed the importance of having support from dedicated school leaders, while 63% emphasized the significance of supportive colleagues relative to efficacy feelings (Day et al., 2007).

Teacher Autonomy. Teachers' sense of autonomy, achieved in several ways, such as assigning teachers to various leadership roles (Cherniss, 1997) or allowing teachers to participate in decisions regarding class or school matters (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Cherniss, 1997) has been identified as an important factor for augmenting teachers' sense of efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Professional Development (PD). PD can be described as the means through which teachers continue their education through further skill development of knowledge (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2006). It has been suggested that teachers who have opportunities to develop their professional skills through further preparation, training, or practice feel more competent and efficacious in handling challenging job-related tasks (Egyed & Short, 2006). Guskey (2002) explained that teachers are more likely to accept the difficulties or failures of challenging teaching tasks when they know that they have learned and acquired the skills related to those challenging teaching tasks. Bechtel and O'Sullivan (2006) claimed that little is known about the impact of professional development initiatives related to effective teaching practices. The same researchers presented research on teacher beliefs as an essential learning component in professional development programs and called for more research on teacher efficacy beliefs since these beliefs can influence teaching effectiveness.

Student Socioeconomic Status (SES). Student SES can be measured by the percent of K–12 students in school who are approved for free or reduced-price lunches (less than 15%, 15% - 49%, 50% and above) (Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizekm, & Morton, 2007). Teachers in schools with a higher percentage of low SES students have consistently reported higher teacher burnout and turnover rates

(Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2008; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998). Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) found that school cultural factors were much less important in the prediction of teacher efficacy beliefs. The same authors explained that school cultural factors related to the school structural aspect of schools (i.e., socioeconomic status, classroom size, school size, ethnicity, school location [urban, suburban, rural], school type [private/public; primary/secondary]) alone do not strongly predict teacher efficacy beliefs. However, only few studies have explored classroom factors such as student behavior management in relation to the school cultural factors influencing teachers' efficacy beliefs. For example, in their examination on how teachers attribute their decision making in regards with the task of managing student misbehavior, Cothran, Kulinna, and Garrahy (2009) expressed the need for a closer examination on teachers' efficacy beliefs.

School Locale and Level. Although the evidence relative to teacher efficacy is sparse (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007), a greater number of student misbehavior problems have been reported in urban, secondary schools (Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2006; Kulinna, & Cothran, 2007). Furthermore, it is suggested that urban, secondary school teachers are more prone to feelings of burnout or turnover due to job stressors such as poorer working conditions, and lower student SES levels than their suburban or rural counterparts (Boe et al., 2008; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998). These findings are curious given that urban school districts usually offer higher teacher salaries than other school districts (Ondrich, Pas, & Yinger, 2008).

The two research questions formed as a result of this research relative to school cultural factors were:

RQ_{2a}: What is the direction and magnitude of the relationship between self-reports of TEHSM and perceptions of workplace support (principal, colleagues), teacher autonomy, PD, student SES, school locale, and school level, respectively?

RQ_{2b}: How well does perceived workplace support (principal, colleagues), teacher autonomy, PD, student SES, school locale, and school level predict teachers' self-reports of TEHSM.

Methods

Participants

Participants were 344 elementary¹ ($N=193$), middle school ($N=57$), and high school ($N=100$), full-time, public school teachers teaching mainstream classes in a southeastern state in the USA. The teachers were recruited from three school districts. Using Marvel et al.' (2007) categorizations, 178 teachers reported teaching at a low student SES school (50% or more of student body receiving free or reduced-price lunches), 97 teachers reported teaching at a moderate student SES school (15% - 49% of student body receiving free or reduced-price lunches), and 69 teachers reported teaching at a high student SES school (less than 15% of student body receiving free or reduced-price lunches). Fifty-one teachers reported teaching in an urban locale, 86 teachers reported teaching in a suburban locale, whereas 207 teachers reported teaching in a rural locale. The participants (female = 295, male = 51; 81% Caucasian American, 16% African American, 3% other) ranged from first year teachers to a teacher with 40 years of experience ($M = 13.67$, $SD = 9.62$).

Measures/Instrumentation

All study measures and their respective characteristics are summarized in Table 1 (see Appendix C for complete descriptions). Teaching experience, student SES, school locale, and school level were self-reported by each teacher. The school demographic variables reflected the categorizations used in the Schools and Staffing Survey and its supplement Teacher Follow-Up Survey administered by the National Center for Education Statistics. These surveys assess at a national-level teachers' perceptions of their jobs, their intentions for migrating or leaving the teaching profession for an entirely different job, and tracking changes in teachers' status of employment from one school year to the next (Marvel et al., 2007).

The TEHSM scale has shown to have acceptable reliability (mean $\alpha = .93$) (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Tsouloupas et al., 2010) and factorial validity (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Brouwers & Tomic, 2001) in previous studies.

Table 1. Measurement characteristics for study's variables

Variable	Questionnaire Stem	Number of Items	Sample Item	Rating Scale
TEHSM (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Emmer & Hickman 1991)	Reflect and report your true feelings and thoughts in the classroom when you have to deal with disruptive behavior.	13	"I can keep defiant students involved in my lessons"	1 = Strongly disagree 6 = Strongly agree
Teacher personality traits (John et al., 1991)	Personal factors Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.		I see myself as someone:	
1. Extraversion		8	"Who is talkative"	
2. Conscientiousness		8	"Who has an assertive personality"	1 = Strongly disagree 6 = Strongly agree
3. Neuroticism		9	"Who is depressed, blue"	
	School cultural factors			
1. Revised perceived principal support scale (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001)	Reflect and report your true feelings true and thoughts about having your principal around you when in need of assistance, share information, talk, and advice in relation to student behavior management.	5	"I am able to approach my principal(s) if I want to talk about problems at work."	1 = Strongly disagree 6 = Strongly agree
2. Revised perceived collegial support scale (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001)	Reflect and report your true feelings true and thoughts about having colleagues around you when in need of assistance, share information, talk, and advice in relation to student behavior management.	5	"I am able to approach colleagues if I want to talk about problems at work"	1 = Strongly disagree 6 = Strongly agree
3. Perceived job autonomy (Deci et al., 2001)	Please indicate how true each of the following statement is for you given your experiences on your current job	7	"I feel like I can make a lot of inputs in deciding how my job gets done"	1 = not at all true 7 = very true
4. Professional development (study designed)	N/A	1	How many professional development workshops/seminars/classes/conferences have you attended in relation to student behavior management the last three years?	Open-ended

The extraversion, neuroticism, and conscientiousness subscales from the Big Five Inventory (BFI; John, Donahue, & Kentle 1991) have been shown to have satisfactory alpha reliabilities ($\alpha = .88$, $.84$, and $.82$, respectively) and substantial convergent and divergent validity with other popular Big Five instruments such as the Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI; Costa & McCrae, 1992) and Trait Descriptive Adjectives (TDA; Goldberg, 1992). The perceived principal support and collegial support scales have shown good reliability (mean $\alpha = .94$ and $\alpha = .90$ respectively) and factorial validity in previous studies (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Brouwers, Evers, & Tomic, 2001). The autonomy subscale from the Basic Psychological Needs Scale at work (BPNS; Deci et al., 2001; see Appendix F) has shown acceptable reliability (mean $\alpha = .77$) and strong external validity in past studies (Deci et al., 2001; Kasser, Davey, & Ryan, 1992). Professional development was assessed with a question in the teacher demographics section. The question was formulated similarly to how this variable has been described and explored in previous studies (Marvel et al., 2007; Ross & Bruce, 2007). The researchers concluded that the data were generally representative of the schools in each district based on comparisons with the data that were readily available from the central administration from each school district.

Data Collection Procedures

After approval was granted from the affiliated Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the central administration from each school district, data were collected using the online survey software - SurveyMonkey (Finley, 1999).

Each of the superintendent secretaries in the central administration office e-mailed all the K-12 teachers who taught math, science, English, social studies, arts/music, and physical education in their district a recruitment e-mail (see Appendix B) enclosed with a web link to the surveys. The recruitment e-mail also served as a consent form, as it contained all relevant elements of informed consent (i.e., study description, instructions, privacy protection, and withdrawal procedures). Teachers were given one week to complete the online surveys before a reminder email was distributed. As an incentive, teachers were informed that all participants would be entered in a raffle with a chance of winning 12 gift certificates (ranging from \$20 to \$50). A total of 725 teachers were contacted to complete the online survey. Three

hundred seventy-seven teachers submitted survey responses, of which 344 submitted complete surveys (total response rate of 43%). SPSS statistical software package (IBM SPSS Inc., 2009) was used to conduct all analyses.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Assumption Check

Tests for normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity were plotted and met. As shown in Table 2, skewness and kurtosis scores for all variables were acceptable (Vincent, 1999). Additionally, no multicollinearity or singularity was detected among the personal or school cultural factors as all bivariate correlations were below Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) criterion of $\geq .90$. Furthermore, the value of the Durbin-Watson statistic (1.81) was in the acceptable range 1.50 - 2.50 (Montgomery, Peck, & Vining, 2001), and therefore, the residuals were not correlated. No cases had missing data ($N = 344$) and no outliers among the cases were identified.

Scale Descriptives

As presented in Table 2, internal reliabilities of all scales surpassed the .70 criterion (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Furthermore, the analysis of the descriptive assessments (M and SD) of all study variables indicated that participants' self-reports of TEHSM, principal support, collegial support, and autonomy were generally high with means above the midpoint for each scale. In other words, teachers felt capable in their ability to manage student misbehaviors, felt their school principals and colleagues offered a supportive hand in their management of student misbehavior, and felt they had high degree of autonomy in making decisions about class and school matters. Teachers also reported that they attended nearly three ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 1.82$) PD sessions (i.e., conferences, workshops, seminars, classes) on the topic of student behavior management over the past three years.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations among all variables ($N = 344$)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. TEHSM	(.95)																	
2. Extraversion	.30** (.84)																	
3. Conscientiousness	.27** .19** (.84)																	
4. Neuroticism	-.20** -.33**																	
5. Teaching experience	.21** .00																	
6. Principal Support	.21** .06																	
7. Collegial Support	.23** .16**																	
8. Teacher Autonomy	.18** .16**																	
9. PD	.79** .21**																	
10. High student SES	.49** .19**																	
11. Moderate student SES	.22** .06																	
12. Low student SES	-.59** -.20**																	
13. City locale	-.17** -.09																	
14. Suburban locale	.31** .11*																	
15. Rural locale	-.18** -.03																	
16. Elementary school	.07 -.05																	
17. Middle school	.00 .06																	
18. High school	-.08 .02																	

Means 4.96 3.73 4.33 2.43 13.67 4.89 5.40 4.57 2.90

SD .69 .77 .51 .73 9.60 1.27 .95 1.22 1.82

Skewness -.24 -.43 -.67 -.02 .60 -1.10 -1.03 .02 .12

Kurtosis -.92 -.35 -.11 -.63 -.58 .69 1.32 -.58 -.84

Note. TEHSM = Teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior; PD = Professional development; SES = student socioeconomic status; school location = central city, suburban city, rural city; school level = elementary school, middle school, high school

Cronbach's α reliability coefficients are presented in parentheses.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Description of the Relationship between Study Variables and TEHSM

To analyze the data for RQ1_a and RQ2_a, simple bivariate correlations were performed to determine the direction (positive or negative) and magnitude of the relationships between all variables and TEHSM. Standard adjectives and associated *r* levels were used to describe the magnitude of the relationship (Miller, 1994). Table 2 displays the intercorrelations, preliminary descriptive assessments (*M* and *SD*), skewness and kurtosis scores, and internal reliabilities for the study variables.

To answer RQ1_a, all four personal variables were significantly correlated with TEHSM. TEHSM was positively correlated at a moderate magnitude level with the extraversion personality trait, and at low magnitude levels with the conscientiousness personality trait and teaching experience, respectively. A low magnitude, negative correlation was found between TEHSM and the personality trait of neuroticism.

In terms of RQ2_a, all school cultural variables with the exception of the three school levels (i.e., elementary, middle school, and high school) were significantly correlated with TEHSM. The strongest positive correlation with TEHSM was found with teachers' reports of PD relative to student behavior management in recent years, while the strongest negative correlation with TEHSM was found with teachers who reportedly taught student with low SES levels. TEHSM was positively and moderately correlated with teachers who reportedly taught students with high SES levels and in suburban school locales. Low magnitude positive correlations were found between TEHSM and self-reports of workplace support (principal and collegial) related to management of student misbehavior, teachers' sense of autonomy in school/class decision-making, and teaching students with moderate SES levels. Low magnitude, negative correlations with TEHSM were found with teachers who reportedly taught in either urban or rural school locales.

Prediction of TEHSM

Since there is no theoretical reasoning available to suggest an entry order of the examined personal and school cultural factors included in the regression analyses (Koth, Bradshaw, & Leaf, 2008), a stepwise multiple regression analysis using the stepwise method of entry was employed to answer RQ1_b and RQ2_b. All personal and school cultural variables, with the exception of the insignificantly correlated

school level variables (i.e., elementary, middle school, and high school) with TEHSM, were entered in the regression at the same time. Dummy coded variables were calculated and used for the student SES (high SES, low SES) and school location (urban, rural) variables. Using the stepwise method, SPSS (IBM SPSS Inc., 2009) adds variables to the regression equation one at a time, and each time a variable is included or removed from the equation, SPSS considers it a new step or model. SPSS uses the statistical criterion of maximizing the R^2 relative to the included variables. Consequently, the best set of factors uniquely contributing in explaining TEHSM were identified in the final model (see Table 3).

Table 3. Summary of the Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for the Study Predictors of TEHSM ($N = 344$)

	Variables	B	SE B	B	T	Adjusted R^2	R^2 change	F Change
Model 1^a						.64	.64	618.69**
	PD	.30	.01	.80	24.87**			
Model 2^b						.70	.06	69.67**
	PD	.25	.01	.67	20.31**			
	Low student SES	-.38	.05	-.28	-8.35**			
Model 3^c						.71	.01	^c 12.71**
	PD	.25	.01	.66	19.97**			
	Low student SES	-.36	.05	-.26	-8.02**			
	Extraversion	.09	.03	.11	3.57**			
Model 4^d						.72	.01	9.55**
	PD	.24	.01	.65	19.76**			
	Low student SES	-.35	.05	-.26	-7.91**			
	Extraversion	.08	.03	.09	3.12**			
	Conscientiousness	.12	.04	.09	3.01			
Model 5^e						.72	.01	6.79**
	PD	.24	.01	.63	18.81**			
	Low student SES	-.31	.05	-.23	-6.52**			
	Extraversion	.08	.03	.09	2.95**			
	Conscientiousness	.12	.04	.09	2.96**			
	High student SES	.15	.06	.09	2.61**			
Model 6^f						.73	.00	4.39*
	PD	.23	.01	.62	18.53**			
	Low student SES	-.31	.05	-.23	-6.56**			
	Extraversion	.08	.03	.09	3.07**			
	Conscientiousness	.11	.04	.08	2.71**			
	High student SES	.15	.06	.09	2.53*			
	Teaching Experience	.00	.00	.06	2.10*			

Note. ^a $F(1, 342) = 618.69, p < .01$. ^b $F(2, 341) = 406.29, p < .01$. ^c $F(3, 340) = 284.40, p < .01$. ^d $F(4, 339) = 221.05, p < .01$. ^e $F(5, 338) = 181.22, p < .01$. ^f $F(6, 337) = 153.26, p < .05$.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

In the final stepwise regression model [$F(6, 337) = 153.26, p < .001$], only 6 of the 12 initially entered variables emerged to uniquely contribute to the prediction of TEHSM. Specifically, listed in the order of strength for each direction, PD relative to student behavior management in recent years, high student SES levels, conscientiousness, extraversion, and teaching experience were found to have a positive significant effect on TEHSM, whereas low student SES levels was found to have a significant negative effect on TEHSM. This final model accounted for 73% of the variance in TESHM, with the majority of the variance explained by PD (64%), followed by low student SES (6%). It is important to note that stepwise procedures are notorious for over-fitting the sample to the detriment of generalizability. Therefore, a validation analysis was also carried out conducting a 75%/25% cross-validation. The validation analysis confirmed the pattern of statistical significance found for the full data set.

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the relationship and unique contribution of the proposed personal and school cultural factors (presented in Figure 1) in predicting TEHSM. Correlation analyses showed that self-reports of TEHSM were significantly related with all personal and school cultural factors with the exception of the three school levels.

Specific to the personal factors, TEHSM was positively correlated with the personality traits of extraversion and conscientiousness as well as teaching experience, and negative correlated with the personality trait of neuroticism. Furthermore, school cultural factors correlations revealed positive relationships between TEHSM and perceived workplace support (principal and collegial) related to management of student misbehavior, perceived autonomy in school/class decision-making, PD relative to student behavior management in recent years, student populations with high or moderate SES levels, and teaching in suburban school settings. Negative relationships were revealed between TEHSM and student populations with low SES levels, and teaching in either an urban or rural school setting. These findings suggest that both personal and school cultural factors are important to TEHSM, and thus provide initial support for the proposed conceptual model presented in Figure 1.

Results from the stepwise multiple regression showed certain personal (i.e., extraversion, conscientiousness, teaching experience) and school cultural factors (PD, low and high student SES) most closely aligned with TEHSM contributing significantly in explaining TEHSM variability. This piece of information is particularly useful for two reasons. First, it further reinforces the importance of both personal and school cultural factors when considering teachers' perceived efficacy in relation to job-stressors and more specifically with student misbehavior. This finding is also in line with Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy and supporting our conceptual model of TEHSM. Second, the unique contribution demonstrated for each variable help narrow the conceptual model to most pivotal personal and school cultural factors underlying TEHSM.

Important Personal Factors

Personality traits can predispose an individual to perceive or cope with stressful situations in ways that may improve or exacerbate their current feelings. Extraversion, as a significant positive factor explaining TEHSM, may suggest that extravert teachers are more apt to have the kind of people skills that may naturally enhance their perceptions of TEHSM. This is also further supported by extraversion consistently found to have negative relationship with teacher burnout (see cited meta-analysis in Carson et al., in press). For instance, extraverts, as open, energetic, and sociable individuals, will likely strive to establish good rapport with their students and school staff to ensure student behavior needs are accommodated. Conscientiousness was also found to be a significant positive factor contributing to the explanation of the TEHSM variance. This finding is not surprising since conscientious individuals tend to be very dependable when responding to a specific task. Therefore, it is possible that conscientious teachers are more apt to attend to their perceptions of TEHSM through proactive efforts such as actively seeking opportunities to refine their skills relative to the management of student misbehavior.

Despite the negative correlation between neuroticism and TEHSM, regression results indicated that neuroticism was not significantly contributing to the TEHSM variance. This finding was rather surprising since neurotic teachers, as tense, nervous, and worrying individuals, are more likely to feel less accomplished, more distant toward others, and more emotionally drained at school (Kokkinos, 2007;

Teven, 2007). It is possible that the negative feelings that neurotic teachers have toward their job or self-efficacy in general are not necessarily reflected in their specific perception of TEHSM. These findings do provide some hope that neurotic teachers are not doomed forever, but rather, as suggested by Carson et al. (in press), can be trained to enhance their work experiences, such as molding their TEHSM perceptions. Further research is warranted to examine this speculation.

The importance of full-time teaching experience relative to TEHSM remains in question. At a first glance, the low positive correlation between teaching experience and TEHSM may suggest that seasoned teachers are likely to perceive greater TEHSM levels simply because they have had more opportunities for trial and error, or PD training (as indicated by the .79 correlation between TEHSM and PD). However, the contribution of teaching experience to the explained variance of TEHSM was minimal (1%). Therefore, future researchers may consider creating subcategories of teaching experience to determine if TEHSM uniquely varies across distinct stages of a teachers' career.

Important School Cultural Factors

The key school cultural factor of TEHSM identified in this study was amount of PD teachers' received in recent years relative to the development student behavior management skills. This factor accounted for 64% of the total variance in TEHSM. Clearly, teachers who take advantage of opportunities to professionally grow in their skills to deal with student misbehavior will likely feel more efficacious in their ability to handle student misbehavior. Previous educational researchers have purported that a greater emphasis is needed on the psychological aspect of managing job stressors such as student misbehavior (Friedman, 2006; Kokkinos, 2007), which this study found can be addressed by the number of PD training programs teacher attended in relation to student behavior management. What is troubling though is that the amount of PD teachers acquire on the topic of student behavior management seems to differ by school setting. Correlation findings indicated that teachers who reportedly taught low SES student populations in an urban or rural school setting were less likely to attend PD relative to student behavior management, whereas PD attendance was more customary among teachers who reportedly taught either moderate or high SES student populations in a suburban school setting.

Among the school cultural factors related to the school structural aspect of schools (i.e., student SES, school locale, school level) examined in this study, only the SES level of the student population proved to be uniquely contributing to the TEHSM variance. Teaching in schools with more than 50% of the student population receiving free or reduced lunch prices had significant negative effect on teachers' TEHSM. Perhaps, this is because teachers who teach in schools with low SES student populations are more apt to face students with more challenging behaviors and, therefore, may feel that the high volume of challenging student behaviors students is a reflection of their perceived capability to handle student misbehavior. What makes this potential relationship troubling is that relevant literature has identified student SES as a major factor of teacher burnout and teacher turnover intentions across all school locations and teaching levels (Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998). Clearly, this finding further substantiates the need for researchers and practitioners alike to focus their efforts on teachers in high need schools.

Despite the exploratory nature of the study, the fact that perceived workplace support from either the principal or colleagues relative to student misbehavior or the degree of perceived autonomy in school/class decision-making abilities to manage misbehaviors were not to significantly contribute in explaining TEHSM came to a surprise. Previous research have indicated that the support teachers received from school administrators or colleagues were key factors in the professional growth of the in-service teachers helping them learn and maintain new skills and knowledge over time (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2006, 2007; Lee, 2005). Similarly, teacher autonomy has been identified as an important determinant to teachers' work engagement (Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Ludtke, & Baumert, 2008). An emerging line of research has endorsed teacher work engagement as the opposite pole of burnout (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), related with the experience of positive feelings and emotions at work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). These findings could possibly be explained by Bandura's (2006) notion of task specificity and, more particularly claims from educational researchers that other domain-specific types of teacher self-efficacy (e.g., interpersonal efficacy, cooperating with principals; colleagues) may relate with perceived principal support, collegial support, and teacher autonomy (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

Limitations

One study limitation relates to the use of self-reported measures to assess the relationships and unique contributions of the proposed variables with TEHSM. However, self-report measures were used based on current practices from related studies cited in this paper (e.g., Kulinna, & Cothran, 2007; Martin et al., 1999; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). A second limitation is related to the one-time, cross-sectional design of the study which did not allow for more advanced statistical procedures to be employed that would enhance the findings current study. Finally, the list of personal and school cultural factors explored in this study should not be considered exhaustive. However, the fact that 73% of the variability in TEHSM was explained by the variables included in this study demonstrates the careful selection of the essential personal and school cultural factors that reappeared in the general efficacy or teacher efficacy literature.

Implications and Future Directions

Despite the above limitations, this study provides a vital step towards understanding how teachers' perceptions of their efficacy in handling misbehaving students might be shaped in the future. First, identifying personality traits significantly associated with teachers' perceptions and efficacy beliefs with the task of managing student behavior calls for the need to control for personality factors when studying job-stressors. Controlling for personality has been done previously (Carson et al., in press; Carson, Tsouloupas, & Barber, in review), and like this study, important predictors beyond personality were found with teachers. Therefore, this trend should continue by possibly examining for patterns in teachers' coping responses when managing student behavior based on their personality characteristics. For instance, it may be useful to explore potential relationships between teachers' personality and emotion regulation (e.g. surface or deep acting), coping strategies (e.g. emotion-focused or problem-focused), or coping styles (e.g. approach or avoidance) to help determine the likelihood of teachers experiencing success when faced with the task of managing challenging student behaviors.

Another study implication, and most important, is the encouragement of continuous PD relative to student behavior management throughout one's teaching careers, but especially in early years as the

efficacy beliefs acquired from deep learning practices early on help novice teachers become more resilient to job stressors (Gordon & Debus, 2002). Based on sound theory (e.g. self-efficacy; achievement motivation), future research might consider identifying the most helpful strategies and techniques for improving TEHSM that could be embedded in teachers' PD training. For example, researchers might examine which source of self-efficacy, beyond mastery experience (i.e., vicarious learning, mentoring, reading material, audiovisual aids, or focus groups), allows teachers to acquire the knowledge and skills to become an effective manager of student misbehavior. Also, as suggested by Kaplan, Gheen and Migley (2002), it might be useful to consider the motivational climate and classroom goal structure when trying to develop strategies to increase teachers' efficacy beliefs or prevent the incidence of student misbehavior.

Also, based on findings in this study, if the SES of the student population has a strong influence on the dynamics of a school culture, then teachers need to be exposed to the different student and contextual demographics that can exist in school settings. Consequently, it may be beneficial for teachers to receive training in regards with student behavior management, whether it is in teacher preparation or inservice PD workshops, under diverse teaching environments. Furthermore, it is suggested that when examining PD, more questions may be needed to understand whether PD in regards with student behavior management is acquired from teachers' own efforts or from systematic opportunities given to them at work. Overall, efforts to identify personal and school cultural factors associated with TEHSM beliefs may help determine effective and ineffective ways in dealing with stressors. Having proposed a conceptual model to study TEHSM can be vital for future directions in this research area. The final model in this study explained a significant amount of TEHSM variance but 27% of variance has yet to be explained. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to examine additional personal and school cultural factors that may be relative to TEHSM, such as other sources of self-efficacy, cultural competence, coping strategies, or emotional regulation, that may be added to make a more concise and descriptive conceptual model. As a result, practitioners in the field will be fueled with the most beneficial aspects to build their teacher preparation and inservice teacher training programs around relative to TEHSM.

Also, considering that TEHSM is currently in an exploratory stage, more systematic research is warranted in the future beyond the quantitative, cross-sectional methodologies with self-report measures that have dominated the teacher efficacy research the past three decades (Sakiz, 2008). Longitudinal and experimental studies can significantly add to the available TEHSM scholarship by identifying causal pathways leading from teachers' perception of student misbehavior to negative outcomes. Also, utilizing qualitative approaches can be beneficial to begin to understand TEHSM given the in depth and rich perspective that can be provided from qualitative methodology.

Finally, in light of conceptualizations of student behavior management as only one of several aspects of classroom management (Kulinna, et al., 2003, Cothran & Kulinna, 2007), valid measures are warranted that assess teachers' efficacy beliefs in handling student misbehavior by implicitly focusing on the content and context of student behavior management. Growing evidence supports that student behavior management is not a unitary construct. Prominent researchers in this area have clearly demonstrated that student behavior management involves various types and levels of difficulty/severity that likely impose unique challenges to teachers (e.g. Kulinna, et al., 2003, Cothran & Kulinna, 2007). Therefore, constructing and validating a measure for TEHSM should be aligned with current advancements in the field of student behavior management. Overall, efforts to support the advancement of TEHSM and proposing a conceptual model to explore this concept could potentially help elucidating the psychological process through which teachers' effort, energy, persistence, and coping resources can influence teachers' actions when managing student misbehavior and subsequently determine teacher behavioral outcomes.

Endnotes

¹Individual school districts, states, or countries may vary in how they divide their school levels. In the United States, an elementary school is generally composed of grades 1 to 5 educating children from the ages 6 or 7 to 10 or 11. A middle school is typically composed of grades 6 to 8 educating children from ages 11 or 12 to 13 or 14. A high school is usually composed of grades 9 to 12 educating children from ages 14 or 15 to 17 or 18.

CHAPTER 3: PERCEPTIONS OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS' EFFICACY IN HANDLING STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR (TEHSM): A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY

Introduction

Prevailing conceptualizations in the field of education describe classroom management as a wide range of behaviors and actions that teachers are required to perform relative to the following teaching tasks: (a) instructional, (b) organizational, and (c) behavioral management (Chang, 2009; Doyle, 1986; Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Good & Brophy, 2000; Jones, 1989). *Instructional tasks* highlight teachers' skills in using a variety of methodologies and resources (e.g., preparing/administrating lesson plans/assignments, assessing/observing learned objectives, using instructional aides, instructing via interactive means) to maximize student learning. *Organizational tasks* involve teachers' provisions to construct a classroom setting and climate to enhance effective teaching and student participation (e.g., seating assignments, transitioning between activities, monitoring student activities, organizing equipment/materials). *Behavioral management tasks* encompass teachers' *proactive* strategies (e.g., outlining rules, routines, policies) to monitor or prevent misbehaviors along with *reactive* strategies (e.g., utilizing disciplinary systems) to respond to and handle challenging behaviors as they occur (Chang, 2009; Graham, Holt/Hale, & Parker, 2010).

All three types of teaching tasks highlighted under classroom management represent a significant aspect of teachers' pedagogical knowledge and are considered major determinants of teachers' effectiveness (Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kingston, & Gu, 2007; Emmer & Stough, 2001, Kounin 1970). Despite this, research on teacher stressors indicates that the instructional and organizational aspects of classroom management are not the root of teachers' struggle (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Friedman, 2006). Rather, there is clear evidence that the behavioral management aspects of teaching and, more particularly, the management of student misbehavior is the basis of teacher distress (Friedman, 2006). The magnitude of student misbehavior as a significant teacher job stressor has been established by linking the task of managing student misbehavior with teachers' reduced job commitment (Day et al., 2007) or job satisfaction (Liu & Meyer, 2005), and adverse behavioral outcomes such as burnout (Carson, Templin,

Plemmons, & Weiss, in press) or turnover intentions (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010).

The Role of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs on Student Misbehavior Management

Teachers who are more vulnerable to the effects of student misbehavior often feel less secure with their knowledge and efficacy to successfully manage this stressor (Almog & Shechtman, 2007). Insufficient evidence regarding how teachers gain knowledge and efficacy in successfully managing challenging student behaviors could explain the use of ineffective disciplining strategies, persisting misbehavior problems, and ultimately, why the task of managing student behavior is a major source of teacher distress (Friedman, 2006; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Therefore, it can be argued that teachers who feel less efficacious in dealing with the task of managing student misbehavior may at some point experience feelings of distress which, in turn, may lead to adverse teacher behavioral outcomes. This line of research inquiry has been explored by previous researchers (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002) and has led to the advancement of the concept of teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior or TEHSM (Tsouloupas et al., 2010; see Chapter 2).

TEHSM is viewed as a domain-specific type of teacher efficacy that is defined as the extent to which teachers believe in their capabilities and knowledge to handle disruptive student behaviors successfully. Tsouloupas et al. (2010) showed that TEHSM beliefs significantly and negatively mediated the relationship between high reports of student misbehavior and both turnover intentions and the burnout dimension of emotional exhaustion. The advancement of TEHSM is further supported by previous research that showed teachers' perceptions regarding their abilities to manage student misbehaviors as the only significant predictors in successfully managing disruptive students (Safran, 1989). In addition, studies showed that teachers who had greater concerns about classroom misbehavior perceived themselves as less confident (Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999) and less efficacious (Tsouloupas et al., 2010) in handling student misbehavior. Onafowora (2004) and Rushton (2000) demonstrated that teachers' efficacy beliefs in managing student misbehavior influenced their feelings and behaviors at work. For example, Rushton found teachers who felt unable to handle student misbehavior successfully

began to question their abilities as teachers. In turn, these teachers experienced stress, anxiety, frustration, and sadness. A different study found more than half of their 300 teacher sample reported that managing student misbehavior was a very challenging task, which in turn influenced negatively teachers' perceptions of their teaching capability, and contributed to teachers' declined commitment to their job (Day et al., 2007). It can be concluded from findings presented thus far that teachers distinguish their efficacy beliefs towards the task of managing student misbehavior from other types of teaching efficacy. Additionally, the above assertions demonstrate the significance of continuing to examine TEHSM in an effort to elucidate the manifestation of adverse behavioral outcomes at work. Clearly more research is warranted to further our knowledge of TEHSM.

Teacher Efficacy, Teaching Experience, and Student Behavior Management

There has been a consensus among studies that dealing with student misbehavior is a fundamental skill that experienced teachers manage efficiently (Blasé, 1982; Carter, Cushing, Sabers, Stein, & Berliner, 1988; Egyed & Short, 2006; Livingston & Borko, 1989). Although challenges with student behaviors are found in both experienced and less experienced teachers (Coates & Thoresen, 1976), less experienced teachers are found to struggle more (Day et al., 2007; Evans & Dribble, 1986). Researchers suggest that less experienced teachers doubt their capability (Onafowora, 2004), lack the knowledge (Almog & Shechtman, 2007), lack the self-efficacy (Rushton, 2000), and are unaware of the necessary resources (De la Torre Cruz & Arias, 2007; Poulou, 2005) to successfully manage their students. More specific to TEHSM, results from Chapter 2 showed years of teaching experience to be a significant predictor of TEHSM. Taken as a whole, years of teaching experience appears to be an important factor when it comes to the task of managing student behavior. Further work is clearly needed to explore the relationship that teaching experience has with TEHSM.

Purpose and Scope of the Current Study

The purpose of the current study was to examine and contrast teachers' representations and experiences related to the task of managing student misbehaviors and perceptions of TEHSM across years of teaching experience. In an effort to ensure meaningful and insightful findings, the scope of this study

was delimited to full-time high school teachers of math, science, and physical education (PE). The decision to consider math and science teachers was made because math and science classes have been shown to be prone to high misbehavior problems (Akiba, LeTendre, Baker, & Goesling, 2002; Ross & Bruce, 2007). Research addressing PE teachers' perceptions and efficacy regarding student misbehavior is virtually nonexistent (Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2006). However, the rationale for considering PE teachers was based on suggestions in the literature, in addition to conventional wisdom, that the often challenging teaching conditions (e.g., large class sizes, open environment, insufficient equipment and resources, teaching in motion) in the PE setting can make student misbehavior a very troublesome task for physical educators. As a result, insight was gleaned with regards to math, science, and PE teachers in relation to student misbehavior and TEHSM beliefs.

Study Design

The current study used qualitative methods in an effort to acquire an in-depth and rich perspective on the make-up of student misbehavior and TEHSM. Moreover, the decision to utilize a qualitative approach was based on a lack of sufficient representation of qualitative studies investigating teachers' perceived efficacy (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998) and more specifically TEHSM (Tsouloupas et al., 2010). Therefore, in order to satisfy the requirements for organized and systematic qualitative methods derived from scientific evidence, a transcendental phenomenological approach (Moustakas, 1994) was used to investigate the research question: "How do teachers perceive and describe their capabilities in handling student misbehavior?" by taking into consideration teachers' self-reported TEHSM beliefs and years of full-time teaching experience.

Framing TEHSM through a Transcendental Phenomenological Approach

Due to its exploratory nature, the current study employed a transcendental phenomenological approach to further investigate TEHSM. As defined by Moustakas (1994), "transcendental phenomenology is a scientific study of the appearance of things, of phenomena just as we see them and as they appear to consciousness" (p. 49). The term "transcendental" emphasizes the exploration of TEHSM "freshly, as for the first time" (Moustakas, 1994, p. 34) and the researcher being open to its totality

(Moerer-Urdahl & Creswell, 2004). Consequently, the rationale for choosing a transcendental phenomenological approach was to explore, analyze, and interpret teachers' TEHSM beliefs by focusing on teacher descriptions, reflections, and shared experiences of this phenomenon, while minimizing any researcher preconceptions (Creswell, 2007). This type of interpretive process, also known as *epoche*, implies that the researchers bracket out their preconceptions and knowledge of the phenomenon before studying experiences of others. Bracketing can be achieved by being completely open, unbiased, and receptive to new information. Intuition, imagination, reflection, and the formation of broad structures play a key role in understanding and interpreting the dynamics that regulate teachers' conscious descriptions and self-reflections (Creswell, 2007; Moustakas, 1994).

Bracketing

Based on the researcher's strong educational background in psychology, it was his interest to explore teacher efficacy beliefs as a psychological construct that may determine how teachers perceive and manage student misbehavior. The researcher's prior assumptions from reviewing the literature, observing classes, and teaching related course work were that teachers, especially less experienced teachers, did not receive enough training in improving their skills and abilities to manage student misbehavior. Hence, it was the researcher's belief that less experienced teachers would have lower efficacy in handling misbehavior when compared to their more experienced counterparts.

Methods

Participants

A purposive sample of 24 public, high school, full-time, math, science, and PE teachers (four male and four female from each teaching subject; 19 Caucasian, 5 African American) were recruited from a larger empirical study. All teachers taught in a southeastern state in the USA. Criteria for teacher selection for the current study were based on: (a) district composite reports (DCR) on student participation that provided state and school averages on students disciplined (Louisiana Department of Education, n.d.), (b) the teachers' self-reported TEHSM scores, and (c) years of full-time teaching experience (see Table 4).

Table 4. Teacher recruitment criteria

		Gender		TEHSM					
Teaching Experience	Less Experienced (3 years \geq)	Low				High			
		Male	1 math	1 science	1 PE	1 math	1 science	1 PE	
		Female	1 math	1 science	1 PE	1 math	1 science	1 PE	
	More Experienced (10 years \leq)	Male	1 math	1 science	1 PE	1 math	1 science	1 PE	
		Female	1 math	1 science	1 PE	1 math	1 science	1 PE	

Note. Low = TEHSM scores < 4.1 on 6-point Likert format scale; High = TEHSM scores > 5.6 on 6-point Likert format scale. Less experienced = teachers who had worked full-time for 3 years or less, More experienced = teachers who worked 10 or more as full-time teachers. PE = Physical Education Teachers taught in schools with reported composite scores comparable ($\pm 1\%$) to the state averages on students disciplined: suspended in school = 19%; suspended out of school = 17%; expelled in school = 1%; expelled out of school = 1% (Louisiana Department of Education, n.d.).

Participant Selection and Recruitment Process

An initial pool of 172 high school math ($n = 69$), science ($n = 62$), and PE teachers ($n = 41$) was identified from a larger empirical study who taught in schools with reported composite score averages on students disciplined that coincided with the state averages. These teachers had expressed their willingness to participate in this follow-up study. Subsequently, 115 teachers were selected from the initial sample based on their self-reported TEHSM scores to create two groups: (1) 57 teachers with low TEHSM beliefs (math, $n = 23$; science, $n = 20$; PE, $n = 14$) and (2) 58 teachers with high TEHSM beliefs (math, $n = 23$; science, $n = 21$; PE, $n = 14$). TEHSM scores were reported on a 6-point Likert scale format ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*) for each of the scale items. Teachers with low TEHSM beliefs were considered those who scored below the 21st percentile (TEHSM < 4.1) on the scale, whereas teachers with high TEHSM beliefs were considered those who scored above the 79th percentile (TEHSM > 5.6) on the scale. These low ($z < -1.1$) and high ($z > .93$) TEHSM scores differed by more than two standard deviations.

The next step in the selection process required delineating the two TEHSM groups based on years of full-time teaching experience (i.e., less experienced, more experienced). Teachers who taught full-time

for 3 years or less were considered less experienced, whereas teachers who taught full-time for 10 or more years were identified as more experienced. These groupings came from the Schools and Staffing Survey² and its supplement Teacher Follow-Up Survey (Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizekm, & Morton, 2007).

From the 115 teachers, 28 teachers were identified as less experienced (low TEHSM, $n = 15$; High TEHSM, $n = 13$) and 61 teachers were identified as more experienced (low TEHSM, $n = 28$; High TEHSM, $n = 33$). Therefore, four final groups of 89 teachers were created that depicted: (1) less experienced teachers with low TEHSM beliefs ($n = 15$), (2) less experienced teachers with high TEHSM beliefs ($n = 13$), (3) more experienced teachers with low TEHSM beliefs ($n = 28$), and (4) more experienced teachers with high TEHSM beliefs ($n = 33$) (see Table 4). Equal representation of gender was considered to reflect the national teacher-gender ratio statistics for high school teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 2007).

After approval was granted from the affiliated Institutional Review Board (IRB) for this qualitative study, the 89 teachers who qualified for this study were contacted using their e-mail addresses provided in the previous empirical study. The recruitment e-mail served as an informed consent, as it contained all relevant elements of informed consent (i.e., study description, participant instructions, privacy protection, and withdrawal procedures). Teachers were informed that participation was voluntary and could be discontinued at any time. Eighty-two (92%) teachers agreed to participate. This high response rate was attributed to the teachers' prior indication of willingness to participate in this follow-up study. As a final step to ensure an unbiased procedure was maintained when selecting teachers for the current study, a colleague not involved in the study was asked to randomly choose 24 of these teachers following the criteria presented on Table 4. The final teacher sample consisted of two math, science, and PE teachers (one male, one female for each teaching subject) for each of the four groups.

Data Collection Procedures

Pilot Testing

The primary researcher performed mock interviews with two full-time teachers not included in this study to verify interview length, proper operation of recording equipment, appropriateness of questions, and effectiveness in initiating discussion relative to the research question.

Individual Interviews

The data collection method involved one investigator conducting 24 in-depth interviews (one for each participant) with each teacher and a follow-up interview when necessary for clarification and confirmation of gathered information. Individual interviews took place at a time and location most convenient to each teacher. Seventeen teachers chose to be interviewed at their school site, whereas seven teachers chose to meet at the researcher's university lab.

At the beginning of each interview, the researcher explained that the purpose of the interview was to discuss teaching methods and teacher-student interactions in the class. Teachers were also informed that the interview results would be used for publication and presentation purposes, and reassured that responses would be kept confidential. The same interview protocol and guide (see Appendix C) was used with each teacher. Each interview was performed by the same investigator and audio-taped on a digital recorder. Interview lengths ranged from 72 to 97 minutes. All interview data were transcribed verbatim by the primary investigator. Each teacher participant was given \$30 as an incentive for participation. To facilitate the organization and interpretation of data as well as to ensure anonymity, teachers were asked to choose a pseudonym that started with the same letter as their teaching subject (see Table 5).

Methodological Rigor and Data Trustworthiness

Several steps were considered to ensure methodological rigor and data trustworthiness. Particularly, credibility and the truth value of the study was attained through: literature searches, bracketing personal beliefs and experiences, recruiting a sufficient sample of teachers, randomly selecting teachers at the final step of recruitment, keeping notes during the entire data collection process, reaching

saturation of collected information before ending each interview, and adhering to the phenomenological methods and procedures.

Table 5. Teacher information

	Pseudonym	Gender	Years of full-time teaching	TEHSM score
math teachers				
1	Mark	Male	Less experienced	Low
2	Mabel	Female	Less experienced	Low
3	Mac	Male	Less experienced	High
4	Mandy	Female	Less experienced	High
5	Martin	Male	More experienced	Low
6	Mary	Female	More experienced	Low
7	Matt	Male	More experienced	High
8	Macy	Female	More experienced	High
science teachers				
9	Samuel	Male	Less experienced	Low
10	Sheila	Female	Less experienced	Low
11	Shawn	Male	Less experienced	High
12	Shauna	Female	Less experienced	High
13	Steve	Male	More experienced	Low
14	Scarlett	Female	More experienced	Low
15	Scott	Male	More experienced	High
16	Sally	Female	More experienced	High
PE teachers				
17	Perry	Male	Less experienced	Low
18	Petra	Female	Less experienced	Low
19	Pepin	Male	Less experienced	High
20	Penny	Female	Less experienced	High
21	Percy	Male	More experienced	Low
22	Pearl	Female	More experienced	Low
23	Peter	Male	More experienced	High
24	Peggy	Female	More experienced	High

Note. M = Male; F = Female; PE= Physical education; High = TEHSM scores > 5.6 on 6-point Likert format scale; Low = TEHSM scores < 4.1 on 6-point Likert format scale. Less experienced = teachers who had worked full-time for 3 years or less, More experienced = teachers who worked 10 or more as full-time teachers; PE = Physical education.

Efforts to establish validation, integrity, and trustworthiness of the data were also made by establishing consistency and dependability of the data collection methods. The interview protocol was pilot-tested to ensure questions were appropriate and effective in initiating discussion relative to the

study's topic. To ensure the interview data were accurate, member checking was conducted by asking the teachers who participated in a follow-up interview to read the interview transcriptions, reflect on what they were thinking, and approve the transcriptions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Finally, during the data collection and analysis, a peer debriefer was consulted concerning the implementation of methods for the study and data interpretation/analysis procedures. Peer debriefing was useful in facilitating the accuracy of the researcher's interpretations and the credibility of data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Continued peer consultation between the two researchers on independently coded, randomly selected, common segments of the data resulted in an interrater agreement at 80% and above.

