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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER BELIEFS, CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT, AND TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER BELIEFS, CLASSROOM
MANAGEMENT, AND TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

A Dissertation
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education
in
Educational Leadership

by
Jo Ann Conriquez
June 2020

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the extent to which teachers' pupil control ideology relates to teachers' management beliefs and their perceived relationships with their students. A mixed methods approach was used to explore the correlations between teachers' pupil control ideology, classroom management beliefs, and their perceived student-teacher relationships, with pupil control ideology as the basis for teachers' beliefs and attitudes about control. This study included 34 middle school participants from a school district that serves low income students of color. Significant correlations were identified between teachers' years in the profession and control ideologies, with qualitative results providing additional descriptive analysis regarding teachers' perceptions of their relationships with students. The findings within this study indicate that teacher years in the profession and control ideologies need to be taken into consideration by school site administrators when looking at teacher-student relationships. In order to facilitate growth and community between teachers and students in the classroom, awareness of teacher ideologies is key to helping build positive relationships with their students.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Middle school teachers are at the center of a young student's academic and social life. Research has shown that student transition to middle school is difficult: Students lose interest in school, attendance declines, and peer friendships become more volatile (Akos & Galassi, 2004; Holas & Huston, 2012). Middle school teachers are at the apex of controlling engagement in the classroom. Not only do they deliver specialized content; they are also in charge of navigating the social relationships between teacher and student and student and peer (Ryan & Patrick, 2001). As students transition into middle school, the changes that occur in the classroom have a profound impact on them. How the teacher handles students' desire for autonomy, interactions with peers, and self-consciousness can affect academic motivation and disrupt social relationships (Wigfield & Eccles, 1994).

Teachers' ideologies exist on a continuum that is activated by context but is best understood as an integrated system (Fives & Buehl, 2012; Schulte, Edick, Edwards, & Mackiel, 2005). Teachers with a belief system that falls into a negative category may feel overwhelmed by school bureaucracies, may think student support is primarily the families' responsibility, and may find the curriculum is too overwhelming to present to the students because they do not

believe students can do the work (Borko, Liston, & Whitcomb, 2007; Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding, & Cuthbert, 1988). This negative thinking can affect how approachable and how effective teachers are. As classrooms are becoming more diverse, the manner in which teachers view their multicultural competence can create a complex classroom environment when lack of attention is paid to the culture of the students and community (Henninger & Ensign, 2020; Warren, 2018; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). Teachers will often distort their perceptions of how their students view them. Teachers will change how they act according to how they believe their students want them to act. If the teacher behavior and ideal behavior do not match the climate and culture of the class, it can cause a strain in the relationship with students (Bonner, Warren, & Jiang, 2018; Wubbels, Brekelmans, & Hooymayers, 1992).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the extent to which teachers' pupil control ideology relates to teachers' classroom management beliefs and perceived relationships with students. With Willower, Eidell, and Hoy's (1967) pupil control ideology as the lens, this study asked teachers to evaluate their pupil control ideology, classroom management beliefs, and student-teacher relationships and allowed for participants to reflect on their scores and relationships with their students.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The study focused on four primary questions regarding teachers' pupil control ideology, classroom management beliefs, and student-teacher relationships:

1. What are the overall descriptive data based on middle school teachers' pupil control ideology, management beliefs, and perceived teacher-student relationships?
2. What do middle school teachers say about their results of their pupil control ideology, teacher management beliefs, and perceived relationships with their students?
3. How do middle school teachers describe their relationships with students that are not positive?
4. What do middle school teachers think they could do and the school could do to support the development of positive relationships with students?

A hypothesis was developed to respond to the research questions. The hypothesis for the study was the following:

- There will be a significant relationship between teachers' pupil control ideology, teachers' management beliefs, and their perceived relationships with their students.

A null hypothesis was developed in conjunction with the alternate hypothesis. The null hypothesis for the study was the following:

- There will be no significant relationship between teachers' pupil control ideology, teachers' management beliefs, and their perceived relationships with their students.

Theoretical Underpinnings

This study explored the extent to which teachers' pupil control ideology and classroom management beliefs interrelated with teachers' relationships with their students. Pupil control ideology (PCI) as described by Willower et al. (1967) is an ideology of control over students held by school personnel. Pupil control ideology is an adaptation of the work done by Gilbert and Levinson (1957) and the research conducted in mental hospitals. This ideology exists on a two-way continuum from custodial to humanistic. Although pupil control ideology is an older construct, it remains valid. It is still used in the field of education (Garcia-Moya, 2020; Parker-Hart, 2019; Willis, 2019). Throughout this study, PCI structures were used as the means by which teachers viewed their perceived relationships with their students.

Assumptions

Assumptions in this study included that teachers' relationships with their students are important. Milner and Tenore (2010) found that teachers' relationship quality improves in multicultural classrooms when the teacher can distinguish between equity and equality, can identify power structures in the classroom, and is willing to engage with students in the classroom. In addition,

Koles, O'Conner, and Collins (2013) discovered that teachers who had more conflictual relationships with students were more likely to suffer from anxiety and depression.

Another assumption is that teachers' beliefs are malleable and can be influenced positively. Muijs and Reynolds (2015) described teacher beliefs as dynamic and permeable mental structures that can change in light of experience. When teachers are willing to collaborate with others and set goals, the teaching environment becomes positive (Kagan, 1992). However, teachers can become a victim of their own beliefs. Teachers who become isolated within their classrooms and avoid interaction with colleagues can become self-reliant, detached, and pessimistic about their ability to affect positive change among students (Kagan, 1992). Finally, I assumed for this study that all participants responded to the items in all survey sections with honesty and accuracy to the best of their knowledge.

Limitations

This study was designed to be explorative in nature, reviewing the ideologies and beliefs of teachers and how they relate to their perceived relationships with their students. The district selected met the requirements for participation; however, the district was chosen in part as a convenience sample, which affects generalizability. All participants were employed with the school district as middle school teachers at the time of the study.

Initially, focus groups were scheduled for this study. One limitation of this study was that only one participant showed up for the focus group session. Due to lack of participation, the focus group needed to be changed to an interview format. The results of this study must be interpreted as time based and cross-sectional in nature. Both survey items and interview were affected due to the number of participants in the study. This limits the generalizability of the results, as this does not represent a range of experiences of teacher groups. Finally, no students were asked to participate in the study. This is another limitation, as the views and perceptions of the students matter too; they are the other participant in the relationship.

Delimitations

This study did not address teacher test scores, teacher effectiveness, or teachers' relationships with their colleagues. This study focused on the exploration of classroom beliefs, pupil control ideology, and teachers' perceived relationships with their students.

Definition of Terms

1. Pupil control ideology (PCI): Beliefs held by teachers about the control of students. These beliefs are conceptualized as a continuum ranging from humanistic to custodial (Willower et al., 1967).

2. Humanistic PCI: The view held by teachers who desire a democratic classroom with open communication and pupil self-determination (Willower et al., 1967).
3. Custodial PCI: The view held by teachers who consider most pupils irresponsible and exercise watchful mistrust over pupil behavior (Willower et al., 1967).
4. Revised Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory (ABCC-R): An instrument to measure teachers' perceptions of their approaches to classroom management control (Martin, Yin, & Baldwin, 1998).
5. Instructional management: A category in the ABCC-R Inventory that includes tasks having to do with classroom instruction such as monitoring seatwork, organizing routines, and distributing material (Martin, Yin, & Mayall, 2007).
6. People management: Pertains to what teachers believe about students as persons and what teachers do to develop student-teacher relationships (Martin et al., 2007).
7. Noninterventionist: The belief that people have their own needs that tend to express and accomplish themselves; the teacher takes minimal control in the classroom (Djigic & Stojiljkovic, 2012).

8. Interventionist: The belief that human development is affected by the external environment (people and facilities) and that the teacher takes full control in the classroom (Djigic & Stojiljkovic, 2012).
9. Interactionist: The belief that there is mutual influence between the individual and the environment; classroom interactions are shared by the teacher and student (Djigic & Stojiljkovic, 2012).
10. Student-teacher relationship: The perception of a teacher's relationship with a student (Pianta, 2001).
11. Closeness: The degree to which a teacher experiences warmth, affection, and open communication with students (Pianta, 2001).
12. Conflict: The degree to which a teacher perceives his or her relationship with a student as negative or conflictual (Pianta, 2001).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Classroom teachers' attitudes and beliefs are important concepts in understanding teachers' thought processes, classroom practices, change, and learning to teach (Richardson, 1996). The way in which teachers think about their relationships with students includes biological factors (e.g., gender) and biological processes (e.g., temperament, genetics, responsivity to stressors) as well as developed features such as personality, self-esteem, or intelligence (Pianta, Hamre, & Stuhlman, 2003). This study aimed to explore the extent to which teachers' beliefs and ideologies influence their management style and perceived relationships with their students.