Data Organization and Analysis

Systematic steps for organizing, analyzing, and synthesizing data followed the modified Stevick-Colaizzi-Keen method of organization and analysis of phenomenological data presented by Moustakas (1994). The first step, called *horizontalization*, involved the careful reading of each transcript several times to become familiar with the data set. This was followed by the identification and listing of significant phrases, statements, and quotes that revealed insightful information of experiences shared by the teachers. Simply put, the purpose of this step was for the researcher to begin to understand the phenomenon, TEHSM, through teachers' representations.

Once all the interview data were horizontalized, the second and third steps focused on *reducing* and *eliminating* data. Initially, the investigator went through the horizontalized data and removed repetitive, vague, or overlapping phrases, statements, and quotes. Subsequently, the 24 verbatim transcripts generated significant non-repetitive, non-overlapping statements that, based on their content, were grouped into clusters of meaning and then further clustered into subthemes. The discovery of several subthemes was utilized to form a *textural description* of what teachers experienced in relation to the researched phenomenon (TEHSM). In addition, *structural descriptions* were formed on how teachers' school context and social environment influenced their perceptions of student misbehavior and TEHSM. Finally, a collective description of the phenomenon emerged from these textural and structural descriptions of the subthemes that helped to form general themes.

Results

The 24 verbatim transcripts generated a total of 323 significant non-repetitive, non-overlapping phrases, statements, and quotes (i.e., horizontalized data) related to the research question: “How do teachers perceive and describe their capabilities in handling student misbehavior?” The horizontalization process also involved formulating a meaning for each phrase, statement, and quote (see Table 6 for examples of selected statements and related formulated meanings).

Table 6. Selected examples of significant statements and related formulated meanings as part of the horizontalization process

Significant Statement	Formulated Meaning
“On a daily basis, I deal with misbehaving incidents. Having to deal with these behaviors is very stressing, you know, trying to get them [misbehaving students] back on-task and involved; breaking up students’ quarrels about the smallest things.” (Penny; Less experienced, High TEHSM)	Managing student misbehavior is a significant job stressor that teachers have to deal with everyday
“Not being able to get through these students [misbehaving] makes me feel unproductive. They fight back and argue with me. Sometimes I just want to give up trying.” (Samuel; Less experienced, Low TEHSM)	An image of a low TEHSM teacher expressing thoughts of inadequacy in managing student misbehavior.
“I am very confident in reinforcing my rules and policies consistently. My students know that every bad action leads to a reaction. If a student plays aggressively, teases another student, or fails to follow my directions, I am quick to handle that incident and make it [misbehavior] stop.” (Mandy; Less Experienced, Low TEHSM)	An image of a high TEHSM teacher having the self-confidence and skills to handle challenging student behaviors.
“My family and my military background taught me discipline, respect, and controlling my actions. I use my personal experiences to teach my students the importance of these values while learning to be healthy and physically active.” (Peter; More experienced, High TEHSM)	Benefiting personal experiences acting as useful sources to successfully manage and teach students

The data were categorized into four groups as indicated in Table 4 using each teacher’s information (see Table 5) as a reference. Additionally, all statements within each group were separated to reflect each teaching subject. The next two steps focused on reducing and eliminating

repetitive or overlapping data with similar meanings. First, horizontalized data with similar formulated meanings were grouped together to form clusters of meaning. This process helped to remove data with similar formulated and in turn form clusters with non-repetitive meanings. Second, similar clusters of meaning were further reduced by grouping them together. This process helped to eliminate repetitive clusters of meanings and to form the final themes (Creswell, 2007; Moustakas, 1994). Table 7 presents four examples of themes that emerged from their affiliated clusters of meaning.

Table 7. Examples of three subthemes with their associated clusters of meanings

Clusters of Meanings	Subthemes
Students get tired, bored, or disinterested and distract other students. Deliberate disruptions Jumping on the misbehavior bandwagon Students' energy and will to learn drops Emotional changes include frustration, fatigue, and anger. Cause a snowball effect. Student unrest creating tension in class	Changing the teaching dynamics
Establishing a reputation Zero tolerance policy Teaching discipline and control Respected as the authority Clear and concise policies Reinforcing good manners Practicing/demonstrating the desired behavior Try to be tough and caring	A commanding figure
Learned to be more creative Begun to search for reading material Setting specific goals and planning ahead Change from not seeking help to asking for suggestions Acknowledge mistakes Trying different methods to prevent bad behaviors No longer blame students for everything Work hard to control emotions	Taking charge of one's own professional growth

This exhaustive process to organize and analyze the data revealed 11 subthemes. One major finding from organizing and analyzing the data was the failure to identify clusters of meaning and subsequent themes that produced distinctive findings that differentiated teachers in each of the four groups as initially suggested in Table 4 (High/low teaching experience, High/low TEHSM beliefs).

Particularly, the data did not depict unique experiences or differences in the way teachers perceived and described their capabilities in handling student misbehavior based on their years of teaching experience. There was, however, ample evidence that distinguished teachers' descriptions based on their self-reported TEHSM scores. Therefore, Table 4 was collapsed into two major groups reflecting only teachers with low and high TEHSM. The data revealed 11 subthemes related to three main themes: (a) Teacher perceptions relative to student misbehavior (subthemes 1-2), (b) Representations of the make-up of low and high TEHSM beliefs (subthemes 3-8), and (c) Sources that influenced the development of TEHSM beliefs (subthemes 9-11). Themes will be presented in this order, and by incorporating discussions within each theme contrasting teachers with high and low TEHSM beliefs in addition to any findings specific to each teaching subject.

Theme 1: Teacher Perceptions Relative to Student Misbehavior (Subthemes 1-2)

The first two subthemes portrayed how teachers perceived and described student misbehaviors. Subtheme one presented information relative to misbehaviors that appeared to be specific to teaching subjects as well as common misbehaviors experienced by all teachers. Subtheme two showed how challenging student behaviors influenced the teaching climate.

Subtheme 1: A Recurrent Burden

The prominent image presented by all teachers was a description of their everyday dealings with student misbehavior. The task of managing student misbehavior was described by all teachers as demanding and part of everyday teaching, regardless of teaching subject, teaching experience, or TEHSM beliefs. Teacher reports helped to create a summary of views shared by teachers within a specific teaching subject and common views shared by all teachers in regards to the task of managing student misbehavior (see Table 8). It was apparent from teachers' statements that few misbehavior issues were specific to teaching subjects.

Table 8. Teachers' representations of their perceptions of student misbehavior

Subject	Avg. Incidents Per Class	Prominent Misbehaviors Specific to Subject	Central Challenges	Common Misbehaviors Viewed by all Teachers
Math	3.3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students not prepared for lesson • Students giving up easily putting an effort • “Teaching Manipulatives” becoming distracting • Turning in late or incomplete assignments • Showing a dislike toward certain topics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Falling behind schedule/ timeline • Lesson plans get messed up • Worry about standardized testing • Flow of the lesson disrupted • Transitioning interrupted • Behind schedule/ timeline • Lesson plans get messed up 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mostly stem from different individuals • Talking out of turn • Inattentiveness • Not following directions • Loud/Noisy • Disrespectful/ Talking back • Apathetic/ Bored • Inability to sit still • Tardy • Distracting others
Science	2.1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cheating on lab reports • Misusing of lab equipment • Not following safety rules • Talking during designated class work time • Turning in late or incomplete assignments 		
PE	4.2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lacking maturity during activities • Bullying, taunting, making fun of others' skills, playing aggressively/rough • Disturbing others • Whining, avoiding participation • Pretending to be sick/Avoiding participation • Getting tired and lazy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extremely large classes • Class not contained • Teaching while moving • Hard to keep an eye on everyone • Others easily become off-task 	

When dealing with subject-specific misbehaviors in the classroom, math teachers frequently encountered students who (a) gave up quickly on their assignments and became disengaged, (b) turned in late or incomplete assignments, (c) became distracted with “teaching manipulatives” such as rulers and counting blocks, and (d) showed a dislike towards certain topics. Misbehaviors such as (a) cheating, (b) misusing lab equipment, and (c) turning in late or incomplete lab assignments or homework were specific to science teachers. PE teachers identified students who (a) lacked maturity when interacting with others, (b) disengaged in activities, and (c) exhibited aggressive and harmful behaviors while playing as common misbehaviors in their classes. In addition, PE teachers described challenging conditions in their teaching environment (e.g. classes not being contained, large number of students, teaching while moving) that caused additional stress. Challenging conditions reported in PE classes could have contributed to the higher average of misbehavior problems reported by PE teachers (see Table 8).

Despite certain misbehavior problems appearing as subject-specific, teachers’ statements were in agreement regarding the most regular misbehavior problems. Based on categorizations provided by Kulinna and colleagues (2003), these problems can be classified as mild to moderate: students being overactive/not sitting still or apathetic/lazy/disengaged; teasing or getting in another student’s personal space; failing to follow directions or being disrespectful to others; and being noisy, talking out of turn, chatting or giggling in front or behind the teacher. For example, Peggy stated:

I usually deal with [misbehavior] incidents that are just enough to get my attention. You know, students constantly seeking my attention, talking, joking, or getting up without permission, whining, not participating or putting the effort to interact in the class. (More experienced, High TEHSM)

In addition, teachers (predominately PE teachers) identified aggressive behaviors such as yelling, threatening, fighting, bullying, harassing and forming cliques as occurring less frequently. However, these behaviors were significant because the teachers considered these behaviors potentially dangerous. Pearl commented, “Some students are just very aggressive. They will harass, bully, or push other students to the edge, sometimes even me.” Teachers illustrated that dealing with student misbehaviors is a central

challenge when the misbehaviors are perceived as a threat. Perry worried about the physical threat of aggressive behaviors: “Students nowadays, and I have seen it, carry with them dangerous objects that can cause serious damage to me or other students.” The imposing physical threat from misbehaving students was also strongly exemplified by Scott’s comment:

Over the course of two weeks, my car was scratched, a fellow teacher’s passenger window was cracked, and another teacher’s hood was damaged. Video surveillance caught the culprits. A clique of students that all three of us [teachers] reprimanded in the past for misbehaving in our classes. (More experienced, High TEHSM)

Mac’s statement also depicted his fear for misbehaving students trying to physically harm his family: “One time, I had to report and remove a student from my class for being extremely disruptive. This student, retaliated by repeatedly bullying and harassing my niece. I was devastated.” Mary attempted to explain her worries when she saw students exhibiting aggressive behaviors: “I think the age difference between students and young teachers getting closer encourages students to be less respectful and more aggressive towards them.” Moreover, she stated that she found it difficult and sometimes intimidating to confront students who were the same height or even taller than her.

High versus Low TEHSM Beliefs. It was apparent from the narrations that, regardless of the teaching subject or teaching experience, teachers with low TEHSM beliefs were more animated in their descriptions and expressed more intense and negative feelings than high TEHSM teachers. Low TEHSM teachers’ statements were a poignant portrayal of student misbehavior being a stressful task to manage by describing it as ‘taxing,’ ‘disturbing,’ ‘nerve-racking,’ ‘overwhelming,’ ‘unrelenting,’ and ‘having no end.’ For example, Petra, explained: “I constantly try to correct and teach appropriate behaviors to them [students] but everyday there is always something new.” Similarly, Martin stated, “I cannot recall a day or a class without having some sort of disturbing behavior.”

On the other hand, teachers with high TEHSM beliefs appeared to be less troubled, viewing student misbehavior as “occasionally challenging,” “common,” “short-lived,” and “students being temporarily off-task.” For instance, Sally indicated, “It is almost a given that some students will misbehave at some point during my class.” Furthermore, Peter explained, “In most cases, kids act

unusually or become off-task for a short period of time.” For the most part, these teachers viewed misbehavior problems as “manageable” and did not feel troubled by them even though some teachers did express a concern about serious types of misbehavior. Serious misbehaviors were perceived as students engaging in overly aggressive actions such as carrying harmful objects, damaging school or personal property, and attempting to harass the teacher, classmates, or others.

Overall, this first theme illustrated all teachers perceiving the task of managing student misbehavior as a recurrent burden. Data revealed certain misbehavior problems being more prominent in certain teaching subjects or settings, whereas the most regular types of misbehaviors were found to be common across all three teaching subjects. Moreover, it was evident that these common misbehaviors were mild-to-moderate in severity, with PE teachers experiencing somewhat more severe misbehaviors. Despite both low and high TEHSM teachers describing the task of managing student misbehavior as a burden, teachers with low TEHSM described misbehaviors with more intense and negative feelings (e.g. nerve-racking, overwhelming, unrelenting) and viewed misbehaviors as long-lasting.

Subtheme 2: Changing the Teaching Climate Dynamic

In this subtheme, all teachers focused on changes in the teaching climate caused by student misbehavior problems. Teachers felt that much of the student disruptions occurred as a result of some students exhibiting lack of interest for the subject/skill taught, showing low energy levels and a were unwilling to learn, or having an affinity for preventing other students from learning. In addition, teachers (predominantly teachers with low TEHSM) believed that the persistence of regular misbehavior in their classes created tension for the following reasons: students having no fear of the consequences of their misbehaviors; suspensions viewed as an opportunity to stay home, parents not supporting teachers’ disciplinary actions; and school disciplinary regulations from the administration being reactive, often ineffective, and involving too many steps. In addition, 16 teachers (67%; Low TEHSM $n = 11$, 5 High TEHSM $n = 5$) reported that their dealings with misbehaviors placed them in bad moods while in class. As a result, these teachers reportedly experienced negative thoughts and feelings that sometimes made them react in a way that perpetuated the misbehavior. Teachers explained that their negative moods

usually derived from viewing the continuous interruptions as “being unfair to other students,” “[other students] being cheated of instruction time,” “causing the whole class to suffer,” and teachers “losing their train of thought” and feeling unable to continue their lessons. Specifically Matt said:

It is very tough and consuming to keep other students actively engaged while attempting to discipline another student. Every minute spent disciplining students during class time that is a minute of teaching time that becomes lost forever. If students misbehave for 55 minutes, the 55 minutes are wasted correcting the students, leaving no time for instruction on the subject matter. I find that extremely annoying. (More experienced, High TEHSM)

High versus Low TEHSM Beliefs. In their efforts to explain how misbehavior changes the teaching climate dynamics, the majority of teachers with low TEHSM were found to describe student misbehavior problems as purposeful whereas teachers with high TEHSM beliefs perceived student misbehaviors as instinctive. Specifically, ten (83%) low TEHSM teachers viewed student misbehaviors as purposeful. For instance, Samuel explained, “[misbehaving] students try to test how much teachers can take before they actually break.” Similarly, Mark quickly responded, “Believe me, it is such a power struggle dealing with misbehaving students. They [students] want to overpower you. You fight back to control them.” Adding to the notion that misbehavior is purposeful, Petra said that students who were more likely to break her rules were not afraid of the consequences of their actions. Particularly, Petra argued that students intentionally break the rules thinking they could get away with it.

In teachers with low TEHSM beliefs, a sense of struggle with the task of managing student was evident which, in turn, showed to influence the classroom climate. Sheila described her experience with student misbehaviors with obvious discontent and frustration. She complained, “You get interrupted every five minutes and each time you stop to deal with the disruption. It is hard to bounce back and resume teaching after a while.” Percy expressed similar feelings of anger and irritation when he found himself frequently spending most of the class time breaking up students’ quarrels about insignificant things or calling out students who were not engaged, hoping that they would get back on task. Steve also commented that misbehaviors created tension in the classroom, saying, “It is so hard to make them [the students] take responsibility of their actions and have them admit that what they were doing was wrong.” He also added:

“At times, dealing with misbehaviors can be nerve-racking. It changes the way I interact with my students or the way I teach. Especially when I know that I have to prepare them [the students] for tests and state assessments. I do not want to fall behind my schedule because of these continuous interruptions.”

In contrast with the teachers with low TEHSM, eight (67%) teachers with high TEHSM viewed student misbehavior problems as instinctive. The following two excerpts showed how misbehaviors were viewed as instinctive:

What I find somewhat challenging is that they [misbehavior incidents] come out of left field. Students’ behaviors or reactions to something you or another student say or do can lead to a sudden unrest or disruption of the whole class. (Shawn; Less experienced, High TEHSM)

You can be teaching and enjoying your lesson and a small incident, you know, a short pause, a noise, a sneeze, or a goofy answer, can trigger off-task behaviors. Students suddenly start whispering, giggling, or talking loud. It surprises me and I get caught off guard for a moment. All I can think at that moment is “how did that happen?” (Penny; Less experienced, High TEHSM)

The extent to which some teachers with high TEHSM beliefs viewed student misbehavior as an instinctive reaction can be also seen in the following descriptions. Shauna, after pausing for a few seconds rationalized that students typically misbehaved when they got tired, bored, or because their attention span was shorter than others. In a similar manner, Pepin was convinced that some students reacted by instinct and behaved inappropriately when faced with challenging drills or activities. Pepin viewed this type of student reaction and misbehavior as a “defensive mechanism,” to hide their inability to keep up with the rest of the class.

In summary, the second subtheme showed that managing misbehavior problems can alter a teacher’s mood and create tension between the teacher and students which subsequently may change the teaching climate. Insufficient support from parents and the implementation of ineffective disciplinary policies imposed by the administration were also identified as contributing to teachers’ frustrations and negatively affecting their teaching. Finally, it was apparent that the majority of teachers with low TEHSM beliefs perceived acts of misbehavior as purposeful. Such perceptions may have contributed to these teachers’ struggle to manage misbehaviors, which in turn led to more frequent negative moods and tension while teaching.

Theme 2: Representations of the Make-Up of Low and High TEHSM Beliefs (Subthemes 3-8)

In the following subthemes, teachers' representations depicted the make-up of their self-reported TEHSM beliefs. Contrasting images were evident between teachers with low perceived TEHSM and high TEHSM regardless of their teaching experience or teaching subject. Subthemes 3-5 focused on describing what teachers with low TEHSM beliefs experienced while managing challenging student behaviors. Subthemes 6-8 represented what teachers with high TEHSM beliefs experienced while managing challenging student behaviors.

Subtheme 3: Low TEHSM Beliefs-Inadequate Skills and Knowledge

A strong illustration in this theme was that teachers with low self-reported TEHSM scores described inadequacy in managing student misbehaviors successfully. These teachers used words such as “ineffective” and “failing” to describe themselves and their ability to handle misbehaving students. A whopping 92% (11) of teachers with low TEHSM beliefs acknowledged that they often doubted their teaching skills and at times wanted to give up trying to discipline the misbehaving student(s). These teachers hinted at their perceived inefficacy to successfully manage student misbehaviors through various statements. Samuel stated: “I see teachers going from being confident, happy, and driven to feeling incompetent, unproductive, and becoming withdrawn. Efforts [to control student misbehavior] deteriorate and you start thinking that you are a terrible teacher.” Petra noted, “When such events keep reappearing in my class makes me believe that I have been ill prepared.” She also added, “In many occasions [students misbehaving], I found myself not knowing what to do.” Pearl asserted that her challenge with the task of managing student misbehavior related to not knowing how to deal with challenging behaviors that she had never dealt with before:

I have been teaching PE for 17 years and I keep telling myself every time “That’s it, I have seen everything” [in terms of misbehavior]. Well, my students’ actions keep proving me wrong. For example, the other day, a student was not following my instructions and I tried to correct him. While I was explaining to him the drill, and you know, I always try to be nice and understanding, he threw the ball in my direction with force and used words that I am just embarrassed to even say. I walked away; I did not know what to do. (More experienced, Low TEHSM)

Samuel described his difficulties in handling disobedient students. He believed that his difficulties were the result of his lack of knowledge and skills to adequately manage misbehaviors that were happening simultaneously in his classroom. He initially said, “Things sometimes become chaotic and I am not sure what to do.” After pausing for a few seconds, he regrouped his thoughts and elaborated further:

... You could be dealing with one or few disobedient students over and over; or dealing with more than one [misbehavior] event happening at the same time; or a group of students being disruptive; you might even see students who have been quiet become tempted to misbehave because of the regular disruptions. I am not afraid to admit it. I find it hard to keep my students on-task. There are so many things to consider. (Less experienced, Low TEHSM)

While showing a concern about their lack of knowledge and efficacy in terms of handling student misbehavior, teachers with low TEHSM conveyed a sense of realization of their shortcomings and expressed a somewhat optimistic view about the future in terms of improving their student behavior management skills. Teachers recognized that handling misbehavior issues was a “learning process” that involved a lot of “trial and error” and “trial by fire.” Scarlett expressed her satisfaction in acquiring subject content knowledge while being at school but also spoke of her disappointment that her teacher program did not prepare her to know how to manage challenging student behaviors. Mabel similarly said, “... Lacking the knowledge to manage my students’ behaviors makes me feel less effective.” She commented though that lately she became more conscious about her shortfalls and was trying to improve her skills one day at a time. Other teachers’ statements exhibited comparable efforts to become more capable to handle misbehaviors. Martin had a sudden breakthrough during the interview:

I have had a difficult time establishing a fine line between me and my students. Students walk in my class and expect to do nothing. I have been too lenient, letting them get away with being bad. I think I became known for that and felt there was no turning back. I can do better; after all, I have been doing this [teaching] for 12 years. I need to change how I approach my students. (More experienced, Low TEHSM)

To summarize, several reasons were provided to explain these teachers’ low TEHSM beliefs. These teachers doubted their skills, and felt helpless and unable to manage misbehaviors successfully. They attributed their current inadequacies to their deficient knowledge and skills to manage

misbehaviors. Knowing that they were failing to successfully manage misbehaviors had a strong, negative influence on their feelings and beliefs in their abilities.

Subtheme 4: Low TEHSM Beliefs-Inconsistent Actions to Gain Control

Teachers with low self-reported TEHSM scores specifically focused on describing their actions to control student behaviors in their classroom during instruction. One issue discussed by nearly all teachers (nine teachers, 75%) was having difficulty handling small student disruptions that escalated into bigger problems. Mary explicated that one act of misbehavior could have led to the distractions of other students who jumped on the “misbehavior bandwagon.” To elucidate this problem, Percy explained:

If I do not act or stop a bad behavior right away, in a matter of minutes, other students join the act or start causing different problems. For example, this just happened yesterday. My students were playing basketball and one student got elbowed. I wasn’t planning to say anything and suddenly it almost spiraled to a brawl. Everyone was pushing and yelling at each other. I should have done something before things got out of control. (More experienced, Low TEHSM)

Similarly, in describing how students got into arguments over lab instruments and “who is going to do what” during in-class lab assignments, Steve described students being unable to practice self-control and to contain their behavior which in turn led to a “snowball effect.” A sense of powerlessness was evident in low TEHSM teachers’ narratives depicting their difficulty in gaining control and effectively managing student misbehavior. Common reactions to misbehavior that related to feelings of powerlessness were often described with words such as “you just freeze” and feeling “uncertain” of one’s actions. Ruminating over the subject, Petra noted, “I guess I find it difficult to pull the reins when it is needed.” Thinking over her past actions, she reflected feeling helpless when student behaviors got out of control. Similarly Perry rationalized:

I can handle minor issues fairly well. You know, [students] being lazy and trying to find excuses not to change or exercise; whining because they get tired. When it comes to students fighting, bullying, or harassing others; that worries me. It can get out of hand. (Less experienced, Low TEHSM)

It was apparent that teachers had difficulties in deciding how to handle misbehavior and particularly how to gain control over their students. For example, Samuel pointed out, “I often find myself being too strict or too easygoing with my students.” Pearl elaborated on her concerns on what

actions she should incorporate in her teachings: “My biggest issue is deciding whether I should incorporate zero tolerance disciplinary strategies and accept the possibility that the parents will come asking for explanations.”

In summary, this subtheme showed that low efficacy beliefs related to the decisions that teachers made to resolve student misbehaviors. Their lack of decision making and problem solving led to inconsistent efforts to mitigate or control challenging student behaviors. This was evident from misbehaviors that were often reported to escalate to more cumbersome issues because teachers did not believe they possessed the mental toughness to manage misbehaving students.

Subtheme 5: Low TEHSM Beliefs-Debilitating Feelings

Teachers with low self-reported TEHSM focused on describing their feelings and emotions they had experienced during past encounters with misbehaving students. The main image that permeated through these teachers’ descriptions was feeling emotionally drained from dealing with misbehaviors every day. Many teachers’ representations were associated with debilitating thoughts such as feeling “damaged,” “flustered,” and “devastated.” Some teachers thought that they did not do well with confrontations. For instance, Sheila noted that when she becomes overwhelmed by dealing with defiant students she “shuts down.” She explained, “I get too emotional; I almost want to start crying; I do not want to deal with these disrespectful students.” Mary described herself as feeling numb and helpless when students ignored her reminders to pay attention. A few teachers admitted that they had the tendency to hold feelings and thoughts internally which at times led them to snap or lose their temper in front of their students. For instance, Mabel’s emotions overpowered her actions which, in turn typically led to frustration and anger towards her disruptive students. Similarly, Mark expressed the need to be calmer:

Every time I turn my back to write something on the board, that’s when the whispers, giggles, you know all these distractions begin. I just know, my face gets all red. I can feel my pulse beating fast. At that point I know I am getting irritated. (Less experienced, Low TEHSM)

In summary, this subtheme revealed that teachers with low TEHSM beliefs were susceptible to debilitating feelings by routinely managing student misbehaviors. Over time, these feelings showed to manifest to emotional drainage and teacher-student interactions in the class to deteriorate. In

conclusion, these findings suggest that teachers with low TEHSM beliefs exhibited warning signs of emotional exhaustion.

Subtheme 6: High TEHSM Beliefs- Strategizing is a Confidence Booster

Teachers with high TEHSM beliefs explained that having a strategic plan to manage challenging student behaviors increased their confidence and perceived abilities in handling student misbehavior during instruction. Teachers with high TEHSM beliefs exhibited feelings of confidence in handling misbehavior, saying that they actually did not have to deal with such incidents too often. Teachers were quick to explain that their students just knew that misbehavior was not tolerated in their classes. Subsequently, the implementation and consistent reinforcement of behavior rules and policies helped these teachers to minimize or even prevent misbehaviors. Such achievements also served as a great “confidence booster.” Steve explained, “My students know very well that every bad behavior or action has an equal and opposite reaction.” Macy stated, “I feel very comfortable with the way I manage my students’ behavior problems because I make sure the parents and the principal are in agreement with my behavior system.”

Many of the teachers portrayed their on-going efforts to prevent student misbehaviors from occurring during their lessons. In describing their daily interactions with their students, teachers reported strategies and techniques in their teachings that worked for them to keep students on-task. The key characteristics in teachers’ strategies were having consistent routines and repeatedly practicing the expected in-class behaviors with their students. Teachers stressed the importance of helping students understand “why” they needed to avoid misbehaving instead of just reprimanding them when they actually misbehaved. Matt noted, “I spend the first couple of weeks of school going over my expectations in terms of performance, participation, and behavior.” Similarly, other teachers were quick to point out that spending time explaining, demonstrating, and practicing class rules and desired behaviors with their students significantly improved student behaviors. The above arguments were highlighted through the following excerpts:

I never stand still. I like to move around and observe them. They hear my voice all the time, instructing and directing them throughout their activities. I constantly give them feedback and encourage them to do their best. I make sure my students feel my presence close to them while they participate in different activities and games. (Pepin; Less experienced, High TEHSM)

My lesson units are structured through proper progressions. In this way I keep students challenged and engaged. I am quick in recognizing when my students get bored, tired, or frustrated and I adjust my lessons by constantly monitoring them. I use specific cues and signals that I taught them to make disruptions stop immediately without interrupting my lesson. (Shauna; Less experienced, High TEHSM)

I do my best to keep them [students] busy throughout the class. I like to use creative ways to teach my lessons. It makes it more fun and interesting. We sing; we listen to music that they like while moving around. I also learned to move quickly from one activity to the next. This keeps them engaged and prevents students from becoming distracted or off-task. (Peggy; More experienced, High TEHSM)

My behavior policies are posted in class and [can be found] in my students' folders. They [policies] are clear, simple, and to the point. I reinforce good behaviors by sharing with them [students] video clips and articles that make the news, you know, showing the negative and sometimes dangerous outcomes from engaging in bad behaviors. My students respond well to that. (Mac; Less experienced, High TEHSM)

Each of my students has one yellow, one orange, and one red card on their desks. If I approach them and remove the yellow card they know it is a warning for misbehaving. If misbehavior persists and I remove the orange card means there will be a disciplinary consequence at the end of the lesson. A red card means that serious consequences will follow such as calling their parents or referring them to the principal. (Scott; More experienced, High TEHSM)

To summary, it was apparent in this subtheme that teachers with high TEHSM beliefs were very confident, driven, and consistent in their efforts to eliminate misbehaviors in their classes. It was obvious that these teachers used a variety of strategies to establish their expectations on behavior. An important finding from this theme is that teaching was carefully and strategically planned to include student behavior management and its prevention (i.e., proactive behavior management) as core components during instruction.

Subtheme 7: High TEHSM Beliefs- A Commanding Figure

Several teachers with high self-reported TEHSM pointed out that being firm and demanding with their student such as “keeping a tough face” and “laying down the law to the students” resulted in less frequent and less severe misbehavior problems. It was apparent that these teachers’ success in managing student misbehavior related to their personal characteristics and behavioral approaches. Particularly, these

teachers exhibited superior abilities to command their students efficiently. As a result, teachers reported that they felt more respected and that students in their classes were on-task for the majority of the class time. These teachers also reported that students who did misbehave got back on task quickly. Penny stated, “I am very upfront with misbehaviors, students need to learn discipline and control.” Specifically, Penny said that all of her students knew they were expected to show high levels of maturity in her class and that off-task behaviors were not to be tolerated. Similarly, Macy stated:

My students know of my zero tolerance policy and the consequences for any type of misbehavior or disrespect towards me, their classmates, or school property. It is simply unacceptable and will not be tolerated. You know, sometimes teaching through fear is the only way to have a peaceful and enjoyable lesson. (More experienced, High TEHSM)

Shawn stressed the importance of staying faithful to classroom policies and consequences, and he explained that students will test teachers’ tolerance and patience to see how much they can get away with. Peter was very adamant about not allowing a student’s behavior to determine the outcome of his lesson. In fact, he proudly exclaimed, “Over the years, I have established a reputation in the school that students cannot play around during my class.” In an effort to explain how he prevented misbehaviors from occurring Pepin said: “My classroom behavior policies are pretty stringent. Besides them [students] knowing [the consequences], they get called out, pulled aside, or removed from class immediately depending on the severity of misbehavior. Severe misbehaviors also imply no recess for them [misbehaving students]. I do this because I care about them and I want them to learn. I am pretty sure they realize that.”

In summary, findings from this subtheme are important in possibly explaining why teachers with high TEHSM beliefs were able to develop and implement good strategies to manage student behaviors in their classes. Specifically, this theme revealed common personality characteristics and behaviors shared among these teachers that possibly aided their high beliefs in their ability to gain command over their students. These teachers came across as strong, commanding figures with the power, self-confidence, and skills to impose their behavior expectations on their students. Creating a peaceful teaching environment,

caring for the students, and wanting to teach students discipline and self-control are prevailing motives that led teachers to be assertive with managing and eliminating student misbehaviors.

Subtheme 8: High TEHSM Beliefs- Building Trusting Relationships

Teachers with high self-reported TEHSM elucidated the role of building trusting relationships (among students and between the teacher and students) in the prevention of student misbehavior. Most of the teachers described incorporating a variety of “ice-breaker” activities and creating a “comfortable” classroom environment, especially in the beginning of the school year, to encourage students to interact and socialize with everyone in the class. In general, teachers’ statements were in agreement that teaching students to be supportive and to have fun working together, and helping them to get to know everyone significantly helped students feel more accepted. In this way, teachers were able to promote harmonious interactions in the class. Peggy clarified that the development of feelings of trust and camaraderie equaled to more respect and decreased incidents of friction among students:

I like assigning students with leading roles and responsibilities. They just love it. It makes them feel important. I have them help me with setting-up the area, taking part in demonstrations; I even nominate a few as my assistants for each lesson and allow them to pick the last activity of the class. Everyone wants to be an assistant. The trick is, and they know it, I choose my assistants based on good behavior. (More experienced, High TEHSM)

Sally explained that she gained her students’ trust and respect by showing them the appropriate attention when needed and guided them to improve their actions:

I always listen to my students’ feelings and explanations of why they misbehaved. For example, if a student fails to wear safety goggles during a lab experiment, I will ask them to explain why they did not follow the safety rules and also tell me the consequences for that. They can see that I care about them. I make sure that they also hear what I have to say. This allows me teach them how to control their feelings and behavior while helping them understand why they are disciplined. (More experienced, High TEHSM)

In summary, a main finding in this subtheme was that misbehavior could be prevented through socializing actions and activities that brought students closer to each other. It can be suggested that when the teacher puts in the effort to make students care for one another that it could create stronger, more trusting relationships that could in turn decrease the occurrence of frictions between students. In addition, the teacher facilitating or even become involved with this socialization

process could help students adjust better in the classroom. Teachers can build trusting relationships between themselves and the students by giving students the opportunity to feel trusted with making a decision or administering part of a lesson. In addition, trusting teacher-student relationships can be built when the teacher provides explanations to why a student is reprimanded or when the teachers guides students' actions towards the desired behaviors.

Theme 3: Factors That Influenced Development of TEHSM Beliefs (Subthemes 9-11)

In these final three themes, all teachers, regardless teaching experience, teaching subject, or self-reported TEHSM reflected on factors that contributed to their current TEHSM beliefs. Through these reflections, teachers critiqued their learning and training experiences regarding student behavior management (theme 9), elaborated on actions they took to become more successful with this specific task (theme 10), and described personal experiences and sources of support that positively influenced their beliefs in their abilities to handle student misbehavior (theme 11).

Subtheme 9: The Need to Become More Effective

Teachers with low and high self-reported TEHSM emphasized the necessity to feel successful in controlling, minimizing, and preventing student misbehavior. An astounding eighty-eight percent of all teachers reported that their college preparation and in-service training relative to managing student misbehavior was “inadequate,” “minimal,” or “non-existent.” Teachers headlined their lack of preparation and inadequate training by describing the realities in the classroom as “a rude awakening” and identifying college courses and professors offering “an unintentional misguidance on what it takes to be a successful teacher in reality.” Other teachers also explained not having sufficient opportunities to acquire new knowledge and skills pertaining to the prevention of misbehavior. Specifically, 79% of all teachers indicated receiving zero to two training sessions per year on student misbehavior management and felt most of the information presented was broad and “barely scratching the surface” of the real issues.

School policy was an additional focal point that illuminated teachers' insufficient training on disciplinary actions and prevention of student misbehaviors. Particularly, 58% of all teachers described their actions to manage student misbehavior incidents were more reactive since the school policies

encouraged the use of referrals for disruptive and defiant students. Teachers felt that these school policies were effective in removing the defiant students from the class but failed to give the teacher the opportunity to teach defiant students how to change their undesired behaviors. Teachers called for more effective disciplinary actions that could actually teach the students to behave appropriately instead of just removing them. A few teachers stated that misbehaving students being dealt with outside of the classroom removed their responsibility dealing with such issues. Sally's opinion about student misbehavior referrals was very informative:

The number of students being referred is increasing rapidly. To me, this indicates abuse of power and lack of teacher accountability. Why not feel responsible and try to work with your student? Be patient; try to teach them [students] the desired behaviors; then decide if you want to remove them. Referring them [students] does not teach them anything other than just telling them they are unfit to be in a class. Removing a student from my class is a reflection of me failing as a teacher in doing what I signed up for. (More experienced, High TEHSM)

In summary, teachers highlighted the importance of experiencing success in managing student behavior efficiently. Teachers reported that their preparation and training did not meet their needs in becoming better managers of their students' misbehaviors. In fact, teachers stated that the current procedures and policies in schools make them feel less effective since they are not given the opportunity to correct inappropriate behaviors.

Subtheme 10: Taking Charge of One's Own Professional Growth

Without exceptions, teachers agreed that minimizing and preventing student misbehavior was a "learning process" that started once they became full-time teachers. Teachers pointed out that most of their learning in terms of managing misbehavior took place in their own classroom. Three subthemes emerged that described this learning process.

The first subtheme described learning to manage student misbehaviors by "trying to avoid past mistakes." Sheila characteristically noted, "There is a lot of blood, sweat, and tears involved but eventually you learn from your own mistakes and successes. It is a 'trial in fire' sort of thing." Perry stated, "I am always willing to try something different to avoid disruptions from happening, even though at times it feels like shooting in the dark." Similarly, Martin explained:

Recently, I have tried to approach this issue [misbehavior] differently. I now try to think, “This is normal,” you know, having to deal with misbehaving students. What I try to avoid though is making the same mistakes over and over when the same misbehaviors come about. (More experienced, Less TEHSM)

The second subtheme described the learning process in managing student misbehaviors as being able to recognize effective strategies in handling challenging behaviors and “sticking with what works.” Particularly, 16 teachers (67%) shared views or described methods in monitoring and dealing with misbehaviors. Mandy and Mabel mentioned using the “System of tallies.” Their system included constantly monitoring their students’ behaviors and recording them. Students knew that three incidents in a week resulted to detention. Percy for example noted, “I decided to start using a simple checklist to keep track of my students’ daily efforts and behavior.” He further explained that the checklist helped him to identify patterns between his students’ levels of effort and likelihood of being off-task. In addition to using a checklist to track his students’ behaviors, Mark also added:

I won’t lie; I know my struggles with misbehaving students. I always have been that shy, non-confrontational, quiet person who just loves math. I love to identify patterns and I love statistics; so I have created a stats chart to monitor my students’ behaviors. Maybe in this way I will be able to identify major types of misbehaviors and somehow develop a plan to begin to prevent them. (Less experienced, Low TEHSM)

Finally, the third subtheme indicated that teachers learned to manage student misbehaviors by continuing their professional growth and development of their skills through their own reading and exploration. For example, seven teachers (29%) pointed out experiencing less misbehavior issues and growing as teachers by changing their demeanor towards their students. Shawn explained that the frequency of misbehaviors began to subside once he gave up on the idea of being both a friend and a teacher to his students. Instead, he focused on drawing a line between himself and his students in order to gain the much needed respect and control. Specifically he said, “Students were repeatedly taking advantage of the” nice Shawn”, you know, always bending the rules.” Macy, on the other hand, noticed a positive change in her students’ attitudes in the classroom when she began to explore how her students could contribute in the creation of behavior rules (e.g. support rules, safety rules, participation rules) and

consequences for not following those rules. Unlike other teachers, one teacher shyly revealed that she had spent time practicing how to improve her posture and physical presence around her students:

...I experimented with various strategies, I was very determined. I finally found a way that actually worked for me... standing in front of a mirror for a few minutes every day practicing my posture, my expressions, and the way I talked. I began to feel more persuasive and convincing; my students were responding a lot better to my instruction. (Shauna; Less Experienced, High TEHSM)

In addition, five teachers (21%) stated that occasionally, when they had the spare time and energy, they tried to search for information regarding effective strategies in managing student behaviors. In fact, four teachers (teachers with High TEHSM) referred to books they were currently reading on student misbehavior. Several teachers with low TEHSM beliefs presented time and energy as significant barriers in continuing their efforts to improve their skills. Mark also expressed having trouble knowing where to locate useful information on student behavior management and prevention. These barriers could have explained why only few teachers were actively spending time improving their skills in managing challenging student behaviors.

In summary, this theme revealed the teachers' personal efforts to improve their abilities in handling challenging student behaviors. Teachers described these efforts as a continuous learning process that required investing their personal time to analyze and improve their current teaching practices and to identify appropriate sources to study in order to improve their skills. It was apparent that teachers attempted to take charge of their own professional growth in becoming more efficient student behavior managers. Despite teachers' willingness to improve their skills, factors such lack of time, energy, and resources acted as barriers to their learning. This was evident with teachers with low TEHSM beliefs.

Subtheme 11: Benefiting Experiences and Sources of Support

Teachers reported that having adequate sources of support influenced the development of their skills and abilities in handling student misbehavior. It was evident that all 24 teachers actively sought out different sources of support to enhance their behavior management skills. Teachers characterized having support as a source of "inspiration" and "motivation" that provided them with a wealth of information with which to develop their student behavior management skills.

Fifteen teachers (62%) illustrated family members as one source of support in the acquisition and improvement of their skills to manage student misbehavior. For example, Scarlett mentioned, “My mother, a retired science teacher, is my “go to” person when I have difficulties with my students.” Scarlett explained that her mother would give her advice on how to modify her lessons to make them more “student-friendly” and “age-appropriate” to prevent off-task behaviors. Pepin also noted, “[smile] I role-play with my son and my wife on how to handle my students. Their feedback has helped me become more effective in dealing with misbehavior.”

It was also clear from various representations that the school settings and the social structure of the school were viewed as productive grounds for teachers to learn how to deal with student misbehaviors more successfully. Teachers described the benefit of having unity and kinship in the school community that started with colleagues and went all the way up to the principal and administration. For instance, sharing teaching experiences and strategies with fellow colleagues was identified as one important source of support to learn about student behavior management. Fifty-eight percent of all teachers talked about how sharing their class experiences with other teachers helped them become more optimistic by realizing that student misbehavior was a challenging yet a common problem among all teachers. These teachers reported that they gained confidence from learning new, effective ways to manage challenging student behaviors from their fellow colleagues. Particularly, teachers described that they benefit most from casual conversations with other teachers regarding behavior management issues. Peter explained that talking with colleagues during a break or recess helped: “We talk about problems that we can both relate with and compare notes on how we handle things in our classes.” In addition, Scott emphasized feeling more “relaxed and comfortable” in sharing personal information among friendly colleagues:

You discuss issues by choice and when you feel ready. You have a choice regarding who you want to share your thoughts and problems; or just to ventilate. Those [teachers] that I usually trust and relate with, they give me good advice when I need one and challenge my current thoughts. (More experienced, High TEHSM)

Another beneficial form of support identified was a “good principal” that listened to teachers’ inputs regarding student behavior management issues. Seventeen teachers (71%) elaborated that improved

knowledge and skills in managing student behaviors were achieved when the principal promoted good communication among teachers, got the parents involved, encouraged the idea of mentoring, and reinforced teachers' attendance at professional development programs on classroom management by covering the attendance fees. In addition, principals were identified to influence the classroom environment by (a) staying informed on current issues in the classroom, (b) listening to what teachers had to say or suggested in terms of student behavior management, and (c) supporting teachers' initiatives to get together to implement collective student behavior management strategies and action plans so that all teachers could have available to use. Steve stressed the importance of having a consistent and positive interaction among the school administration and teachers: "The principal, someone from the administration, or an assigned teacher should routinely come to our classes to make sure that everything works well." Perry similarly stated, "Principals need to be more active in knowing what happens inside our classrooms. I would like to see the principal assigning us [novice teachers] to teachers that have been around for a while to learn from them." The following quote shows how principals can positively influence collegial interactions as well as improving principal-teacher relationships by being actively involved with classroom matters:

We all [teachers teaching the same subject] meet twice a month. Usually it is on an early release day and lasts for about an hour [each session]. I look forward for these meetings. We discuss classroom matters, teaching strategies, and ways to improve the classroom climate. Each month, we create a short report of current classroom issues raised during the meetings. That summary is presented to the principal (Macy, More experienced, High TEHSM).