The three bodies of literature selected for this review were related to the subjects of (a) teachers' beliefs and ideologies regarding students, (b) teachers' beliefs and classroom management style, and (c) teachers' beliefs and teacher-student relationships. To develop a foundational understanding of teacher attitudes, this study first provides a comprehensive overview of teacher belief systems. Gaining a solid understanding of teacher belief systems assists in recognizing the importance of teacher belief systems and shows how they specifically affect the ability of students to connect to teachers in the classroom. Additionally, it is helpful to understand the effect teacher attitudes have on their classroom management style, especially in how they contribute to classroom

discipline and student expectations. The literature on teacher-student relationships has identified both the benefits of having positive experiences with teachers and the challenges that affect the teacher-student relationship. When teachers recognize their belief system and identify their classroom management style, they can choose present and future behaviors that likely will alter their relationship with students.

This study focused on teachers at the middle school level. Middle school is for students who are at the in-between stages of adolescence. The function of middle school is to assist children who are transitioning from a childhood program (elementary school) to an adolescent program (high school). There are two reform reports guiding the middle school movement: *Turning Points: Preparing American Youth for the 21st Century* (Carnegie Council, 1989; Jackson, 2000) and *This We Believe in Action: Implementing Successful Middle Level Schools* (Association for Middle Level Education, 2012). These two reforms serve as guidelines for middle-level educators to focus on school programs with interdisciplinary team structures, a child-centered philosophy, heterogeneous groupings for most subjects, specialization of subjects, interdisciplinary activities, an appropriate core curriculum, time and flexibility for exploration, activities structured around the team or unit concept, and teaching strategies geared specifically toward young adolescents (Hoy & Hannum, 1997). If anything, these two reform reports reinforce the socially accepted notion that the middle school's primary responsibility is to influence students' personal-social

behavior and the middle school teacher's is to influence and oversee the development of the ethical, responsible, self-reliant, and clear-thinking individuals the students will become (Lounsbury, 2009). Because this expectation is bestowed upon the middle school teacher by these two reforms in the era of Common Core Standards and the Every Student Succeeds Act initiative, teacher belief systems and their effect on the teacher-student relationship are increasingly relevant. Exploring these belief systems provides insight on teacher values and the teachers' classroom management style, which in turn influences students' ability to connect and succeed in the classroom.

Conceptual Framework

Willower et al. (1967) were the first to pay attention to how schools and teachers view their students. This concept is called pupil control ideology. Willower et al. determined pupil control is at the core of the culture and climate of schools. The amount of control teachers wish to exercise over their students has an impact on teacher-student, teacher-administrator, and teacher-community relationships. Hoy and Jalovick (1979) expanded on the two extremes of pupil control. In the first, the humanistic approach, the school is perceived as an educational community where the students learn through cooperation and experience. Learning and behavior follow a psychological and sociological model instead of a moralistic one. The student is expected to exhibit restraint through self-discipline instead of through strict teacher control. On the other

hand, the custodial viewpoint is rigid and highly controlled. Teachers with a custodial viewpoint expect students to accept decisions without question, and misbehavior is viewed as irresponsible and undisciplined, to be controlled with punitive measures.

Teacher beliefs can be defined by a set of characteristics that include (a) implicit and explicit nature, (b) stability over time, (c) situated or generalized nature, (d) relation to knowledge, and (e) existence as individual propositions or larger systems (Fives & Buehl, 2012). The following review of studies focuses on the impact of teacher beliefs and their possible effects on classroom management and teacher-student relationships. Relationships are a part of the classroom dynamic. Additionally, a teacher's belief system may change over time, affecting students' attitudes toward school, behavior, and willingness to learn (Davidson & Lang, 1960; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Rideout & Morton, 2007).

Pupil control ideology reflects an earlier way of exploring these relational dynamics. The pupil control studies recognized the similarities of schools as well as the differences. Upon visiting any school campus, one may intuit that the school is a nice place to work or the relationships among the adults are terrible; ultimately, this initial reaction describes the atmosphere of the school (Halpin & Croft, 1962). Schools are social institutions where learning is not the only function; they have social, emotional, physical, and moral functions as well (Lunenburg & O'Reilly, 1974). One contextual factor that influences this atmosphere is the teachers in the school. According to Barfield and Burlingame

(1974), "A proliferation of rules may exist when distrust in the organization is present" (p. 6). Student perceptions of teachers' beliefs in the classroom can have a robust or dramatic impact on classroom life (Multhauf, Willower, & Licata, 1978).

Custodial to Humanistic

Willower et. al. (1967) described teacher control as two extremes on a continuum from custodial to humanistic. Hoy (2001) describes the custodial orientation as a classroom atmosphere with a rigid and highly controlled where the primary concern is with maintenance and order. Students are stereotyped in terms of their appearance, behavior, and parents' social status. In addition, students must accept decisions from teachers without question (Hoy & Jolovick, 1979). Teachers who hold a custodial ideology believe student misbehavior is personal. Students are viewed as irresponsible who must be controlled by rules. Impersonality, pessimism, and watchful mistrust imbue the atmosphere of the custodial school (Hoy, 2001).

On the other hand, the model of the humanistic orientation conceives of the school as an educational community in which students learn through working together and experience. Hoy and Jolovick (1979) describe the humanistic orientation as:

Learning and behavior are viewed in psychological and sociological terms rather than moralistic ones. Self-discipline is substituted for strict teacher control. The humanistic orientation leads teachers to desire a democratic

atmosphere with its flexibility in status and rules, sensitivity to others, open communication, and increased student self-determination. Both teachers and students are willing to act of their own volition and accept responsibility for their actions. (p. 46)

Several studies have examined the relationship between various teacher characteristics and predispositions toward pupil control ideology. These studies have found an association among student outcomes (Deibert & Hoy, 1977; Hoy, 1972; Lunenburg, 1991; Lunenburg & Schmidt, 1989), school climate (Appleberry & Hoy, 1969; Bean & Hoy, 1974; Hoy & Sweetland, 2001; Lunenburg & Mankowsky, 2000), and teacher personality (Blankenship & Hoy, 1967; Helsel, 1976; Leppert & Hoy, 1972; Lunenburg & Cadavid, 1992). While there is sufficient evidence to suggest teachers who have a humanistic or control ideology are useful in identifying disciplinary issues in the classroom, I chose to focus on how these extremes influence the relationship between teachers and students.

Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Management Style

Brophy (2006) described classroom management as a three-tiered system that includes student socialization and disciplinary interventions. Classroom management comprises the actions taken by the teacher to create an environment conducive to successful student learning. This includes arrangement of the classroom, developing rules and procedures, and maintaining

students' attention to lessons and activities. A successful classroom manager also tends to student socialization, which includes personal and social attitudes, beliefs, and behavior. Methods of tending to socialization include communicating expectations, reinforcing acceptable behavior among students, and working with students who demonstrate poor academic or social outcomes. *Disciplinary interventions* refers to how the teacher responds to students who fail to conform to teacher expectations, especially when a student's behavior disrupts the classroom system. Teachers who lack consistency between their classroom management and educational beliefs are more likely to feel inadequate, take student problem behaviors personally, and believe in students not being able to learn (Hamre et al., 2012; Oliver, 1953; Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004; Rimm-Kaufman, Storm, Sawyer, Pianta, & LaParo, 2006; Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1993).

Classroom Management and Classroom Management Style

The knowledge and beliefs held by new teachers may contrast with the knowledge and beliefs held by veteran teachers, as the beliefs held are constantly changing based on the range of experience held by each individual teacher (Fives & Buehl, 2012). People entering the teaching profession in general feel prepared about the fundamental knowledge of the content they will be teaching, but many teachers are confused by the requirements necessary to facilitate classroom instruction (Buehl & Fives, 2009). Simmons, Emory, and Carter (1999) followed five teachers over the course of 3 years and observed

their beliefs and actions. There was a notable change in three teachers, who demonstrated a student-centered approach at the beginning of their teaching careers but transitioned to a teacher-centered approach as they acclimated to the school environment. Teachers entering the profession with a student-centered approach to classroom management is not uncommon, as new teachers are often coming from a university program espousing the student-centered belief (Alger, 2009). In addition, novice teachers often have the support of university supervisors and mentor teachers who continuously help and are supporting their belief system (Fives, Hamman, & Olivarez, 2007; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008). A mismatch between teacher beliefs and classroom management appears when teachers do not view the instruction and management of students as a whole but instead as two separate entities (Garrett, 2008). When a teacher experiences frustration and failure with the behavior of students or failure of a lesson, the strategies or belief system used may no longer be held as valid (Haney & McArthur, 2002).