Teachers' reflections varied in relation to benefiting from attending professional development programs related to student behavior management (e.g. seminars, conferences, and teaching workshops/courses). Three teachers (13%) viewed professional development and training as another useful means of "being mentored." These teachers benefited from their professional development training through their interactions with other teachers, participating in group learning activities, and receiving feedback about their participation in those group learning activities. For example, these teachers found it useful to be involved in role-play activities that allow them to learn effective ways to handle challenging

student behaviors. In addition, teachers noted that they enjoyed brainstorming sessions focused on ways to prevent student misbehavior. Shawn explained:

You sit together with other teachers and you focus on ways to effectively manage student behaviors. Usually, you are given a scenario. There is so much energy in the room. We exchange ideas, make decisions together. We receive feedback on our skills and how we could improve. There are so many ways to approach this issue [handling misbehavior] and this is a great opportunity to learn. (Less Experienced, High TEHSM)

On the other hand, eight teachers (33%) thought that much of their professional development training was too “generic” and specific information regarding student behavior management being “barely available.” For example, Penny noted:

I notice a lack of connection between what is presented and what actually happens in my class. [In Physical Education] I deal with different issues ... There are no desks or walls to set the boundaries; students learn while moving; we constantly use equipment; transitioning between activities sometimes require a whole new setup. Students can become distracted or off-task very easily. (Less experienced, High TEHSM)

Teachers stressed the need for professional development programs to provide teachers with “practical,” “current,” and “relevant” information on student behavior management related to their teaching subject and school environment. Specifically, teachers were willing to attend training sessions more frequently if they were more readily available to them. Interestingly, thirteen teachers (54%) suggested having more of their training take place at their school from teachers that they can associate with. The following excerpts depict that direction:

We need more of the training [on student behavior management] to take place where we teach. It will save us time. It will also save time and money for the administration too. It will allow us to attend those training sessions more frequently. Thus, we can suggest topics based on our needs. (Scarlett; More experienced, Low TEHSM)

If we [teachers] want our students to behave well, we need to have an ongoing communication system with each other on how to do that. I mean, we need to use similar methods that work in our school environment when teaching the expected behaviors without confusing them [students]. (Mac; Less experienced, High TEHSM)

I am honest. I want to feel more effective in handling my students...we need more leaders within our district or school to step up and use their experience and knowledge to bring the training closer to us. More teachers will benefit from that. (Scarlett; More experienced, Low TEHSM)

I have been going to training workshops much more than any other teacher in my school. I actually try to go to at least three seminars on classroom management every year. I go during the summer and I cover the expenses myself. I have gained so much by attending these workshops. It is a real shame

that during the school year we are not provided with any training. (Mary; More experienced, Low TEHSM)

To summarize, this subtheme provided useful information on how various sources of support found in the teachers' personal (i.e., family members) and school environment (i.e., school administration, colleagues, professional development) influenced their efficacy beliefs to manage student misbehaviors. It was apparent that all teachers, at some point, actively sought for support to enhance their behavior management skills. Benefiting experiences coming from the teachers' personal environment were welcomed as a supplemental source of support whereas experiences in the school settings were presented as the primary sources to enhance TEHSM. Despite that, teachers acknowledged that currently, the support they received from their school environment to enhance these skills was in short supply, unsatisfactory, ineffective, or sporadic. Subsequently, teachers described how they wanted to attain that support from their school environment in order to it as valuable to enhance their student behavior management skills.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the research question: "How do teachers perceive and describe their capabilities in handling student misbehavior?" There was ample evidence that distinguished teachers' descriptions regarding student misbehavior management based on their self-reported TEHSM scores. Few differences were also identified in the way teachers perceived misbehaviors based on their teaching subject. However, one major finding was the failure to identify unique experiences or differences in the way teachers perceived and described their capabilities in handling student misbehavior by considering both years of teaching experience and self-reported TEHSM beliefs. Data analyses failed to produce distinctive findings that differentiated teachers in each of the four groups as initially suggested in Table 4. Altogether, these findings indicated that both experienced and less experienced teachers who shared similar TEHSM beliefs experienced and described their challenges with student misbehavior in similar way. One possible explanation for this finding is that the current teacher sample included less experienced teachers who possessed adequate efficacy beliefs to survive the

induction years of teaching without leaving the profession (i.e., turnover). This argument is supported with studies that reported as many as 26% of teachers leaving the profession during their first three years of teaching (Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2008) and up to 46% of teachers leaving the profession within the first five years of teaching (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Nevertheless, the absence of distinctive differences between experienced and less experienced teachers regarding the task of student misbehavior management and TEHSM beliefs was very intriguing since it contradicted existing literature that described less experienced teachers as: (a) having insufficient competence to digress from their highly structured lesson plans (Friedman, 2000), (b) being more susceptible to lessons with off-task student behavior and disruptions when compared with more experienced teachers (Livingston & Borko, 1989; Westerman, 1991), and (c) lacking the confidence, self-efficacy, and resources necessary for successfully dealing with student misbehavior problems (De la Torre Cruz & Arias 2007; Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Onafowora, 2004; Wilson & Tan 2004; Yeo et al., 2008). On the contrary, this study showed that differences in TEHSM beliefs were mainly influenced by the teachers' personal experience, which is in agreement with Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy premises. Evidence from this study supports the argument that the impact of teaching experience has not been sufficiently examined in relation with teachers' efficacy beliefs (Hebert, Lee, & Williamson, 1998). Clearly, more research is warranted to understand the relationship between teaching experience, efficacy beliefs, and the task of managing student misbehavior.

Understanding TEHSM beliefs

Analyses using the modified Stevick-Colaizzi-Keen phenomenological model (Moustakas, 1994) generated data with direct implications for the training and support of teachers regarding the task of managing challenging student behaviors. Teachers described several conditions that would help them become more successful with this task. Teachers' descriptions were demarcated in three main themes (a) Teacher perceptions relative to student misbehavior, (b) Representations of the make-up of low and high TEHSM beliefs, and (c) Sources that influenced the development of TEHSM beliefs. These three themes facilitated the discussion of the phenomenon described in the research question.

A. Teacher Perceptions Relative to Student Misbehavior

Results from this study provided support to the advancement of student misbehavior as one major component of classroom management (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Good & Brophy, 2000; Jones, 1989) and contributed to the portrayal of student misbehavior being comprised of various types and levels of severity (Kulinna et al., 2003). A few student misbehavior issues explicitly related to the teaching subject whereas the most regular types of misbehaviors were found to be common across all three teaching subjects. It was apparent that regular student misbehavior problems were mild-to-moderate in severity, which was consistent with previous studies (Cothran, Kulinna, & Garrahy, 2009; Kulinna & Cothran, 2007; Kulinna et al., 2006). Finding the majority of student misbehaviors to be common across teaching subjects can be vital for educators or researchers to develop strategies or training programs that can benefit all teachers. The exception was PE teachers, who were found to experience to some extent more frequent and more severe misbehaviors than teachers from the other two teaching subjects. This finding could suggest that PE teachers may deal with certain situations, conditions, or student behaviors in the physical education setting that could make student misbehaviors harder to manage or prevent. More research is warranted to examine the task of managing student misbehaviors across teaching subjects and more specifically in physical education settings.

B. The Make-Up of Low and High TEHSM Beliefs

Teachers with low and high TEHSM beliefs portrayed the task of managing student misbehaviors as a recurrent job stressor and a burden. Teachers with low self-reported TEHSM were found to be more troubled by challenging student behaviors, which frequently altered these teachers' mood and created tension in the teaching climate. Differences between teachers with low and high TEHSM beliefs were attributed to their self-confidence, personality traits, and affective states.

Self-Confidence. Teachers with low TEHSM beliefs experienced feelings of inadequacy and failure regarding the task of managing student misbehaviors due to their shortfalls in specific knowledge and confidence in their skills to successfully manage misbehaviors. This was evident with these teachers' unsuccessful or inconsistent efforts to control challenging behaviors and their reports of feeling

intimidated, powerless, and uncertain when attempting to manage this stressor. Subsequently, these teachers' inability to manage misbehaviors could have contributed to the manifestation of adverse outcomes such as debilitating emotions (e.g. damaged, flustered, devastated) and intense or negative interactions in the teaching environment. These adverse outcomes also impeded the student learning process (e.g. preventing the completion of daily lesson objectives).

Contrastingly, teachers with high TEHSM beliefs were very driven to manage student misbehaviors. Their efforts were fueled by their high confidence in their abilities and skills to manage misbehaviors. These teachers claimed to be very successful in minimizing or preventing student misbehavior and in fact reported to deal with very few incidents of misbehaviors in their daily teachings. These teachers enhanced their confidence in their abilities to effectively manage student misbehavior by staying committed to their goal to successfully contain misbehaviors and by utilizing consistent strategies to minimize the occurrence of misbehaviors. Their commitment to their job was shown through their explanations of holding themselves responsible and accountable for their duties as teachers and seeking for useful information on how to manage misbehaviors successfully. Creating a peaceful teaching environment, caring for the students, and wanting to teach their students discipline and self-control were the prevailing motives that led teachers to be assertive with managing student misbehaviors. An additional key component of these teachers' success to contain student misbehavior was evident with their careful planning of their everyday teachings to infuse student behavior management strategies (i.e., proactive) and disciplinary actions (i.e., reactive) in their daily instructions.

Personality Traits. Findings from the current study provided support that personality characteristics can help explain why individuals who work under similar conditions might deal with similar work stressors differently (McCroskey et al., 2004). Specifically, teachers with low TEHSM beliefs shared common personal characteristics (e.g. negative emotionality, anxiety, nervousness, sadness, tension, irritability, low content, helplessness) and behavioral approaches (e.g. low confidence, indecisiveness, inability to control or confront students) found in the personality trait of *neuroticism* (Costa & McCrae, 1992; John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). Therefore it can be argued that teachers with

low TEHSM were predisposed to high levels of neuroticism, which could have negatively influenced their efficacy beliefs towards the task of managing student misbehaviors. This finding is extremely important considering that the enduring tendency to experience negative feelings (i.e., neuroticism) has been shown to be highly correlated with teacher burnout (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003), and more specifically emotional exhaustion (Goddard et al., 2004).

Contrastingly, teachers with high TEHSM beliefs exhibited common personality characteristics (e.g. self-confident, authoritative, assertive, commanding, resilient, driven, committed, caring) and behavioral approaches (e.g. commanding, directing, building trusting relationships, showing good leadership and decision making) that possibly facilitated their beliefs in their abilities to manage misbehaviors. Consistent with descriptions in the literature, these common characteristics and approaches pointed towards these teachers' personality traits. Particularly, high TEHSM teachers displayed high levels of extraversion and conscientiousness. *Extraversion* is defined as the tendency for a person to be active, assertive, forceful, sociable, outspoken, and to show positive feelings. *Conscientiousness* is defined as the tendency for a person to show high levels of dependability, task interest, willingness to achieve, urgency to control, and inclination to work hard (Costa & McCrae, 1992; John et al., 2008). These findings are further supported with previous studies that have shown extraversion and conscientiousness to be the strongest and most consistent correlates of self-efficacy (Judge & Ilies, 2002; see Chapter 2).

It can be argued that teachers with high TEHSM displayed desirable confidence levels and personality tendencies that facilitated their strong urge to feel capable to successfully manage student misbehaviors. This was evident with these teachers' primary attention being focused on describing student behavior management strategies (i.e. proactive) and disciplinary actions (i.e. reactive) to alleviate any issues of misbehavior (see Table 9 for examples of proactive and reactive strategies and actions that high TEHSM teachers used to manage student misbehavior).

Affective States. Additional contrasting images between teachers with low and high TEHSM beliefs were evident through these teachers' descriptions of their feelings, thoughts, and actions to cope or manage challenging student behaviors.

Table 9. Examples of proactive strategies and reactive disciplinary actions utilized by high TESHM teachers to manage student misbehavior

Examples of behavior management strategies (proactive)	
1.	<p>"System of tallies:" three incidents in a week results to detention</p> <p>"Strike binder:" four strikes in 9 weeks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 1st strike Warning - 2nd Strike: Inform parent, - 3rd Strike: Do punish work, - 4th Strike: Office referral
2.	<p>"Behavior board:"</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Green cards-good behavior - Red cards-bad behavior - Red cards accompanied with consequences based on their severity
3.	Social reinforcers/Positive verbal praise: Pointing to class examples of good behaviors
4.	Reward systems: E.g. Spell rewards and erasing a letter for each positive behavior. Once a word erased, reward was given
5.	Special sitting arrangements
6.	Effective transitioning: Keeping students busy at all time
7.	Proximity control: Walk closer to student, establish eye contact , tap lightly student's shoulder
8.	Time out/Back to the wall: Removing student to avoid further interruptions
Examples of disciplinary actions (reactive)	
1.	Redirection: Re-read instructions; start the assignment over again
2.	Removal: Students pulled aside and given an alternative, usually tedious assignment. Outside referral
3.	<p>Person-to-person dialogue: Teacher-student conferences</p> <p>Signal interference: Integrating students names in teaching to keep their attention</p> <p>E.g. "Joseph, the caterpillar forms a cocoon"</p>
4.	Removal of positive consequences: Take away recess time

Note. Behavior management strategies and disciplinary actions were described with terminologies presented by Graham et al. (2010).

Specifically, data showed that teachers with low TEHSM described misbehaviors as overwhelming, devastating, distressing, purposeful, and persisting. These descriptions show these teachers' affective states to relate to debilitating emotions, which in turn could relate to ineffective management of student misbehavior. Unlike these teachers, teachers with high TEHSM beliefs viewed

student misbehavior as manageable, fairly normal, short-lived, and instinctive. These descriptions portray teachers' affective state to relate to positive emotions, which could facilitate the process in effectively managing this stressor. These findings are consistent with Bandura's (1986) advancements that affective states play a crucial role in influencing self-efficacy beliefs.

In addition, these images regarding teachers' affective states show that TEHSM beliefs relate to teachers' levels of emotional intelligence or competence to adapt to the perceived demands related with this stressor. This relationship has been previously reported by Chan (2008) who found the interaction between teacher efficacy and emotional intelligence to predict active coping among Chinese prospective and in-service teachers. Emotional intelligence can be defined as the ability to evaluate and self-regulate emotions and in turn employ these emotions as a helpful source to manage or cope with a stressful event more effectively (Chan, 2008; Saklofske, Austin, Galloway, & Davidson, 2007). Teachers with high TEHSM exhibited high emotional competence that facilitated their efforts to manage or prevent student misbehaviors without becoming emotionally distressed. By contrast, teachers with low TEHSM beliefs showed lower levels of emotional intelligence. This was apparent with these teachers' tendency to focus on debilitating emotions that resulted from viewing student misbehaviors as repetitive and deliberate actions towards their person. These enduring emotions further manifested to emotional drainage and teacher-student interactions in the class deteriorating, which suggest that teachers with low TEHSM beliefs exhibited warning signs of emotional exhaustion. These findings are in line with researchers who reported teachers' every day dealings with student misbehavior as the only job stressor that positively predicted teachers' emotional exhaustion levels (Carson et al., in press) and directly linked low TEHSM to increased feelings of emotional exhaustion (Tsouloupas et al., 2010). Based on current findings, this study showed that teachers' skills to cope with student misbehavior related with their levels of self-confidence, certain personality traits (i.e., extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism), affective states, and levels of emotional intelligence. This information can be crucial for teacher preparation and inservice programs to train teachers how to alleviate stress and feelings of emotional exhaustion caused by the demands of this task.

C. Sources that Influenced the Development of TEHSM Beliefs

A powerful image that emerged from the teachers' descriptions was their constant need to feel effective and successful in managing challenging student behaviors. Consequently, teachers' representations revealed sources that influenced their current TEHSM beliefs (see Table 10).

Table 10. Sources that influenced TEHSM beliefs

1. Teacher preparation programs and professional growth
Teachers are not adequately prepared to deal with manifestations of misbehavior. Insufficient preparation due to inadequate exposure/ interaction with students alone enough to develop the skills needed. College training gives only scenarios of what one might expect in terms of misbehaviors. Schools do not teach you exactly how to prevent misbehaviors or manage student behavior effectively. Learning experiences in classes do not reflect what happens in an actual classroom. Student-teachers should spend more time in classrooms practicing skills and actively learning how to manage challenging student behaviors. Lack of knowledge on how to embed the "student behavior management component" in daily teaching to monitor/prevent misbehavior.
2. Inservice training and professional growth
Teaching workshops are somewhat helpful in learning certain skills/strategies to manage student behaviors. Much of the information learned is not always applicable to each school or classroom. Teaching workshops often present generic information in relation to classroom management instead on providing information on specific classroom tasks such as student behavior management Teaching workshops are not frequently or readily available to all teachers. Local chapter conferences are useful in convening information or discussing topics/issues that are relevant to the participating teachers work. Local chapter conferences give the opportunity to teachers to interact with other teachers who are more likely to share similar issues in terms of behavior management.
3. Personal learning and professional growth
Trying to avoid making the same mistakes Implementing different methods. Recognizing effective strategies in handling challenging behaviors and "sticking with what works." Investing personal time to read and learn new student behavior management techniques is useful. Finding the time, energy, and appropriate sources of information can be seen as barriers for this type of learning and professional growth.
4. Instrumental and informational support from others
Family members can provide useful information and feedback in relation to student behavior management. Great source of encouragement, comfort, and reassurance Seeking help, suggestions, and advice along with sharing ideas with other colleagues helps teachers in need to gain new knowledge and skills, and improve current beliefs in managing challenging student behaviors. Mentors positively influence teachers in becoming more knowledgeable and accountable Mentors within the same school as the mentee are more often available which allows for more training and casual interactions. Teachers relate better to these types of mentors and look up to them. Mentors assist mentees in practicing and mastering practical skills to enhance their student management abilities

(Table, con'd.)

Principals who are actively involved and encourage teachers' learning and professional growth help teachers increase their skills and abilities. Principals who are aware of the challenges that teachers face in their classes and accept teachers' suggestions can help teachers develop and implement useful strategies to increase their efficacy beliefs in managing student misbehaviors

Note. This table presents paraphrased statements and formulated meanings from various teacher descriptions that were grouped together to describe each factor.

Teacher Preparation/Inservice Training and Professional Growth. Characteristically, teachers with low and high TEHSM beliefs identified (a) inadequate learning during their college preparation and (b) lack of in-service training as two major sources that prohibited them from becoming more confident in managing student misbehaviors. Regardless the level of TEHSM, the majority of teachers described their college preparation and in-service training regarding student misbehavior management as “inadequate,” “minimal,” and “non-existent.”

In terms of teachers' college preparation, findings suggested that teachers were likely to enter the teaching profession without knowing what to expect in terms of managing student misbehaviors. This finding could possibly explain why teachers have been reported to experience a significant drop in their efficacy beliefs when they transitioned from their college preparation to actually become full-time teachers (Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). In terms of in-service training, 79% of all teachers in this study indicated receiving zero to two training sessions per year on student misbehavior management and most of the information presented being broad and “barely scratching the surface” of the topic. In agreement with previous studies, this study provided support that teacher education programs and in-service teacher training devote much attention to teachers' instructional skills whereas research shows the root of teachers' struggle and stress lies in the student behavior management aspect in the classroom (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Friedman, 2006). Specifically, this study showed that teacher preparation and training curricula did not sufficiently cover the pedagogical knowledge associated with student behavior management beyond perhaps a class or a seminar.

In turn, teachers asserted relying on their intuition and personal principles in handling misbehavior which could have subsequently explained why experienced and less experienced teachers in this study did not differ in their TEHSM beliefs. In other words, regardless the years of experience, teachers who lacked

the efficacy sources to boost their TEHSM beliefs perceived student misbehaviors as significant stressors whereas teachers with adequate sources of efficacy were not distressed with this stressor. This argument is in accord with findings presented by Woolfolk Hoy and Burke Spero (2005), that the likelihood of teacher efficacy beliefs to change or increase relied on teachers' sufficient exposure to various sources of teacher efficacy.

The majority of the teacher sample (79%) made a strong effort to explain that the problem of student misbehavior required immediate attention. Teachers stated that much of the student misbehavior has turned into a more frequent and more troublesome issue due to the lack of agreement on how to approach and manage this cumbersome task. This lack of agreement could also explain why some teachers continue to use inconsistent/ineffective ways to manage student misbehaviors. Despite teachers' reports of the current shortfalls of teachers' college preparation and in-service training in acquiring knowledge and skills regarding the management of student misbehaviors, teachers in this study stressed the necessity for continuous in-service training involving "practical," "current," and "relevant" information specifically related to student behavior management.

Teachers expressed the desire for their training to take place locally or ideally at their school from teachers who had the knowledge and competence to teach student behavior management skills, techniques, and strategies. Teachers added that having professional development training (i.e., workshops, classes, meetings) related to student behavior management at their school would provide more frequent, accessible, and meaningful training. These teacher representations are extremely important to further our understanding on how the school administration and colleagues can positively influence TEHSM beliefs which in turn can enhance teachers' abilities to manage, prevent, or cope with the task of managing student misbehaviors.

In summation, these findings suggest that teachers' professional education (i.e., preparation, inservice training) does not provide teachers with adequate opportunities to master useful skills to successfully manage student misbehaviors. Subsequently, the lack of valuable knowledge or successful accomplishments in managing misbehaviors during teachers' professional education could help explain

why some teachers exhibit low TEHSM beliefs. This finding should raise a concern among current teacher educators since past performance (i.e., mastery experiences) is considered to be the most robust source in enhancing self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986).

Personal Learning and Professional Growth. One source teachers indicated as being very effective and currently the most useful in enhancing their efficacy beliefs in becoming more successful in managing misbehaviors was their own personal efforts to take charge of their learning and professional growth. The majority of this learning took place in the classroom and was heavily driven by the teachers' appraisals of their ongoing performance, intuition, and personal principles. This learning process was described as (a) trying to avoid past mistakes, (b) recognizing effective strategies in handling challenging behaviors and "sticking with what works," and (c) continuing their professional growth through their own reading and exploration. Many teachers expressed the desire to seek sources to improve their student behavior skills and knowledge, but only a handful of teachers (teachers with high TEHSM) actively sought information to improve their skills and knowledge. Time, energy, and unavailability of good sources were presented as barriers to these personal efforts.

Therefore, personal efforts to learn to manage student misbehaviors could point towards teachers' levels of self-determined motivation to enhance their student behavior management skills. Specifically, evidence showed that teachers with high TEHSM beliefs were more motivated to allocate personal time to seek for learning sources to improve these skills. Unlike these teachers, teachers with low TEHSM beliefs displayed lower levels of motivation or identified barriers as demotivating factors that hindered their efforts to improve their behavior management skills. This evidence is consistent with previous research that showed the strong association between teachers' high self-determined motivation and personal efforts to attain professional growth (e.g. attending conferences, giving professional presentations, reading professional journals) to be key mechanisms in enhancing teacher confidence (Carson & Chase, 2009; Sheldon & Biddle, 1998). It can be also argued that this study extended the extant literature by showing that high efficacy beliefs are related with higher self-determined motivation and teacher personal efforts to improve their professional skills.

Finally, indicating TEHSM beliefs to be significantly influenced by teachers' ongoing appraisals of their performance in the classroom and personal efforts to become more successful in managing student misbehaviors can be crucial. This finding is aligned with Bandura's (1986, 1997) premise that past performance (i.e. mastery experiences) is the most important determinant of teachers' efficacy beliefs, which in turn acts as powerful predictor of behavior. Moreover, this finding adds to current knowledge by showing that mastery experiences can be provided in two ways: (a) formal (accomplishments during teacher preparation/inservice programs) and (b) informal (ongoing performance and personal learning) training. Thus, a concerning finding in this study was that teachers' formal training with regards to managing student misbehaviors was significantly limited. Teachers relying on their personal efforts to learn how to manage student misbehaviors could suggest that many teachers feel overwhelmed, unsupported and alone during this "learning process" to enhance their behavior management skills. This information adds to earlier arguments made in this paper that currently, teachers do not perceive the information they receive during their college preparation or inservice training as valuable to improve their student behavior management skills.

Emotional, Instrumental and Informational Support. Another source teachers identified as being very helpful in enhancing their confidence, knowledge, and abilities in handling student misbehaviors was having consistent support (i.e. social support) from others (e.g., family, colleagues, principals). *Support* is a complex concept due to different viewpoints embraced in efforts to define it (Carron, Hausenblas, & Eastbrooks, 2003). In one general perspective, support is viewed a dynamic process that reflects an individual's interactions within a social environment (e.g., family, work, affiliation) in an effort to satisfy personal needs. From this perspective, various types of support (e.g. emotional, instrumental, informational) can be identified that serve different functions. For example, *emotional support* emerges by showing encouragement, genuine concern, and praise a person for his/her efforts. *Instrumental support* reflects giving systematic, tangible, practical, and useful resources that will help an individual to successfully achieve a task. *Informational support* involves providing regular feedback, guidance, or suggestions regarding an individual's current performance or actions (Wills &

Shinar, 2000). Based on self-efficacy premises (Bandura, 1986), it can be argued that these two types of support may promote *vicarious learning* (i.e., see or model desired behaviors through imaginal experiences or by observing others) and *social persuasion* (i.e., verbal/nonverbal persuasive tactics to increase effort and encouragement to master certain skills), which in turn operate as important sources to enhance TEHSM.

In the current study, teachers reported that their family was a major source of emotional support regarding the task of managing student misbehaviors. Teachers were reassured of their self-worth and encouraged to stay positive and focused on the task. At work, teachers particularly stressed the desire to receive instrumental support from their administration and particularly their principal. A “supportive principal” was portrayed as someone who was constantly informed of what took place in the classroom, supported the teacher’s decisions and actions in terms of student behavior management, encouraged teachers to meet and discuss student behavior management matters on a regular basis, promoted the idea of mentoring, and reinforced teachers’ attendance to professional development programs outside the school. Furthermore, receiving informational support from colleagues was also described as a major efficacy booster in managing challenging student behaviors when such interactions took place regularly. Teachers described this type of support as a great source of “inspiration” and “motivation,” and a source providing them with a wealth of information in developing their student behavior management skills. In fact, teachers viewed casual interactions and discussions with mentors or teachers who they viewed as role models at their school to be the most benefiting sources of information in improving their confidence and abilities to successfully manage challenging student behaviors.

It was clear through the teachers’ descriptions that the school settings and the social structure of the school had the potential to be the most productive grounds for teachers to learn how to deal with student misbehaviors more successfully. The importance of support at school and, in particular, from the principal and colleagues to teachers’ confidence is evident in the current literature (Day et al., 2007). For instance, having support from the principal and colleagues have been identified as key factors in teachers acquiring knowledge and maintaining or learning new skills over time (Bechtel & O’Sullivan, 2007).

Despite this, teachers in this study explained that currently, the school environment did not adequately provide the much needed instrumental and informational support to enhance their efficacy to successfully manage student misbehaviors. Teachers expressed their desire for more systematic interactions and support from their principal and colleagues. Similar findings have been reported in recent studies that showed teachers not to improve their efficacy beliefs based on the support they receive from their administrators or colleagues (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007, also see Chapter 2).

Conclusions and Future Directions

This qualitative study attempted to inform teacher preparation and in-service programs regarding their current practices in relation to teachers' perceptions of their efficacy to manage challenging student behaviors. Advancements from this study regarding student misbehavior are: a) this construct is one important aspect of classroom management, and b) the simple, unitary operationalization of this construct should be avoided since handling student misbehavior involves different types and levels of severity. Therefore, better measures are needed focusing in studying teachers' efficacy beliefs in handling student misbehavior by implicitly focusing on the content and context of student misbehavior. Furthermore, finding the majority of student misbehaviors to be common across teaching subjects can be vital for educators or researchers to develop strategies or training programs that can benefit all teachers.

Another important finding from this study was that personal learning experiences, personality characteristics, and affective states were the true protagonists in explaining teachers' likelihood of success or failure to manage challenging student behaviors. This study showed that teachers with higher TEHSM beliefs showed higher self-determined motivation and urgency to improve their behavior management skills, which is also consistent with previous research (Carson & Chase, 2009; Sheldon & Biddle, 1998). These advancements align favorably with Bandura's (1997, 2006) assertions that personal factors are the most important determinants of teachers' efficacy beliefs, which in turn act as powerful predictors of behavior. Teacher educators and researchers could use these findings to enhance teachers' efficacy beliefs regarding student behavior management by also focusing on increasing teachers' self-determined motivation and personal efforts.

Confirming previous studies, this study showed that teacher efficacy beliefs can potentially grow from school-based experiences. In addition, information yielded from this study added to the currently inadequate information available in the literature of sources associated with teacher efficacy (Hebert et al., 1998) and more specifically factors associated TEHSM beliefs. Gained confidence in knowledge (i.e., mastery experiences) was found to be strongly associated with learning experiences via dealing with challenging behaviors in the class and via instinct, personal values, and personal explorations to locate information on student behavior management. Teachers explained that teacher preparation and professional development had the potential to be vital sources on how to manage student misbehaviors, but currently teachers identified these two sources having much lesser effect on their confidence when dealing with this taxing task. Similarly, teachers reported a lack of regular, practical, and useful support (instrumental, informational) at work to assist their efforts to enhance their TEHSM beliefs.

Furthermore, high TEHSM beliefs were related with teachers' positive outlook and determination to successfully manage student misbehaviors. These approaches directed the teachers' efforts to prevent or minimize misbehavior effectively via effective proactive behavior management strategies, reactive disciplinary actions, and thoughtful planning of lessons. These findings regarding the development of high TEHSM beliefs were in agreement with findings reported by Hebert et al., (1998). Sources of TEHSM described in this paper can be pivotal to how teachers gain competence in their beliefs to handle their students without becoming overwhelmed or emotionally drained during that process. Subsequently, through the utility of these sources in teacher preparation and training, preventive (i.e. proactive) strategies can be developed to improve TEHSM and guide teachers to use the same sources to teach their students the desired behaviors. In addition, more effective disciplinary actions (i.e. reactive) can be developed to contain and diffuse misbehaviors quickly, instead of retracting to the traditional disciplinary actions of punishment or removal of misbehaving students from the classroom. Also, understanding the way teachers form these specific efficacy beliefs can help develop interventions that specifically aim to improve teachers' stress management skills and perceived competence in handling their misbehaving students. Future research on this topic can help guide teacher preparation programs and inservice training

in enriching their course offerings and preparing future teachers with realistic expectations and specific tools to deal with student misbehavior management.

An additional worthwhile endeavor for future researchers might be to understand the relationship between TEHSM and real acts of student misbehavior (e.g., frequency, severity, type). That is, TEHSM levels may help explain how accurately teachers view the frequency, severity, and type of actual student misbehavior, and the effort they put into handling misbehavior. Finally, insightful information may be acquired by investigating the relationship between TEHSM levels and teachers' accepted responsibility or willingness to deal with various disruptive behaviors in the classroom. Such information may provide practitioners with an understanding of the increasing trend of teachers referring or removing students from their classrooms more often.

CHAPTER 4: TEACHER ACTIONS TOWARDS STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION SETTINGS: EXPLORING THE PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS' EFFICACY IN HANDLING STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR (TEHSM)

Introduction

Among many stressors that may negatively influence teachers' behaviors at work, student misbehavior bears particular attention given the psychological toll it can place on teachers. A growing amount of literature has found that the cumbersome task of managing challenging student behaviors relates to unfavorable teacher outcomes such as decreased job commitment (Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kingston, & Gu, 2007), low job satisfaction (Liu & Meyer, 2005), and negative job-related feelings (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). As a result, it is not surprising that student misbehavior has been linked to adverse teacher behavior outcomes such as burnout (Carson, Templin, Plemmons, & Weiss, in press; Lee & Ashforth, 1996) and turnover intentions (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010). Clearly, more research is warranted on the psychological aspect of managing student behaviors to understand why dealing with student misbehavior imposes such a significant threat to teachers' job-related feelings and overall well-being (Friedman, 2006; Tsouloupas et al., 2010).

The task of student behavior management is considered one essential component of classroom management (Cothran & Kulinna, 2007; Emmer & Stough, 2001; Jones, 1996). Early research has identified the types of student misbehavior (e.g. student distractibility, disengagement, or disobedience) that have had the most salient impact on teachers' job related stress (Epstein, Atkins, Cullinan, Kutash, & Weaver, 2008; Fernandez-Balboa, 1991). Expanding on these findings, researchers have recently delineated misbehavior in different categories based on the type and levels of their severity. These efforts clearly depict that student misbehavior is not a unitary construct and further illuminate challenges accompanying this stressor with respect to the type and severity level of misbehavior (Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2003; 2006). Particularly, Kulinna and associates (2003) categorized over 50 types of student misbehavior based on their level of severity (i.e., mild, moderate, severe) clearly depicting that student misbehavior is not a unitary construct.

Mild and moderate student misbehaviors have been reported as the most overbearing types of misbehavior due to their high occurrence in the classroom (Cothran & Kulinna, 2007), whereas severe misbehaviors have been reported to be most challenging by imposing a serious threat to the students' and the teachers' physical and/or emotional well-being (Smart & Ego, 2010; see Chapter 3). It is obvious that the advancement of student misbehavior as a composite concept is fairly recent. Consequently, more research is warranted to confirm and expand on such claims in order to further our understanding in regards to the task of managing challenging student behaviors. Regardless the type or level of severity, it is evident that the challenge and emotional distress associated with the task of managing student behavior is a significant concern for the educational community. Therefore, it can be useful for studies to continue exploring student misbehavior holistically while also considering findings that indicate how this concept is composed.

Research on Student Behavior Management

Much of the theoretical approaches regarding classroom management provide *reactive* strategies in managing student misbehavior (Darch & Kame'enui, 2004). That is, teacher training has been directed towards responding to incidents of student misbehavior and gearing teachers' efforts towards controlling the risk of the escalation of such incidents. Subsequently, teachers typically respond to misbehavior issues by following the disciplinary systems or policies outlined by their schools, which generally entail a series of reactive disciplinary actions that often result in the removal of misbehaving students from the classroom (see Chapter 3). Alternately, teachers often overlook the use of *proactive* strategies to cope with student misbehavior. Proactive behavior management can be described as having the knowledge and efficacy to prevent unwanted student behaviors by utilizing strategies that inhibit misbehaviors and by coaching students towards the desired behaviors (Chang, 2009; Graham, Holt/Hale, & Parker, 2010). Such proactive approaches could help students understand the consequences of their actions and enhance each student's accountability and responsibility which can ultimately minimize misbehavior incidents in the classroom (Balderson & Sharpe, 2005). Current teacher practices are lacking this proactive teaching component which may possibly suggest either that (1) teacher preparation programs or inservice training

fall short in teaching such strategies and/or (2) teachers do not feel efficacious enough to use such strategies when managing challenging student behaviors. These suggestions are substantiated by the scarcity of information on how teachers gain knowledge and efficacy in preventing student misbehaviors effectively (Garrahy et al., 2005; see Chapter 3).

Teachers' lack of sufficient knowledge and efficacy to manage student misbehaviors efficiently may be related to teachers' susceptibility to student disruptions and persistent misbehavior problems (Doyle, 1986; see Chapter 3). Such inadequacies could lead to the interference of instructional activities and learning, forcing teachers to interrupt the lesson to confront and reprimand disruptive students, restore order in the classroom, and try to personally recompose themselves in order to continue teaching (Putnam, Luiselli, Handler, & Jefferson, 2003). Consequently, it can be expected that teachers with low efficacy beliefs in managing student misbehavior can become overwhelmed, distressed, or emotionally exhausted due to their lack of anticipation or psychological preparation to handle this particular job stressor. In response to the relationship between the task of managing challenging student behaviors and teacher adverse behavioral outcomes, one line of research advanced the crucial role of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in handling student misbehavior. This research illuminates how these specific efficacy beliefs can influence or determine teachers' display of desirable or undesirable behavioral outcomes (Tsouloupas et al., 2010, see Chapter 3).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy beliefs, defined as a person's perceived abilities to successfully carry out a specific task, can play a vital role in determining an individual's behavioral choices and regulation of effort when faced with a challenging task (Bandura, 1997, 2006). Bandura asserted that individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to take on challenging tasks. Specifically, these individuals show more persistence and determination to continue to work hard to successfully overcome or gain some control over a challenging task without becoming emotionally or physically drained during the process. Individuals with low self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to become stressed and disinterested with a challenging task faster than individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). Over time,

individuals with low self-efficacy beliefs may develop negative feelings about their work (i.e., dissatisfaction, turnover intentions, burnout) due to their perceived incapability to deal with the stressor successfully (Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002; Friedman, 2000; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Consequently, self-efficacy is viewed as a powerful predictor of behavior that can be crucial to understanding the process in which teachers become stressed and emotionally drained at work.

In his guidelines on how to examine self-efficacy, Bandura (2006) explained that different efficacy beliefs can operate within a domain, such as the teacher efficacy domain. Similarly, Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, and Hoy (1998) explained that forming efficacy beliefs requires the consideration of the specific teaching task and its context since not all teachers feel equally capable for all teaching situations. For example, a teacher may feel very efficacious teaching PE in a rural elementary school but feel much less efficacious to teach PE in an urban middle school. Even in the classroom, teachers' efficacy beliefs may change from one teaching task to another since efficacy beliefs may differ from one task to another (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001). For instance, a teacher may perceive him/herself as highly capable in his/her instructional skills (e.g. lesson preparation, lesson administration, student interaction) while feeling much less capable in handling various types or levels of student behavior. Subsequently, more information can be potentially gained by considering the domain-specific type of teacher efficacy related to misbehavior based on the specific context of the teaching task. In relation to teacher efficacy beliefs and the task of managing student misbehavior, previous researchers have pursued this line of inquiry. As a result, the advancement of the perceived notion of teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior, or TEHSM, has been formed (Tsouloupas et al., 2010).

Teacher Efficacy in Handling Student Misbehavior (TEHSM)

Tsouloupas and associates (2010) found that teachers who reported greater concerns about classroom student misbehavior also reported lower TEHSM beliefs. The same researchers also demonstrated a significant direct, negative relationship between TEHSM beliefs and emotional exhaustion, and a significant indirect, negative relationship between TEHSM and teacher turnover intentions through emotional exhaustion. Despite our knowledge on TEHSM deriving from this study, the

importance of this line of research is supported by researchers who have already made similar advancements.

The need to consider TEHSM as a domain-specific type of teacher efficacy is supported in several ways. First, teachers' efficacy beliefs in regards to the management of student misbehavior can have a significant impact on teachers' perceived competence to teach (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Kokkinos, 2007). Second, perceived teacher efficacy has been shown to be a significant predictor of the successful management of disruptive students (Safran, 1989). Particularly, teachers who had greater concerns about classroom misbehavior perceived themselves as less confident (Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999), less capable, and inadequately equipped to handle student misbehaviors in the classroom (Merrett & Wheldall, 1992). Third, the advancement of TEHSM is further supported with early attempts to construct and validate a student discipline teacher efficacy scale (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). Fourth, recent findings from Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) further substantiate the need for TEHSM, who found "keeping discipline" as one of the six domain-specific types of teacher self-efficacy. In conclusion, information presented thus far in this paper demonstrates the relationship between student misbehavior being viewed as a major stressor and TEHSM. Therefore, it is argued that more research is warranted to further current knowledge on TEHSM.

The Current Research Study

Much of the extant research on student misbehavior focuses on classroom settings whereas research in physical education settings is scarce (Kulinna et al., 2003; see Chapter 3). A recent study found high school math, science, and physical education (PE) teachers experienced similar student misbehavior problems in their classes, but PE teachers reported more severe and more frequent incidents of misbehavior than those reported by Math and Science teachers (see Chapter 3). One explanation for this higher incidence of misbehavior in PE could be that PE teachers reported specific challenging teaching conditions (e.g. teaching in a larger room/outside; transitioning from one activity/area to another, containing students in the assigned activity area, instructing while students moving/being active; varying student skill/energy levels) and student behaviors (e.g. fear of performing in front of others, competitive

edge, playing overly aggressive, leaving the activity area). The specific challenges found in PE settings suggest that more work should be done to explore PE teachers' efficacy beliefs with regards to the task of managing challenging student behaviors.

Previous research in PE has only compared misbehavior trends across teaching levels and school locales. Findings showed that the management of student misbehavior at the secondary level was more challenging to teachers than the elementary level (Kulinna et al., 2006; Perron & Downey, 1997). Kulinna and her colleagues (2006) found that PE teachers in urban school locations reported significantly higher student behavior problems than suburban and rural teachers. Researchers also found teachers who exhibited higher confidence in their abilities to handle student misbehavior reported fewer misbehavior incidents (Kulinna et al., 2006; see Chapter 3). Despite the small number of studies that explored student misbehavior in PE settings, there is an obvious need for more research to understand the challenges with misbehavior in PE related to PE teachers' efficacy beliefs relative to the task of managing student misbehaviors. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine how urban high-school PE teachers with different self-reported TEHSM levels perceived and managed student misbehavior. A qualitative approach was selected to serve the exploratory purpose of this study which, allowed for detailed and rich descriptions of the teachers' perspectives and experiences regarding the task of managing student misbehaviors in their classes.

Design

In order to frame the current study, a multiple-holistic case study design was employed based on Yin's 2x2 matrix (2009). The holistic approach reflected the examination of TEHSM as a unitary construct while also considering two cases (i.e., high and low self-reported TEHSM) to compare and contrast teachers' responses and actions towards student misbehavior. An ethnographic methodological lens was used to conduct an in-depth investigation to answer the research question: "What kinds of actions are reported or performed by the teacher relative to the task of managing student behavior during class?"

Methods

Participants

Two Caucasian, female, full-time, public, high school PE teachers were recruited from a larger empirical study. Both teachers were employed in the same school district in a southeastern state in the USA. The two teachers reported teaching at moderate student SES schools (15% - 49% of student body receiving free or reduced-price lunches), in a central city (i.e., urban) locale. The following pseudonyms were used for the teachers, “Jane” and “Renée.”

Jane-High Self-Reported TEHSM

Jane is a Caucasian female high school PE teacher, married, in her early-50s with 28 years of full-time teaching experience. Her educational background includes a Bachelor’s degree. Her most recent classes ranged from 23-30 students. Jane described herself as the youngest and only girl with three brothers coming from a low-to-average class background. She explained that her inspiration to become a teacher came from her mother being a teacher. Particularly, Jane’s decision to become a PE teacher came from her love to be physically active and healthy. She described herself as a “strong independent female” dedicated to teaching young individuals to “embrace physical activity as part of their identity” and to “take good care of their body and health.”

Renée-Low Self-Reported TEHSM

Renée is a Caucasian female high school PE teacher, married, in her mid-40s with 21 years of full-time teaching experience. Her educational background includes a Bachelor’s degree. Her most recent classes ranged from 25-32 students. Renée described being raised in a middle class family with her younger brother. She explained that since she was a child she was always into sports. In fact, she was a very competitive track athlete up until her senior year in high school. Renée decided to become a PE teacher because of her passion for sports, claiming that she could have never imagined herself working somewhere that did not involve the elements of sport and physical activity.

Data Collection Procedures and Analyses

After approval was granted from the university's IRB, the primary researcher selected and recruited the two teachers from a larger sample of a previous study (see Chapter 3). The first criterion for teacher selection was based on the district composite reports (DCR) on student participation that provided state and school averages of student disciplined (Louisiana Department of Education, n.d.). Both teachers taught in schools with reported composite scores comparable to the state averages of student discipline (suspended in school = 19%; suspended out of school = 17%; expelled in school = 1%; expelled out of school = 1% (Louisiana Department of Education, n.d.). The second recruitment criterion was teachers' self-reported TEHSM scores on a 6-point Likert scale format ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) for each of the items. Jane scored above the 79th percentile (TEHSM > 5.6) on the scale and was considered to have high TEHSM beliefs. Renée scored below the 21st percentile (TEHSM < 4.1) on the scale and was considered to have low TEHSM beliefs. The average upper and lower third TEHSM scores differed by more than two standard deviations ($SD = 2.1$). Two observations and two individual interviews were the main sources of information for each teacher for the purpose of this study. Each teacher was compensated \$30 for their participation in the study.

Observations

Four observations were conducted by the same researcher (two for each teacher) with the teacher's consent. The researcher explained to each teacher that the focus of each observation was to investigate teaching methods and styles in PE classes without intruding or participating in the lessons. Each observation lasted 80 minutes (two consecutive 40 minute PE classes) and was performed on the same PE classes. The two observations for each teacher were conducted within a week of one another, but at least 72 hours apart. An observational protocol was designed as a method for recording descriptive and reflective fieldnotes. All condensed notes taken while observing were expanded upon in more detail within 24 hours after each observation. The researcher also kept a fieldwork journal throughout the observations to record personal views, ideas, experiences, reactions, and feelings during the observations. Observational data were organized and interpreted following Spradley's (1979) taxonomic analysis

approach. Based on the research question, all kinds of actions observed relative to the teachers' handling of student misbehavior were organized in subcategories to reveal different levels of actions, relationships among all actions, and the way each action was related to each teacher's efficacy in handling student misbehavior.

Interviews

A series of steps were followed in order to conduct two interviews, one with each teacher. Prior to the interviews, it was explained to each teacher that the purpose of the interview was to discuss teaching methods, styles, and teacher-student interactions. Teachers were also informed about plans for using the results from the interview. Once the teachers agreed to participate in the interview and signed the informed consent, the interviews took place at the teachers' offices at a time convenient to them. To ensure sound interview procedures, an interview protocol (see Appendix C) was designed to guide the two interviews. Each interview lasted approximately 60 minutes and was audiotaped via a digital tape recorder.