Expectations

The manner in which the teacher frames academic and behavioral expectations should reflect all students. Establishing effective academic and behavior expectations for a culturally responsive classroom requires more than learning a few words of a student's native language or decorating a bulletin board with students' countries of origin (Weinstein, Curran, & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2003).

Brophy and Good (1970) described how students in classrooms who potentially have a belief or expectation different from their teacher's may be affected:

- (a) The teacher forms differential expectations for student performance;
- (b) He then begins to treat children differently in accordance with his differential expectation;
- (c) The children respond differentially to the teacher because they are being treated differently by him;
- (d) In responding to the teacher, each child tends to exhibit behavior which complements and reinforces the teacher's particular expectation;
- (e) As a result, the general academic performance of some children will be enhanced while that of others will be depressed, with changes being in the direction of teacher expectations;
- (f) These effects will show up in the achievement tests given at the end of the year. (p. 365)

These judgments made by teachers can manifest themselves through a variety of characteristics such as student names (Demetrius, 1991), siblings (Baskett, 1985), and even body type (Staffieri, 1972). Thijs, Koomen, and van der Leij (2008) found that when teachers have unfavorable relationship perceptions or constant conflict with a student, they become fixated on controlling the student's behavior.

As teachers transmit these negative messages to students, the teachers may be completely unaware of the message they are sending to students and believe they are supporting them (Babad, 1993). These self-fulfilling prophecies held by teachers regarding students can influence the dynamic and emotional

state in the classroom and affect the relationship between the teacher and students.

Socioeconomic Status

When teachers are unaware of or state that they feel neutral in regard to their own understanding of their own motives, beliefs, biases, values, and assumptions about human behavior, they compromise their ability to manage students from different socioeconomic statuses and students of color (Weinstein et al., 2004). If teachers have a belief system or management style that is authoritative or controlling, the climate in the school and classrooms is less positive and stimulating (Solomon, Battistich, & Hom, 1996). Rist (1970) noticed that when a classroom teacher grouped students by teacher expectations, groups were related to behavior and attitudinal characteristics of the students, especially as the students moved from grade to grade. The encounters students have with their teachers have an impact on their relationships and overall experiences. When teachers focus on behavior management instead of instruction and become referral agents, they continue to maintain the cycle of low achievement (Hurrell, 1995; Winfield, 1986).

Students who have more satisfactory social experiences at school describe more positive interactions with their teachers (Baker, 1999; Ryan & Patrick, 2001). In one study, students with teachers who value education and look beyond socioeconomic status and color attained reasonable achievement scores on tests and graduated on time (Finn & Rock, 1997). Teachers who have

low expectations for students take less time to plan lessons and teach students, whereas high-expectation teachers take the time to plan and make sure lessons are linked with previous instruction (Rubie-Davies, 2007, 2010; Weinstein, Marshall, Brattesani, & Middlestadt, 1982). In a study, Garner and Mahatmya (2015) provided examples of how teachers perceive the social competence of students and the impact of the teacher-student relationship. Poverty had an impact on the development of social competence, and race and ethnicity were heavily influenced by these factors. Teachers who hold deficit beliefs regarding students who come from culturally different backgrounds may not even consider how their actions toward students affect their own leadership and behavior (Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Wubbels et al., 1992).

Perceived Student Behavior

The judgments a teacher makes about a student affect the relationship the teacher has with the student as an individual and in the classroom, as well as how the teacher views the school context (Hamre, Pianta, Downer, & Mashburn, 2008). When teachers were asked what their perception was of the most frequent classroom disruptions, they identified seven classroom problems: (a) verbal impertinence or discourteousness toward the teacher, (b) throwing objects, (c) failure to do homework, (d) cheating, (e) physical violence toward the teacher, (f) using profane or obscene language, and (g) destruction of school property (Moore & Cooper, 1984; Özben, 2010; Short & Short, 1989). Following a fifth-grade class for 2 years, Theriot and Dupper (2010) analyzed the discipline

infractions of 4,196 elementary school students through their first year in middle school and found that discipline infractions increased by 18%. Studies by Foley and Brooks (1978) and Predy, McIntosh, and Frank (2014) confirmed that students who had a higher discipline referral rate at the beginning of the school year would have more discipline problems throughout their middle school years. The quality of the teacher-student relationship is held through a balance of the belief system of the teacher and how these beliefs guide interactions with children (Newberry & Davis, 2008).