All audiotaped interview data were transcribed verbatim by the primary investigator. Once the transcribing process was done, the primary researcher carefully read each transcript several times to become familiar with the data set. Systematic steps were taken to analyze the interview data using the *Listening Guide* method and guidelines (Gilligan et al., 2003). The first step involved *listening to the plot* to examine each teacher's messages and separate those messages from the researcher's own subjectivities. Some examples of questions used to guide this step of analysis were: "Are there any patterns, repeated images, or metaphors in the data?" "What is the dominant theme? Are there multiple themes?" and "Can the researcher separate personal thoughts and feelings from those of the participants and still be able to listen and make a connection?" The second step in analyzing the interview data involved *paying attention for distinctive changes* in the tempo, rhythm, or tone in the teachers' voices when they described their teaching experiences. In order to accomplish this step, all first person "I" statements were initially highlighted in each transcription. Afterward, all "I" statements were pulled out from the text and entered in a new document. The statement entries in the new document were kept in the order in which they

appeared in the transcription. Each statement was placed on a separate line to create an “I” poem. As a final step in the analysis, the primary researcher *read through each “I” poem several times to identify different voices* (i.e., themes) and to determine the markers of each voice reflected in each teacher’s “I” statements relative to their management of student misbehavior. Subsequently, the different voices were compared and contrasted to determine their role and influence on the teachers’ expressed experiences.

Data Trustworthiness

Several steps were considered to ensure the trustworthiness of the data collected and reported in the current study. Carefully planning and following the same observation and interview protocols and procedures (i.e., time, length, and place) established consistency and dependability of the methods used to attain the results. In addition, during the observations, checklists were used to record student misbehaviors and descriptive and reflective field-notes were taken to aid the systematic reduction and analytic strategies employed in this study. Furthermore, a researcher journal was maintained throughout the study to bracket personal views and preconceptions and to ensure unbiased interpretation of the data. Using various sources to collect data (i.e., observations, interviews) added to the credibility of the study.

When necessary, member checking was used as a means to clarify information and ensure an accurate representation of the interview data was reported. Member checking was performed through follow-up questions and having the teachers read the interview transcriptions to accurately represent the teachers’ reflections. Finally, during the data collection and analysis, a peer debriefer was consulted concerning the implementation of the analytic procedures and credibility of the final interpretation. Peer debriefing is useful in facilitating the accuracy of the researcher’s interpretations and the credibility of data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Results

Observation Data Analyses

Using Spradley’s domain and taxonomic analysis approach, two dimensions were considered in order to organize and analyze the observational data, namely *Actor* (i.e. teacher) and *Act* (i.e. management of student misbehaviors). Moreover, using Spradley’s dimension matrix as a reference, the “Act-Actor”

intersection of dimensions was the primary focus to reveal the cultural meaning (i.e., domains) and context to which it occurs. The research question “What kinds of actions are reported or performed by the teacher relative to the task of managing student behavior during class?” served as a guide to structure a taxonomic analysis of the observed actions performed by each teacher when handling student misbehavior. Then, all observed actions performed by Jane and Renée relative to the management of student behaviors were identified and described. These actions were then organized by creating new subcategories that reflect different levels of actions, relationships among all actions, and the way each action was related to the whole. Subsequently, a taxonomic domain analysis was structured by linking similar categories together to form new sets of categories (see Figures 2 & 3). The taxonomic analyses for each teacher revealed two levels of actions (i.e., categories, subcategories) in regards to the management of student misbehavior (i.e., domain).

Theme 1: Coping with Student Misbehavior

A contrasting image was depicted of each teacher’s readiness and actions to cope with challenging student behaviors which could be attributed to their different TEHSM beliefs. For instance, Jane (high TEHSM) exhibited abilities to control her feelings and not be bothered by misbehavior. Her strong presence in the class and effective use of the tone of her voice seemed to give her confidence to cope successfully with misbehaviors. Jane swiftly resolved a few minor misbehaviors that occurred in her classes while being able to maintain calmness. Characteristically, reflective notes taken to describe Jane during the observations were: “Sharp figure” and “Lets them know she is in charge.” Jane’s overall actions to cope with misbehavior highlighted her high efficacy beliefs to handle student misbehavior well.

On the other hand, Renée (low TEHSM) was observed as being mostly “passive” and varied in her interactions with misbehaving students. On three occasions, Renée chose to ignore challenging behaviors particularly from students who were repeatedly being off-task. But, in one occasion Renée chose to attend a group of students playing “triangle tag” and in another occasion stepped away and pulled out a cellular device.

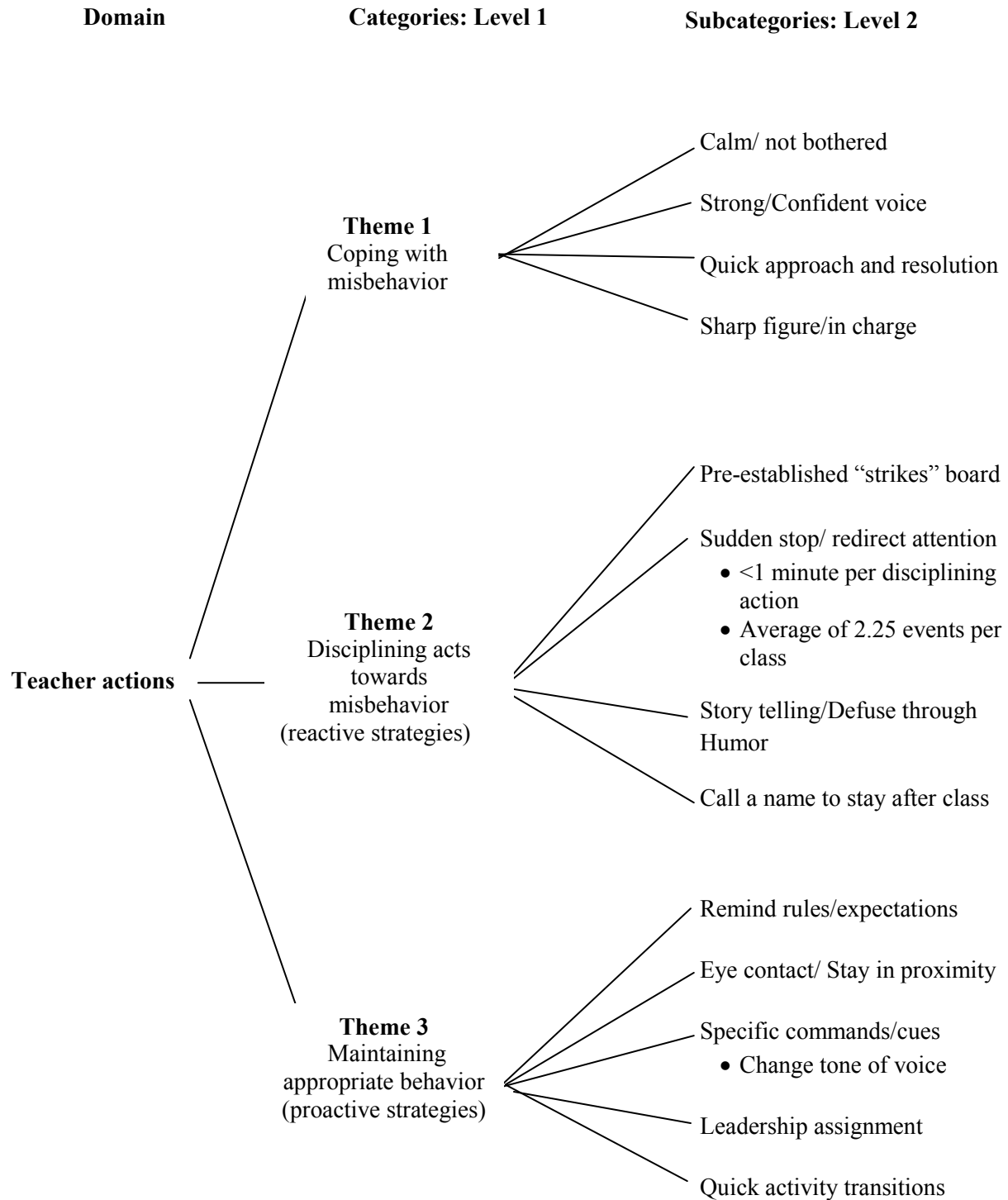


Figure 2. Taxonomic analysis for Jane’s actions with regards to student misbehavior

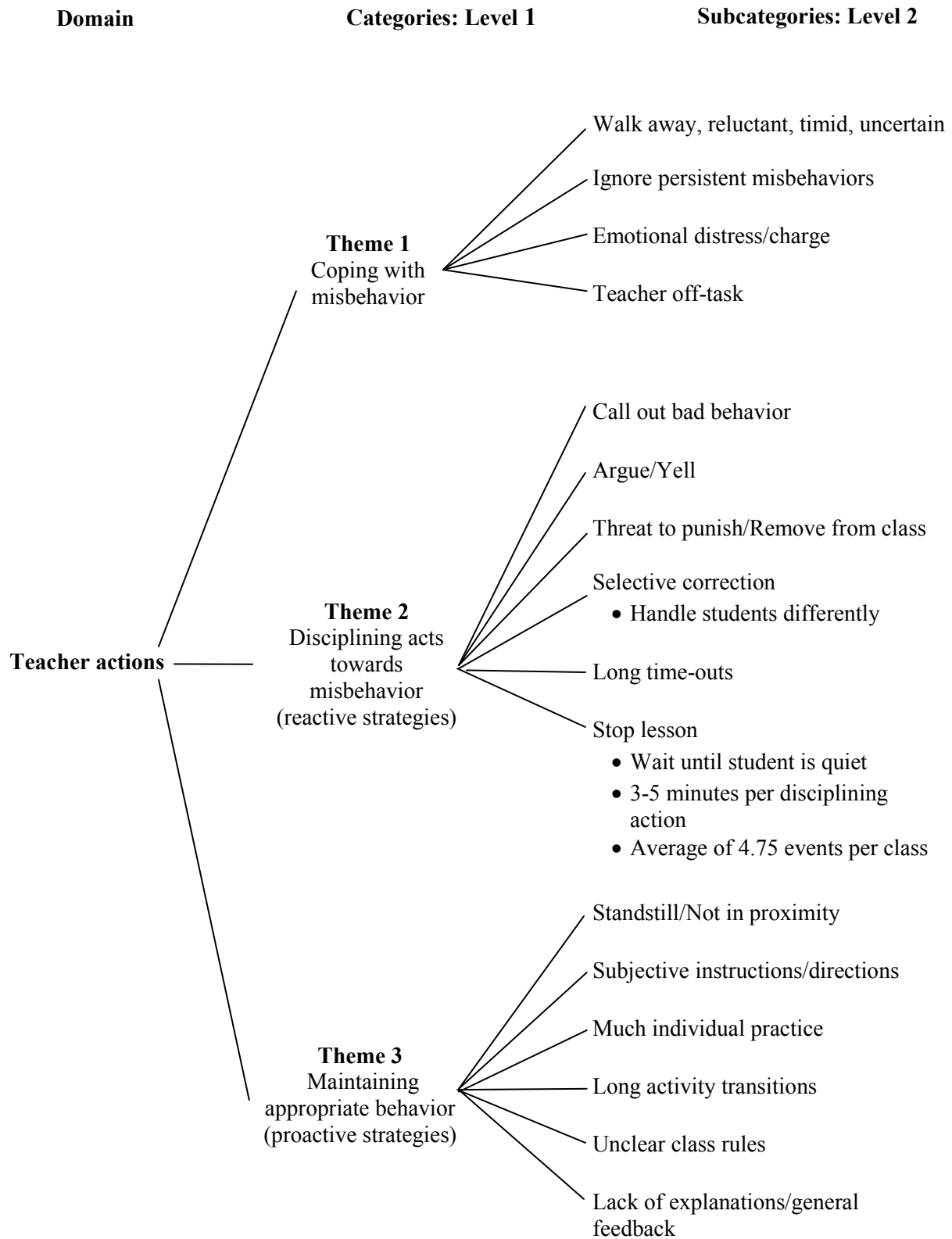


Figure 3. Taxonomic analysis for Renée's actions with regards to student misbehavior

In three other incidences, Renée was observed as being “affectionate; tries to diffuse the situation,” whereas on two other occasions, she was found to “[Renée] raises her voice and yells at a student.” Renée’s overall actions to cope with misbehavior highlighted her low efficacy beliefs to manage student misbehavior successfully. Renée’s actions were reluctant, timid, or uncertain in what to do when faced with such incidents.

Theme 2: Disciplining Acts towards Misbehavior (Reactive Strategies)

This theme illustrated a difference in each teacher’s reactive disciplinary actions while managing student misbehavior. Throughout the two observations (four class periods for each teacher), a total of 9 (2.25 per class) and 19 (4.75 per class) misbehavior incidents were observed in Jane’s and Renée’s classes, respectively (see Table 11 for types of misbehaviors and their classifications).

Table 11. Type and severity of observed student misbehaviors, based on Kulinna et al. (2003) categorizations, in Jane’s and Renée’s classes

Jane				
	Observation 1		Observation 2	
	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 1	Lesson 2
1.	Can’t sit still ^{IV, a}	Can’t sit still ^{IV, a}	Can’t sit still ^{IV, a}	Make fun of others ^{I, b}
2.	Talking ^{IV, a}	Lazy ^{II, a}	Doesn’t pay attention ^{III, a}	Poor sportsmanship ^{II, b}
3.		Talking ^{IV, a}		
Renée				
	Observation 1		Observation 2	
	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 1	Lesson 2
1.	Pushing or punching others ^{I, c}	Lazy ^{II, a}	Playing rough ^{I, c}	Pushing or punching others ^{I, c}
2.	Smart mouth toward others ^{I, b}	Giggling ^{IV, a}	Making fun of others ^{I, b}	Not following directions ^{III, a}
3.	Leaving group activity ^{II, b}	Playing rough ^{I, c}	Leaving group activity ^{II, b}	Smart mouth toward others ^{I, b}
4.	Doesn’t participate ^{II, a}	Doesn’t pay attention ^{III, a}	Giggling ^{IV, a}	Talking ^{IV, a}
5.	Doesn’t pay attention ^{III, a}	Talking ^{IV, a}		Lazy ^{II, a}

Note. Misbehaviors observed in each lesson are not listed in the order of frequency.

^{I, II, III, IV} Types of misbehavior: ^IAggression; ^{II}Low Engagement/Responsibility; ^{III}Fail to follow directions; ^{IV}Distract/Disturb others.

^{a, b, c} Severity of misbehavior: ^aMild; ^bModerate; ^cSevere.

Jane had a pre-established student behavior management action plan which was based on a “behavior strike-out” system. Specifically, Jane had a “student behavior board” at the activity area. This board included two sets of three boxes next to each student’s name. One set of boxes was for “outstanding” student behavior whereas the other set of boxes was for “poor” student behavior (or misbehavior). Students knew that if Jane raised her red marker and pointed towards them and said “outstanding” or “poor” they had to quickly grab the marker and check a box accordingly. Three strikes of outstanding behavior resulted in rewards (e.g. allowed to chose a game for the class to play, appointed as team leader) whereas three strikes of poor behavior were accompanied with a disciplinary action (e.g. gather equipment at the end of the class, teacher-student meeting after class). In addition to her disciplinary system, Jane used “sudden stop and redirection of behavior” tactics to grab her students’ attention and stop off-task behavior. For example, Jane would give a command “Stop, clap; stop, clap, clap; finger snap; we are good!” and students would immediately turn their eyes towards her. In addition, reflective notes described that Jane “enjoyed sharing short moral stories while students were engaged in physical activity to keep them in good spirits.” In one incident when a student attempted to distract another student, Jane called the student’s name and made a quick joke about the situation to calm the students and get both students back on task. Overall, this theme showed Jane effectively managed student behaviors without experiencing major interruptions in her lessons by successfully using several reactive actions.

Renée, on the other hand, was found to be reactive when managing misbehaving students. Renée was observed as either trying to persuade students to stop misbehaving or using abrasive disciplinary actions. For example, Renée was observed saying: “Come on now, this is not how we want to behave” and “What would your parents say if they saw you behaving like this?” Renée seemed to be harsher with some students than others and her disciplinary resources revolved around threatening to punish (e.g. long time-out, call parents, remove from class, suspend, loss of recess privileges) the students. Also, misbehavior was handled by “blowing the whistle nonstop,” stopping the lesson to confront the student, or waiting for the student to stop being off-task. This theme revealed that Renée was lacking in effective

discipline strategies when reacted to student misbehavior. Reflective observational field notes summarized her discipline strategies as: “Renée seems unable to get through to her misbehaving students and make them stop; students ignore Renée’s warnings; she acts instinctively.”

Theme 3: Maintaining Appropriate Behavior (Proactive Strategies)

Included terms in this theme described Jane’s and Renée’s proactive actions with managing students’ behavior throughout the class period. It was apparent that one of Jane’s actions in managing student behavior took place at the beginning of each class. In all observations, Jane’s students followed the same routine when they arrived at the PE area; students knew where to place their belongings and what they had to do until the class started. Jane would immediately take roll and get her students in a huddle and cheer together: “For fun, to learn, to be healthy!” Then she would spend five minutes reminding students of the expected behaviors and the day’s objectives before beginning each lesson. Jane managed to have quick and smooth transitions between activities, which kept the students preoccupied and moving most of the time. During various PE activities, Jane constantly moved around, scanned the entire PE area with her eyes, and sometimes she would stop and strategically place herself closer to students who tended to be more hyperactive. Another proactive strategy to manage behavior involved constantly reminding students of the objectives for each task. To do that, Jane used specific cues and gave feedback to her students to correct their skills and behavior. This theme showed Jane’s confidence in her ability to establish a clear understanding of her expectations in terms of behavior and learning objectives. This theme also exhibited her resourcefulness in keeping students on-task throughout the lesson and preventing misbehaviors from occurring.

Renée showed exceptional skills in setting up the area for each of her classes and having a detailed lesson plan for each day. The physical activity area for all her classes was well structured and organized as highlighted in the following excerpt:

“As I am sitting and waiting for the class to begin, Renée is setting up the area for the day’s activities. She has been doing this since I arrived which was 10 minutes ago. I am urged to walk around to observe the activity area before the students arrive. All equipment is arranged neatly at different stations and instructions are posted at each station. Renée looks very happy and satisfied with the set up, this should be fun class!”

In spite of that, a contrasting image was observed between Renée’s classroom management skills and her proactive actions to manage student behavior through the entire class. Terms describing Renée’s student behavior management actions included: “flexible,” “somewhat unregulated,” and “unsystematic.” To some extent, her instructions and directions throughout the lesson were subjective and unclear. Much of the teaching objectives were accomplished by students reproducing that information learned through individual practice, which concluded in many instances with students losing interest or becoming off-task. In addition, Renée mostly supervised the physical activities without moving around or giving much feedback. Consequently, on three different occasions, students went off and started doing their own thing or began distracting other students. Also, some activity transition issues were unearthed (e.g. long transitions between activities, unclear what to do once done) that resulted in off-task behaviors. Unlike Jane’s behavior management strategies, Renée’s strategies throughout the entire lesson lacked the behavior management component. Despite having a well-structured lesson plan, there was an absence of behavior strategies embedded in her lesson to ensure a smooth lesson.

Interview Data Analyses

The interview data were analyzed using the *Listening Guide* method and guidelines (Gilligan et al., 2003) thus creating “I” poems (see Tables 12 and 13) to identify statements and, subsequently, distinct themes that described the two teachers’ TEHSM beliefs. Several themes emerged in the transcribed data through the different “voices” of communication used by each teacher to describe their thoughts and personal experiences in relation to misbehavior.

Table. 12 “I” Poem Excerpt for Jane- High self-reported TEHSM

I know my subject matter, I love PE. I want to get it over to the kids. I want them to love it and appreciate it even if they do not want to major in it later.
 I do not like that [misbehavior]; students being too tired to participate, being lazy, or distracting others
 I have very little problems with my students
 I have very little trouble myself calling a kid out; that is not an issue with me
 I think one of the biggest things you need to do is let the students know what your expectations are
 I don’t like to take my discipline problems downstairs [administration office]
 I am the leader of my classroom

(Table, con'd.)

I expect of them [students] to show good work ethic and to respect their peers. They know what it is expected, if they choose not to do it, they know they suffer the consequences.

I think I have been very successful [managing student misbehaviors].

I talk to them; I work with them and teach them the right behaviors. I care about them.

I like to gain my students' trust and respect by showing them the appropriate attention when needed and guide them to improve their actions.

I am able to prevent bad behaviors by establishing a good relationship with my students

I always knew he [principal] had my back and he supported my decisions

I know that they are always there [colleagues] for me. To me that is extremely important [having good colleagues] in learning all these qualities of being a good teacher, being part of this family, through this support, I have become so confident and capable

I have my reputation now after having been in the same school for so many years.

Table. 13 "I" Poem Excerpt for Renée-Low self-reported TEHSM

I think I have a lot of kids not following directions

I have kids being ugly; I guess I deal with that

I deal with disrespect to myself; I have to nip that in the rear

I will probably say that dealing with students eventually affects me

I get angry quickly when students refuse multiple times

I hate to say I snap with verbal harassment

I hate for anybody to be traumatized

I go and mark their folder

I tell them they are "blowing me kisses" even though I watched them say it (bad things)

I threat to punish them

I give them looks and they don't care

I go home and I don't even want to look at that [disrespecting] child again for weeks

I hate to say it; I feel some kids are a lost cause.

I don't know, it affects me

I will send, a student who is "pushing me to the bring" to one of the other PE teachers before my emotions get out of control to calm down

I think I could have handled that so much better

Jane- High Self-Reported TEHSM

Hegemonic Voice. The first contrapuntal voice was the Hegemonic voice. Jane's tone of voice was very firm and calm; and her gestures and body language expressed a level of confidence about her

beliefs and skills in managing and eliminating undesirable behaviors in her class. The theme that emerged through this strong voice portrayed Jane's transformation to a definitive figure teaching her students self-discipline and self-control. Specifically, Jane used this voice to firmly express her teaching style and that she made sure her students knew "who is the boss." She explained that it was very important with children to set the boundaries and let them know that misbehavior was not accepted in her classes. Moreover, Jane reported that her current teaching style was the outcome of several years of teaching, learning from her own mistakes, and coming to realize the importance of being consistent and fair with all her students. She described students being very keen in recognizing "teachers giving special treatments or making exceptions to the rules." Therefore, being consistent in her actions did not allow students to think that they could get away with any type of misbehavior.

Jane specifically attributed her success in managing and minimizing student behaviors to outlining her behavior expectations and the consequences for failing to meet those expectations during the first week of her classes. She stressed the importance in spending a lot of time in developing and practicing class rules and routines so the students clearly understood her expectations. Jane credited her upbringing with three brothers, having self-discipline and toughness from competing in sports, and learning from her own mistakes as the main reasons why she did not have many misbehavior issues in her classes.

Altruistic Voice. The second characteristic voice was the Altruistic voice. With this voice, Jane turned her attention to teachers who often struggled with challenging student behaviors. She admitted that she was not always as consistent, calm, patient, and confident as she is now. The main theme illustrated through this voice was the significant challenge of dealing with student misbehavior and teachers lacking the knowledge, abilities, and resources in managing such a cumbersome task. This part of the interview was very interesting to listen to, as Jane's genuine emotions and love for her profession came through. She showed extreme care and sensitivity for teachers who were overwhelmed and unhappy with their profession due to stressors such as student misbehaviors. She reasoned:

Despite some exceptions, students typically come to school without knowing much. They do not have the moral values or the sense of being responsible, you know, of their actions. We [teachers] are responsible to educate them, mold them in smart, well-behaved citizens. Many teachers have a hard time to realize that.

Jane mentioned that teachers had come to her in the past, from various teaching subjects, asking for suggestions and guidance particularly with regards to student behavior management. She said, “I am all about supporting my colleagues, I wish we [teachers] were given the time to have regular meetings to discuss these issues together and learn from one another.” Jane also added “It is unfortunate how teachers are thrown in classes and expected to increase student performance and scores when the same teachers do not know how to manage their students.” She gave the following example to represent the crucial role of managing student behavior:

The way I see it [student behavior management], it is like a coach wanting to win a game of soccer. How can you score goals and win when you feel powerless; unable to guide and discipline your players to be part of the team, work as a team, and stay committed to their assignments? How can you win when your players show no respect to you [the coach] or one another? Your wealth of knowledge on the technicality of the game is useless unless you can teach your students to behave.

Insightful Voice. While expressing her compassion and concern towards teachers who struggle with challenging student behaviors, a different voice surfaced in the discussion. Jane’s attention shifted to describing how she acquired her confidence in handling student behaviors in her classes. Expressing her thoughts and feelings through this voice conveyed a sense of insight and wisdom coming from a person who felt very capable in handling student misbehaviors. For instance, Jane said that she now knew better how to make her lessons fun yet challenging, to create game-like situations in which all students could experience success and satisfaction, to give students the chance to “buy into” her instructions by giving them more options. Jane emphasized the importance of students experiencing some freedom of choice in order to increase their identification with physical activity. On the other hand, she also stressed the need to establish a structured PE environment for students to engage in. Further elaborating on this issue, Jane explained that teachers were responsible to structure their classes so there were consistent rules and routines, appropriate progressions between topics and tasks, clear directions and feedback, and ongoing monitoring/correction of skills and behavior.

Finally, Jane reiterated the importance of gaining and maintaining control in the class and not allowing certain challenging events to overwhelm her. Instead of allowing her feelings to take over, she said that she would implement her classroom policies to “put out the fires” immediately. When asked how she attained these abilities to handle her students’ behaviors, Jane repeated that mainly it was through “trial and error” and personal experience. She also added that implementing information she learned at teacher workshops and seminars, talking with other colleagues, and mentoring other teachers helped her become a better student behavior manager. This theme revealed some of Jane’s characteristics that made her have high TEHSM beliefs. Her actions in creating a structured learning environment helped to minimize, and even prevent, misbehaviors from occurring. Furthermore, rather than becoming engulfed with negative feelings, dealing with a problem head on by implementing her behavior rules and policies helped her to become confident, comfortable, and successful in managing behavioral issues in her class.

Renée- Low Self-Reported TEHSM

Venting Voice. The first contrapuntal voice identified in Renée’s transcriptions was the Venting voice. Using this voice, Renée conveyed her strong belief that student misbehavior is a major teacher job stressor. The early stages of the interview felt like a fast outpouring of thoughts describing student misbehavior as “blemishing the quality of teaching” and “hindering other children from learning.” She also added: “Sometimes, I feel alone in the class. No parent or administrator knows what I am dealing with; all they care is for me to report good grades and keep students out of trouble.” Renée used the word “dismay” to express her deep disappointment for newer generations increasingly becoming aggressive, disrespectful, self-centered, engaging in unsafe behaviors, and becoming disinterested in their education. She reflected:

In my 21 years, teaching has been very rewarding. I have many success stories to share. You know, students coming back and expressing their appreciation. I want to say, the past four to six years, I never would have imagined seeing such a dramatic change in students’ attitudes. I now feel forced to teach through fear, you know, dreading of what can happen with all this student aggressiveness and defiance.

Within the venting voice, the *Frustrated voice* moved in and out of the narration. Specifically, the venting voice would accentuate to the frustrated voice when Renée gave examples of disrespect or

misbehavior, as well as when talking about the parents' involvement. Specifically she reported: "I hate to say it but we [teachers] have to do what many parents are unable to do, teach manners and good behaviors to their children. What bothers me the most are parents who are quick to take away the blame from their children and point their finger to the teacher." The frustrated voice transmitted intense feelings such as anger and frustration and was distinctly marked by phrases like "I hate to say it," "I wanted to snap", and "I had to tell them off." Unlike being described as passive in the observational analysis, it was rather surprising to listen to Renée venting and expressing strong negative emotions towards managing student behavior. It was apparent from Renée's narrations that she viewed the task of managing student misbehavior as very challenging and troublesome and her teaching efforts were thwarted by student misbehavior.

Emotionally Susceptible Voice. Renée's venting voice and voice of frustration transpired to an emotionally susceptible voice in her efforts to further elaborate on her struggle with misbehavior. The pace for this part of the conversation slowed down and Renée took more time and longer pauses to respond. Her descriptions were flooded with feelings and emotions. First, Renée noted, "I am a very calm and quiet person. I do not like to get angry or upset. I care too much; I want to protect them [students] from their distracting behaviors but it is hard." She continued saying, "I really do not like confrontations. I get too emotional; I almost want to start crying when my students constantly misbehave. I tend to hold things inside. Sometimes I walk away for a few minutes to gather my thoughts and feelings."

Renée described dealing with misbehavior as being physically and emotionally defeating. She mentioned feeling tired and depleted of energy throughout the day and that a weekend was not enough to feel rejuvenated. She complained of migraines and changes in her sleeping habits. At work, she said, "I can't help it; sometimes my emotions overpower my actions. I get so mentally drained, I want to scream and get everyone to be quiet." Her emotional distress with dealing with misbehavior was further portrayed through statements such as "Numb, numbness is all I feel" and "I almost feel defeated." Renée's descriptions and explanations provided evidence of being engrossed and submerged by negative emotions, which led her to feel vulnerable, incapacitated and unable to deal with defiant behaviors.

Renée's tendency to focus on her emotions can be attributed to her instinctive reaction to misbehavior and low TEHSM. Hence, this could indicate her inability or lack of confidence to divert her efforts in diminishing misbehavior in order to alleviate her stress.

Uplifting Voice. The intense venting and emotional discussion led to the final distinct contrapuntal voice, the Uplifting voice. This voice encapsulated a cathartic essence, portraying Renée's syllogism, resolution, and concluding thoughts in regards to managing student misbehavior. First, Renée affirmed that teaching was a gratifying job and that she took pride of her work. She noted that she never ceased to care and did her best to enhance her students' learning experience. She attributed her frustrations in regards to misbehavior to her eagerness to give students a good education. Renée reasoned: "I know that in most misbehavior cases, normal kids just tend to act abnormally for one reason or another." Reflecting on the discussions, Renée mentioned her surprise on the amount of suppressed feelings she managed to "bottle up" throughout the years. She acknowledged that it was a mistake not doing something about her struggle with misbehaviors all these years. The following excerpt is a representation of her thoughts:

I know I am doing a good job as a teacher. I received praise for my work from colleagues and students so many times. I do realize how easy it is to allow stressing events to drive someone in a rollercoaster of emotions. It is like a freefall that never ends. I hope that I will be in this profession for a long time. I do recognize the need to become more comfortable with the way I manage my students.

Renée commented on the existence of an "unspoken rule" that dominated the teaching profession in terms of learning to manage student misbehavior. The notion was that teachers learned to "toughen up" once they became full-time teachers. She agreed that a lot of the learning on this topic indeed took place in the class but she also stated, "Not every teacher has the innate knowledge, intensity, or resources to do so." Renée felt strongly about the need for teachers to receive training on how to manage, even prevent, challenging student behaviors from happening that often. She explained that the teacher training she attended incorporated a few topics akin to student misbehavior management (e.g. instructional effectiveness, student learning promotion, motivational strategies) but she had yet to find any explicit information or topics that described categories of misbehaviors and strategies/techniques to manage those

issues. She felt confident in her assertions that by learning to manage behaviors effectively and structuring classes beyond the lesson preparation and instructional management, she would significantly enhance her success rate in managing student misbehaviors and her satisfaction with her job. Renée strongly emphasized:

There is much confusion on what a teacher can do to handle misbehavior. All we know is: “follow the school policies, remove defiant students from the class.” I believe that students need to stay in class and learn. We [teachers] need to have the freedom to structure classes in a way that off-task behaviors are unlikely to occur, we need to acquire the knowledge, skills, and the tenacity to do that.

After experiencing the intense feelings of the previous voices, Renée reflected on her comments and admitted her hardships in managing student misbehaviors resulting in suppression of emotions and reverting to instinct when handling defiant students. Renée finally advanced the need for acquiring specific skills and knowledge through training and professional development to anticipate, manage or prevent student misbehaviors.

Discussion

The focus of this study was to describe how teachers with different TEHSM beliefs described the task of managing student misbehavior. Findings in this study suggested that teachers’ actions to manage student misbehavior were linked with their efficacy beliefs to handle misbehavior. Subsequently, described and observed actions to manage student misbehavior differed in the way each teacher coped with, disciplined, and managed student misbehavior while instructing.

TEHSM Beliefs and Coping Strategies/Styles

Teachers’ actions in this study illustrated a distinct difference in the way they coped with challenging behaviors. Jane, the teacher with the high TEHSM beliefs, was found to be nurturing, but at the same time, she communicated clearly her expectations and demands to her students, expected maturity, and exercised high levels of control over her feelings and her students’ behavior. Jane’s actions were primarily focused on taking charge of situations, eradicating incidents of misbehavior, and maintaining control throughout each class. Coping with misbehavior in a different manner, Renée, the teacher with the low TEHSM beliefs, was described as being “passive,” “emotional,” and “non-

confrontational” with her students, and she did not establish any limits, or clear and consistent demands in regards to their behavior. In addition, Renée was found either encumbered with negative emotions while flagging down misbehaving students or avoided confronting misbehaving students.

Jane’s (high TEHSM beliefs) teaching style compares to the *authoritative* parenting style found in the developmental psychology literature. The authoritative style is found to relate with desirable child and adolescent developmental behaviors (e.g. self-control; self-reliance, get along well with others, high moral standards) (Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000). Furthermore, Jane’s coping strategy and style reflect Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) *Problem-focused coping strategy*, later classified by Anshel, William, and Hodge (1997) to reflect an *Approach/Problem-focused coping style*. Specifically, problem-focused coping responses focus on dealing with the environmental stimulus that causes stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The approach/problem-focused coping style suggests that individuals analyze the stressing situation and take the necessary actions to eliminate that environmental stressor (Anshel et al., 1997).

Renée’s (low TEHSM beliefs) teaching style on the other hand compares to the *permissive-indulgent* parenting style found in the developmental psychology literature. The permissive-indulgent style is found to relate with undesirable child and adolescent developmental behaviors (e.g. lacking self-control; impulsive, aggressive) (Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000). Renée’s coping strategy and style reflect Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) *Emotion-focused coping strategy*, later classified by Anshel and colleagues (1997) to reflect an *Avoidance/Emotion-focused coping style*. Particularly, emotion-focused coping responses aim to alleviate distress caused by a stressor through regulating emotions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The avoidance/emotion-focused coping style implies that individuals may choose to avoid dealing with a certain stressor by repressing their emotions (Anshel et al., 1997).

Linking the different teaching/coping styles with teachers’ TEHSM beliefs, which consequently could have determined the teachers’ actions, is crucial. It can be suggested that the teacher with high TEHSM beliefs had the confidence and resources to successfully tackle misbehavior using effective teaching and coping responses that enhanced prosocial behavior, achieved more positive interactions, and decreased the occurrence of student misbehavior in her classes. Conversely, the teacher with low TEHSM

beliefs may have lacked the confidence and resources to manage misbehavior efficiently, which lead to reacting to misbehavior with emotions. For instance, Renée’s “venting” and “emotionally susceptible” voices depicted her inability to regulate her negative emotions and her choice to avoid confronting misbehavior incidents. Therefore, it can be argued that Renée’s teaching and coping approaches towards misbehaviors perhaps allowed more frequent and more severe misbehaviors to persist in her class when compared with Jane (see Tables 12 and 13).

Moreover, findings related to TEHSM beliefs and coping styles also reveal important information about each teacher’s emotional well-being. Renée (Low TEHSM) described the task of managing student misbehavior as emotionally defeating. She was engrossed and submerged by negative emotions, which led her to feel vulnerable, incapacitated and unable to deal with defiant behaviors. Renée felt tired and depleted of energy throughout the day and that a weekend was not enough to feel rejuvenated. She also exhibited physical signs (i.e., migraines, lethargy) of exhaustion. Consistent with the burnout literature, Renée’s descriptions of her emotional well-being suggest that dealing with recurrent student misbehaviors in her class resulted to adverse psychological outcomes such as declined commitment to her students and lowered teaching performance (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008; Carson, 2007; Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003). Subsequently, over time, Renée developed feelings of burnout, which can be attributed to her low TEHSM beliefs and maladaptive coping with student misbehaviors.

By contrast, Jane (High TEHSM) adopted a positive psychological approach when managed challenging student behaviors. Jane’s efforts were always focused on utilizing her pre-established behavior management strategies, emphasizing her expectations to her students, and teaching her students self-discipline and self-control. She showed to care about her students’ learning and claimed to be emotionally unaffected by misbehaviors. Researchers have defined this positive psychological approach as “work engagement” and described it as: “A positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that can be seen as the antipode of job burnout” (Bakker et al., 2008, p. 187). Hakanen, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2006) identified two core dimensions of work engagement (also see Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006). The first dimension *vigor* refers being highly energized;

mentally resilient; and willing to invest effort and persist in those efforts even in the face of adverse situations. The second dimension *dedication* refers to feelings of pride, inspiration, enthusiasm, significance, and challenge. Both work engagement dimensions are very obvious in the themes that described how Jane coped with student misbehaviors. Therefore, it can be concluded that Jane experienced more energy and commitment while managing student misbehaviors. Subsequently, Jane reported more success with this task, which can be attributed to her TEHSM beliefs and adaptive coping skills.

The current findings on TEHSM beliefs and coping related to PE teachers' emotional well-being are very important for several reasons. This study revealed some personal and professional teacher characteristics that can enhance PE teachers' student behavior management skills. The present study provided in-depth descriptions of how TEHSM beliefs and coping styles may predict the manifestation of feelings of burnout or work engagement. In the teacher literature, the endorsement of teacher work engagement as the opposite pole of burnout has merely emerged (Hakanen et al., 2006). Therefore, findings from this study can be considered the first step in providing valuable information on the role that PE teachers' efficacy beliefs have on the way these teachers experienced emotions with regards to managing student behaviors and associating teachers' coping skills and emotions with the two opposite emotional poles. Consequently, this study provides support to other researchers' advancements on also exploring the positive qualities of the work environment (Bakker et al., 2008; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This can be useful for teacher educators and researchers in redirecting their focus towards understanding teachers' positive experiences at school along with burnout when investigating how teachers cope with significant stressors in their work environment such as student misbehavior.

TEHSM Beliefs Related with Reactive Disciplining Strategies and Actions

It was evident from the analyses that Renée, the teacher with low TEHSM beliefs, experienced an average of 4.75 misbehaviors per class. Types of misbehaviors in her classes ranged from mild (50% of total misbehaviors), moderate (28% of total misbehaviors) to severe (22% of total misbehaviors). The

higher frequency and severity of misbehavior suggested that Renée lacked the use of effective disciplinary strategies (i.e. reactive). For instance, Renée was observed to react to misbehaviors either by trying to persuade students to stop or by stopping the lesson, getting in arguments, or threatening to punish. Renée admitted her hardship in managing challenging student behaviors and attributed her struggles to her lack of exposure and specific knowledge in regards to this specific matter. On the other hand, Jane, the teacher with the high TEHSM beliefs, encountered less frequent (2.25 per class) and less severe (mild = 78%; moderate = 22%) misbehaviors in her classes. Jane was found to consistently utilize better disciplinary strategies to eliminate misbehaviors or diffuse them quickly. Some examples of such strategies included outlining her demands in regards with behavior to her students, making student behavior a focal point in her teachings, redirecting students' behaviors to keep them on-task, and exercising a pre-established disciplinary system. Jane also explained that her consistent disciplinary measures aimed to teach students self-discipline, self-control, and their personal boundaries in the class.

Findings in this study of the two teachers' disciplinary actions are consistent with arguments that teachers with high efficacy beliefs are more likely to have fewer disruptive students in their classes than teachers with low efficacy beliefs (Kaplan, 1996; Kokkinos, 2007). Similar to Almog and Shechtman's (2007) points, this study also illustrated that the teacher with high efficacy beliefs believed disruptive behavior to diminish rather than continue, whereas the teacher with low efficacy beliefs responded to student misbehavior with anger and utilized more negative consequences and severe punishments.

TEHSM Beliefs Related with Proactive Strategies to Maintain Appropriate Behavior

Results from this study revealed both teachers' success in creating a well-structured physical activity setting (e.g. lesson plan preparation, equipment set-up) in which to complete their lesson objectives. The contrasting image between the two teachers was the high TEHSM teacher's ability to design and maintain a highly structured teaching environment centered on her expectations and policies in regards with student behavior. It was apparent that Jane was able to keep her students on-task during lessons with minimal student interruptions. Jane attributed her success with the task of student behavior management to implementing and incorporating a behavior component in her class rules, routines, and

expectations. Data analyses described Jane as focusing on managing behaviors rather than focusing on her emotions. Jane was also described as utilizing effective preventive behavior management strategies such as spending time explaining, demonstrating, and practicing desired behaviors with students; providing feedback; having good progressions and transitions between activities; and correcting behaviors during her lessons. In addition, Jane explained that creating fun yet challenging lessons, allowing students to experience success, and giving the students options kept students interested and on-task. Such evidence suggested the presence and use of proactive strategies to decrease the occurrence of student misbehavior throughout the lesson, which also could explain the infrequent and less severe misbehaviors in Jane's classes when compared to classes taught by Renée (low TEHSM beliefs). Similar to Jane, Renée demonstrated excellent skills in structuring her physical activity setting. In contrast, information addressing expectations and policies regarding student behavior were not found in Renée's data analyses. The absence of such policies could explain Renée's higher rates of misbehavior incidents, in addition to her low confidence, hesitation, and unsystematic actions to consistently manage student behaviors.

Preventive actions to manage behavior employed by the teacher with high TEHSM beliefs can be vital in understanding the process by which teachers become more proactive when managing specific stressors. Being proactive implies a teacher learning to anticipate the challenges of misbehaviors, taking measures to prevent misbehaviors from happening, and being mentally prepared to deal with them when they occur without viewing them as threats (Chang, 2009). Associating the likelihood of incorporating proactive strategies with high TEHSM levels could direct practitioners and teacher preparation programs to focus on helping teachers grow their confidence, efficacy beliefs, and knowledge in utilizing methods to prevent misbehaviors in their classes.

Unlike Jane who had pre-established procedures in hand to manage misbehaviors, Renée's strategies could be an indication of lacking the confidence to utilize effective preventive behavior routines and strategies to carry out her lesson plans. This may have explained the persisting and more severe misbehavior problems in her classes, which caused emotional distress. Therefore, training teachers like Renée to increase their TEHSM beliefs to become more proactive managers could help them refrain from

using only reactive strategies, meaning to respond to misbehavior when it occurs, to control the risk of the escalation of this stressing event.

Limitation

A limitation in the current study relates to the collection of the observational data. Observations were conducted by the same researcher who was familiar with each teacher's self-reported TEHSM scores, which could have lead to possible observer bias. However, several steps were followed to ensure the credibility and trustworthiness of the observational data. Checklists were used for all the observations to record the observed student misbehavior incidents based on the previously published categorizations for type and severity (Kulinna et al., 2003). Also, to aid the systematic analysis of the data, descriptive and reflective fieldnotes were taken during the observations by the researcher to describe and interpret student misbehaviors and teachers' actions as they occurred. Furthermore, a researcher journal was maintained throughout the study to bracket personal views and preconceptions and to ensure unbiased interpretation of the data. Member checking and peer-debriefing were also used to help ensure that the researcher's interpretations were accurate and the analyzed data were credible. In the future, observations could be conducted using an independent coder of the observed misbehaviors who is unaware of the teacher's TEHSM levels.

Conclusions and Future Directions

The different coping, disciplining, and behavior management skills between the two teachers unveil two main points that may help inform future studies. First, results from this study extend current literature on student misbehavior beyond the accepted notion that student behavior management is a major component in classroom management. Particularly, this study presented a detailed descriptive analysis relating teachers' TEHSM beliefs with various teaching and coping approaches in an effort to explain teachers' actions towards misbehavior. Second, the contrasting findings between the two teachers' teaching and coping approaches towards misbehavior provide support to the advancement of the concept of TEHSM as a domain-specific teacher efficacy belief (TEHSM). Specifically, the current study elucidates research on how different TEHSM beliefs may influence teachers' feelings, behaviors, and

actions towards student misbehavior. Future studies may utilize similar or different sampling methodologies to compare, confirm, or potentially expand on findings presented in this study.

Currently, there is scarcity of information on how teachers gain knowledge and competence in using their skills to effectively manage their students (Garrahy et al., 2005). Not surprisingly, teacher preparation curricula and professional development programs do not sufficiently cover the pedagogical knowledge associated with student behavior management (Stroot & Ko, 2006; Poulou, 2005). This was also evident in the present study through the teachers' discussions regarding their education and training and how they learned to manage challenging student behaviors. Consequently, current findings may be considered a first step in understanding this issue. It can be suggested that teachers with high TEHSM beliefs are equipped with more specific knowledge and/or utilize useful sources that facilitate their decision-making and problem solving skills regarding student behavior management. Therefore, it can be advanced from current findings that high TEHSM beliefs are associated with actions to manage student misbehavior through authoritative teaching; approach/problem focused coping style; and effective proactive and reactive management of student behaviors. By attributing the presence of these features to more effective student behavior management, teachers, teacher educators, and researchers are in a better position to develop action plans or training programs that enhance teachers' efficacy beliefs to successfully manage challenging student behaviors.

One consistent implication from this study is to continue the exploration of TEHSM in an effort to provide teacher preparation programs with theoretical models along with teaching and coping approaches to train teacher candidates regarding student behavior management. For example, focusing on the task of managing student misbehavior, teacher educators can identify a variety of sources of efficacy (i.e., enactive mastery experiences, positive feedback and support, mentoring and vicarious learning, and regulation of emotions) that may augment TEHSM. Subsequently, such efforts can direct teachers' actions through more authoritative teaching, approach/problem-focused coping, and effective use of proactive and reactive strategies to manage student misbehaviors. Promising findings in the area of TEHSM can help guide teacher preparation programs and schools in enriching course offerings, practical

training, and professional development units with useful information and specific tools to manage student misbehavior effectively.

CHAPTER 5: GENERAL DISCUSSION

A critical oversight in the current literature is the absence of information on how teachers perceive or explain the challenges they face in managing student misbehaviors. This is critical since teachers' actions and behaviors to manage student misbehavior have been shown to be heavily influenced by these perceptions or explanations (Cothran et al., 2009, Tsouloupas et al., 2010). Collectively, the current research addressed this oversight by providing TEHSM as a theoretically and empirically driven construct that may help describe teachers' capabilities and actions regarding the task of managing student misbehavior. Findings across the three dissertation studies surfaced issues related to the task of managing student misbehavior, which, in turn, provided substantial reason to continue the exploration of TEHSM. For instance, Jane's reflection regarding the task of managing student behavior further reiterate the centrality of TEHSM beliefs relative to teachers' abilities to manage challenging student behaviors:

The way I see it [student behavior management], it is like a coach wanting to win a game of soccer. How can you score goals and win when you feel unable to guide and discipline your players to be part of the team, work as a team, and stay committed to their assignments? How can you win when your players show no respect to you [the coach] or one another? Your wealth of knowledge on the technicality of the game is useless unless you can teach your students to behave (Jane, PE teacher, High TEHSM, Chapter 4)

Findings from the first study (Chapter 2) reinforced the importance of considering both personal and school cultural factors when examining TEHSM. This finding was aligned with Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theorizations and supported the conceptual model of TEHSM presented in Chapter 2. Moreover, this study provided a vital step towards understanding how TEHSM beliefs could be enhanced in the future. In particular, the unique contribution demonstrated for each variable helped to identify factors that were pivotal to TEHSM. The key predictors of TEHSM were professional development (PD) and student socioeconomic status (SES) which explained a significant amount of the total variance in TEHSM. Overall findings from Chapter 2 suggest that the encouragement of continuous PD relative to the management of student misbehavior throughout one's teaching career will more likely improve a teacher's perceived ability to successfully manage student misbehavior. Moreover, it is advanced that teachers need to be exposed to the different dynamics and challenges that can exist in different SES

school settings. Consequently, it may be beneficial for teachers to receive focused training under different SES teaching environments, whether in teacher preparation or in-service PD. Findings from this study direct future studies to examine strategies and techniques to enhance TEHSM through sound conceptual models and consideration of sources that augment self-efficacy beliefs (e.g. mastering skills, vicarious learning; mentoring).

The second study (Chapter 3) confirmed that the management of student misbehaviors was a major recurrent and cumbersome classroom management task. Also, consistent with previous studies, regular student misbehavior problems were identified as mild-to-moderate in severity, (Cothran, Kulinna, & Garrahy, 2009; Kulinna & Cothran, 2007; Kulinna et al., 2006). Expanding on existing research, this study showed that regular misbehavior problems were common across math, science, and PE teachers. This finding may be vital to encourage future practitioners when developing strategies to manage student misbehavior that are applicable to classroom and non-classroom settings rather than focusing on specific teaching subjects.

Results from Chapter 2 were confirmed and extended in Chapter 3 by demonstrating that personal experience (e.g. acquiring specific skills and knowledge), individual characteristics (i.e., extraversion, conscientiousness), effective behavior management strategies (i.e., proactive, reactive), high emotional intelligence (i.e., self-regulating emotions), and having sources of support (e.g. family, principals, colleagues) were catalysts to how teachers formulate and enhance their abilities to manage student behaviors regardless of their years of teaching experience. These findings contradicted previous research findings as well as the conventional view that seasoned teachers are more effective in managing student misbehaviors. Consequently, the identification of several themes in this study helped to make a connection between TEHSM beliefs and the task of managing student misbehaviors. Subsequently, this connection helped to determine positive (emotional competence, job commitment) or negative (e.g. distress, emotional exhaustion) teacher behavioral outcomes.

Specifically, in-depth descriptions were provided on “what” teachers experienced when managing student misbehavior by portraying “how” they tried to alleviate the problems that accompanied this

demanding task. Teacher descriptions also suggested that the behavioral management aspect of teaching was the basis of teacher distress, which is consistent with previous studies (Friedman, 2006). These findings can inform future teacher preparation and training curricula that insufficiently address the pedagogical knowledge associated with student behavior management. Particularly, teachers' distress with the task of managing student misbehaviors is attributed to the teachers' lack of beliefs in their abilities to successfully manage this stressor.

One finding in the second study (Chapter 3) that warranted further exploration was that student misbehavior was an even more challenging task to manage in the physical education setting. Therefore, findings on how PE teachers with different TEHSM beliefs perceived and managed student misbehavior in the third study (Chapter 4) make a significant contribution to the literature on student misbehavior in physical education settings. Through the comparison of two PE teachers with significantly different self-reported TEHSM beliefs, assumptions were drawn in regards to each teacher's coping strategies, reactive disciplining actions, and proactive efforts to maintain good student behaviors in their classes. Consistent findings across Chapters 2 and 3 were that teachers with high TEHSM beliefs systematically used problem-focused approaches and more effective strategies (proactive and reactive) to manage student misbehaviors.

The process by which PE teachers with high and low TEHSM managed student misbehavior was illuminated and endorsed theoretical positions from relevant research disciplines. Approaches to maintain appropriate student behaviors were similar to different parenting styles found in the developmental psychology literature, whereas how teachers' coped with student misbehavior mirrored the various coping styles found in the stress and coping literature. Particularly, evidence suggested that the PE teacher with high TEHSM beliefs experienced greater success in managing student misbehaviors due to her authoritative teaching style, approach/problem focused coping style, and the use of effective proactive and reactive behavior management strategies during her instruction. By comparison, low TEHSM beliefs related to permissive-indulgent teaching style, avoidance/emotion focused coping style, and ineffective behavior management strategies. This study's attempt to build bridges between research disciplines to

explain teachers' efforts and abilities to manage student misbehavior can contribute to current scholarship and practices in physical education. The following excerpt illustrates this attempt by showing how low TEHSM beliefs related to permissive-indulgent teaching style and avoidance/emotion focused coping style:

I am a very calm and quiet person. I do not like to get angry or upset. I care too much; I want to protect them [students] from their distracting behaviors but it is hard...I really do not like confrontations. I get too emotional; I tend to hold things inside. Sometimes I walk away for a few minutes to gather my thoughts and feelings (Renée, PE teacher, Low TEHSM, Chapter 4)

Considering the insufficient evidence in the literature about the emotional aspects of teaching (Shutz & Zembylas, 2009; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), the advancements in this study can be considered as an important step to understand the role of emotions and efficacy beliefs in teaching practices and managing stressors like student misbehavior. In their review, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) concluded that teacher emotions and student discipline are two fields that should come together to explain behavioral outcomes (e.g. stress, anger, frustration) of teachers. Tsouloupas and colleagues (2010) also made similar assertions in their examination of how emotion regulation may influence the occurrence of emotional exhaustion through TEHSM.

In conclusion, findings across the three dissertation studies provide support to the advancement of TEHSM as a domain-specific self-efficacy construct. High TEHSM beliefs are presented as plausible explanations to teachers' success in managing student misbehaviors. Consistent implications throughout this dissertation suggest that TEHSM can help determine teachers' effort, persistence, resourcefulness, and effective use of strategies to resolve the misbehavior incidence, and whether they become emotionally and physically drained. A suggestion for future studies is to also consider exploring the reciprocal relationship between TEHSM beliefs and student misbehavior. Findings from this dissertation suggest that teachers' perceptions of student misbehavior (i.e., frequency, type, severity) influenced their TEHSM beliefs. However, it can be beneficial to also explore how teachers with various levels of TEHSM are likely to perceive or report differing degrees of

misbehaviors in their classrooms. The notion behind the reciprocal relationship is that besides perceptions of student misbehavior as a contributor to TEHSM beliefs, TEHSM beliefs could also contribute to how teachers manage misbehaviors, which could possibly influence the way the teachers perceive, act, or cope with student misbehavior. In summary, through quantitative and qualitative methodologies, this dissertation research sought to extend current knowledge relative to teacher's ability to manage student misbehavior. From a professional practice perspective, by discovering these features to relate with successful management of student misbehavior, teachers, teacher educators, and researchers are in a better position to develop action plans or training programs that enhance teachers' efficacy beliefs to successfully manage challenging student behaviors.

REFERENCES

- Akiba, M., LeTendre, G. K., Baker, D. P., & Goesling, B. (2002). Student victimization: National and school system effects on school violence in 37 nations. *American Educational Research Journal*, 39, 829-853.
- Almog, O., & Shechtman, Z. (2007). Teachers' democratic and efficacy beliefs and styles of coping with behavioural problems of pupils with special needs. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 22, 115-129.
- Anshel, M. H., Williams, L. R. T., & Hodge, K. (1997). Cross-cultural and gender differences on coping style in sports. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 28, 141-156.
- Bakker A. B., Schaufeli, W. B., Leiter, M. P. & Taris, T. W. (2008). Work engagement: An emerging concept in occupational health psychology. *Work & Stress*, 22, 187-200.
- Balderson, D., & Sharpe, T. (2005). The effects of personal accountability and personal responsibility instruction on select off-task and positive social behaviors. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 24, 66-87.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (Vol. 5, pp. 307-337). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
<http://www.des.emory.edu/mfp/014-BanduraGuide2006.pdf>.
- Bechtel, P.A., & O'Sullivan, M. (2006). Effective PD- What we now know. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 25, 363-378.
- Bechtel, P. A., & O'Sullivan, M. (2007). Enhancers and inhibitors of teacher change among secondary physical educators. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 26, 221-253.
- Blasé, J. J. (1982). A Social-psychological grounded theory of teacher stress and burnout. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 18(4), 93-113.
- Boe, E. E., Cook, L. H., & Sunderland, R. J. (2008). Teacher turnover: Examining exit attrition, teaching area transfer, and school migration. *Exceptional Children*, 75(1), 7-31.
- Bogler, R., & Somech, A. (2004). Influence of teacher empowerment on teachers' organizational commitment, professional commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20, 277-289.
- Boe, E. E., Cook, L. H., & Sunderland, R. J. (2008). Teacher turnover: Examining exit attrition, teaching area transfer, and school migration. *Exceptional Children*, 75(1), 7-31.
- Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2000). A longitudinal study of teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy in classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16, 239-253.

- Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2001). The factorial validity of scores on the teacher interpersonal self-efficacy scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 61, 433-445.
- Campbell, J. (1996). A comparison of teacher efficacy for the pre and in-service teachers in Scotland and America. *Education*, 117, 2-11.
- Carron, A. V., Hausenblas, H. A., & Eastbrooks, P. A. (2003). *The psychology of physical activity*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Carson, R. L. (2007). *Exploring the episodic nature of teachers' emotional as it relates to teacher burnout*. Retrieved from ProQuest Information & Learning (AAI 3232157).
- Carson, R. L., & Chase, M. A. (2009). An examination of physical education teacher motivation from a self-determination theoretical framework. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 14, 335-353.
- Carson, R. L., Plemmons, S., Templin, T. J., & Weiss, H. M. (in press). "You are who you are:" a mixed method study of affectivity and emotional regulation in curbing teacher burnout. In G. S. Gates & W. H. Gmelch (Series Eds.) & G. M. Reevy & E. Frydenberg (Vol. Eds.), *Research on stress and coping in education: Vol. 6. Personality, stress and coping: Implications for education*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Carter, K., Cushing, K., Sabers, D., Stein, P., & Berliner, D. (1988). Expert-novice differences in perceiving and processing visual classroom stimuli. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(3), 25-31.
- Chan, D. W. (2008). Emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and coping among Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong Kong. *Educational Psychology*, 28, 397-408.
- Chang, M.-L. (2009). An Appraisal Perspective of Teacher Burnout: Examining the Emotional Work of Teachers. *Educational Psychology Review*, 21, 193-218.
- Cherniss, C. (1997). Teacher empowerment, consultation, and the creation of new programs in schools. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 8, 135-152.
- Coates, T. J., & Thoresen, C. E. (1976). Teacher anxiety: A review with recommendations. *Review of Educational Research*, 46, 159-184.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *The NEO PI-R professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Cothran, D. J., Kulinna, P. H., & Garrahy, D. A. (2009). Attributions for and consequences of student misbehavior. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 14, 155-167.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D. E., & Byrne, Z. S. (2003). The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 160-169.
- Darch, C. B., & Kame'enui, E. J. (2004). *Instructional Classroom Management: A proactive approach to behavioral management* (2nd Ed.) Prentice Hall: Upper Saddle River, NJ.

- Day, C., Sammons, P., Stobart, G., Kingston, A., & Gu, Q. (2007). *Teachers matter: Connecting lives, work and effectiveness*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Gagné, M., Leone, D. R., Usunov, J., & Kornazheva, B. P. (2001). Need satisfaction, motivation, and well-being in the work organizations of a former Eastern Bloc country. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27, 930-942.
- De la Torre Cruz, M. J., & Arias, P. F. C. (2007). Comparative analysis of expectancies of efficacy in in-service and prospective teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 641–652.
- Doyle, W. (1986). Classroom organization and management. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 392-431). New York: Macmillan.
- Egyed, C. J., & Short, R. J. (2006). Teacher self-efficacy, burnout, experience and decision to refer a disruptive student . *School Psychology International*, 27, 462-474.
- Emmer, E. T., & Hickman, J. (1991). Teacher efficacy in classroom management and discipline. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 51, 755-765.
- Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of educational psychology, with implications for teacher education. *Educational Psychologist*, 36, 103-112.
- Epstein, M., Atkins, M., Cullinan, D., Kutash, K., and Weaver, R. (2008). *Reducing Behavior Problems in the Elementary School Classroom: A Practice Guide* (NCEE #2008-012). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/publications/practiceguides>.
- Evans, E. D., & Tribble, M. (1986). Perceived teaching problems, self-efficacy, and commitment to teaching among preservice teachers. *Journal of Educational Research*, 80, 81-85.
- Evers, W. J. G., Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2002). Burnout and self-efficacy: A study on teachers' beliefs when implementing an innovative educational system in the Netherlands. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 227-243.
- Evertson, C. M., & Weinstein, C. S. (2006). Classroom management as a field of inquiry. In C. M. Evertson & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues* (pp. 3-15). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2003). What new teachers need to learn. *Educational Leadership*, 60(8), 25-29.
- Fernández-Balboa, J.-M. (1991). Beliefs, interactive thoughts, and actions of physical education student teachers regarding pupil misbehaviors. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 11, 59-78.
- Fink, J., & Siedentop, D. (1989). The development of routines, rules, and expectations at the start of the school year. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education* 8, 198-212.
- Finley, R. (1999). SurveyMonkey (Online survey software) Portland, OR: SurveyMonkey.com.
- Friedman, I. A. (2000). Burnout in teachers: Shattered dreams of impeccable professional performance. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 56, 595-606.

- Friedman, I. A. (2003). Self-efficacy and burnout in teaching: The importance of interpersonal-relations efficacy. *Social Psychology of Education*, 6, 191-215.
- Friedman, I. A. (2006). Classroom management and teacher stress and burnout. In C. M. Evertson, & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues* (pp. 925-944). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Galand, B., Lecocq, C., & Philippot, P. (2007). School violence and teacher professional disengagement. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 465-477.
- Garrahy, D. A., Cothran, D. J., & Kulinna, P. H. (2005). Voices from the trenches: An exploration of teachers' management knowledge. *Journal of Educational Research*, 99, 56-63.
- Gilligan, C., Spencer, R., Weinberg, K. M., & Bertsch, T. (2003). On the listening guide: A voice-centered relational method. In P. M. Camic, J. E. Rhodes & L. Yardley (Eds.), *Qualitative research in psychology: Expanding perspectives in methodology and design* (pp.157-172). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.
- Goddard, R., Patton, W., & Creed, P. (2004). The Importance and place of neuroticism in predicting burnout in employment service case managers. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34, 282-296.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure. *Psychological Assessment*, 4, 26-42.
- González-Romá, V., Schaufeli, W.B., Bakker, A. & Lloret, S. (2006). Burnout and engagement: Independent factors or opposite poles? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68, 165-174.
- Good, T. L., & Brophy, J. E. . (2000). *Looking in classrooms* (8th ed.). New York, NY: Addison-Wesley Educational Publishers.
- Gordon, C., & Debus, R. (2002). Developing deep learning approaches and personal teaching efficacy within a preservice teacher education context. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 483-511.
- Graham, G., Holt/Hale, S. A., & Parker, M. (2010). *Children moving: A reflective approach to teaching physical education* (8th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Guglielmi, S. R., & Tatrow, K. (1998). Occupational stress, burnout, and health in teachers: A methodological and theoretical analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 68, 61-99.
- Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 8, 381-391.
- Hakanen, J.J., Bakker, A.B. & Schaufeli, W. .B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology*, 43, 495-513.
- Hebert, E., Lee, A., Williamson, L. (1998). Teachers' and teacher education students' sense of efficacy: Quantitative and qualitative comparisons. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 31, 214 -225.

- Hughes, J. N., Barker, D., Kemenoff, S., & Hart, M. (1993). Problem ownership, causal attributions, and self-efficacy as predictors of teachers' referral decisions. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 4, 369–384.
- John, O. P., Donahue, E. M., & Kentle, R. L. (1991). *The Big Five Inventory-Versions 4a and 54*. Berkeley: University of California, Berkeley, Institute of Personality and Social Research.
- John, O. P., Naumann, L. P., & Soto, C. J. (2008). Paradigm Shift to the Integrative Big-Five Trait Taxonomy: History, Measurement, and Conceptual Issues. In O. P. John, R. W. Robins, & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 114-158). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Jones, V. F. (1989). Classroom Management: Clarifying theory and improving practice. *Education*, 109, 330-339.
- Jones, V. (1996). Classroom management. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (2nd ed., pp. 503–521). New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Judge, T. A. & Ilies, R. (2002). Relationship of personality to performance motivation: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 797–807.
- IBM SPSS Inc. (2009). *PASW STATISTICS 18.0 Command Syntax Reference*. Chicago: IBM SPSS Inc.
- Kaplan, H. B. (1996). Psychosocial stress from the perspective of self theory. In H. B. Kaplan (Ed.), *Psychosocial stress: Perspective on structure, theory, life-course, and methods* (pp. 175–244). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Kaplan, A., Gheen, M., & Midgley, C. (2002). Classroom goal structure and student disruptive behavior. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 191-211.
- Kasser, T., Davey, J., & Ryan, R. M. (1992). Motivation, dependability, and employee-supervisor discrepancies in psychiatric vocational rehabilitation settings. *Rehabilitation Psychology*, 37, 175-187.
- Klusmann, U., Kunter, M., Trautwein, U., Ludtke, O., & Baumert, J. (2008). Engagement and emotional exhaustion in teachers: Does the school context make a difference? *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57, 127-151.
- Kokkinos, C. M. (2007). Job stressors, personality and burnout in primary school teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 229-243.
- Koth, C. W., Bradshaw, C. P., & Leaf, P. J. (2008). A multilevel study of predictors of student perceptions of school climate: The effect of classroom-level factors. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100(1), 96-104.
- Kulinna, P. H., & Cothran, D. J. (2007). Students' Reports of Misbehavior in Physical Education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 78, 216–224.
- Kulinna, P. H., Cothran, D., & Regualos, R. (2003). Development of an instrument to measure student disruptive behavior. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science*, 7(1), 25-41.

- Kulinna, P. H., Cothran, D. J., & Regualos, R. (2006). Teachers' reports of student misbehavior in physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 77(1), 32-40.
- Larsen, R. J. (2000). Toward a science of mood regulation. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(3), 129-141.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress appraisal and coping*. New York: Springer.
- Lee, H. (2005). Developing a professional development program model based on teachers' needs. *The Professional Educator*, 27, 39-49.
- Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 123-133.
- Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Liu, X. S., & Meyer, P. J. (2005). Teachers' perceptions of their jobs: A multilevel analysis of the Teacher Follow-Up Survey for 1994-95. *Teachers College Record*, 107, 985-1003.
- Livingston, C., & Borko, H. (1989). Cognition and improvisation: Differences in mathematics instruction by expert and novice teachers. *American Educational Research Journal*, 26, 473-498.
- Louisiana Department of Education (n.d.). *2007 District Composite Reports (DCR) on student participation*. Retrieved April, 21, 2010, from <http://www.doe.louisiana.gov/lde/pair/1613.aspx>.
- Martin, A. J., Linfoot, K., & Stephenson, J. (1999). How teachers' respond to concerns about misbehaviours in their classroom. *Psychology in the Schools*, 36, 347-358.
- Marvel, J., Lyter, D. M., Peltola, P., Strizekm, G. A., & Morton, B. A. (2007). *Teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the Teacher Follow-up Survey, 2004-05 (NCES Publication No. 2007-307)*. U.S Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). Introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 175-215.
- McCroskey, J. C., Valencic, K. M., & Richmond, V. P. (2004). Toward a general model of instructional communication. *Communication Quarterly*, 53, 197-210.
- Merrett, F., & Wheldall, K. (1992). Teacher training and classroom discipline. In K. Wheldall (Ed.), *Discipline in schools: Psychological perspectives on the Elton report*. London: Routledge.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.
- Miller, L. E. (1994). Correlations: Description of inference? *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 35(1), 5-7.
- Montgomery, D. C., Peck, E. A., & Vining, G. G. (2001). *Introduction to Linear Regression Analysis* (3rd ed.). New York, New York: John Wiley & Sons.

- Moore Johnson, S. (2004). *Finders and Keepers: Helping New Teachers Survive and Thrive in Our Schools*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Moore Johnson, S., & Birkeland, S. E. (2003). Pursuing a "Sense of Success": New teachers explain their career decisions. *American Educational Research Journal*, 40, 581-617.
- Moerer-Urdahl, T., & Creswell, J. (2004). Using transcendental phenomenology to explore the "ripple effect" in a leadership mentoring program. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 3(2). Retrieved July 25th, 2010 from http://www.ualberta.ca/~iiqm/backissues/3_2/pdf/moerercreswell.pdf.
- Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.
- Onafowora, L. L. (2004). Teacher efficacy issues in the practice of novice teachers. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 28(4), 34-43.
- Ondrich, J., Pas, E., & Yinger, J. (2008). The determinants of teacher attrition in upstate New York. *Public Finance Review*, 36, 112-144.
- Perron, J., & Downey, P. J. (1997). Management techniques used by high school physical education teachers. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 17, 72-84.
- Poulou, M. (2005). Educational psychology within teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 11, 555-574.
- Putnam, R. F., Luiselli, J. K., Handler, M. W., & Jefferson, G. L. (2003). Evaluating student discipline practices in a public school through behavioral assesment of office referrals. *Behavior Modification*, 27, 505-523.
- Ross, J., & Bruce, K. (2007). Professional development effects on teacher efficacy: Results of randomized field trial. *Journal of Educational Research*, 101, 50-60.
- Rushton, S. P. (2000). Student teacher efficacy in inner-city schools. *The Urban Review*, 32, 365-383.
- Safran, S.P. (1989). Australian teachers' views of their effectiveness in behaviour management. *International Journal of Disability, Development, and Education*, 36, 15-27.
- Sakiz, G. (2008). An interview with Dale Schunk. *Educational Psychology Review*, 20, 485-491.
- Saklofske, D.H., Austin, E.J., Galloway, J., & Davidson, K. (2007). Individual difference correlates of health-related behaviours: Preliminary evidence for links between emotional intelligence and coping. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42, 491-502.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2010). The conceptualization and measurement of work engagement. In A.B. Bakker & M.P. Leiter (Eds.), *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research* (pp. 10-24). New York: Psychology Press.

- Schaufeli, W. B., & Buunk, B. P. (2003). Burnout: An overview of 25 years of research and theorizing. In M. J. Schabracq, J. A. Winnubst, & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *The handbook of work and health psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 383-425). New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Schutz, P. A. & Zembylas, M. (2009). *Advances in teacher emotion research: The impact on teachers' lives*. Springer Publishing: New York, NY.
- Seifert, K. L., & Hoffnung, R. J. (2000). *Child and Adolescent Development* (5th Ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Seligman, M. E. P. & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, 55, 5-14.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Biddle, B. J. (1998). Standards, accountability, and school reform: Perils and pitfalls. *Teachers College Record*, 100, 164-180.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2007). Dimensions of teacher self-efficacy and relations with strain factors, perceived collective teacher efficacy, and teacher burnout. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99, 611-625.
- Smart, J. B., & Igo, B. L. (2010). A grounded theory of behavior management strategy selection, implementation, and perceived effectiveness reported by first-year elementary teachers. *The Elementary School Journal*, 4, 567-584.
- Smith, T. M., & Ingersoll, R. M. (2004). What are the effects of induction and mentoring on beginning teacher turnover? *American Educational Research Journal*, 41, 681-714.
- Spradley, J. P. (1979). *The Ethnographic interview*. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.
- Stroot, S. A., & Ko, B. (2006). Induction of beginning physical educators into the school setting. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald, & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *Handbook of physical education* (pp. 425-448). Berkeley, CA: Sage Publications.
- Sutton, R. E., & Wheatley, K. F. (2003). Teachers' emotions and teaching: A review of the literature and directions for future research. *Educational Psychology Review*, 15, 327-358.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Teven, J., J. (2007). Teacher temperament: Correlates with teacher caring, burnout, and organizational outcomes. *Communication Education*, 56(3), 382-400.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2007). The differential antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 944-956.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, 2, 202-248.

- Tsouloupas C. N., Carson, R. L., Matthews, R., Grawitch, M., & Barber, L. (2010). Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion: The importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation. *Educational Psychology, 30*, 173-189.
- U. S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2007). *Teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the 2004-2005 Teacher follow-up Survey*. (NCES 2007-307). Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office. Retrieved October 8, 2007, from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007307.pdf>.
- Usher, E. L., & Pajares, F. (2008). Sources of self-efficacy in school: Critical review of the literature and future directions. *Review of Educational Research, 78*, 751-796.
- Vincent, W. J. (1999). *Statistics in Kinesiology* (2nd ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Wheatley, K. F. (2005). The case for reconceptualizing teacher efficacy research. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 747-766.
- Wills, T. A., & Shinar, O. (2000). Measuring perceived and received social support. In S. Cohen, L. G. Underwood, & B. H. Gottlieb (Eds.), *Social support measurement and intervention: A guide for health and social scientists* (pp.86–135). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Burke Spero, R. (2005). Changes in teacher efficacy during the early years of teaching: A comparison of four measures. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 343-356.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.

APPENDIX A: EXTENDED REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Exploring Teacher Efficacy to Handle Student Misbehavior in Relation to Burnout and Turnover Intentions: A Multilevel Approach

"I am indebted to my father for living, but to my teacher for living well"
"Alexander the Great"

Referring to Aristotle, these famous words by Alexander the Great are a celebration of what can develop from effective student-teacher relationships. The daily student-teacher interactions at school can have a tremendous impact on students' life since most students spend more time in school with their teachers than they do at home with their parents (Shaughnessy, 2004). Consequently, the role of a teacher is paramount in influencing students' quality of education, perceptions, values, life skills, and helping them grow and develop into successful individuals (Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2004).

Unfortunately, in our society, the quality of teaching and student learning has been blemished and afflicted by severe teacher shortages. The dearth of teachers in teaching is becoming even more exacerbated by considerable risings of student enrollment in conjunction with the large number of baby-boomers retiring (Liu & Meyer, 2005). Conversely, other experts advocate that teacher staffing problems are stemmed from remarkably high rates of early career turnover and lower rates of candidates entering the field (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Mihans, 2008). As a result, the teaching profession has been likened to a "revolving door" phenomenon (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Measurement and definition issues with classroom management

Research has revealed many job-specific stressors acting as potential threats to teachers' content with their work. A major recurring job stressor reported in the teacher education literature is classroom management (Doyle, 1986; Emmer & Stough, 2001; Friedman, 2003) and more particularly student misbehavior (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Day, Sammons, Stobart, Kingston, & Gu, 2007; Feitler & Tokar, 1982; Jones, 1989; Kokkinos, 2007). Classroom management is highlighted as a central element in teachers' daily agenda in the classroom (Emmer & Stough, 2001) and a major determinant of teacher effectiveness (Garrahy, Cothran, & Kulinna, 2005; Jones, 1989; Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2003). *Classroom management* involves a wide range of teacher behaviors, actions, and procedures that ensure

effective instruction, organization, classroom control, student engagement, and ensuring students' needs are met (Doyle, 1986; Kulinna et al., 2003).

Despite the consensus in the literature in defining classroom management, the operationalization of this construct has been muddled with ambiguous findings and inconsistent conclusions (Garrahy et al., 2005; Jones, 1989). Studies attempting to assess classroom management as a whole have to deal with the impracticality of recruiting large class samples in order to assess a wide range of outcomes (Emmer & Stough, 2001). Researchers tend to use one or a few specific components of classroom management (e.g. student misbehavior, effective instruction, student learning and engagement, and learning) but then overgeneralize their findings with discussions about classroom management more broadly. Another measurement issue that plagues the classroom management literature is the use of general scales to draw conclusions on certain aspects of classroom management that are not assessed sufficiently by the scales (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002; Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Emmer & Stough, 2001; Veiga, 2008).

Student misbehavior as a major job stressor for teachers

The inconsistencies from operationalizations of classroom management has led to inconsistencies with components of classroom management, one being student misbehavior management (Emmer & Stough, 2001). The taxing event of student misbehavior management which encompasses issues of student distractibility, hyperactivity, social rejection, disobedience, and hostile aggression (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Kulinna et al., 2003) has been shown a substantial psychological toll on teachers. For example, student misbehavior has been identified as a central feature affecting teachers' job commitment (Day et al., 2007) job dissatisfaction (Liu & Meyer, 2005), stress and anxiety (Feitler & Tokar, 1982; Kuzsman & Schnall, 1987), negative job feelings (Jones, 1989; Rushton, 2000; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), and poor emotional well-being (Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2006; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Mihans, 2008; Shechtman, Levy, & Leichtentritt, 2005; Tsouloupas et al., 2009). More specifically, 64% of 5,000 American and Canadian teacher sample reported student disruptive behaviors as the most stressful events in their teaching (Kuzsman & Schnall, 1987). It is not surprising that the dreadful incident

of student misbehavior has also been linked to detrimental outcomes in teachers such as turnover intentions (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Liu & Meyer, 2005; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2009) and emotional exhaustion, the central dimension of burnout (Kalliath, O'Driscoll, Gillespie, & Bluedorn, 2000; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Taris, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2005). These findings substantiate the need to investigate student misbehavior and its associated stresses as a plausible approach for averting the detrimental outcomes of teacher turnover and burnout.

Student misbehavior and teacher turnover

Staffing problems stemming from the inability to retain teachers in schools is a phenomenon that has been troubling schools and school administrators for some time (Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2008; Goddard & Goddard, 2006; Ingersoll, 2001; Moore Johnson, 2004; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). The process of recruiting, hiring, training, and acclimatizing new teachers can be a challenging and time consuming task that can take significant time away from the current assignments of school personnel. The entire process of replacing fleeing teachers costs school districts a lot of money (Boe et al., 2008; Ondrich, Pas, & Yinger, 2008).

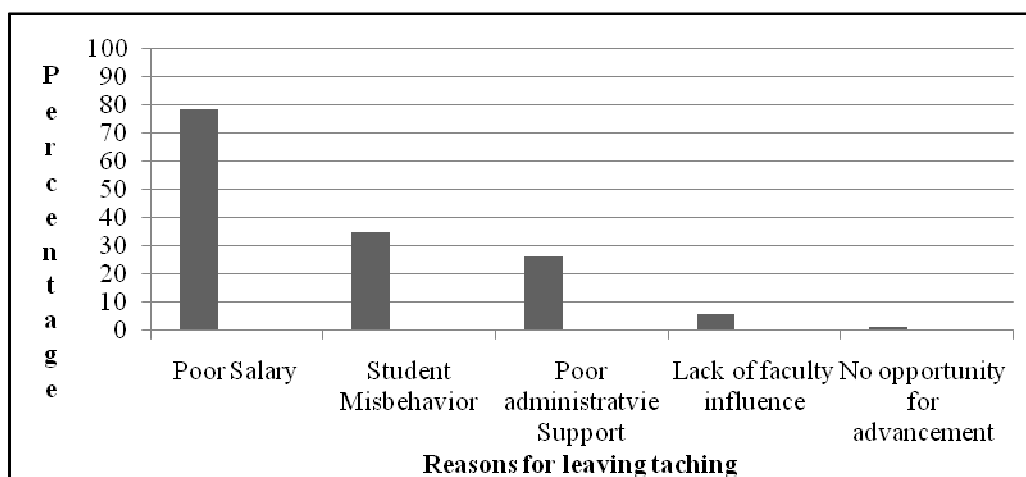
Teacher turnover is defined as a significant change in a teacher's job assignment within a school year or from one year to the next and consists of two components: attrition (i.e., teachers deciding to leave the profession entirely), and migration (i.e., teachers staying in the profession but transferring to another school) (Boe et al., 2008; Ingersoll, 2001). The most recent annual teacher turnover estimates, 16.5% in public schools and 19.5% in private schools, are considerably higher than the nationwide employee average (U.S. Department of Education, 2007). Based on the staggering estimate that teacher turnover increased by more than a third the past 15 years (Boe et al., 2008), teacher turnover in today's schools is considered to have reached epidemic proportions (Mihans, 2008). Teacher turnover has not been consistently examined in studies to identify predictors and possible pathways that lead to teacher turnover (Goddard & Goddard, 2006).

Much of the information available on teacher turnover is derived from data collected by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) using the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and its

supplement Teacher Follow-Up Survey (TFS). The NCES periodically administers the TFS one year after each SASS administration at a national-level identifying teachers' perceptions of their jobs, their intentions for migrating or leaving the teaching profession for an entirely different job, and tracking changes in teachers' status of employment from one school year to the next (Boe et al., 2008; Luekens, Lyter, & Fox, 2004). So far, NCES has secured data using TFS for 1988-1989 (Bobbitt, Faupel, Burns, 1991), 1991-92 (Bobbitt, Leich, Whitener, & Lynch, 1994), 1994-95 (Whitener et al., 1997), 2000-2001 (Luekens et al., 2004), and 2004-05 (Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizekm, & Morton, 2007).

Analyzing the SASS and TFS data from 1994-1995 Ingersoll and Smith (2003) identified that the highest rate of turnover in terms of migration and attrition is experienced by teachers in their first three years of teaching. It is worth mentioning that in the same analysis, one in every three beginning teachers was found to leave teaching because of dissatisfaction with their jobs. Furthermore, after controlling for school and teacher characteristics, these researchers showed that low salary, student misbehavior problems, and poor support from the administration were the highest contributors to turnover (See figure 1).

Figure 1. Percentage of beginning teachers who leave dissatisfied for each reason



Source National Center for Education Statistics, 1994-95 TFS

Utilizing various forms of analyses (multiple regression, multivariate analysis of variance, and hierarchical linear modeling) with the same 1994-95 data set, Liu and Meyer (2005) attempted to expand upon Ingersoll and Smith's (2003) study. Liu and Meyer examined teachers' perceptions of five central

aspects of teaching (i.e., student misbehavior problems, school climate, professional support, compensation, and work conditions) relative to turnover intentions. The analyses showed that teachers' turnover intentions based on their perceptions of student misbehavior were as strong as teachers' dissatisfaction with their salary. This finding was evident with all teachers, regardless of age and tenure. This information is extremely important since much research on teacher turnover focuses on low salaries, while downgrading the importance of other leading factors of dissatisfaction such as student misbehavior. For the same reason, researchers encourage future studies to look beyond salaries and focus on eminent environmental factors and teachers' characteristics that directly influence teachers' decisions and satisfaction with their job (Blasé, 1982; Ladd, 2007). In fact, Ladd (2007) alleged that discontent with salary is only a "deal breaker" when teachers' personal satisfaction with their school conditions is already low.

Liu and Meyer (2005) call for more research to elucidate the process by which student misbehavior problems lead to turnover. Recently, Tsouloupas and his colleagues (2009) responded to their call and found that teacher perceptions of student misbehavior significantly explained teacher turnover through emotional exhaustion. Even though Tsouloupas et al. did not control for teacher and school factors that might potentially affect teachers' student misbehavior perceptions and turnover, their finding along with findings from Ingersoll and Smith (2003) and Liu and Meyer, are critical for the direction of future research studies of student misbehavior and turnover intentions.

Student misbehavior and teacher burnout

Burnout is a global phenomenon often described as a psychological process through which teachers' effort, energy, persistence, and coping resources (e.g. competence, control) are overpowered by recurring and unfavorable work-related stressors (Blasé, 1982; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Schwarzer, Schmitz, & Tang, 2000). Maslach and Jackson's (1981) overarching definition identifies three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, Leiter, & Schaufeli, 2008). *Emotional exhaustion* refers to feelings of being emotionally drained by the intense contact with other people. *Depersonalization* refers to negative,

detached attitudes towards others. *Reduced Personal accomplishment* refers to a decline in one's sense of competence and successful achievement in working with people (Evers et al., 2002; Maslach, 1986).

Emotional exhaustion has been identified as the primary dimension of burnout (Friedman, 2000; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998; Kokkinos, Panayiotou, & Davazoglou, 2005; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Lopez Otero, Santiago, Godas, Castro, Villrdefrancos, & Ponte, 2008; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). It is largely viewed as the first sign of burnout from work (Schwab, Jackson, & Schuler, 1986), and emerges from feelings of inefficacy, incompetence, depletion of emotional resources, and hopelessness (Chan, 2007; Friedman, 2006). Compared to the other two components (i.e., depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment), emotional exhaustion has also been found to be more strongly related to adverse outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance, stress (Friedman, 2000), and employee behaviors (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

In the teacher literature, the primary source of teacher burnout has been shown to reside in the classrooms from the demanding and often strenuous interactions with students (Blasé, 1982; Friedman, 1995, 2006). In a qualitative analysis of a sample of 43 high school teachers, Blasé (1982) points out that the dynamic interactions between teachers and students are essential in understanding teachers' perceptions of their instructional, organizational, and managerial effectiveness. Furthermore, Blasé concluded that teachers identify student management and more particularly dealing with student misbehavior (e.g. apathy, poor attendance) as the primary source of stress and burnout at work. It was also revealed through Blasé's work that teachers trying to cope with stress were gradually losing their interest in students, and experienced feelings of emotional drainage, exhaustion, and frustration.

For the last three to four decades, research focusing on student misbehavior in the classroom and teachers' perceptions of student misbehavior has consistently confirmed Blasé's findings. Student misconduct has been repeatedly identified as the most prevalent source of stress and feelings of burnout (Betoret, 2006; Burke, Greenglass & Schwarzer, 1996; Byrne, 1991; Evers et al., 2004; Friedman, 1995; Hastings & Bham, 2003; Hock, 1988; Kokkinos, 2007; Lamude, Scudder & Furno-Lamude, 1992; Tsouloupas et al., 2009).

More specifically, minor and repetitive student behaviors such as class disruption (e.g. being loud/talking out of turn, get up without permission, making noise) disrespect of the teacher and other classmates (e.g. talking back, threatening, hostile, harassing), and apathetic behavior (e.g. ignoring, avoiding) have the most prominent effect on teacher burnout (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Friedman, 1995, 2006; Hastings & Bham, 2003; Kulinna et al., 2006; Lopez Otero et al., 2008). The frequent occurrence of such student behaviors impedes from the teaching process (Doyle, 1986). Teachers are often forced to interrupt the lesson to confront and reprimand disruptive student(s), bring order back in to the class, and try to recompose and continue teaching (Putnam, Luiselli, Handler, & Jefferson, 2003). This vicious cycle can be very wearing and lead to burnout. Therefore, teacher-student interactions in the classroom and teachers' perceptions of student misbehavior should not be overlooked when studying teacher burnout (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Chan, 2007).

In addition, several studies suggest that a reciprocal relationship also exists between burnout and student misbehavior (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Egyed & Short, 2006; Evers et al., 2004; Kokkinos et al., 2005; Soodak & Podell, 1993). That is, high burnout teachers who have depleted their personal resources are more likely to handle student misbehavior ineffectively (Evers et al., 2004). Some tactics high burnout teachers have been shown to employ more often are referring students for special education placement testing, seeking outside help, or removing a student from their class. The notion behind the reciprocal relationship is that besides student misbehavior as a predictor of burnout, high burnout teachers tend to have low tolerance for student misbehavior and that high levels of burnout adversely affect teachers' perceptions of the occurrence and seriousness of student misbehavior (Kokkinos, 2007).

Future considerations for studying teacher burnout and student misbehavior

First, when exploring the relationship between job stressors (e.g. student misbehavior) and burnout, it is important to realize the important relationship between turnover and burnout. Leaving/wanting to move to a different school setting or a different job outside teaching (i.e., turnover) is considered a defensive mechanism of coping with job dissatisfaction (Maslach & Leiter 1997), feelings of burnout (Lee & Ashforth, 1990; Goddard & Goddard, 2006) and more specifically, emotional exhaustion

(Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Deciding to make such a significant move can be impeded by several factors. For example, a teacher might be on the verge of leaving his/her current teaching assignment but unavailability of a new teaching post or alternative employment might prevent that teacher from leaving. Hughes (2001) makes a similar argument about teachers hesitating to leave their posts because of geographic immobility or fear of not getting a paycheck to pay debts and loans. The main assumption from the above studies is that teachers who develop high levels of burnout may have a strong desire to leave their current job post but for a number of other reasons may choose to stay where they are (Cooley & Yovanoff, 1996). Consequently, high burnout teachers who stay, or migrate, end up becoming cynical, detached with their environment, and experience a decrease in their performance (Burke & Greenglass, 1995, 1996). The conceptualization of attrition and migration as two behavioral outcomes of teacher burnout is supported by a number of researchers in the literature (Friedman, 1995; Gaziel, 1995; Goddard & Goddard, 2006; Tsouloupas et al., 2009). Therefore it is critical when studying job stressors and manifestation of burnout to also consider turnover intentions.

A second consideration when studying burnout is that much of the prolific empirical research available on burnout the past three decades has been generated by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson, 1986). MBI is a widely accepted standardized measure with good psychometric properties (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003) measuring the three dimensions of burnout. In their article “Burnout: Overview of 25 years of research and theorizing,” Schaufeli and Buunk (2003) identify the primary dimension of burnout, emotional exhaustion, as “the most robust scale of the MBI that is strongly related to other burnout measures” (p. 391). The same authors also attest to the stability of burnout scores over time, informing researchers interested in studying burnout and its related components that “correlations across six-month interval are similar to those across a two-year period or even five year interval” (p. 392). It is worth mentioning that among a range of professions in the U.S., teachers have scored the highest on burnout, and more specifically emotional exhaustion (Friedman, 2006). Not surprisingly, voluminous attention has been given to teacher burnout over the years which lent support to

a specific version of the MBI more specifically constructed for teachers (MBI-Education Survey; Maslach, Jackson, & Schwab, 1996).