Academic Achievement

The things teachers say and teacher behaviors can have an impact on students' intention to learn, future learning behaviors, and academic engagement (Ames, 1992; Stefanou, Perencevich, DiCintio, & Turner, 2004). When teachers demonstrated interest in students' academic performance, the students perceived the teachers as a social partner and student motivation increased (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Using longitudinal data sets, Klem and Connell (2004) found that only 14% of middle school students felt supported by their teachers, and 31% reported they were disengaged. When teachers adopt a more controlling atmosphere, this can be interpreted as being reflective of the teachers' belief system (Reeve, 2009). When teachers have a greater belief in their instructional strategies, the teacher gains confidence in managing the classroom and engaging students in the learning process (Chong, Klassen, Huan, Wong, & Kates, 2010). Additionally, when teachers are focused on the

academic outcomes of students, or the belief that students can learn, student behavior becomes secondary to academic success, and the focus shifts to student performance (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Hines, 2008; Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989; Tournaki & Podell, 2005). While previous evidence suggested that teachers who plan effectively, are organized, and have greater enthusiasm for the field of teaching have a positive influence on student achievement (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003; Coladarci, 1992), recent studies have suggested that the school culture is an additional factor that promotes academic optimism, which elevates student achievement (Hoy, 2012).

Classroom Discipline Style

Ask any teacher educator about classroom discipline, and responses will range from personal experiences to the teacher defending his or her own system of values and principles (Englehart, 2012). Teachers have described fighting in the classroom, lack of supervision, and coming late to class as reasons why teaching has become increasingly difficult (Mokhele, 2006). Research has shown classroom management styles fall on a continuum by a variety of different names with an array of strategies: cooperative learning (Sapon-Shevin, 1994), authoritative (Walker, 2009), social and emotional management (Norris, 2003), and person-centered (Doyle, 2009; Freiberg & Lamb, 2009). Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) described the Beliefs on Discipline Inventory, where teachers can identify their discipline style for student behavior to determine whether they are noninterventionists (low teacher control and high student control),

interventionists (high teacher control and low student control), or interactionists (equal student and teacher control).

A study by Djigic and Stojiljkovic (2011) indicated that teachers who have an interactionist style in the classroom are able to reach student learning goals and build positive discipline practices for students. In a separate study, Tomal (1998) placed teacher discipline styles into five categories: supporter, negotiator, compromiser, abdicator, and enforcer. The data revealed teachers at the secondary level utilize the enforcer discipline style (mean 18.67) more frequently than elementary school teachers, who use more of a supporter style (mean 15.21) (Tomal, 2001). Meanwhile, when asked what teacher style is preferred, students described teachers in an authoritative, leadership role (Weinstein, Woolfolk, Dittmeier, & Shanker, 1994). Lewis (2001) asked students about their interpretations of teacher behavior in the classroom in terms of what creates better relationships with teachers. The students indicated that when classes are more organized and the teacher is interested in what he/she is teaching, fewer disruptions occur in class. Similarly, Roache and Lewis (2011) discovered teachers may not be aware of how much influence they hold over students, especially at the secondary level. Baş (2014) discovered teachers adopt a more humanistic view on education when they care about academic outcomes and a more custodial view when they do not.

Teacher Beliefs and Teacher-Student Relationships

When teachers present themselves as having a personal style in the classroom, the interactions create a working environment that will last for the entire lesson and beyond (van Tartwijk, Brekelmans, Wubbels, Fisher, & Fraser, 1998). A teacher's communication style can be a useful tool to interpret different types of relationships with students in the classroom. Frymier and Houser (2000) found that teacher-student relationships are content driven. Students in this study were more likely to seek out teachers who provided clear expectations and assisted students with their own ego development. In addition, research has shown that when students have an influential relationship with at least one caring adult in their life, their overall educational experience is improved (Sabol & Pianta, 2012). Moreover, Alderman and Green (2011) suggested that when teachers utilized a social powers model in instruction, behavior and academics were in balance. Within this model, teachers demonstrated coercion (control/confrontation in reprimands), manipulation (teacher initiates change, but students feel they made the change on their own), expertness (students make a change based on being emotionally supported by a teacher), and likeability (the teacher's personal characteristics). Both teachers and students agree that when perceptions of their relationship are uncertain, the relationship itself is dissatisfying and admonishing (Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005). Spilt and Koomen (2009) conducted a mixed-methods study assessing teachers' feelings, beliefs, and expectations. The researchers found that closeness is positively