Thirdly, it is well documented that there is an absence of theory-driven, well designed studies on teacher burnout (Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998). Various interpersonal, intrapersonal, and organizational theoretical approaches for studying burnout have been presented (Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). However, only the Person-Environment (P-E) fit model will be briefly overviewed below because it is believed to be of most relevance to this review.

The P-E fit model is considered a transactional model of stress, where the relationship between stress and stress response (i.e., strain) is influenced by personal characteristics (e.g. perceived abilities, personality). Using an organizational approach, the P-E model implies that the way a person perceives and evaluates his/her environment will determine how well that person adjusts and interacts in that environment (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). It is insinuated that a “successful transaction” will occur when a person’s perceptions are in close agreement with the reality and demands in the environment (Hughes, 2001). In other words, there will be a good fit between the person and the environment and the person will be less likely to experience stress. On the other hand, if there is a significant gap between a person’s perceptions and the actual demands and burdens of the environment, then it will result in stress and dysfunctional behaviors or outcomes (Hughes, 2001).

It is argued that the manifestation of burnout stems from a substantial disparity between a person’s desired expectations in their performance, and the disenchanting reality at work (Friedman, 2000; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). It has been well documented that stressing events at work are key factors in the manifestation of burnout (Betoret, 2006, Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Goddard & Goddard, 2006). Consequently, studying teacher perceptions of student misbehavior and teacher burnout through the P-E fit model considers the teacher as a proactive agent actively perceiving and interpreting the environment (Maslach, 2003; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996; Maslach et al., 2001). Furthermore, the P-E theoretical approach allows for designing theoretically sound, multilevel, multivariate studies assessing teachers’ personal characteristics and school/environmental factors that potentially influence the

perceived student misbehavior and teacher burnout relationship. This type of organizational approach gives way for identifying potential factors influencing teachers' burnout based on specific work events that can be addressed, adjusted, or improved through interventions to create a better fit between the teachers' perceptions and reactions to their immediate work environment (Chan, 2007).

Conclusion

The controversial evidence caused by classroom management operationalizations has troubled research on student misbehavior management (Emmer & Stough, 2001). It is essential when studying student misbehavior, that future researchers use measures and methods that isolate this variable from the general concept of classroom management.

Student misbehavior has been consistently found to be a troublesome variable that hinders teachers' effectiveness relative to: student learning (Rushton, 2000), teachers' confidence (Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999), and job commitment (Day et al., 2007). The psychological toll on teachers dealing with such a taxing event can be wearisome and has been linked to detrimental outcomes in teachers such as turnover intentions (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Tsouloupas et al., 2009), burnout, and emotional exhaustion, the central dimension of burnout (Kalliath et al., 2000; Taris et al., 2005). These findings substantiate the need to investigate student misbehavior and its associated stresses as a plausible approach for averting the detrimental outcomes of teacher turnover and burnout.

Guglielmi and Tatrow (1998) and Schaufeli and Buunk, (2003) indicated that the atheoretical basis when studying burnout relationships is a significant weakness and caution researchers to shift to theory-driven studies utilizing causal models in a multilevel context. The Person-Environment fit model is considered a transactional model of stress, where the relationship between stress and stress response is influenced by personal characteristics. The P-E theoretical approach allows for designing theoretically sound, multilevel, multivariate studies assessing teachers' personal characteristics and school/environmental factors that potentially influence the perceived student misbehavior and teacher burnout relationship.

Researchers drawing from Bandura's (1997) Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) suggest that self-efficacy is a strong candidate in explaining the potential mismatch between the individual's appraisals and perceived abilities to successfully manage or overcome environmental stressors without becoming stressed or burned out (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Cherniss, 1993; Evers et al., 2002; Friedman, 2000, 2003, 2006; Grau, Salanova & Peirò, 2001; Tsouloupas et al., 2009). Similarly to the P-E fit model, SCT postulates the degree to which individuals perceive and evaluate their behavior, depends on how they modify personal and environmental factors, which, in turn leads to the adjustment and modification of future behavior. The fundamental principle in SCT and P-E is that learning is derived from "within" each person. However, SCT extends in an important way by considering processes (e.g. self-regulation, self-reflection) beyond P-E factors. These processes help explain the potential mismatch between the person and the environment and how individuals' attempts to modify their behavior decrease or amplify the P-E mismatch (Bandura, 1986, 2003, 2006; Koth, Bradshaw, & Leaf, 2008, Pajares, 2002).

Consequently, it cannot be emphasized enough that personal agency is a key concept in SCT. That is, human functioning is primarily regulated by personal factors such as individuals' goals, desires, perceived self-efficacy, and other self-regulated mechanisms (Henson Kogan, & Vacha-Haase, 2001; Schunk & Meece, 2006).

Self-Efficacy

Among all self-regulative mechanisms that control and modify human behavior, self-efficacy beliefs are at the very heart of SCT (Bandura, 1997; Henson et al., 2001; Pajares 1996, 2002). *Self-efficacy* can be defined as the beliefs an individual holds about his/her abilities in carrying out successfully a specific task requiring specific knowledge and cognition (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy differs from other broad personality constructs of self such as self-esteem, self-worth, and self-concept because of the specificity implied in the self-efficacy construct (Charalambous, Philippou, & Kyriakides, 2008; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Also, expectancy outcomes are believed to result from self-efficacy beliefs and for that reason it is emphasized that outcome expectations are unlikely to contribute in predicting behavior (Bandura, 1997, 2006, Pajares, 1996).

Self-efficacy as a construct has stimulated a considerable body of research across organizational, athletic, and educational settings exploring mostly emotional and behavioral problems such as stress, anxiety, depression, alcohol, and drug abuse (Bandura, 1997, 2007; Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). Self-efficacy has been utilized in studying “psychological phenomena” that involve “behavioral choices and regulation of effort in activities that can have adverse effects” (Bandura, 1977, p. 204). In teaching, one stressful psychological phenomenon is burnout. Burnout is primarily a psychological feeling that contrasts feelings of control and self-regulation found in self-efficacy (Friedman, 2000, 2006; Schwab et al., 1986). Reinforcing this line of thinking, Friedman (2006) states that “burnout is a crisis of one’s perceptions of self-efficacy” (p.928) resulting from the discrepancy between the desired and observed levels of self-efficacy. Therefore, researchers suggest self-efficacy as a plausible approach for studying teachers’ highest and most prevalent source of burnout and emotional exhaustion, their everyday dealings with student classroom behavior (Chan, 2006; Evers et al., 2004; Friedman, 2000, 2006; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Tsouloupas et al., 2009).

The rationale for considering self-efficacy beliefs is that the strong evaluative nature of self-efficacy beliefs influences individuals’ decisions on how much time and effort they will spend on a specific task, and for how long they will persist when dealing with adverse situations (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1992, 1996; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Bandura (1997) asserts that individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to take on challenging tasks, showing more persistence to persevere and eventually succeed. Individuals with low self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to become tensed, stressed, and disinterested with the task faster than their more efficacious counterparts (Bandura, 1997; Evers et al., 2002). Consequently, self-efficacy is viewed as a powerful predictor of behavior that depicts a person’s beliefs or perceptions about his/her abilities in participating and completing a specific task (Bandura, 1997, 2006; Bong, 2006; Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Henson et al., 2001; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Zimmerman & Cleary, 2006).

Teacher Efficacy

In the educational setting, perceived *teacher efficacy* has been conceptualized as teachers' general beliefs about their ability to maximize instruction and promote student learning. As a broad belief, teacher efficacy is comprised of teachers' self-perceptions of various managerial (e.g. student behavior management, rules, routines), organizational (e.g. lesson plan preparation), and instructional (e.g. using technology) skills (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Campbell, 1996). Teacher efficacy has been shown to be related to student involvement/learning, student achievement and motivation (Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2004; Ross, 1998; Wheatley, 2005), and increasing student self-efficacy (Schunk & Miller, 2002). Consequently, for the past three decades, teacher efficacy has been consistently identified as an important feature in teachers' competence and effectiveness to promote student learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996; Shaughnessy, 2004; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Yeo, Ang, Chong, Huan, & Quek, 2008).

Teacher efficacy is also found to be an important factor in teacher well being and job satisfaction. In no particular order, some of the most researched variables found to relate to teacher efficacy are: teacher job commitment (Coladarci, 1992; Day et al., 2007; Evans & Tribble, 1986; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007), teacher turnover intentions (Tsouloupas et al., 2009), teacher burnout (Chan, 2007; Friedman, 2003; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tsouloupas et al., 2009), and student behavior management and referrals (Arbuckle, & Little, 2004; Egyed & Short, 2006; Forthun, & McCombie, 2007; Shernoff Steele, & Kratochwill, 2007; Slider, Noell, & Williams, 2006; Soodak & Podell, 1993; Talmor, Reiter, & Feigin, 2005). The overarching notion is that high efficacy teachers are more successful, enjoy better relations with their students, colleagues, and administration, and are more likely to sustain a positive attitude through adverse situations without compromising their well-being than low efficacy teachers (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Gordon & Debus, 2002; Schunk, 1990).

Measuring Issues with Teacher Efficacy

Despite the abounding results stemming from research on teacher efficacy, in their rigorous review, Tschannen-Moran and her associates (1998) purported that teacher efficacy has been plagued with a level of obscurity for two main issues.

The first issue involves the use of Gibson and Dembo's (1984) two-factor instrument, the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES), to measure teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as described by Bandura (1977). The two TES factors are: (1) *personal teaching efficacy* (PTE; teachers' perceptions and evaluation of their own personal ability to influence student learning and overcoming teaching issues) and (2) *general teaching efficacy* (GTE; external factors such as socioeconomic factors, family background, substance abuse and hostile environment, student achievement and special needs hindering teachers' beliefs in their abilities to influence their students) (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Yeo et al., 2008).

For more than a decade, research on teacher efficacy flourished with TES being considered as the best teacher efficacy instrument and enjoying a profuse attention and usage. Despite the success of the TES, researchers were not convinced of Gibson and Dembo's postulations that the two TES factors reflected Bandura's self-efficacy since the TES was developed based on formulations indoctrinating Rotter's (1966) social learning theory and expectancies of internal and external locus of control (see Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, & Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Gibson and Dembo's TES has been rigorously challenged because it does not reflect Bandura's self-efficacy and weak evidence has been shown for the construct validity for the PTE and GTE factors (Guskey & Passaro, 1994; Denzine, Cooney, & McKenzie, 2005; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Therefore, the prosperous research in the area of teacher efficacy utilizing the TES should be used with caution.

A similar issue related to teacher efficacy research has been the use of broad measures of efficacy to study domain-specific forms of self-efficacy. According to Bandura's SCT theory and self-efficacy, scales measuring teacher efficacy should use items for a specific context regarding a specific behavior. It is argued that the greater the specificity of the items, the better the prediction of behavior (Bandura, 2006; Bong, 2006; Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Emmer & Hickman, 2001; Henson et al., 2001; Pajares, 1996).

In an effort to clear of what has become a muddled construct, the past decade has been an era of reconstruction relative to what teacher efficacy is and how it should be measured. Leading researchers in the area have scrutinized the quality of research and methodology on teacher efficacy and provided specific guidelines for using appropriate methodologies and measures to study this construct (c.f.

Bandura, 2006; Pajares, 1996; Pajares & Schunk 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy 2001; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). When studying teacher efficacy beliefs, researchers need to be aware that teacher efficacy is comprised of self-perceptions about numerous skills, tasks, and responsibilities (Bandura, 2006; Campbell, 1996). It is also expected based on theory that efficacy beliefs are self-referent and situation-specific, and thus warrants the assessment of teacher efficacy of specific tasks (Cherniss, 1993, Campbell, 1996). In other words, if researchers are interested in understanding teachers' self-efficacy in specific job-related situations, they should utilize measures that specifically assess teachers' self-efficacy in this specific job-related situation (Pajares & Schunk 2001; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Classroom management teacher efficacy

Teachers' efficacy beliefs are viewed as important factors in teaching practices and effective classroom management (Borko & Putnam, 1996). Studies on teacher effectiveness indicate that teachers' perceptions, attitudes and beliefs directly influence their decision-making and actual behavior in the classroom (Pajares, 1992). Research suggests that highly efficacious teachers use a variety of methods, strategies, and resources to monitor and manage their classes. Teachers who believe in their abilities to effectively teach and deal with classroom issues are more motivated and persistent in managing their students when compared to low efficacious teachers who tend to lower their efforts and give up easily (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Teachers with weak efficacy beliefs are more likely to utilize poor teaching strategies and ineffective response styles (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005), and are more likely to experience negative emotions such as stress, anger, frustration, embarrassment, or guilt (Friedman, 2003; Pajares, 1992; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Shechtman et al., 2005). Several researchers have investigated the relationship between teachers' efficacy to manage their class and teacher burnout (Betoret, 2006; Brouwers, Evers & Tomic, 2001; Cherniss 1993). Some findings suggest that teachers' efficacy beliefs to manage their class may mediate the impact of teacher stressors on mental health outcomes (Betoret, 2006; Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Evers et al., 2002; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008).

Recently, research on classroom management has mainly focused on student disciplinary issues arguing that disruptive student behavior have a significant impact on teachers' perceptions about their abilities to teach (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Henson et al., 2001; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Shechtman et al., 2005; Tucker et al, 2005). Research has shown that teachers with high perceptions of their teaching ability have fewer disruptive students in their classes than teachers with low perceptions of their teaching ability (Kaplan, 1996; Kokkinos, 2007). Also, high efficacious teachers are more likely to believe their disruptive students' behavior will diminish rather than continue, whereas low efficacious teachers are more apt to respond to student misbehavior with anger and will utilize more negative consequences and severe punishments (Almog & Shechtman, 2007).

Teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior

Many studies have utilized general teacher efficacy scales for classroom management to make claims about teachers' efficacy in handling student misbehavior without really measuring these specific beliefs (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Tsouloupas et al., 2009). Brouwers and Tomic (2001) explained that measuring teacher general classroom management beliefs can be problematic since perceptions of self-efficacy may differ from one specific task to another. For example, a teacher may perceive him or herself as highly capable classroom manager in regards to writing effective lessons plans, but the same teacher might feel he/she is unable to effectively handle disruptive students. Therefore, researchers attempting to investigate this situation-specific form of classroom management teacher efficacy should utilize the appropriate instruments to measure this construct (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Emmer & Hickman, 1991).

Emmer and Hickman (1991) constructed and validated a scale measuring teachers' perceived classroom management/discipline self-efficacy arguing that this specific efficacy is distinct from other measures of teacher efficacy and should be assessed separately. Tsouloupas and associates (2009) termed this specific type of teacher efficacy as teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior (TEHSM). TEHSM is the extent to which the teacher believes in his or her capabilities to handle student misbehavior such as student distractibility, hyperactivity, social rejection, disobedience and hostile aggression. A

recent cross-sectional study using self report data and SEM analyses showed that TEHSM significantly and negatively mediated the relationship between teachers' perception of student misbehavior and the burnout dimension of emotional exhaustion (Tsouloupas et al., 2009).

More systematic research is warranted to see how TEHSM influences and potentially mediates this relationship by incorporating qualitative and quantitative methods. It may also be helpful to consider personal (e.g. personality, years of experience) and environmental/demographic (teacher empowerment, support from colleagues and principals) factors influencing teachers' perceived efficacy in handling student misbehavior and how it relates to job involvement (positive pole of burnout), emotional exhaustion, and turnover since the P-E fit model addresses the importance of considering personal and environmental factors. Furthermore, it might be worthwhile for future researchers to understand the relationship between TEHSM and emotional exhaustion regarding real acts of student misbehavior (e.g., frequency, severity, type). That is, TEHSM-burnout relationship may help explain how accurately teachers view the frequency, severity, and type of actual student misbehavior, and the effort they put into handling misbehavior.

Conclusion

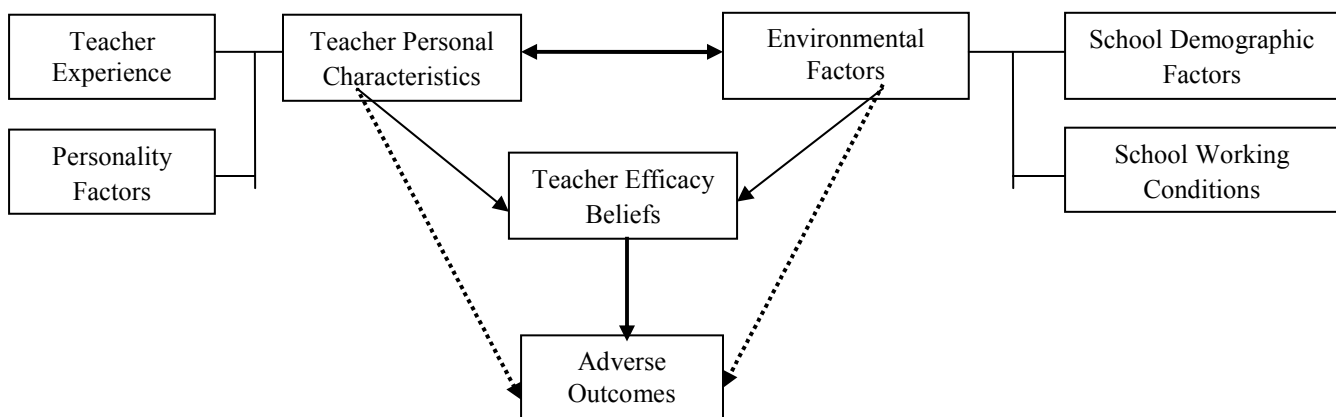
It is suggested in this review that the theoretical underpinnings from Bandura's (1997) construct of self-efficacy can extend on the P-E model in explaining the potential mismatch between the individual's appraisals and perceived abilities to successfully manage or overcome student misbehavior (environmental stressor) without becoming stressed or burned out (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Cherniss, 1993; Evers et al., 2002; Friedman, 2006). The rationale is that self-efficacy is viewed as a powerful predictor of behavior that depicts a person's beliefs or perceptions about his/her abilities in participating and completing a specific task (Bandura, 1997, 2006; Bong, 2006).

Guidelines for using appropriate methodologies and measures urge for more specialized measures and types of teacher efficacy to assess more accurately desired behaviors (c.f. Bandura, 2006; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Therefore, it proposed through this review to consider TEHSM as a specific form of teacher efficacy viewed as the extent to which the teacher believes in his or her capabilities to handle

student misbehavior (Tsouloupas et al., 2009). Exploring TEHSM is vital considering that teachers' efficacy beliefs may vary depending on the task or situation. Also, student misbehavior being recognized in the literature as a major teacher job stressor signifies the importance of focusing on a specific construct such as TEHSM and investigating how personal characteristics and environmental factors influence these specific teacher efficacy beliefs.

In the current literature review, student misbehavior and more precisely teacher perceptions of student misbehavior has been identified as a significant teacher job stressor. The taxing event of teachers having to deal with misbehaving students has been linked with detrimental outcomes such as teacher burnout and turnover. Furthermore, it is advanced in this review that when exploring the relationship between student misbehavior and adverse outcomes to consider the P-E fit; that is whether the match or mismatch between teachers' personal characteristics in the environment in which they teach influence their efficacy to handle student misbehavior. As previously noted, teacher efficacy is identified as a human agentic process helping to explain the job stressor-outcome relationship. Based on these grounds, (a) teacher personal characteristics and (b) environmental factors warrant further investigation in relation to teachers' efficacy beliefs, burnout, and turnover intentions (figure 2).

Figure 2. Conceptual map for studying teacher characteristics and environmental factors



Teacher Personal Characteristics

Recently, researchers have been shifting their attention to the identification of specific teacher characteristics that might help explain teachers' perceptions about their job assignments, how they interact within their surroundings, and whether certain personal characteristics are more related to unfavorable teaching experiences and adverse work outcomes (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2007; Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Friedman, 2000; Goddard, Patton, & Creed, 2004; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005; Kokkinos, 2007; Larsen, 2000; Onafowora, 2004; Poulou, 2005; Teven, 2007; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). In terms of teacher personal characteristics, two main topics have dominated researchers' interest, namely teaching experience (Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Onafowora, 2004; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005) and personality factors (Goddard et al., 2004; Kokkinos, 2007; Larsen 2000). These two topics will be further explored in the current review in relation to the prominent occupational stressor of student misbehavior and the adverse outcomes of burnout, and turnover intentions. Further teacher demographic and personality characteristics that worth mention will be discussed.

Teaching experience

Teaching is one of the few professions that assign the same duties and tasks to novice and experienced practitioners (Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Mihans, 2008). One line of research inquiry has focused on teacher competence by comparing the responses and actions of experienced teachers with those from novice teachers. In this work, experienced teachers are usually identified as seasoned teachers who have been teaching full-time for more than 10 years and had opportunities to develop their professional skills through continuing training and practice (Campbell, 1996; Egyed & Short, 2006). Conversely, novice teachers are usually described as the newcomers in the profession, aged 30 or under, who have less than five years of full time teaching, and therefore limited opportunities to fully develop their professional skills (Luekens et al., 2004; Schaufeli, & Buunk, 2003).

Until fairly recently, it was falsely assumed that novice teachers are confident, fully equipped, and ready to teach (Feiman-Nemser, 2003). Current research recognizes that novice teachers are significantly challenged by their new jobs, and thus, often feel less secure with their knowledge about

classroom management (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Emmer & Stough, 2001). There is a consensus among studies that classroom management is a fundamental component that expert teachers possess and use efficiently (Blasé, 1982; Carter, Cushing, Sabers, Stein, & Berliner, 1988; Livingston & Borko, 1989). Research shows that new teachers, in contrast to experienced teachers, do not have sufficient competence and confidence to digress from their highly structured lesson plans (Friedman, 2000) or use effective classroom routines and activities to carry out their lesson plans. Together, novice teachers are more susceptible to lessons with off-task student behavior and disruptions (Livingston & Borko, 1989; Westerman, 1991).

Although misbehavior issues are present in both experienced and inexperienced teachers, new teachers are found to struggle more (Day et al., 2007; Evans & Dribble, 1986). Researchers suggest that inexperienced teachers lack the confidence, self-efficacy, and resources necessary for successfully dealing with student misbehavior problems (De la Torre Cruz & Arias 2007; Egyed & Short, 2006; Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Liu & Meyer, 2005; Onafowora, 2004; Poulou, 2005; Wilson & Tan 2004; Yeo et al., 2008). This argument is supported by numerous studies showing that teachers' breadth of experience is positively correlated with teachers' personal efficacy beliefs (Coladarci & Breton, 1997; Egyed & Short, 2006; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Lin, Gorrell, & Taylor, 2002; Onafowora, 2004; Rushton, 2000).

To elaborate, Egyed and Short (2006) suggest that the extent of teachers' experience and teachers' ability to handle misbehaving students were the main teacher characteristics influencing teachers' decisions to refer students for services outside the class. Particularly, Egyed and Short argued that more experienced teachers had higher beliefs in their abilities to control their class and were better equipped in managing their students' challenging behaviors. On the other hand, studies focusing on novice teachers have indicated that novice teachers often feel devastated from dealing with student misbehavior and defiant students (Onafowora, 2004; Rushton, 2000). Particularly, Onafowora (2004) and Rushton's (2000) interviews revealed that novice teachers' lack of efficacy to handle misbehaving students led them to doubt their effectiveness as teachers. Rushton calls for more research on novice teachers' efficacy beliefs regarding classroom management issues and student misbehavior.

Teaching experience and teacher burnout

Goddard, O'Brien, and Goddard (2006) identified a big gap in novice teacher burnout research. Research has predominantly focused on more seasoned teachers under the assumption that burnout developed at later stages in one's career. Researchers also acknowledge that limited evidence is available in this area in relation to teacher efficacy (Byrne, 1999; Chan, 2007; Gold, 1987). More specifically, research examining the relationship between teaching experience and efficacy in handling student misbehavior as predictors of burnout is relatively nonexistent, and thus warrants further exploration (Kokkinos et al., 2005; Schwarzer et al., 2000; Tsouloupas et al., 2009).

Teaching experience and teacher turnover

In terms of teacher turnover intentions and teacher experience, studies have confirmed that as many as 50% of teachers leave the profession within the first five years of teaching (Boe et al., 2008, Liu & Meyer, 2005). It is also been reported that the relationship between years of experience and teacher turnover follows a U-shaped pattern, with higher rates of turnover at the beginning and end of one's career (Boe et al., 2008; Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006; Liu & Meyer, 2005; Marvel et al., 2007). Despite this evidence, there is dearth of studies that have focused on the specific job stressors that might contribute to novice teachers' attrition (Friedman 2000; Goddard & Goddard, 2006). Similarly, Tsouloupas et al. (2009) point out that a void in the literature has been the effect that teaching experience and teachers' efficacy beliefs in handling student misbehavior have on the development of teachers' thoughts of turnover. Hence, there is a need to understand teachers' perceptions and abilities of specific aspects of teaching and how these perceptions and abilities are influenced by their teaching experiences (Feiman-Nemser 2003; Feiman-Nemser, Carver, Katz, & Schwille, 1999). The value of concentrating on the early experiences of teachers and their perceptions of their abilities on specific tasks is grounded under the assumption that teachers' efficacy beliefs are malleable during the early years of teaching and can change by challenging unfit thoughts through training, practice, and experience (Bandura, 1997; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005).

Other teacher personal characteristics related to burnout and turnover

Additional teacher personal demographic variables worthy of discussion are sex, level of education, marital status, and teaching assignment. It has been suggested that burnout (Cano-Garcia, Padilla-Munoz, & Carrasco-Ortiz, 2005; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003; Schwab et al., 1986) and turnover (Marvel et al., 2007; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004) are not dependent on teacher sex. In terms of *marital status*, some studies suggest that being married does not significantly relate to burnout (Cano-Garcia et al., 2005; Schwab et al., 1986), whereas Maslach and Jackson (1981) found that individuals who were single or divorced were more likely to experience the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout. Also, teachers with *higher education level* and *academic ability* are more likely to experience burnout (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003; Schwab et al., 1986) and turnover (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2005; Guarino et al. 2006; Ondrich et al., 2008). Findings on *teaching assignment* suggest that teachers of certain subjects, especially math and science, are more likely to leave the teaching profession (Guarino et al. 2006; Moore Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Ondrich et al., 2008; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

In summary, research indicates that teacher characteristics such as teacher education level, teacher academic ability, and teaching assignment are important characteristics to consider when studying burnout and turnover intentions. In teachers, sex differences have not yet been shown to play a significant role in levels of burnout and intentions of turnover. Findings on marital status are unclear, but tend to suggest that it should be considered when studying teachers and their emotional exhaustion.

Personality factors

The Big Five factor model is one of the most extensive and widely accepted conceptualizations of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992; John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). The Big Five model includes five traits of adult personality: agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness. The main proposition is that differences in any one of these personality traits influence the way people interact with their environment (John et al., 2008; Magnus, Diener, Fujita & Pavot, 1993).

Researchers laying the groundwork for studying personality in work settings allege that workers with certain personality are attracted to certain careers (Barsade & Gibson 1998, 2007; George 1995; Pines, 2002). It has been theorized that the similarity between personality characteristics and career reside

in the process of attraction, selection, and attrition (ASA model; see George 1990; Latham & Pinder, 2005; Schneider, 1987). Researchers also purport that personality characteristics help explain why individuals with comparable educational backgrounds who work under the same conditions might react differently to similar job stressors (Chan & Hui, 1995, Farber, 1991; McCroskey, Valencic, & Richmond, 2004). Consequently, in relation to teaching experience and attrition, it is of interest to investigate personality characteristics between experienced and novice professionals in the same career. Based on the ASA stipulations, significant personality differences between the two groups may help explain what personality factors are associated with burnout and turnover thus explaining the assumed personality homogeneity among workers in similar professions (George 1990; Schneider, 1987).

Personality factors can also influence a person's efficacy beliefs, level of attention, actions, and affect towards a specific event such as student misbehavior in the classroom (Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999; Larsen, 2000). Therefore, teachers' personality is one important source to consider when studying personal differences among teachers and their perceptions towards a potentially taxing work event (Kokkinos, 2007; Kokkinos et al., 2005). The affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano 1996), an eminent framework conceived by) emphasize the centrality of personality in explaining how work events influence work related feelings affective reactions and behaviors. The AET posits that certain personality factors may predispose teachers how they handle specific stressful environmental events (e.g. student misbehavior) that over time can influence teachers' emotional state (e.g. emotional exhaustion) and overall feelings about their work (Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002; Paterson, & Cary, 2002). Similarly to AET, certain stable personality factors have been shown to influence how individuals approach or deal with unpleasant events, which can affect a person's well being (Larsen, 2000) and lead to adverse outcomes such as burnout (Cano-Garcia et al., 2005; Goddard et al., 2006; Goddard et al., 2004; Kokkinos, 2007; Lopez Otero et al., 2008; Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli, & Buunk, 2003; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Teven 2007) and turnover (Ondrich et al., 2008).

Personality factors and burnout

Neuroticism and extraversion are two of the big five personality traits thought to be positively associated with assessing burnout and well being respectively (Cano-Garcia et al., 2005; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Kokkinos, 2007; Larsen, 2000; Maslach et al., 2001). *Neuroticism* is defined as an enduring tendency to experience negative feelings such as fear, disgust, depression, and/or anxiety. In their rigorous review of 250 studies on burnout, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) reported that neuroticism was one of the strongest personality correlates of burnout, and more specifically emotional exhaustion. Similarly, in an overview of 25 years of research on burnout, Schaufeli and Buunk (2003) also identified neuroticism as the most prominent personality characteristic of burnout, explaining nearly 42% of the variance. Goddard and colleagues (2004, 2006) demonstrated that neuroticism significantly contributed to explanation of emotional exhaustion.

Extraversion, on the other hand, defined as the tendency for a person to be accommodating, cooperative, and responsive to other stimuli, has been shown to relate to positive feelings, sociability, optimism, happiness, and less burnout (Kokkinos, 2007; Magnus et al., 1993). Extraversion has received attention in the literature but there is less interest in this personality trait in terms of burnout showing low variance in explaining this particular work related adverse outcome.

Personality factors and turnover

Despite the extant organizational behavioral research studying personality in work settings and the propositions of the ASA framework, educational researchers have yet to consider the role that personality plays in the attraction, selection and attrition of teachers. Therefore, another avenue of future research is the examination of teacher personality characteristics in relation to turnover intentions.

Other personality factors related to burnout and turnover

To date, additional personality variables have only been investigated in relation to teacher burnout, not turnover intentions. Teven's (2007) investigation showed that *teacher caring personality* is negatively associated with all burnout dimensions and neuroticism, while positively associated to extraversion. On the other hand, Schaufeli and Buunk (2003) identified that *helping type personality* and *empathetic personality* (similar factors of a caring personality) have small correlations with teacher

burnout. *Lack of hardiness*, defined as not having sense of control, openness to change, and involvement in daily activities, has been shown to be an important personality characteristic to burnout generally (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998) and more specifically the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout (Lopez Otero et al., 2008; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Finally, *Type A personality* individuals described as being impatient, very competitive, and tense are found to be prone to burnout feelings to a lesser degree than neuroticism and extraversion (Lopez Otero et al., 2008).

In summary, caring, empathy, helping type, and type A are personality factors that help explain burnout to some extent, but not nearly to the same degree as neuroticism and extraversion. Conversely, hardiness is an important personality factor to consider when studying the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout and thus caution is warranted when using hardiness to study the other dimensions of burnout. It is important to note that personality factors have not been explored in relation to teacher turnover.

Environmental Factors

The needs of teachers entering the field are different to those entering the field today. Half a century ago, teachers who entered the profession were committed to staying long-term, enjoyed their private teaching practices, worked independently, and were practically isolated from their fellow teachers (Moore Johnson, 2004). However, current generations of teachers now enter the field with short-term commitment. Their decision to stay relies heavily on whether they experience satisfaction with their job, whether they collaborate with their colleagues and administrators about class and school matters, and whether opportunities are available for professional advancement and growth (Moore Johnson, 2004). It has been argued, that “classes are no longer viewed as enclosed bubbles isolated from their surroundings” (Friedman, 2006, p. 931) and the P-E fit model embraces this conception by suggesting that environmental factors embedded in one’s work setting play a significant role in influencing one’s efficacy beliefs and well-being (Brown, Anfara, & Roney, 2004; Lopez Otero et al., 2008). Therefore, besides teacher personal characteristics, acknowledging the importance of school working conditions and school demographic factors is crucial.

School working conditions

For the last two decades or so, there has been a movement in the teaching education literature to increase teachers' sense of control in their environment (Edwards, Green, & Lyons, 2002). This line of research and theorizing, termed as *teacher empowerment* conveys that teachers who have (a) psychological and (b) political power are more likely to feel more efficacious in their teaching abilities, and more committed and engaged in their working environment (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Cherniss, 1997; Day et al., 2007; Grawitch, Tares, & Kohler, 2007; Shechtman et al., 2005).

Two ways have been identified to improve teachers' psychological power. One way to augment *psychological power* is through interaction, collaboration, and support from fellow colleagues (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2007; Brown et al., 2004; Day et al., 2007; Feiman-Nemser, 2003; Henninger, 2007; Moore Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Onafowora, 2004; Shaughnessy, 2004; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). A second way is through supportive relationships with administration and school principals (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2007; Day et al., 2007; Henninger, 2007; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Shechtman et al., 2005; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). Characteristically, Day et al. (2007) found that 63% of the teachers in their study emphasized the significance of supportive colleagues and 76% of the teachers stressed the importance of having support from dedicated school leaders influencing their efficacy as teachers. Not surprisingly, lack of support/negative interaction with colleagues and the administration has been associated with manifestation of burnout (Betoret, 2006; Friedman, 2000; Lewis, Romi, Qui, & Katz, 2005), emotional exhaustion (Galand, Lecop, & Philippot, 2007; Naring, Briet, & Brouwers, 2006), and teacher turnover (Day et al., 2007; Mihans, 2008; Moore Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007).

On the other hand, teachers' *political power* can boost teacher efficacy beliefs through autonomy and role clarity. Teachers' sense of autonomy can be achieved in several ways, such as assigning teachers various leadership roles (Cherniss, 1997), allowing them to participate in decisions regarding class or school matters, and offering teachers opportunities for professional development (Bogler & Somech, 2004; Cherniss, 1997; Guarino et al., 2006; Mihans, 2008; Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998; Ware &

Kitsantas, 2007). Teachers having clarity about their roles in the school is also identified as an important factor influencing teachers' commitment to their job (Goddard et al., 2006). Lack of autonomy and role clarification have been linked to lower job engagement (Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Ludtke, & Baumert, 2008a; Weiqi, 2007), higher burnout (Schwab et al., 1986; Lee & Ashforth, 1996), and turnover intentions (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Marvel et al., 2007; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003; Weiqi, 2007).

School demographic factors

Besides school working conditions, school demographic factors are also found to influence teacher burnout feelings, turnover intentions, and teacher efficacy beliefs. Common school demographic factors considered in the education literature include school level (Elementary, Middle, High School), school location (Urban, Suburban, Rural), student socioeconomic status (SES), student enrollment, and student ethnicity.

There has been an agreement among researchers that urban, high school teachers are more prone in developing feelings of burnout (Haroun & O'Hanlon, 1997), and migrating or changing professions due to job stressors (e.g. student misbehavior), poor working conditions, and the low SES in urban schools (Boe et al., 2008; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998; Ingersoll, 2002; Marvel et al., 2007; Mihans, 2008). It is also of interest to note that urban teachers decide to migrate or change professions despite urban districts usually offering higher salaries than other school districts (Ondrich et al., 2008). This finding substantiates evidence presented earlier in the paper showing that salary is a small factor contributing to teacher attrition (e.g. Blasé 1982; Moore Johnson & Birkeland, 2003). Finally, in terms of school level and location, increased student misbehavior incidents have been associated with the poor working conditions and low SES in urban, secondary schools (Day et al., 2007; Kulinna et al., 2006).

In relation to SES, significantly higher burnout and turnover rates among teachers have been observed when there is a 50% or more increase in students enrolled in free and reduced-price lunch, the maker of SES (Boe et al., 2008; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998; Marvel et al., 2007; Smith & Ingersoll,

2004). It was evident from the reviewed literature that SES has been a major factor influencing teacher efficacy, burnout and teacher turnover regardless of the school level or school location.

Furthermore, large class sizes have been associated with high teacher burnout levels (Burke & Greenglass, 1989) and low teacher efficacy beliefs (Evers et al., 2004). In terms of student enrollment, highest rates of turnover have been reported in small schools, with enrollment less than 200 students (Marvel et al., 2007). Finally, higher rate of teacher turnover has been shown at schools when 35% or more of the enrolled students are minorities (Boe et al., 2008; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998; Liu & Meyer, 2005; Marvel et al., 2007).

Findings on teacher race/ethnicity and attrition are contradicting. In a review of 46 studies on current trends of teacher retention and turnover, Guarino and her colleagues (2006) found that White teachers had higher attrition rates than minority teachers. In another study that utilized results from the 2004-05 TFS, Liu & Meyer (2005) found that minority teachers (e.g. Black-non-Hispanic, Hispanic) had higher levels of turnover when compared to White teachers. Moreover, Downey and Pribesh (2004) suggest that teachers' ethnicity is not the sole indicator of unfavorable outcomes such as teacher job dissatisfaction turnover. Downey and Pribesh suggest that low student SES and cultural/racial differences between the teachers and students lead to these unfavorable outcomes. Furthermore, the researchers postulate that student-teacher race differences leading to unfavorable outcomes such as teachers leaving their current jobs diminish when teachers' racial background is controlled.

Conclusion

Various scholars argue for the recognition of teacher personal characteristics and other personality variables in models that attempt to assess teachers' efficacy and describe the process and manifestation of teacher burnout (Cano-Garcia et al., 2005; Goddard et al., 2006; Goddard et al., 2004; Kokkinos et al., 2005; Talmor et al., 2005). Therefore, it may be beneficial to investigate how certain teacher characteristics (e.g. teacher experience, education level, teacher academic ability, teaching assignment) and personality factors (e.g. neuroticism) that have been repeatedly shown to influence burnout and turnover intentions are related to teacher efficacy beliefs of student misbehavior.

Moreover, school conditions that augment teachers' psychological and political power, such as colleague and principal support and opportunities for autonomy and professional growth are found to influence teacher efficacy beliefs. Also, school demographics reveal that the main factor that affects teacher efficacy, burnout, and turnover intentions is the student SES. Therefore, it is of utmost importance when studying teachers' efficacy beliefs within a specific task such as student misbehavior and potential development of burnout feelings and turnover intentions to also consider school conditions and demographics that may influence teachers' burnout and turnover.

Summary and Conclusions

Understanding the stresses of student misbehavior in the classroom is an important research topic in the education literature. The ramifications of student misbehavior are detrimental to student learning process and teachers' well-being (Doyle, 1986; Garrahy et al., 2005; Shechtman et al., 2005). More specifically, student misbehavior has been consistently found to be a troublesome classroom situation distracting other students from learning and hindering teachers' effectiveness to handle their students and promote student engagement and motivation (Doyle, 1986; Rushton, 2000). The psychological toll on teachers dealing with such a taxing event can be wearisome and has been linked to detrimental outcomes in teachers such as emotional exhaustion, the central dimension of burnout (Kalliath et al., 2000; Taris et al., 2005), and turnover intentions (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Tsouloupas et al., 2009). These findings substantiate the need to investigate student misbehavior and its associated stresses as a plausible approach for averting the detrimental outcomes of teacher turnover and burnout.

Teacher efficacy is one way to study teacher beliefs about their abilities to manage their class that has been shown to be associated with teacher motivation to interact with their students and confidence in their teaching skills (Ashton & Webb, 1986). A specific form of teacher efficacy, TEHSM, can help determine how teachers view student misbehavior, the effort they put when handling misbehavior, how much they persist to resolve the incidence, and whether they become emotionally drained by the confrontation with their students. More systematic research is warranted to explore the significance of

TEHSM and how it relates to emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions through sound theory and various qualitative and quantitative methods.

Drawing from Bandura's (1997) SCT and the P-E fit model, the current review showed the importance of considering the match between a person's perceptions and the actual environmental working conditions. Many scholars have suggested that future studies consider how personal (e.g. personality, years of teaching experience) and environmental (teacher empowerment, support from colleagues and principals) factors can help explain the relationship between teacher efficacy beliefs and adverse outcomes. Thus far, there is a lack of systematic examination of teacher personal characteristics and other school condition/demographic characteristics that potentially influence teachers' efficacy beliefs in models attempting to describe the process and manifestation of teacher burnout and teacher turnover (Cano-Garcia et al., 2005; Goddard et al., 2006; Goddard et al., 2004; Kokkinos et al., 2005; Talmor et al., 2005).

Personal factors influence the way people interact with their environment. For example, a teacher's personality can influence his/her efficacy beliefs, level of attention, actions, and affect towards a specific classroom situation such as student misbehavior (Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999; Larsen, 2000). Therefore, teachers' personality is one important source to consider when studying personal differences among teachers and their perceptions towards a potentially taxing work event (Kokkinos, 2007; Kokkinos et al., 2005). Due to the shortage of studies on novice teachers and identification of specific personal factors and job stressors that contribute to novice teachers' burnout and attrition, researchers have called for more studies to identify variables that may help explain novice teachers' emotional drainage and dropout (Friedman 2000; Goddard & Goddard, 2006). Furthermore, it is suggested that when studying burnout relationships to assess neuroticism. The personality factor of neuroticism has been shown to be highly correlated with burnout, particularly emotional exhaustion. Hence, there is clear need to understand the acclimatization process of novice teachers in their early years of teaching by exploring their personalities, perceptions, and abilities in specific aspects of their teaching duties and how those perceptions influence their teaching experiences (Feiman-Nemser 2003; Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999).

It is suggested from the current review that school conditions may influence teacher perceptions and efficacy in the classroom thus affecting feelings of emotional exhaustion and thoughts of turnover. Recurrent school conditions found to influence teachers' psychological (i.e., colleague and principal support) and political power (i.e., autonomy, role clarification) warrant further exploration to determine the extent to which these conditions influence teachers' specific efficacy beliefs such as TEHSM. In terms of school demographic characteristics, the SES factor has been shown to be a significant factor in relative to the frequency and intensity of student misbehavior and differences in burnout and turnover intentions among teachers. Therefore, it is of utmost importance when studying teachers' efficacy beliefs within a specific task, such as student misbehavior, to also consider school conditions and demographics that may influence teachers' feelings of burnout and turnover intentions.

Research implications

One important implication from information regarding the management of student misbehavior is to enlighten and direct teacher preparation programs about their current teacher training practices. Researchers argue that teacher education programs give much attention on teachers' instructional skills whereas research on teacher stressors and burnout indicates that instructional skills are not the root of teachers' struggle (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Friedman, 2006). Rather, there is clear evidence that the managerial aspect of teaching is the basis of teacher distress (Friedman, 2006). Moreover, the psychological torment from teachers' lack of beliefs in their abilities might make them prone to feelings of emotional exhaustion feelings (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tsouloupas et al., 2009). If teacher preparation curricula do not sufficiently cover student behavior management pedagogical knowledge beyond maybe a lesson or two, future research on this topic can help guide teacher education programs in enriching their course offerings and preparing future teachers with realistic expectations and specific tools to deal with such issues.

Drawing from sound theories, an additional implication from studying classroom/student misbehavior management is to provide teacher preparation programs with theoretical models and approaches to train teacher candidates. Theories can lay the groundwork for unity and uniformity in the

teaching methods relative to student behavior management. For example, focusing on specific teacher efficacy beliefs, researchers and educators can focus on a variety of sources of efficacy (i.e., enactive mastery experiences, positive feedback and support, mentoring and vicarious learning, and regulation of emotions) that augment teachers' beliefs in managing their classroom and handling of student misbehavior. Utilization of the P-E fit model allows researchers and teachers to view teacher efficacy beliefs from a reciprocal perspective between teacher personal factors and environmental factors. This type of theoretical approach can reinforce teachers to consider factors such as tenure, personality, empowerment, and school demographics (e.g. school level, location, SES) relative to building their teacher efficacy beliefs as it relates to student misbehavior.

Promising findings in the area of classroom/student misbehavior management can also lead teacher preparation programs and schools to require beginning teachers to meet a certain level of competency in student management skills (Emmer & Stough, 2001). Competency in management skills can be met with practical training starting early in teacher education programs or incorporated as a mandated one-year internship in addition to four-year teacher preparation that may lead to a Master's degree (Ladd, 2007; Rushton, 2000). Pre-service teachers are found to appreciate hands on opportunities in their preparation, and early exposure to practical training will help future teachers become accustomed to what takes place in a real school setting (Garrahy et al., 2005). Furthermore, it will help student-teachers identify their strengths and weaknesses and expand their scope of experience beyond what is learned in a classroom.

Studies indicate the notion that novice teachers' struggle with classroom management issues is a worldwide phenomenon (Ladd, 2007). As a result, Ladd (2007) reported more and more countries have been adopting formal induction and mentoring programs that allow teachers to acclimatize gradually to their new roles, enjoy and appreciate colleague and administrative support, learn effective classroom and student behavior management strategies, and give teachers the opportunity to grow to efficacious professionals. The ultimate goal of these structured induction and mentoring programs is to increase the

number of teachers who view teaching as a positive experience, and thus reducing the rates of burnout, teacher migration and attrition (Ladd, 2007; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Researchers have also suggested a few strategies for in-service teachers in continuing their professional development. For example, Gaziel (1995) reported that teachers on sabbatical leaves who participated in educational training programs showed improvements in their skills and overall professional development. In addition, extended leaves, and taking time off from teaching to participate in teacher training programs are also reported as promising strategies allowing teachers to focus on improving their competence on various classroom management skills such as instruction and student management (Gaziel, 1995; Ladd, 2007).

Future directions

Several points can be drawn from the current literature review in relation to the future study of teacher perceptions of student misbehavior, teacher burnout, and turnover intentions. First, the current review indicates that previous classroom management operationalizations and controversial results have troubled research on student misbehavior management (Emmer & Stough, 2001). Since student misbehavior management is only one component of classroom management, it is essential for future researchers to recognize this distinction and utilize methodology and instruments to assess student misbehavior appropriately. The need for considering and studying student misbehavior has been portrayed throughout this paper by linking student misbehavior with potentially adverse outcomes. It has been suggested that more qualitative and quantitative research (or mixed methods) is needed that focuses specifically on teachers' perception regarding managing student misbehavior (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Kokkinos, 2007).

Advancements from the extant teacher education literature suggest that Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy construct is a useful approach to study teacher beliefs and job related stressors (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Cherniss, 1993; Evers et al., 2002; Friedman, 2003, 2006; Grau et al., 2001). Therefore, a potentially fruitful framework for studying the relationships between teacher perceptions of student misbehavior, burnout, and turnover is teacher efficacy. Leading teacher efficacy researchers recommend

that future research examines teacher efficacy beliefs within specific job-related situations, by employing qualitative and quantitative methodologies (Campbell, 1996). The current review takes into consideration these recommendations by proposing that future research study teacher perceptions of student misbehavior through the TEHSM construct via methodologies and measures that specifically assess this construct. Additionally, it has been argued that there is an insufficient representation of qualitative studies measuring teacher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Given the in depth and rich perspective that can be provided from qualitative methodology, researchers are encouraged to employ methods such as observations and interviews to assess and describe teacher efficacy beliefs towards specific job related stressors (Charalambous et al., 2008; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Teacher burnout is presented as a detrimental outcome of teachers' lack of efficacy beliefs in dealing successfully with work stressors such as student misbehavior (Tsouloupas et al., 2009). Emotional exhaustion, identified as the primary dimension of burnout (Friedman, 2000; Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998; Kokkinos et al., 2005; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Lopez Otero et al., 2008; Maslach et al., 2001), is largely viewed as the first sign of burnout (Schwab et al., 1986) that emerge from feelings of inefficacy and incompetence (Chan, 2007; Friedman, 2006). Therefore, future studies can benefit from studying the burnout process through the lens of emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, contemporary researchers endorse teacher job engagement as the opposite pole of burnout and call for future studies to include this construct when studying burnout (Klusmann et al., 2008a; Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Ludtke, & Baumert, 2008b; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Therefore, a promising area for future research is to study specific teacher efficacy beliefs in relation to both burnout (negative pole) and job engagement (positive pole).

It has been shown in this review that studies lack sound theoretical frameworks to study burnout. This atheoretical basis is a significant weakness and researchers are encouraged to shift to theory-driven studies that utilize causal models in multivariate, multilevel contexts (Guglielmi & Tatrow, 1998). The current review suggests that future studies should consider the P-E fit model to explore burnout relationships. The P-E fit model is closely aligned with Banduras' (1997) SCT, and provides theoretically

coherent framework for assessing teachers' personal characteristics and school demographic/environmental factors that potentially influence teachers perceptions and beliefs of student misbehavior, burnout feelings, and turnover intentions. This is especially true with novice teachers as there is a lack of systematic study with this group of teachers (Betoret, 2006; Friedman, 2000; Goddard & Goddard, 2006; Goddard et al., 2006; Kokkinos et al., 2005).

Lastly, researchers emphasize that more methodological and inquisitive research is needed when exploring the relationship between specific job stressors, teacher efficacy, and the manifestation of burnout and turnover intentions. Several factors that have been shown to contribute in these relationships are personal factors such as teacher tenure (experienced vs. novice teachers) and personality (neuroticism), environmental factors (teacher empowerment; autonomy, role clarity) as well as considering school demographics (SES, school level, teaching assignment) that potentially influence teachers' behavior and beliefs.

References

- Almog, O., & Shechtman, Z. (2007). Teachers' demographic and efficacy beliefs and styles of coping with behavioural problems of pupils with special needs. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 22, 115-129.
- Arbuckle, C., & Little, E. (2004). Teachers' perceptions and management of disruptive classroom behaviour during the middle years (years five to nine). *Australian Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, 4, 59-70.
- Ashton, P. T., & Webb, R. B. (1986). *Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement*. New York: Longman.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (2006). Toward a psychology of human agency. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 1(2), 164-180.
- Bandura, A. (2007). Much ado over a faulty conception of perceived self-efficacy grounded in faulty experimentation. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 26, 641-658.
- Barsade, S.G., & Gibson, D.E. (1998). Group emotion: A view from top and bottom. In D. Gruenfeld (Ed.), *Composition* (pp. 81–102). US: Elsevier Science/JAI Press.
- Barsade, S. G., & Gibson, D. E. (2007) Why does affect matter in organizations? *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21, 36-59.
- Bechtel, P. A., & O'Sullivan, M. (2007). Enhancers and inhibitors of teacher change among secondary physical educators. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 26, 221-235.
- Betoret, F. B. (2006). Stressors, self-efficacy, coping resources, and burnout among secondary school teachers in Spain. *Educational Psychology*, 26, 519-539.
- Blasé, J. J. (1982). A Social-psychological grounded theory of teacher stress and burnout. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 18(4), 93-113.
- Bobbitt, S. A., Faupel, E., Burns, S. (1991). *Characteristics of stayers, movers, and leavers: Results from the teacher follow-up survey: 1988-1989 (NCES Publication No. 1991-128)*. U.S Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.

- Bobbitt, S. A., Leich, M. C., Whitener, S. D., & Lynch, H. F. (1994). *Characteristics of stayers, movers, and leavers: Results from the teacher follow-up survey: 1991-1992* (NCES Publication No.1994-337). U.S Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office. Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics.
- Boe, E. E., Cook, L. H., & Sunderland, R. J. (2008). Teacher turnover: Examining exit attrition, teaching area transfer, and school migration. *Exceptional Children*, 75(1), 7-31.
- Bogler, R., & Somech, A. (2004). Influence of teacher empowerment on teachers' organizational commitment, professional commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20, 277-289.
- Bong, M. (2006). Asking the right question. How confident are you that you could successfully perform these tasks? In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 287-305). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Borko, H., & Putnam, R. (1996). Learning to teach. In D. Berliner and R. Calfree (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 673-708). New York: Macmillan.
- Boyd, D., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2005). The draw of home: How teachers' preferences for proximity disadvantage urban schools. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 24, 113-132.
- Brouwers, A., Evers, W. J., & Tomic, W. (2001). Self-efficacy in eliciting social support and burnout among secondary-school teachers. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 31, 1474-1491.
- Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2000). A longitudinal study of teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy in classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16, 239-253.
- Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2001). The factorial validity of scores on the teacher interpersonal self-efficacy scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 61, 433-445.
- Brown, K. M., Anfara, V. A., & Roney, K. (2004). Student achievement in high performing, suburban middle schools and low performing, urban middle schools: Plausible explanations for the differences. *Education and Urban Society*, 36, 428-456.
- Burke R. J. & Greenglass, E. (1989). The clients' role in psychological burnout in teachers and administrators. *Psychological Reports*, 64, 1299-1306.
- Burke R. J. & Greenglass, E. (1995). A longitudinal study of psychological burnout in teachers. *Human Relations*, 48, 187-202.
- Burke, R. J. & Greenglass, E. R. (1996). Work stress, social support, psychological burnout and emotional and physical well-being among teachers. *Psychology, Health and Medicine*, 1, 193-205.
- Burke, R. J., Greenglass, E. R. & Schwarzer, R. (1996). Predicting teacher burnout over time: Effects of work stress, social support, and self-doubts on burnout and its consequences. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping: An International Journal*, 9(3), 1-15.

- Byrne, B. M. (1991). The Maslach Burnout Inventory: Validating factorial structure and invariance across intermediate, secondary, and university educators. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 26, 583-605.
- Byrne, B. M. (1999). The nomological network of teacher burnout: A literature review and empirically validated model. In R. Vandenberghe & A. M. Huberman (Eds.), *Understanding and preventing teacher burnout: A sourcebook of international research and practice* (pp. 15–37). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Gardner, W. L. (1999) Emotion. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50, 191-214.
- Campbell, J. (1996). A comparison of teacher efficacy for the pre and in-service teachers in Scotland and America. *Education*, 117, 2-11.
- Cano-Garcia, F. J., Padilla-Munoz, E. M., & Carrasco-Ortiz, M. A. (2005). Personality and contextual variables in teacher burnout. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 38, 929-940.
- Carter, K., Cushing, K., Sabers, D., Stein, P., & Berliner, D. (1988). Expert-novice differences in perceiving and processing visual classroom stimuli. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(3), 25–31.
- Chan, D. W. (2006). Emotional intelligence and components of burnout among Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22, 1042-1054.
- Chan, D. W. (2007). Burnout, self-efficacy, and successful intelligence among Chinese prospective and in-service school teachers in Hong Kong. *Educational Psychology*, 27, 33-49.
- Chan D. W., & Hui, E. K. P. (1995). Burnout and coping among Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 65, 15-25.
- Charalambous, C. Y., Philippou, G. N., & Kyriakides, L. (2008). Tracing the development of preservice teachers' efficacy beliefs in teaching mathematics during fieldwork. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 67, 125-142.
- Cherniss, C. (1993). Role of professional self-efficacy in the etiology and amelioration of burnout. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek, *Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research* (pp. 135-149). Washington, DC: Taylor and Francis.
- Cherniss, C. (1997). Teacher empowerment, consultation, and the creation of new programs in schools. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 8, 135-152.
- Coladarci, T. (1992). Teachers' sense of efficacy and commitment to teaching. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 60, 323-337.
- Coladarci, T., & Breton, W. A. (1997). Teacher efficacy, supervision, and the special education resource-room teacher. *Journal of Educational Research* 90, 4, 230–239.
- Cooley, E., & Yovanoff, P. (1996). Supporting professionals-at-risk: Evaluating interventions to reduce burnout and improve retention of special educators. *Exceptional Children*, 62, 336–55.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *The NEO PI-R professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

- Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D. E., & Byrne, Z. S. (2003). The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 160-169.
- Day, C., Sammons, P., Stobart, G., Kingston, A., & Gu, Q. (2007). *Teachers matter: Connecting lives, work and effectiveness*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- De la Torre Cruz, M. J., & Arias, P. F. C. (2007). Comparative analysis of expectancies of efficacy in in-service and prospective teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 641–652.
- Denzine, G. M., Cooney, J. B., & McKenzie, R. (2005). Confirmatory factor analysis of the teacher efficacy scale for prospective teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75, 689-708.
- Downey, D. B., & Pribesh, S. (2004). When race matters: Teachers' evaluations of students' classroom behavior. *Sociology of Education*, 77, 267-282.
- Doyle, W. (1986). Classroom organization and management. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 392-431). New York: Macmillan.
- Edwards, J. L., Green, K. E., & Lyons, C. A. (2002). Personal empowerment, efficacy, and environmental characteristics. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 40, 67–86.
- Egyed, C. J., & Short, R. J. (2006). Teacher self-efficacy, burnout, experience and decision to refer a disruptive student. *School Psychology International*, 27, 462-474.
- Emmer, E. T., & Hickman, J. (1991). Teacher efficacy in classroom management and discipline. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 51, 755-765.
- Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of educational psychology, with implications for teacher education. *Educational Psychologist*, 36, 103-112.
- Evans, E. D., & Tribble, M. (1986). Perceived teaching problems, self-efficacy, and commitment to teaching among preservice teachers. *Journal of Educational Research*, 80, 81-85.
- Evers, W. J., Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2002). Burnout and self-efficacy: A study on teachers' beliefs when implementing an innovative educational system in the Netherlands. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 227-243.
- Evers, W. J., Tomic, W., & Brouwers, A. (2004). Burnout among teachers: Students' and teachers' perceptions compared. *School Psychology International*, 25(2), 131-148.
- Farber, B. A. (1991). *Crisis in education: Stress and burnout in the American teacher*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2003). What new teachers need to learn. *Educational Leadership*, 60(8), 25-29.
- Feiman-Nemser, S., Carver, C., Katz, D., & Schwille, S. (1999). *New teacher induction: Programs, policies, practices*. Final Report. East Lansing, MI.
- Feitler, F., & Tokar, E. (1982). Getting a handle on teacher stress: How bad is the problem? *Educational Leadership*, 39, 456-458.

- Forthun, L. F., & McCombie, J. W. (2007). A preliminary outcome study of response ability pathways training. *Reclaiming Children and Youth, 16*(2), 27-34.
- Friedman, I. A. (1995). Student behavior patterns contributing to teacher burnout. *Journal of Educational Research, 88*, 281-289.
- Friedman, I. A. (2000). Burnout in teachers: Shattered dreams of impeccable professional performance. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 56*, 595-606.
- Friedman, I. A. (2003). Self-efficacy and burnout in teaching: The importance of interpersonal-relations efficacy. *Social Psychology of Education, 6*, 191-215.
- Friedman, I. A. (2006). Classroom management and teacher stress and burnout. In C. M. Evertson, & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues* (pp. 925-944). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Galand, B., Lecocq, C., & Philippot, P. (2007). School violence and teacher professional disengagement. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 77*, 465-477.
- Garrahy, D. A., Cothran, D. J., & Kulinna, P. H. (2005). Voices from the trenches: An exploration of teachers' management knowledge. *Journal of Educational Research, 99*, 56-62.
- Gaziel, H. H. (1995). Sabbatical leave, job burnout and turnover intentions among teachers. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 14*, 331-338.
- George, J. M. (1990). Personality, affect, and behavior in groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 107-116.
- George, J.M. (1995). Leader positive mood and group performance: The case of customer service. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 25*, 778-794.
- Gibson, S., & Dembo, M. H. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*, 569-582.
- Goddard, R., & Goddard, M. (2006). Beginning teacher burnout in Queensland schools: Associations with serious intentions to leave. *Australian Educational Researcher, 33*(2), 61-75.
- Goddard, R. D., Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2004). Collective efficacy beliefs: Theoretical developments, empirical evidence, and future directions. *Educational Researcher, 33*(3), 3-13.
- Goddard, R., O'Brien, P., & Goddard, M. (2006). Work environment predictors of beginning teacher burnout. *British Educational Research Journal, 32*, 857-874.
- Goddard, R., Patton, W., & Creed, P. (2004). The Importance and place of neuroticism in predicting burnout in employment service case managers. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34*, 282-296.
- Gold, Y. (1987). Stress reduction programs to prevent teacher burnout. *Education, 107*, 338-340.

- Gordon, C., & Debus, R. (2002). Developing deep learning approaches and personal teaching efficacy within a preservice teacher education context. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 483-511.
- Grandey, A. A., Tam, A. P., & Brauburger, A. L. (2002). Affective states and traits in the workplace: Diary and survey data from young workers. *Motivation and Emotion*, 26, 31-55.
- Grau, R., Salanova, M., & Peirò, J. M. (2001). Moderator effects of self-efficacy on occupational stress. *Psychology in Spain*, 5(1), 63-74.
- Grawitch, M. J., Tares, S., & Kohler, J. M. (2007). Healthy workplace practices and employee outcomes. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 14, 275-293.
- Guarino, C. M., Santibanez, L., & Daley, G. A. (2006). Teacher recruitment and retention: A Review of the recent empirical literature. *Review of Educational Research*, 76, 173-208.
- Guglielmi, S. R., & Tatrow, K. (1998). Occupational stress, burnout, and health in teachers: A methodological and theoretical analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 68, 61-99.
- Guskey, T. R., & Passaro, P. D. (1994). Teacher efficacy: A study of construct dimensions. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31, 627-643.
- Hastings, R. P., & Bham, M. S. (2003). The relationship between student behaviour patterns and teacher burnout. *School Psychology International*, 24, 115-127.
- Henninger, M. L. (2007). Lifers and troupers: Urban physical education teachers who stay. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 26, 125-145.
- Henson, R. K., Kogan, L. R., & Vacha-Haase, T. (2001). A reliability generalization study of the teacher efficacy scale and related instruments. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 61, 404-420.
- Hock, R. R. (1988). Professional burnout among public school teachers. *Public Personnel Management* 17, 167-189.
- Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk, A. E. (1993). Teachers' sense of efficacy and the organizational health of schools. *Elementary School Journal*, 93, 335-372.
- Hughes, E. R. (2001). Deciding to leave but staying: Teacher burnout, precursors and turnover. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12, 288-298.
- Ingersoll, R. M. (2001). Teacher turnover and teacher shortages: An organizational analysis. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38, 499-534.
- Ingersoll, R. (2002). The teacher shortage: A case of wrong diagnosis and wrong prescription. *NASSP Bulletin*, 86, 16-31.
- Ingersoll, R. M., & Smith, T. M. (2003). The wrong solution to the teacher shortage. *Educational Leadership*, 60(8), 30-33.

- John, O. P., Naumann, L. P., & Soto, C. J. (2008). Paradigm Shift to the Integrative Big-Five Trait Taxonomy: History, Measurement, and Conceptual Issues. In O. P. John, R. W. Robins, & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 114-158). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Jones, V. F. (1989). Classroom Management: Clarifying theory and improving practice. *Education*, 109, 330-339.
- Kalliath, T. J., O'Driscoll, M.P., Gillespie, D. F., & Bluedorn, A. G. (2000). A Test of the Maslach Burnout Inventory in three samples of healthcare professionals. *Work & Stress*, 14, 35-50.
- Kaplan, H. B. (1996). Psychosocial stress from the perspective of self theory. In H. B. Kaplan (Ed.), *Psychosocial stress: Perspective on structure, theory, life-course, and methods* (pp. 175-244). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Klusmann, U., Kunter, M., Trautwein, U., Ludtke, O., & Baumert, J. (2008a). Engagement and emotional exhaustion in teachers: Does the school context make a difference? *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57, 127-151.
- Klusmann, U., Kunter, M., Trautwein, U., Ludtke, O., & Baumert, J. (2008b). Teachers' occupational well-being and quality of instruction: The important role of self-regulatory patterns. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100, 702-715.
- Kokkinos, C. M. (2007). Job stressors, personality and burnout in primary school teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 229-243.
- Kokkinos, C. M., Panayiotou, G., & Davazoglou, A. M. (2005). Correlates of teacher appraisals of student behaviors. *Psychology in the Schools*, 42(1), 79-89.
- Koth, C. W., Bradshaw, C. P., & Leaf, P. J. (2008). A multilevel study of predictors of student perceptions of school climate: The effect of classroom-level factors. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100(1), 96-104.
- Kulinna, P. H., Cothran, D., & Regualos, R. (2003). Development of an instrument to measure student disruptive behavior. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science*, 7(1), 25-41.
- Kulinna, P. H., Cothran, D. J., & Regualos, R. (2006). Teachers' reports of student misbehavior in physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 77(1), 32-40.
- Kuzsman, F. L. & Schnall, H. (1987). Managing teachers' stress: Improving discipline. *The Canadian School Executive*, 6, 3-10.
- Ladd, H. F. (2007). Teacher labor markets in developed countries. *Future of Children*, 17(1), 201- 217.
- Lamude, K. G., Scudder, J. & Furno-Lamude, D. (1992). The relationship of student resistance strategies in the classroom to teacher burnout and teacher type-A behavior. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 7, 597-610.
- Larsen, R. J. (2000). Toward a science of mood regulation. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(3), 129-141.

- Latham, G. P., & Pinder, C. C. (2005). Work motivation theory and research at the dawn of the twenty-first century. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 56, 485–516.
- Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1990). On the meaning of Maslach's three dimensions of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 743–747.
- Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 123-133.
- Lewis, R., Romi, S., Qui, X., & Katz, Y. J. (2005). Teachers' classroom discipline and student misbehavior in Australia, China and Israel. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 729-741.
- Lin, H. L., Gorrell, J., & Taylor, J. (2002). Influence of culture and education on U.S. and Taiwan pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. *Journal of Educational Research*, 96(1), 37-46.
- Liu, S. X., & Meyer, P. J. (2005). Teachers' perceptions of their jobs: A multilevel analysis of the Teacher Follow-up Survey for 1994-95. *Teachers College Record*, 107, 985-1003.
- Livingston, C., & Borko, H. (1989). Cognition and improvisation: Differences in mathematics instruction by expert and novice teachers. *American Educational Research Journal*, 26, 473–498.
- Lopez Otero, J. M., Santiago, M. J., Godas, A., Castro, C., Villrdefrancos, E., & Ponte, D. (2008). An integrative approach to burnout in secondary school teachers: Examining the role of student disruptive behavior and disciplinary issues. *International Journal of Psychology and Psychological Therapy*, 8, 259-270.
- Luekens, M. T., Lyter, D. M., & Fox, E. E. (2004). *Teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the Teacher Follow-up Survey, 2000-01 (NCES Publication No. 2004-301)*. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- Magnus, K., Diener, E., Fujita, F., & Pavot, W. (1993). Extraversion and neuroticism as predictors of objective life events: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65, 1046–1053.
- Martin, A. J., Linfoot, K., & Stephenson, J. (1999). How teachers' respond to concerns about misbehaviours in their classroom. *Psychology In The Schools*, 36, 347-358.
- Marvel, J., Lyter, D. M., Peltola, P., Strizekm, G. A., & Morton, B. A. (2007). *Teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the Teacher Follow-up Survey, 2004-05 (NCES Publication No. 2007-307)*. U.S Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- Maslach, C. (2003). Job burnout: New directions in research and intervention. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 12, 189–192.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour*, 2, 99-113.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1986). *The Maslach Burnout Inventory (2nd ed.)*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

- Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Leiter, M. P. (1996). *Maslach Burnout Inventory manual* (3rd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Schwab, R. L. (1996). Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES). In C. Maslach, S. E., Jackson, & M. P. Leiter (Eds.), *MBI manual* (3rd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: CPP, Inc.
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (1997). The truth about burnout. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 397-422.
- Maslach, C., Leiter, M. P., & Schaufeli, W. (2008). Measuring burnout. In C. L. Cooper & S. Cartwright (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational well-being* (pp. 86-108). Oxford: Oxford University.
- McCroskey, J. C., Valencic, K. M., & Richmond, V. P. (2004). Toward a general model of instructional communication. *Communication Quarterly*, 53, 197-210.
- Midgley, C., Feldlaufer, H., & Eccles, J. S. (1989). Change in teacher efficacy and student self- and task-related beliefs in Mathematics during the transition to junior high school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81, 247-258.
- Mihans, R. (2008). Can teachers lead teachers? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 89, 762-765.
- Moore Johnson, S. (2004). *Finders and Keepers: Helping New Teachers Survive and Thrive in Our Schools*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Moore Johnson, S., & Birkeland, S. E. (2003). Pursuing a "Sense of Success": New teachers explain their career decisions. *American Educational Research Journal*, 40, 581-617.
- Naring, G., Briet, M., & Brouwers, A. (2006). Beyond demand-control: Emotional labor and symptoms of burnout in teachers. *Work & Stress*, 20, 303-315.
- Onafowora, L. L. (2004). Teacher efficacy issues in the practice of novice teachers. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 28(4), 34-43.
- Ondrich, J., Pas, E., & Yinger, J. (2008). The determinants of teacher attrition in upstate New York. *Public Finance Review*, 36, 112-144.
- Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 66, 543-578.
- Pajares, F. (1997). Current directions in self-efficacy research. In H. W. Marsh, R. G. Craven, & D. M. McInerney (Eds.), *International advances in self research* (pp. 1-49). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Pajares, F. (2002). *Overview of social cognitive theory and of self-efficacy*. Retrieved July 20th, 2009, from <http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/eff.html>

- Pajares, F., & Schunk, D. H. (2001). Self-beliefs and school success: Self-efficacy, self-concept, and school achievement. In R. Riding & S. Rayner (Eds.), *Self-Perception* (pp. 239–266). London: Ablex Publishing.
- Paterson, J. M., & Cary, J. (2002). Organizational Justice, Change Anxiety, and Acceptance of Downsizing: Preliminary Tests of an AET-Based Model. *Motivation and Emotion*, 26, 83-103.
- Pines, A. M. (2002). A psychoanalytic-existential approach to burnout: Demonstrated in the cases of a nurse, a teacher, and a manager. *Psychotherapy Theory, Research, Practice, Training*, 39, 103-113.
- Poulou, M. (2005). Educational psychology within teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 11, 555-574.
- Putnam, R. F., Luiselli, J. K., Handler, M. W., & Jefferson, G. L. (2003). Evaluating student discipline practices in a public school through behavioral assessment of office referrals. *Behavior Modification*, 27, 505-523.
- Ross, J. A. (1998). Antecedents and consequences of teacher efficacy. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Advances in Research on Teaching* (Vol. 7, pp. 49-74). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Ross, J., & Bruce, K. (2007). Professional development effects on teacher efficacy: Results of randomized field trial. *Journal of Educational Research*, 101, 50-60.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 80, 1-28.
- Rushton, S. P. (2000). Student teacher efficacy in inner-city schools. *Urban Review*, 32, 365-383.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Buunk, B. P. (2003). Burnout: An overview of 25 years of research and theorizing. In M. J. Schabracq, J. A. Winnubst, & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *The handbook of work and health psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 383-425). New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Enzmann, D. (1998). *The burnout companion to study and practice: A critical analysis*. Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, 40, 437-453.
- Schunk, D. H. (1990). Introduction to the special section on motivation and efficacy. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(1), 3-6.
- Schunk, D. H., & Meece, J. L. (2006). Self-efficacy development in adolescence. In F. Pajares, & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 71–96). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Schunk, D. H., & Miller, S. D. (2002). Self-Efficacy and adolescents' motivation. In F. Pajares, & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Adolescence and education, academic motivation of adolescents* (Vol. 2, pp. 29-52). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Schwab, R. L., Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1986). Educator burnout: Sources and consequences. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 10(3), 14-30.

- Schwarzer, R., & Hallum, S. (2008). Perceived teacher self-efficacy as a predictor of job stress and burnout: Mediation analyses. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57, 152-171.
- Schwarzer, R., Schmitz, G. S., & Tang, C. (2000). Teacher burnout in Hong Kong and Germany: A cross-cultural validation of the Maslach burnout inventory. *Anxiety, Stress and Coping*, 13, 309-326.
- Shaughnessy, M. F. (2004). An interview with Anita Woolfolk: The educational psychology of teacher efficacy. *Educational Psychology Review*, 16, 153-176.
- Shechtman, Z., Levy, M., & Leichtentritt, J. (2005). Impact of life skills training on teachers' perceived environment and self-efficacy. *Journal of Educational Research*, 98, 144-154.
- Shernoff Steele, E., & Kratochwill, T. R. (2007). Transporting an evidence-based classroom management program for preschoolers with disruptive behavior problems to a school: An analysis of implementation, outcomes, and contextual variables. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 22, 449-472.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2007). Dimensions of teacher self-efficacy and relations with strain factors, perceived collective teacher efficacy, and teacher burnout. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99, 611-625.
- Slider, N. J., Noell, G. H., & Williams, K. L. (2006). Providing practicing teachers classroom management professional development in a brief self-study format. *Journal of Behavioral Education*, 15, 215-228.
- Soodak, L. C., & Podell, D. M. (1993). Teacher efficacy and student problem as factors in special education referral. *Journal of Special Education*, 27, 66-81.
- Smith, T. M., & Ingersoll, R. M. (2004). What are the effects of induction and mentoring on beginning teacher turnover? *American Educational Research Journal*, 41, 681-714.
- Sutton, R. E., & Wheatley, K. F. (2003). Teachers' emotions and teaching: A review of the literature and directions for future research. *Educational Psychology Review*, 15, 327-358.
- Talmor, R., Reiter, S., & Feigin, N. (2005). Factors relating to regular education teacher burnout in inclusive education. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 20, 215-229.
- Taris, T. W., Le Blanc, P. M., Schaufeli, W. B., & Schreurs, P. J. G. (2005). Are there causal relationships between the dimensions of the Maslach Burnout Inventory? A review and two longitudinal tests. *Work & Stress*, 19, 238-255.
- Teven, J. J. (2007). Teacher temperament: Correlates with teacher caring, burnout, and organizational outcomes. *Communication Education*, 56, 382-400.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, 2, 202-248.

- Tsouloupas C. N., Carson, R. L., Matthews, R., Grawitch, M., & Barber, L. (2009). *Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion: The importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation*. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Tucker, C. M., Porter, T., Reinke, W. M., Herman, K. C., Ivery, P. D., Mack, C. E., et al. (2005). Promoting teacher efficacy for working with culturally diverse students. *Preventing School Failure, 50*(1), 29-34.
- U. S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2007). *Teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the 2004-2005 Teacher follow-up Survey*. (NCES 2007-307). Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office. Retrieved October 8, 2007, from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007307.pdf>.
- Veiga, F. (2008). Disruptive behavior scale professed by students (DBS-PS): Development and validation. *International Journal of Psychology and Psychological Therapy, 8*, 203-216.
- Ware, H., & Kitsantas, A. (2007). Teacher and collective efficacy beliefs as predictors of professional commitment. *Journal of Educational Research, 100*, 303-310.
- Weiqi, C. (2007). The structure of secondary school teacher job satisfaction and its relationship with attrition and work enthusiasm. *Chinese Education and Society, 40*(5), 17-31.
- Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). An affective events approach to job satisfaction. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 18, pp. 1-74). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Westerman, D. A. (1991). Expert and novice teacher decision making. *Journal of Teacher Education, 42*(4), 292-305.
- Wheatley, K. F. (2005). The case for reconceptualizing teacher efficacy research. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 747-766.
- Whitener, S. D., Gruber, K. J., Lynch, H., Tingos, K., Perona, M., & Fondelier, S. (1997). *Characteristics of stayers, movers, and leavers: Results from the teacher follow-up survey: 1994-1995* (NCES Publication No. 1997-450). U.S Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- Wilson, P., & Tan, G. C. I. (2004). Singapore teachers' personal and general efficacy for teaching primary social studies. *International Research in Geographical and Environmental Education, 13*, 209-222.
- Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Burke Spero, R. (2005). Changes in teacher efficacy during the early years of teaching: A comparison of four measures. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 343-356.
- Yeo, L. S., Ang, R. P., Chong, W. H., Huan, V. S., & Quek, C. L. (2008). Teacher efficacy in the context of teaching low achieving students. *Current Psychology, 27*, 192-204.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Cleary, T. J. (2006). Adolescents' development of personal agency. The role of self-efficacy beliefs and self-regulatory skills. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 45-69). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

APPENDIX B: RECRUITMENT E-MAIL

PLEASE DO NOT DELETE THIS E-MAIL! I realize how busy you are. However, you could really help us out at Louisiana State University by participating in our brief internet survey regarding your teaching experience.

At Louisiana State University, we are working to understand the specific demands teachers face and how those demands can affect you as a person. We appreciate your dedication and hard work and we constantly try to make your teaching experience even better. My name is Costas Tsouloupas and my research team includes Dr. Russell Carson and Dr. Russell Matthews at LSU. We are interested in learning more about your beliefs about specific work events and more particularly when handling classroom behavior, and how the school culture influence your beliefs when dealing with such an event. We also like to understand how student behavior management issues relate to your emotions you feel on the job. Please help us understand your daily work events.

We are, therefore, asking you to participate in an internet-based research study examining your beliefs about student behavior management and factors that help form those beliefs. If you decide to participate in this study, all that is needed from you is approximately 10-15 minutes maximum of your time to complete an Internet survey. Your participation is completely voluntary. Non-participation will not adversely affect you, and you may choose to quit the survey at any time. We are hoping to collect a large sample of completed surveys from elementary and secondary teachers in Louisiana.

If you choose to enter your name or email address in the survey, your valued time for participating will be rewarded by adding you in a raffle with a chance to win one of 12 gift certificates (2-\$50 and 10-\$20). Recipients of the gift certificates will be able to select from a list of possible locations. Enclosing a name or email though is not mandatory to complete the survey. If you choose to enclose such personal information, we want to assure you that your responses and information are highly confidential and will be treated with respect. No identifying personal information linking you or your school will be included in any future publications or presentations. To further ensure confidentiality of your surveys, it is important to note that the collected dataset will be safely stored on a computer file in the office of the lead investigator and will be only shared with the research team.

Though there are no immediate personal benefits associated with participating in this research, we are planning to present the general results of our research back to the school district in one or more feedback sessions. The purpose of these sessions will be to provide the school district with: (a) a summary of findings and practical suggestions pertaining to student management. The only study risk is the inadvertent release of collected data. However, every effort will be made to maintain the confidentiality of study records (collected data will be stored in separate, secure locations), and this risk should be considered minimal. No identifying information of the participants will be included in any future publications.

If you have questions about subjects' rights or other concerns, please contact Robert C. Mathews, Institutional Review Board, (225) 578-8692, irb@lsu.edu, www.lsu.edu/irb. If you have any concerns or questions pertaining to the study, please contact Costas Tsouloupas, 559-999-0008, ctsoul1@tigers.lsu.edu. By clicking on the link below, you agree to participate in the study described above.

The survey can be accessed from the following link:

www.surveymonkey.com/s/your_thoughts_matter_to_us

APPENDIX C: INSTRUMENTATION

TEHSM Scale (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Emmer & Hickman 1991)

Directions: In the following survey, we are interested to explore your true feelings and thoughts in the classroom when you have to deal with disruptive behavior or stressful situations. Try to remember similar incidents and fill in the blank with the best response based on what you felt at that moment. Fill in each blank with the corresponding number (1 to 6) from the scale below that reflects your true experience.

1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. _____ I can keep defiant students involved in my lessons.
2. _____ I am able to respond adequately to defiant students.
3. _____ I can keep a few problem students from ruining an entire class.
4. _____ I can manage my class very well.
5. _____ I can take adequate measures that are necessary to keep activities running efficiently.
6. _____ If a student disrupts the lesson, I am able to redirect him/her quickly.
7. _____ I can get through to most difficult students.
8. _____ There are very few students that I cannot handle.
9. _____ I am able to begin the scholastic year so that students will learn to behave well.
10. _____ I am always able to make my expectations clear to the students.
11. _____ If students stop working, I can put them back on track.
12. _____ I can communicate to students that I am serious about getting appropriate behavior.
13. _____ I know what rules are appropriate for my students.

Teacher Personality Traits Scale (John et al., 1991)

Directions: Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----
Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree	Agree	Agree
strongly	a little	or disagree	a little	strongly

I see Myself as Someone Who...

- | | |
|--|---|
| ___ 1. Is talkative | ___ 14. Tends to be lazy |
| ___ 2. Does a thorough job | ___ 15. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset |
| ___ 3. Is depressed, blue | ___ 16. Has an assertive personality |
| ___ 4. Is reserved | ___ 17. Perseveres until the task is finished |
| ___ 5. Can be somewhat careless | ___ 18. Can be moody |
| ___ 6. Is relaxed, handles stress well | ___ 19. Is sometimes shy, inhibited |
| ___ 7. Is full of energy | ___ 20. Does things efficiently |
| ___ 8. Is a reliable worker | ___ 21. Remains calm in tense situations |
| ___ 9. Can be tense | ___ 22. Is outgoing, sociable |
| ___ 10. Generates a lot of enthusiasm | ___ 23. Makes plans and follows through with them |
| ___ 11. Tends to be disorganized | ___ 24. Gets nervous easily |
| ___ 12. Worries a lot | ___ 25. Is easily distracted |
| ___ 13. Tends to be quiet | |

Please check: Did you write a number in front of each statement?

BFI scale scoring (“R” denotes reverse-scored items):

Extraversion:	1, 4R, 7, 10, 13R, 16, 19R, 22
Neuroticism:	3, 6R, 9, 12, 15R, 18, 21R, 24
Conscientiousness:	2, 5R, 8, 11R, 14R, 17, 20, 23, 25R

Note. Copyright 1991 by Oliver P. John. Reprinted with permission.

Revised Perceived Collegial Support Scale (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001)

Directions: In the following survey, we are interested to explore your true feelings and thoughts about having **colleagues** around you when in need of assistance, share information, talk, and advice in relation to student behavior management or stressful situations. Try to remember similar incidents and fill in the blank with the best response based on what you felt at that moment. Fill in each blank with the corresponding number (1 to 6) from the scale below that reflects your true experience.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
----------------------	------------------------	----------	-------	---------------------	-------------------

1. _____ When it is necessary, I am able to ask a colleague for assistance.
2. _____ I am able to approach my colleagues if I want to talk about problems at work.
3. _____ If I feel confronted by a problem with which my colleagues can help me, I am able to approach them about this.
4. _____ I can always find colleagues with whom I can talk about problems at work.
5. _____ I am confident that, if necessary, I can ask my colleagues for advice.

Revised Perceived Principal Support Scale (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001)

Directions: In the following survey, we are interested to explore your true feelings and thoughts about having **principals** around you when in need of assistance, share information, talk, and advice in relation to student behavior management or stressful situations. Try to remember similar incidents and fill in the blank with the best response based on what you felt at that moment. Fill in each blank with the corresponding number (1 to 6) from the scale below that reflects your true experience.

1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1. _____	I am confident that if necessary I can ask principals for advice.				
2. _____	When necessary, I am able to bring up problems with principals.				
3. _____	I am able to approach principals if I want to talk about problems at work.				
4. _____	When it is necessary, I am able to get principals to support me.				
5. _____	I am confident that, if necessary, I can get principals to help me.				

Perceived Job Autonomy Scale (Deci et al., 2001)

Directions: The following questions concern your feelings about your job during the last year. (If you have been on this job for less than a year, this concerns the entire time you have been at this job.) Please indicate how true each of the following statement is for you given your experiences on this job. Remember that your boss will never know how you responded to the questions. Please use the following scale in responding to the items.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Very
True			True			True

1. I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how my job gets done.
2. I feel pressured at work.
3. I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job.
4. When I am at work, I have to do what I am told.
5. My feelings are taken into consideration at work.
6. I feel like I can pretty much be myself at work.
7. There is not much opportunity for me to decide for myself how to go about my work.

Scoring Information: 1, 2(R), 3, 4(R), 5, 6, 7(R)

Any item that has (R) after it in the code below should be reverse scored by subtracting the person's response from 8.

Teacher and School Demographics Questionnaire

Directions: Please fill out the following information. Information that you provide is strictly confidential and at no point e-mails, personal information, schools, or parishes, will be revealed in any publications or presentations.

Demographic Questionnaire

1. Active e-mail address: _____

2. What is the name of the Parish/District that you work in? _____

3. What is the name of the school that you work in? _____

4. What is your teaching classification?

Elementary	Middle School/Junior High	High School
1	2	3

5. What year were you born? _____

6. Gender: Female _____ Male _____

7. What is your ethnicity/race?

White/Non-Hispanic American	Black/Non-Hispanic American	Hispanic	Asian	American Indian/ Alaskan Native	Other
1	2	3	4	5	6

8. What is your current marital status?

Single	Engaged/Married /Partner
1	2

9. What is your highest education earned?

Vocational/Certificate	Associates Degree	Bachelor's Degree	Masters' Degree	Doctorate	Other
1	2	3	4	5	6

10. How would you describe your school location?

Central City	Urban fringe/large town	Rural/small town
1	2	3

11. What is your school's student enrollment?

Less than 200	200-499	500-749	750 or more
1	2	3	4

12. What is the percent of K-12 students in school who are approved for free or reduced-price lunches?

Less than 15%	15-49%	50% or more
1	2	3

13. How many years have you been a **FULL-TIME** teacher? _____

14. What is the average number of students in the class(es) you teach? _____

15. What is your **main** teaching/working assignment?

1. Early childhood /general elementary	4. Social studies	7. Arts/Music	10. Administration
2. Science & Applied Science	5. English/ Language arts	8. Special Education	11. Library
3. Mathematics	6. Physical education/ROTC	9. Other _____	

16. In a school year, how often do you receive feedback or constructive information in regards to handling student behavior?

1	2	3	4	5
Almost never	Seldom	Occasionally	Frequently	Very Frequently

17. How often do you deal with student discipline problems?

1	2	3	4	5
Almost Never Occurs	Seldom occurs	Occasionally occurs	Occurs frequently	Occurs very frequently

18. How frequently do you experience positive interactions with students?

1	2	3	4	5
Almost never Occurs	Seldom occurs	Occasionally occurs	Occurs frequently	Occurs very frequently

19. How frequently do you experience negative interactions with students?

1	2	3	4	5
Almost never Occurs	Seldom occurs	Occasionally occurs	Occurs frequently	Occurs very frequently

20. How many professional development workshops/seminars/classes have you attended in relation to student behavior management the last three years? _____

Interview Protocol

The following protocol includes open-ended interview questions aiming in generating a discussion with the interviewed teacher in relation to student misbehavior.

- Start each interview with a statement ensuring confidentiality
- Introduce self
- Brief overview of the nature of interview
- Use 2 or 3 open-ended questions to get the interviews started.
 - Don't be too focused in questions—ask general, open-ended questions
- Develop three or four questions that 'get at' each of the points of interest
- Use same questions at each site; major questions, followed by minor ones
- Plan for 60-90 minutes for each person to be interviewed
- Use Probes (i.e., *how is that, in what way, what things have you been doing in the past that allow you to...*; use follow up questions (i.e., *'You haven't mentioned...'*)
 - When probing, make sure you weave School Culture in each of the questions
 - Collegiality
 - Leadership support
 - Autonomy
 - School policies, demographics, curriculum

Interview Guide

So, I would like to start our interview by asking you of your experience in relation to students' behavior in the classroom

Warm-up

Q: How would you describe your students' behavior in general in the classroom?

Challenges with student misbehavior

Q: What are some of the central challenges with student misbehavior?

- i. What are some issues with managing misbehaving students while you teach?
 - Could you share with me with some examples or stories of such incidents?

Exploring TEHSM

Q: In your teaching, how important is it for you to handle successfully your misbehaving students?

- i. How would you describe your ability in handling misbehaving students?
- ii. How important is it for you in having success in handling misbehaving incidents?
- iii. Could you share with me with some examples of measures that you take to handle these students?

Exploring the development of TEHSM

Q: How did you come to develop your abilities in handling student misbehavior?

Probing them to get information about:

- i. Teacher preparation experience in terms of acquiring the skills to handle student misbehavior
- ii. Receiving assistance or discuss this issue with colleagues or your principal

Closing comments/reflection in relation to dealing with student misbehavior

Q: In your opinion, what could researchers or administrators do to help teachers improve or feel successful at handling student misbehavior?

APPENDIX D: PRE-DISSERTATION STUDY

Exploring the Association between Teachers' Perceived Student Misbehavior and Emotional Exhaustion: The Importance of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs and Emotion Regulation*

Teacher burnout is a driving force behind the struggle to keep teachers satisfied and committed at work (Chan, 2006; Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2004). Like most human service professionals, teachers are prone to experience burnout due to their intense, everyday interaction with students, colleagues, administration, and parents (Friedman, 1995, 2006; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). It is not surprising that burnout has received a great deal of attention within the teaching community (Friedman, 2006; Schwab Jackson, & Schuler, 1986).

Burnout is generally defined as the experience of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, Leiter, & Schaufeli, 2008). Consistently though, emotional exhaustion has been shown to be more strongly related to important outcomes such as job performance, work attitudes, and employee behaviors compared to the other two components (i.e., depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment), suggesting that emotional exhaustion is the core dimension of burnout (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Koeske & Koeske, 1993; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Furthermore, conceptual work by Shirom (1989) and findings from empirical studies by Lee and Ashforth (1993, 1996) and Cropanzano et al. (2003) imply that future studies adopt emotional exhaustion as the sole indicator to burnout. Following this line of work, teacher burnout was operationalized as emotional exhaustion in this study.

The most prevalent driver of burnout in teachers at work stems from their everyday dealings with the classroom behavior of students (Friedman, 2006). More specifically, the act of disciplining students has been linked with teacher emotional exhaustion (Chan, 2006; Evers, et al., 2004; Friedman, 1995; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), causing distress, negative attitudes, and feelings of helplessness, hopelessness,

* Reprinted by permission of Educational Psychology (See Appendix E). Tsouloupas C. N., Carson, R. L., Matthews, R., Grawitch, M., & Barber, L. (2010). Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion: The importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation. *Educational Psychology*, 30, 173-189.

and embarrassment (Friedman, 2006). Typically, student misbehavior includes student distractibility, hyperactivity, social rejection, disobedience, and hostile aggression (Almog & Shechtman, 2007), all of which are exacerbated by frequent, negative interactions of great intensity. Kokkinos (2007) found that one reason burnout is associated with student misbehavior is because teachers become emotionally exhausted from the time and effort they put into handling these student misbehaviors. Additionally, Kokkinos suggested that burnout is associated with teacher perceptions of student misbehavior because teachers often develop negative feelings and become discouraged about their ability to manage and instruct their students. We propose that two processes are important in understanding the relationship between perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion: (a) teacher efficacy related to handling student misbehavior and (b) teacher emotion regulation processes when handling student misbehavior.

Teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior

Student misbehavior is a disconcerting challenge for teachers and their beliefs about their ability to effectively manage the classroom environment (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Shechtman, Levy, & Leichtentritt, 2005; Tucker et al., 2005). Stemming from social cognitive theory, Bandura (1989, 1997) referred to beliefs about one's ability to successfully produce a desired outcome as *self-efficacy*. Self-efficacy can be applied to specific populations (e.g., teachers) and specific situations (e.g., handling misbehavior problems; Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Emmer & Stough, 2001; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Shechtman et al., 2005; Tucker et al., 2005). Therefore, teachers might vary in the beliefs they hold about their ability to effectively manage misbehaving students. Hereafter, we refer to this form of perceived efficacy as *teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior* (TEHSM).

Perceived TEHSM is important for several reasons. First, teacher efficacy beliefs are imperative to establishing managerial excellence in the classroom. Research suggests that individual characteristics, such as teacher efficacy, predispose teachers to perceive undesirable work events (i.e., student misbehavior) in ways that either thwart or facilitate teachers' adaptation and reaction to such events (Kaplan, 1996; Kokkinos, 2007). Therefore, teachers with higher TEHSM will likely be more adaptive

and responsive when faced student misbehavior than teachers with lower TEHSM. Second, previous conceptual and empirical research has also demonstrated that teacher efficacy is a key component in the burnout process (Friedman, 2006; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). In past studies, teachers with high beliefs in their teaching ability (i.e., teacher efficacy) have demonstrated less burnout than teachers with low levels of efficacy (Betoret, 2006; Egyed & Short, 2006; Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002).

Taken together, we argue that teacher beliefs in their ability to effectively handle student misbehavior is a central feature in the relationship between perceptions of student misbehavior and the core dimension of burnout - emotional exhaustion. Therefore, the first aim of this study is to explore if TEHSM helps explain the relationship between teacher perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion. Specifically, we hypothesize that:

H₁: Teacher perceptions of student misbehavior will be positively related to emotional exhaustion.

H₂: Teacher perceptions of student misbehavior will be indirectly and negatively related to emotional exhaustion through TEHSM.

Emotional regulation process when handling student misbehavior

Another potentially fruitful, but overlooked, explanation for describing the relationship between teacher perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion is the emotion regulation process. *Emotion regulation* can be defined as our actions that determine which emotions we choose to allow or contain, at what point we should use them, and how should we experience or express those emotions (Gross, 1998a, 1998b; Gross & John, 2003). In their review of literature on teacher emotions, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) concluded that teacher emotions and student discipline are two fields that should come together to explain the teacher burnout phenomenon. Clearly, more systematic research is needed to examine how emotion regulation may influence the experience of emotional exhaustion, especially when considering ineffective dealings with student misbehavior.

Individuals may regulate their emotions in one of two ways: cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. *Cognitive reappraisal* is used to reinterpret and decrease negative emotions and behavioral

expressions by altering thoughts of potentially-inducing events. For example, a teacher who is about to deal with a disruptive student in class might cognitively reappraise the stressful situation by referring to pre-established routines s/he has already imagined and rehearsed. This way, the negative emotions that may ensue from handling student misconduct are altered to less intense negative emotions. Previous studies have shown that this form of cognitive reinterpretation is associated with decreased stress (Yamasaki, Sakai, & Uchida, 2006), and improved social interactions and overall health (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007).

Expressive suppression, on the other hand, affects behavior by “shutting-down” emotions viewed as threatening to one’s emotional equilibrium (Gross, 1998a). Suppression of emotions implies that individuals hide the true emotions they experience to avoid negative outcomes while increasing the likelihood of desired outcomes. Using student misbehavior as an example, a teacher might attempt to hide feelings of anger and frustration by choosing to ignore the student talking during class. Although research is inconclusive regarding whether suppressing emotions negatively affects a person’s feelings and overall well-being (Grandey, 2000), expressive suppression is often associated with less optimal outcomes, such as pessimism and depressive symptoms, job dissatisfaction, and intentions of job turnover (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Côté & Morgan, 2002; Richards, & Gross 2000).

Teaching is a profession filled with feelings and emotions (Hargreaves, 1998). Unwanted feelings can accumulate and influence the emotional state of teachers, which can become draining and result in burnout (Chan, 2006; Evers et al., 2004; Friedman, 1995). For this reason, the second aim of this study was to explore if the well-documented relationship between student misbehavior and burnout is due to teacher emotion regulation. That is, the use of effective emotion regulation strategies when dealing with student misbehavior may reduce the experience of emotional exhaustion. We hypothesize that:

H_{3a}: Teacher perceived student misbehavior is indirectly and negatively related to emotional exhaustion through cognitive reappraisal.

H_{3b}: Teacher perceived misbehavior is indirectly and positively related to emotional exhaustion through expressive suppression.

Emotional exhaustion and teacher turnover

It is critical to be concerned about emotional exhaustion. Besides being the main contributor to burnout, feelings of emotional exhaustion have been linked to the impairment of overall job performance, well-being, and health (Ducharme, Knudsen, & Roman, 2008). An additional adverse outcome associated with emotional exhaustion is job turnover (Lee & Ashforth, 1993, 1996).

The turnover of teachers in today's schools has, in many ways, reached epidemic proportions. The most recent teacher turnover estimates, 16.5% in public schools and 19.5% in private schools, are not only considerably higher than the nationwide employee average (U.S. Department of Education, 2007), but have increased by more than a third since the 1991-1992 school year (Boe, Cook, & Sunderland, 2008). Clearly, teacher turnover, defined as a combination of the teachers who leave the profession entirely (i.e., attrition) and those who transfer to another school setting (i.e., migration), produces the same end result: a high demand for committed, stable teachers today (Ingersoll, 2001). The relationship between teacher' emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions has only been suggested in past research (Schwab et al., 1986). The third aim of this paper is to add to the literature by clarifying this relationship and also identifying potential pathways that suggest indirect effects on turnover intentions. As such, we hypothesize that:

H_{4a}: Emotional exhaustion is positively related to teacher attrition.

H_{4b}: Emotional exhaustion is positively related to teacher migration.

Purposes and significance of the study

The primary purpose of the current study was to examine TEHSM and emotional regulation as potential mediators between the teachers' perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion relationship. More specifically, this study expands on past teacher efficacy and emotion regulation literature by investigating both the direct and indirect paths that TEHSM and the two emotion regulation strategies (i.e., cognitive reappraisal, expressive suppression) have between teachers' perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion. Additionally, the secondary purpose of this study was to confirm past suggestions that emotional exhaustion is related to teacher turnover intentions. Findings may

shed light into how perceptions of student misbehavior and teacher burnout are linked, and by doing so, help researchers and practitioners design future interventions that consider teacher efficacy and emotion regulation strategies for effectively handling student misbehavior.

Methods

Participants

Participants were 610 full-time elementary ($n = 300$), middle school ($n = 115$), and high school ($n = 195$) teachers (female = 527, male = 83; 91% Caucasian American, 8% African American, 1% other) from four school districts (three in Southeast, one in Midwest). Teachers represented nine subject areas (e.g., Math, Science, English, Art, and Physical Education) and a diverse range of teaching experience with the majority being either beginning (0-5 years) or mid- to late career (11+ years) teachers, (35%, and 45%, respectively). Only 20% of the teachers had 6-10 years of experience.

Procedure

After approval was granted from the affiliated Institutional Review Board and the superintendents of the five participating school districts, data were collected using an online survey. The assistants to the superintendents from each school district sent the 2,484 total teachers the consent form and the survey link in an e-mail. Teachers were informed that clicking the survey link meant they consented to participate in the study. Teachers were given two weeks to submit a completed survey before a reminder e-mail was distributed by the same assistant to the superintendent. Seven hundred thirty-four teachers submitted online surveys (30% response rate), of which 610, adequately completed the surveys for this study (total response rate of 25%).

Measures

Teacher perceptions of student misbehavior

Three items were created to assess teachers' overall perception of student discipline issues at school. The first item asked, "How frequently do you experience negative interactions with students?" The second item asked "How often do you deal with student discipline problems?" The third item asked

“On average, how emotionally intense are your dealings with student discipline problems?” Items were scored on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*almost never occurs*) to 5 (*occurs very frequently*).

Perceived teacher efficacy in handling student misbehavior

Teacher efficacy in dealing with misbehaving students was assessed using the 13-item Perceived Self-Efficacy in Classroom Management (PSECM) questionnaire (Brouwers & Tomic, 2001). Teachers were asked to reflect on their true feelings and thoughts when dealing with disruptive behavior and stressful situations. The items were reported on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). Two sample items include, “I can keep defiant students involved in my lessons,” and “If students stop working, I can put them back on track.”

Emotion regulation strategies

Cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression were each assessed using a reduced version of the Emotional Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ; Gross & John, 2003) that consists of six cognitive reappraisal items and four expressive suppression items. Because this study was exploratory in nature, only the four items that assessed the emotional regulation strategies generally, without any regard to the valence of emotion (positive or negative) being regulated, were used in this study. Two items assessed cognitive reappraisal (“I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I am in” and “When I am faced with a stressful situation, I make myself think about it in a way that helps me stay calm) and two for expressive suppression (“I control my emotions by not expressing them” and “I keep my emotions to myself”). The author of the ERQ approved this breakdown of the subscales (J. Gross, personal communication, November 19, 2008). Teachers were asked to reflect on how well each item related to their everyday life in general, rather than to specific work tasks, using a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Emotional exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion was assessed using a reduced four-item version of the emotional exhaustion subscale from the Maslach Burnout Inventory - Educators Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach, Jackson, & Schwab, 1996). An example item is, “I feel emotionally drained from my work.” Teachers

were asked to respond to these questions indicating “how often” they experience these feelings at their job by using a 7-point scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*every day*). The original 9-item emotional exhaustion subscale has been shown to not be invariant across intermediate and secondary teachers, and therefore, these items were chosen because they had the best structure invariance and factor loadings above .60 across teaching groups and sex according to Byrne (1991, 1994).

Teacher turnover intentions

Teacher turnover intentions were assessed using Lee and Mowday’s (1987) 2-item turnover intention questionnaire. Teachers were asked to reflect on their current thoughts regarding their teaching job using a 6-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 6 (*strongly agree*). Two items were listed for attrition (i.e., “I frequently think of ending my career in teaching”) and migration (i.e., “If I had my own way, I would be working for this school district a year from now”), respectively. Migration items were reversed scored to ensure that the migration items were scored consistent with the attrition items. Items were treated as separate indicators of turnover intentions in the conceptual model tested.

Results

In Table 1 means, standard deviations, internal consistency reliability information, and bivariate correlations for the measures used in the current study are reported. No correlation was so high as to imply multicollinearity (Tabacknick & Fidell, 1996). The alpha coefficients for the emotion regulation strategies were lower than the .70 criterion (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), but given that they are 2-item measures, high internal consistency estimates were not expected. It is also noteworthy to report that teachers in this study who frequently experienced student behavior problems were more prone to using cognitive reappraisal than expressive suppression. The structural equation modeling (SEM) software package AMOS 7 (Arbuckle, 2006) was used to test the relationships among the study variables. To test our hypotheses, a hybrid SEM was used. A full SEM model was not used mainly because there were not enough indicators for cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression (the two 2-item measures), attrition and migration (the two single item measures), and because the PSECM scale was 13 items, which was a lot of items for one scale. Four measures of model fit were calculated; χ^2 : comparative fit

index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean residual (SRMR). A non-significant χ^2 indicates good model fit; however, because χ^2 is sensitive to sample size, we were concerned primarily with values for the remaining fit indices in assessing model fit. A CFI value of .95 or higher, a RMSEA value of .06 or lower, and a SRMR value of .08 or lower are indicative of good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations for study variables (N = 610)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Perceived Student Misbehavior											
1. Negative interactions	2.94	.95	--								
2. Misbehavior problems	3.49	1.08	.59**	--							
3. Emotional intensity	2.57	.89	.37**	.40**	--						
Coping Process Variables											
4. TEHSM	3.72	.80	-.22**	-.18**	-.17**	(.94)					
5. Cognitive reappraisal	4.13	1.16	-.05	.01	-.12**	.14**	(.56)				
6. Expressive suppression	2.68	1.40	.05	.04	.01	.03	.13**	(.58)			
Outcomes											
7. Emotional exhaustion	3.19	1.63	.40**	.39**	.28**	-.23**	-.13**	.13**	(.89)		
8. Leave the profession	3.48	2.13	.23**	.14**	.13**	-.15**	-.08	.10*	.51**	--	
9. Leave the district	5.43	1.91	.15**	.10*	.10*	-.18**	-.08*	.06	.35**	.41**	--

Note. Internal consistency reliability alphas are reported in parentheses along the diagonal. Dashes indicate that reliabilities were not calculated for one-item measures. TEHSM = Teacher efficacy handling student misbehavior

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

The first step was to calculate a measurement model. In the measurement model, the three items assessing teacher perceptions of student misbehavior were loaded onto the Teacher Perception of Student Misbehavior latent factor. The remaining multi-item measures (i.e., perceived teacher efficacy handling student misbehavior, cognitive reappraisal, expressive suppression, and emotional exhaustion) and the two single-item turnover items were included in the model as observed variables. The Teacher Perception of Student Misbehavior latent construct and the six observed variables were then set free to correlate with one another. The measurement model demonstrated good fit [$\chi^2(12) = 20.44$, $p > .05$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .03, SRMR = .02].

Based on this measurement model, we tested our conceptual model (see Figure 1). This model demonstrated adequate fit [$\chi^2(22) = 41.94$, $p < .01$, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .03].

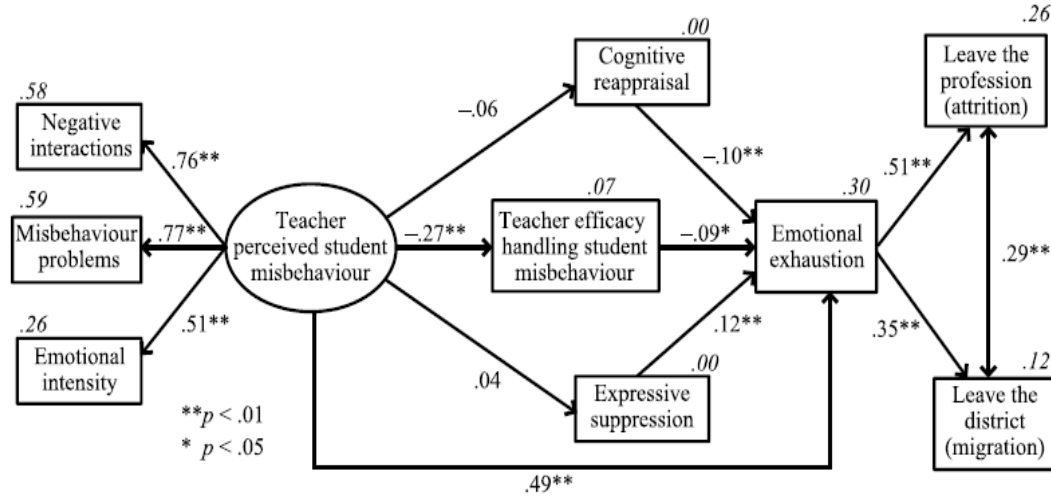


Figure1. Standardised path estimates for the proposed structural model.

Although the χ^2 statistic was significant, the other three fit indexes met their respective cut-off levels. Standardized path estimates for the model are reported in Figure 1; squared multiple correlations are reported in italics. As reported in Figure 1, H_1 was supported; teacher perceptions of student misbehavior was positively related to emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .49$, $p < .01$). Teachers who scored higher on the three indicators of perceived student misbehavior were more likely to report higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

H_2 , $3a$, and $3b$ suggested that the effect of teacher perceptions of student misbehavior may be indirectly related to emotional exhaustion via TEHSM (H_2), cognitive reappraisal (H_{3a}), and expressive suppression (H_{3b}). Direct, indirect and total effects for the model are reported in Table 2. Maximum likelihood bootstrapping within AMOS 7 was used to estimate standard errors and confidence intervals (90%) for all relevant indirect, direct, and total effects (1,000 samples were drawn).

H_2 was fully supported. First, teacher perceptions of student misbehavior were negatively related to TEHSM ($\beta = -.27$, $p < .01$) and TEHSM was negatively related to emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.09$, $p < .01$).

.05). Although small, teacher perceptions of student misbehavior was observed to have a significant indirect effect (.03) on emotional exhaustion.

H_{3a} and H_{3b} were not supported. As reported in Figure 1, significant direct effects were not observed between teacher perceptions of student misbehavior and cognitive reappraisal ($\beta = -.06, p > .05$), or expressive suppression ($\beta = .04, p > .05$). Given that no direct effects were observed between these constructs, it is not possible for teacher perceptions of student misbehavior to indirectly affect emotional exhaustion via these constructs. However, cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression did have direct effects on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.10$ & $.12, p < .01$, respectively). When teachers reported engaging in cognitive reappraisal, they reported experiencing less emotional exhaustion. On the other hand, when teachers reported engaging in expressive suppression, they reported more emotional exhaustion.

Both H_{4a} and H_{4b} were supported. Teachers who reported higher levels of emotional exhaustion were more likely to report a desire to end their teaching career (attrition; $\beta = .51, p < .01$; H₅ supported), and change schools within their current school district (migration; $\beta = .35, p < .01$; H₆ supported). Generally speaking, teachers who reported experiencing higher levels of emotional exhaustion gave more consideration to both types of turnover.

Ad-hoc Analysis

In addition to testing the six proposed hypotheses, we observed two additional results that deserve mention. As reported in Table 2, teacher perceptions of student misbehavior had significant indirect effects on both attrition (.26, $p < .01$) and migration (.18, $p < .01$) through emotional exhaustion. These results have important implications for both the teachers themselves as well as administrators, discussed in more detail below.

Discussion

The primary focus of this study was to investigate the role of TEHSM and the two emotion regulation strategies in the relationship between teacher perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion.

Table 2. Standardized indirect, direct, and total effects for the conceptual model; bootstrapping used to estimate S.E. and C.I.

Predictors	Outcomes									
	Emotional Exhaustion			Migration			Attrition			
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	
Teacher perception of student misbehavior	Estimate	.49**	.51**		.18**	.18**		.26**	.26**	
	S.E.	.04	.04	--	.03	.03	--	.03	.03	
	90% C.I.	(.42/.55)	(.45/.58)		(.22/.14)	(.22/.14)		(.22/.31)	(.22/.31)	
TEHSM	Estimate	-.09*	-.10**		-.03**	-.03**		-.05**	-.05**	
	S.E.	.04	.04	--	.01	.01	--	.02	.02	
	90% C.I.	(-.15/-.02)	(-.03/.01)		(-.01/.06)	(-.01/.06)		(-.08/-.02)	(-.08/-.02)	
Expressive suppression	Estimate	.13**	.13**		.05**	.05**		.07**	.07**	
	S.E.	.04	.04	--	.01	.01	--	.02	.02	
	90% C.I.	(.06/.19)	(.07/.19)		(.07/.02)	(.07/.02)		(.03/.10)	(.03/.10)	
Cognitive reappraisal	Estimate	-.11**	-.11**		-.04**	-.04**		-.06**	-.06**	
	S.E.	.04	.04	--	.02	.02	--	.02	.02	
	90% C.I.	(-.18/-.05)	(.00/.00)		(-.02/.07)	(-.02/.07)		(-.10/-.02)	(-.09/-.02)	

Note. Maximum likelihood bootstrapping was used with bias-corrected confidence intervals; 1,000 samples drawn. C.I. = Confidence Intervals. All S.E. and C.I. reported are based on the bootstrapping results. TEHSM = Teacher efficacy handling student misbehavior.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

To this end, we examined both direct and indirect effects of TEHSM, cognitive reappraisal, and expressive suppression in relation to teacher perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion. Additionally, we investigated whether emotional exhaustion was positively associated with attrition and migration.

Support for H_1 in the current study confirms previous literature by demonstrating that teacher perceptions of student misbehavior is directly and positively associated with emotional exhaustion (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Friedman, 1995; Kokkinos 2007). This finding further confirms that student misbehavior is a significant stressor directly affecting teacher mental well-being. Given the strength of the relationship, research that seeks to identify other potential mediators in the relationship between teacher perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion seems warranted.

Extending previous literature (Friedman, 1995, Kulinna, Cothran, & Regualos, 2003), the supportive evidence for H_2 indicated that teacher perceptions of student misbehavior was indirectly related to emotional exhaustion through TEHSM. This result suggests that specific forms of teacher efficacy is an important mediating factor that should be considered and further explored in frameworks studying teacher perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion. Therefore, improving situation-specific efficacy, such as TEHSM, may help teachers effectively cope with challenging student misconduct before unpleasant emotions escalate over time. Perhaps high-efficacy teachers in specific situations, as suggested by past research (e.g., Almog & Shechtman, 2007), may be using certain coping mechanisms during stressful events that protect them from emotional exhaustion. Further research is needed to identify such efficacy-related techniques so that educators and school authorities are able cultivate highly efficacious teachers.

Contrary to our predictions (H_{3a} and $3b$), neither emotional regulation strategies (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) mediated the relationship between teacher perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion. One possible explanation for the null indirect findings is that questions on the ERQ (Gross & John, 2003) were not specific to how emotions are regulated with regard to the work-related event of handling student misbehavior. Rather, the ERQ questions included in this

study asked teachers to reflect on how they generally engaged in emotion regulation, rather than focusing on how they regulated their emotions during student misbehavior situations. It is possible that individuals regulate their emotions differently in specific situations (Gross & Thompson, 2007). A suggestion for future research is to use a more job-specific assessment tool for emotion regulation, such as the Emotional Labor Scale (ELS; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). However, the ELS may even have to be modified to address the specific situation of handling student misbehavior.

Similarly, it is also possible that the two emotional regulation strategies of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression identified by Gross (1998a) may not have adequately captured the relationship between teachers' perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion. Several other regulation strategies (Larsen, 2000) and even coping strategies (Carver & Scheier, 1999) have been suggested for managing one's emotions to deal with the perception of adverse situations and impending stress. Moreover, the general affect tendency (i.e., affectivity) of teachers could predispose teachers to feel certain emotions across situations at work regardless of whether emotional regulation strategies are utilized. It has been well documented that negative affectivity (i.e., temperamentally predisposed to feel unpleasant emotions) is positively related to emotional exhaustion in service work (Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004). A worthy future research endeavor might be to explore if other regulation strategies or teachers' affectivity influence the association between teachers' perceptions of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion.

Another potential reason for the unexpected null findings for the mediation of either emotion regulation strategy is that 45% of the study sample reported more than 11 years of teaching experience. It is possible that, over time, teachers may develop their own strategies to deal with student misbehavior. Kounin (1970) argues that contrary to experienced teachers, inexperienced teachers face many challenges because everything is new and, thus, more demanding. During these induction years, inexperienced teachers often struggle to maintain control over their classrooms, which often leads to ineffective student management (Feiman-Nemser, 2003). The large percentage of experienced teachers could have negated the potential indirect effects of emotion regulation in this study. It might be advantageous in future studies

to test whether the mediation of emotional regulation between teachers' perception of student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion exists with beginning teachers only.

Despite the lack of mediation support for emotion regulation strategies, it was found that both emotion regulation strategies directly related to emotional exhaustion. A direct negative relationship was found between cognitive reappraisal and emotional exhaustion, but a direct positive relationship was found between expressive suppression and emotional exhaustion. These results echo similar relationships found between both emotion regulation strategies and burnout with service workers (Grandey, 2003; Grandey et al., 2004). Cognitive reappraisal is typically considered to be an effective coping strategy for reducing negative emotions from stressful situations, and thus decreases the likelihood of becoming emotionally overwhelmed (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007; Yamasaki et al., 2006). On the other hand, the suppression of emotions is often associated with less optimal outcomes, such as pessimism, depressive symptoms, job dissatisfaction and intentions of job turnover (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Cote & Morgan, 2002; Richards, & Gross 2000; Sutton, 2004). Accordingly, exploring practical ways that help teachers to engage in cognitive reappraisal appears to be a worthy line of future research and application.

As predicted inH₅₋₆, a significant and positive relationship exists between emotional exhaustion and both types of turnover intentions (i.e., migration and attrition). Confirming that emotional exhaustion is a significant predictor of teacher turnover makes a substantial contribution to the literature, which, to date, has only implied the existence of this relationship (Schwab et al., 1986). This finding reinforces the necessity to prevent, alleviate, or treat teacher feelings of emotional exhaustion before it drives teachers out of the profession or school district (Boe et al., 2008). Identifying emotional exhaustion as a significant contributor to teacher turnover intentions may spark new approaches in the study of teacher turnover and retention (Ingersoll, 2001). In light of this study, one worthy approach may be to develop intervention programs that specifically focus on decreasing teacher emotional exhaustion. The few intervention programs available to develop teacher social and emotional competence may serve as useful guides (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

Additional findings, as part of our post-hoc analysis, suggest that teacher perceptions of student misbehavior have an indirect effect on teacher turnover intentions through emotional exhaustion. This finding indicates that frequent experience with student misbehavior can lead to emotional exhaustion, potentially leading to damaging career-related thoughts such as leaving the profession entirely or changing job locations. Researchers argue that there is a need to better understand emotional exhaustion and how it affects work experiences (Côté & Morgan, 2002, Wright, & Cropanzano, 1998). The results from this study document the need to further investigate and consider student misbehavior as a key variable in keeping teachers in the workforce and at their current school.

Limitations

The first limitation relates to the cross-sectional design of this study and the use of self-reported measures to assess all constructs. One time measures do not always provide a full picture of what is assessed and research experts recommend that qualitative measures and longitudinal studies can significantly add to the breadth of a study (Brouwers & Tomics, 2000; Côté & Morgan, 2002; Yamasaki, et al., 2006). A second limitation is related to the sample of the study. Teachers from two sections of the country voluntarily participated in the study, and therefore some caution is advised when generalizing the results. The third limitation relates to the use of one-item scales to assess some of the constructs such as teacher perceptions of student misbehavior. However, this study provided an exploratory snapshot of the mechanism by which teacher perceptions of student misbehavior may affect emotional exhaustion and turnover, which can be further tested with more nuanced methodologies and measurement approaches.

Implications

Despite these limitations, the study confirms and extends past research regarding the contributing role of teacher perceptions of student misbehavior to emotional exhaustion. One important implication from this study is that specific forms of teacher efficacy play a fundamental role in explaining emotional exhaustion. Teachers who constantly doubt their skills in establishing a controlled classroom environment can suffer emotionally, which can influence the decision to continue working in the profession or at one's current school.

Teachers should realize that continuous preparation in improving their classroom management skills is imperative since it could influence perceptions of efficacy in handling their students. Therefore, professional development programs need to prepare teachers to face and confront their students efficiently by training them to develop strategies, rules, and guidelines in handling student misconduct. Another implication is the need to equip teachers with coping resources to avoid emotional exhaustion. We suggest that research should continue to assess emotion regulation strategies as one way to explain the emotional exhaustion process.

An additional implication is that teachers having to cope with adverse situations, such as student misbehavior, should not be taken lightly, since our results show that teachers can become emotionally drained and more susceptible to turnover. This implies the urgency for professional development programs, school administrators and researchers to offer strategies to alleviate teacher emotional exhaustion. Reducing emotional exhaustion may result in decreased turnover intentions as well. Thus, teaching teachers the skills to improve their efficacy is critical.

In conclusion, future studies that address teachers' self-efficacy regarding classroom conduct may be a valuable approach for enhancing teachers' emotional experiences and overall retention. Although the mediating findings of emotion regulation were not supported, this study is the first attempt to understand the intervening processes inherent to the emotional experience of disciplining students. Researchers are now able to narrow the focus of future studies and find other emotion regulation or self-efficacy strategies to effectively handle student misbehavior.

References

- Almog, O., & Shechtman, Z. (2007). Teachers' democratic and efficacy beliefs and styles of coping with behavioural problems of pupils with special needs. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 22*, 115–129.
- Arbuckle, J. L. (2006). *Amos (Version 7.0)* [Computer Program]. Chicago: SPSS.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist, 44*, 1175-1184.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W.H. Freeman & Co.
- Barsade, S. G., & Gibson, D. E. (2007). Why does affect matter in organizations? *Academy of Management Perspectives, 21*, 36-59.
- Betoret, F. D. (2006). Stressors, self-efficacy, coping resources, and burnout among secondary school teachers in Spain. *Educational Psychology, 26*, 519-539.
- Boe, E. E., Cook, L. H., & Sunderland, R. J. (2008). Teacher turnover: Examining exit attrition, teaching area transfer, and school migration. *Exceptional Children, 75*, 7-31.
- Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. (2003). Development and validation of the emotional labour scale. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 76*, 365-379.
- Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2000). A longitudinal study of teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy in classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 16*, 239–254.
- Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2001). The factorial validity of scores on the teacher interpersonal self-efficacy scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 61*, 433-445.
- Byrne, B. M. (1991). The Maslach Burnout Inventory: Validating factorial structure and invariance across intermediate, secondary, and university educators. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 26*, 583-605.
- Byrne, B. M. (1994). Testing for the factorial validity, replication, and invariance of a measuring instrument: A paradigmatic application based on the Maslach Burnout Inventory. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 29*, 289-311.
- Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1999). Stress, coping, and self-regulatory processes. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (2nd ed., pp. 553-575). New York: Guilford Press.
- Chan, D. W. (2006). Emotional intelligence and components of burnout among Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 22*, 1042-1054.
- Côté, S., & Morgan, L. M. (2002). A longitudinal analysis of the association between emotion regulation, job satisfaction, and intentions to quit. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*, 947-962.

- Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D. E., & Byrne, Z. S. (2003). The relationship of emotional Exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 160-169.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 499-512.
- Ducharme L. J., Knudsen, H. K., & Roman, P. M. (2008). Emotional exhaustion and turnover intention in human service occupations: The protective role of coworker support. *Sociological Spectrum*, 28, 81-104.
- Egyed, C. J., & Short, R. J. (2006). Teacher self-efficacy, burnout, experience and decision to refer a disruptive student. *School Psychology International*, 27, 462-474.
- Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of educational psychology, with implications for teacher education. *Educational Psychologist*, 36, 103-112.
- Evers, W. J. G., Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2002). Burnout and self-efficacy: A study on teachers' beliefs when implementing an innovative educational system in Netherlands. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72, 227-243.
- Evers, W. J. G., Tomic, W., & Brouwers, A. (2004). Burnout among teachers: Students' and teachers' perceptions compared. *School Psychology International*, 25, 131-148.
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2003). What new teachers need to learn. *Educational Leadership*, 60, 25-29.
- Friedman, I. A. (1995). Student behavior patterns contributing to teacher burnout. *Journal of Educational Research*, 88, 281-289.
- Friedman, I. A. (2006). Classroom management and teacher stress and burnout. In C. M. Evertson, & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues* (pp. 925-944). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Folkman, S. & Moskowitz, J. T. (2000). Positive affect and the other side of coping. *American Psychologist*, 55, 647-654.
- Grandey, A. A. (2000). Emotion regulation in the workplace: A new way to conceptualize emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 95-110.
- Grandey, A. A. (2003). When "the show must go on": Surface acting and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46, 86-96.
- Grandey, A. A., Dickter, D. N., & Sin, H. (2004). The customer is not always right: Customer aggression and emotion regulation of service employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 397-418.
- Gross, J. J. (1998a). Antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation: Divergent consequences for experience, expression, and physiology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 224-237.

- Gross, J. J. (1998b). The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Review of General Psychology*, 2, 271-299.
- Gross, J. J., & John, P. O. (2003). Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85, 348-362.
- Gross, J. J., & Thompson, R. A. (2007). Emotion regulation: Conceptual foundations. In J. J. Gross (Ed.), *Handbook of Emotion Regulation* (pp. 3-24). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Hargreaves, A. (1998). The emotional practice of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 14, 835-854.
- Hu, L. & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 1-55.
- Ingersoll, R. (2001). Teacher turnover and teacher shortages: An organizational analysis. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38, 499-534.
- Jennings, P. A., & Greenberg, M. T. (2009). The prosocial classroom: Teacher social and emotional competence in relation to student and classroom outcomes. *Review of Educational Research*, 79, 491-525.
- Kaplan, H. B. (1996). Psychosocial stress from the perspective of self theory. In H. B. Kaplan (Ed.), *Psychosocial stress: Perspective on structure, theory, life-course, and methods* (pp. 175-244). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Koeske, G. F., & Koeske, R. D. (1993). A preliminary test of a stress-strain-outcome model for reconceptualizing the burnout phenomenon. *Journal of Social Service Research*, 17, 107-135.
- Kokkinos, M. C. (2007). Job stressors, personality and burnout in primary school teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77, 229-243.
- Kounin, J. S. (1970). *Discipline and group management in classrooms*. New York: Holt.
- Kulinna, P. H., Cothran, D., & Regualos, R. (2003). Development of an instrument to measure student disruptive behavior. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science*, 7, 25-41.
- Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1993). A further examination of managerial burnout: Toward an integrated model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14, 3-20.
- Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 123-133.
- Lee, T. W., & Mowday, R.T. (1987). Voluntary leaving an organization: An empirical investigation of Steers and Mowday's model of turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 30, 721-743.
- Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Schwab, R. L. (1996). Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES). In C. Maslach, S. E., Jackson, & M. P. Leiter (Eds.), *MBI manual* (3rd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: CPP, Inc.

- Maslach, C., Leiter, M. P., & Schaufeli, W. (2008). Measuring burnout. In C. L. Cooper & S. Cartwright (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational well-being* (pp. 86-108). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Richards, M. J., & Gross, J. J. (2000). Emotion regulation and memory: The cognitive costs of keeping one's cool. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79, 410-424.
- Ross, J. A., & Bruce, C. (2007). Professional development effects on teacher efficacy: Results of randomized field trial. *Journal of Educational Research*, 101, 50-60.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Enzmann, D. (1998). *The burnout companion to study and practice: A critical analysis*. Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.
- Schwab, R. L., Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1986). Educator burnout: Sources and consequences. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 10(3), 14-30.
- Shechtman, Z., Levy, M., & Leichtentritt, J. (2005). Impact of life skills training on teachers' perceived environment and self-efficacy. *Journal of Educational Research*, 98(3), 144-154.
- Shirom, A. (1989). Burnout in work organizations. In C. L. Cooper & I. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial-organizational psychology* (pp. 25-48). New York: Wiley.
- Sutton R. E. (2004). Emotional regulation goals and strategies of teachers. *Social Psychology of Education*, 7, 379-398.
- Sutton, R. E., & Wheatley, K. F. (2003). Teachers' emotions and teaching: A review of the literature and directions for future research. *Educational Psychology Review*, 15, 327-358.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (1996). *Using multivariate statistics* (3rd ed.). New York: Harper Collins.
- Tucker, C. M., Porter, T., Reinke, W. M., Herman, K. C., Ivery, P. D., Mack, C. E., & Jackson, E. S. (2005). Promoting teacher efficacy for working with culturally diverse students. *Preventing School Failure*, 50, 29-34.
- Tugade, M. M., & Fredrickson B. L. (2007). Regulation of positive emotions: Emotion regulation strategies that promote resilience. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 8, 311-333.
- U. S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2007). *Teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the 2004-2005 Teacher follow-up Survey*. (NCES 2007-307). Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office. Retrieved October 8, 2007, from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007307.pdf>.
- Wright, T. A. & Cropanzano, R. (1998). Emotional exhaustion as a predictor of job performance and voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 486-493.

Yamasaki, K., Sakai, A., & Uchida, K. (2006). A longitudinal study of the relationship between positive affect and both problem- and emotion focused coping strategies. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 34, 499-510.

APPENDIX E: LETTER OF PERMISSION



Costas Tsouloupas <ctsoul1@tigers.lsu.edu>

RE: Permission to include in Dissertation Document [pfCase:229571, pfTicket:5283635]

From: <CustomerCare@copyright.com>
Date: Thu, Feb 24, 2011 at 12:26 AM
Subject: RE: Permission to include in Dissertation Document [pfCase:229571, pfTicket:5283635]
To: Costas Tsouloupas <ctsoul1@tigers.lsu.edu>

Dear Costas Tsouloupas,
My apologies for the inconvenience. Yes, you may proceed with using the material in your dissertation without placing a permission request via Rightslink. Should you have further questions, please feel free to contact us.
Sincerely,
Hanna Sta. Ines, Customer Service Representative, Copyright Clearance Center, 222 Rosewood Drive, Danvers, MA 01923

From: Costas Tsouloupas [mailto:ctsoul1@tigers.lsu.edu]
Sent: Thursday, February 24, 2011 1:17 AM
To: customercare@copyright.com
Subject: Re: Permission to include in Dissertation Document [pfCase: 229571, pfTicket:5283635]

Thank you for the quick response. I already did what you have asked me to do and I got the following message "Taylor & Francis is pleased to offer reuses of its content for a thesis or dissertation free of charge contingent on resubmission of permission request if work is published." Also, in your "help topics" you discuss that "A thesis/dissertation license authorizes an advanced degree candidate to republish the requested material in his/her doctoral thesis or dissertation free of charge. No license is required although resubmission of permission request, for a fee, is required if the work is published." With that said, can I proceed with including the paper in my dissertation? I am not planning to resubmit the paper for publication; I only need it as an appendix in my dissertation. Thank you

Costas N Tsouloupas

On Wed, Feb 23, 2011 at 11:47 PM, <CustomerCare@copyright.com> wrote:

Dear Costas Tsouloupas, Thank you for contacting Copyright Clearance Center's Rightslink® service. Rightslink is a licensing service that provides permission for the reproduction and distribution of copyrighted materials in print and electronic formats on behalf of rightsholders who list their titles with us. Rightslink is a service that is accessed directly through a publisher's website. Please be aware that the types of licenses offered are established by each individual rightsholder, and will vary.

Sincerely,
Hanna Sta. Ines, Customer Service Representative, Copyright Clearance Center, 222 Rosewood Drive, Danvers, MA 01923

From: Costas Tsouloupas [mailto:ctsoul1@tigers.lsu.edu]
Sent: Tuesday, February 22, 2011 2:15 PM
To: customercare@copyright.com
Subject: Permission to include in Dissertation Document [pfCase:229571, pfTicket:5283098]

To whom it may concern,
I am writing to request that I may include as an appendix of my dissertation the manuscript "Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehaviour and emotional exhaustion: The importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation" that was published by Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology. I will be submitting my dissertation to the Louisiana State University Graduate School in the next couple of weeks in order to graduate this May. Publication of this manuscript in Educational Psychology will be acknowledged in the dissertation. Thank you for your time, and I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely
Costas Tsouloupas, MA, PhD Candidate
Louisiana State University, Department of Kinesiology, 112 Long Fieldhouse, Baton Rouge, LA 70803-7101



Title: Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehaviour and emotional exhaustion: the importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation

Author: Costas N. Tsouloupas, Russell L. Carson, Russell Matthews et al.

Publication: Educational Psychology

Publisher: Taylor & Francis

Date: Jan 3, 2010

Logged in as:
Costas Tsouloupas

LOGOUT

Copyright © 2010 Routledge

Thesis/Dissertation Reuse Request

Taylor & Francis is pleased to offer reuses of its content for a thesis or dissertation free of charge contingent on resubmission of permission request if work is published.

BACK

CLOSE WINDOW

Copyright © 2011 [Copyright Clearance Center, Inc.](#) All Rights Reserved. [Privacy statement.](#)
Comments? We would like to hear from you. E-mail us at customercare@copyright.com

VITA

Costas Nicou Tsouloupas was born in Nicosia, Cyprus, a Greek Island in the Mediterranean Sea. He has been a former tennis player in the national junior team of his country. He has also played in Division I NCAA Collegiate tennis during his undergraduate program of study. He graduated from Southern Illinois University at Carbondale in 2004 with a bachelor's degree in physical education-athletic training and a bachelor's degree in psychology.

As a student athletic trainer, Costas worked with collegiate sports teams (e.g. football, volleyball, tennis, softball, soccer) and in rehabilitation clinics. He also served for six months as the head student athletic trainer for the Men's and Women's Track and Field teams. While pursuing his bachelor degrees, Costas was the recipient of the annual International Students and Scholars Award five times and was recognized by the National Athletic Training Association (NATA) for his contribution of 1500+ hours working with various collegiate teams and physical therapy clinics.

Costas acquired his master's degree in kinesiology with an emphasis in sport psychology from California State University at Fresno. During his master's degree, Costas was actively involved in the development and administration of a new sport psychology curriculum designed for high school student-athletes. He was responsible in creating lesson plans on sport psychology topics and administering these lessons to student athletes on a weekly basis. For his thesis, Costas collaborated with well-known experts in the field of physical activity and health promotion at schools such as Dr. Robert Pangazi and Dr. Wade Gilbert to assess the effectiveness of a School-based Healthy Activities Program for Exercise (SHAPE) intervention designed to address the youth obesity epidemic in Central California. This initiative was funded and promoted by the Central California Children's Institute, Health Net, and Walk4Life Inc. Due to the successful results of his thesis, Costas was hired by Health Net to adapt and administer his thesis intervention to a sixteen-week after-school program promoting healthy lifestyle, obesity prevention, and physical activity. While pursuing his master's degree, Costas was the recipient of the Graduate Tuition Waiver Scholarship (twice) and Jazmyn Breeze Gilbert Memorial Award. He was also awarded with the Graduate School Travel Grant of \$2,200 to present his thesis at an international conference on physical

education, coaching and health Fitness. During his master's program of study, Costas made seven presentations at national and international conferences. After graduating with his master's degree, Costas continued to teach activity courses at California State University, Fresno as a part-time faculty for a year. During that time he also served as the head coach of the boy's junior varsity tennis at Clovis West High School and as the head coach of the men's tennis at Fresno City Junior College. Costas also coached high performance junior tennis players in Fresno.

Costas began his doctoral degree in sport pedagogy and psychological Sciences at Louisiana State University in 2007. While pursuing his doctorate, Costas was the recipient of the Outstanding Graduate Student Scholarship four years in a row and College of Education Lilian Oleson Scholarship three years in a row. Costas was recruited among other physical activity experts for the development of a physical activity manual utilizing playground equipment. He was acknowledged for his contributions in the book "Play On!: Playground Learning Activities for Youth Fitness." During his doctoral program of study, Costas has had four articles published and has made five presentations at national and international conferences.