associated with sensitive practices and conflict is positively associated with anger. When adults have problems connecting with students, this potentially negatively affects the education of the students in the long term (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Hamre & Pianta, 2001).

While positive relationships between teacher and student are associated with positive communication, Wentzel (1997) found that students performed better academically and were more socially responsible when they felt the teacher cared about them. When teachers are focused on rule following, personal, moral, and academic development may be lost (Cooper, 2004). Teachers who take the time to construct a management plan in their classroom to get to know students utilize strategies such as handshakes with students, talking to the students in a friendly manner, or initiating a field trip for the students, demonstrating to the students that they are thoughtful in their interactions (van Tartwijk, den Brok, Veldman, & Wubbels, 2009). Webb and Blond (1995) described the narrative of a teacher who followed her moral belief system with her students. This perspective of a teacher and her 53 seventh-grade students depicted how a teacher made her classroom decisions based on her own observations, experiences with middle school children, beliefs, and knowledge of those students as individuals. Finally, this study supported the connection between the quality of teacher-student relationships and caring.

Multiple characteristics are associated with compromising teacher-student relationships. Older students, boys, and students from minority and low-

socioeconomic backgrounds are at greater risk of being negatively affected by the teacher-student relationship. Additionally, when classroom lessons are interrupted by consistent student misbehavior, learning is limited (McGrath & Van Bergen, 2015; Nie & Lau, 2009; Pas, Cash, O'Brennan, Debnam, & Bradshaw, 2015). The manner in which a teacher thinks about a student action can dramatically change the perception of the relationship. For example, if a student does not turn in a homework assignment, instead of believing the student dismissed the lesson, the teacher could change the way she approaches collecting the assignment, which might positively alter the perception of the student (Noddings, 2013; Nolan & Stitzlein, 2011). Countering this negative thinking could have implications for the teacher-student relationship; when teachers change how they see their students, their morals and judgments change. When teachers see all students as student learners, a shift in the standard of learning occurs where the focus is on achievement for all, rather than for only a few (Campbell, Kyriakides, Muijs, & Robinson, 2004).

Adjusting to School

Teachers, like parents, communicate socially accepted goals and expectations to students (Wentzel, 2003). Students who identify the classroom teacher as having the same goals and interests as their parents or families create a pattern of familiarity, and a positive relationship is easily formed (Wentzel, 2002). Students who misbehave or act out at home have conflicting relationships with their teachers, just as students who are anxious have a difficult

time communicating with teachers (Pianta & Steinberg, 1992). When students are identified as at risk socially, not academically, they are likely to benefit from a positive relationship with a teacher (Baker, 2006; Chong, Huan, Quek, Yeo, & Ang, 2010). Students who are able to identify and have a close relationship with their teachers are more open to utilizing the teacher as a resource and a source of support at school (Birch & Ladd, 1998). Moreover, when the teacher's belief system is solely focused on curriculum and teacher directed, the expectation and the value of the student is less; teachers who have a student-centered approach have higher expectations for students (Hauser-Cram, Sirin, & Stipek, 2003).

Furthermore, in a study by Reddy, Rhodes, and Mulhall (2003), middle school students were shown to be affected by the perceptions they felt their teachers held about them. This assertion has implications for students in their attachment and adjustment to school. The relationship between teacher and student is short term and ideally is focused on learning. When teachers judge students solely on behavior, a viewpoint is formed of how much effort and time is invested in a student (Muller, Katz, & Dance, 1999).

School Transitions

Students transitioning from elementary school to middle school and even into high school present different challenges for teachers. In these new settings, students are expected to apply previously learned skills and understanding to different physical and social settings, learn new rules and routines, work more independently, and conform to greater teacher expectations (Perkins & Gelfer,

1995). When students are unable to face the social and academic challenges of these transitioning milestones, the impression left on the teacher is one of low expectations. In general, this is usually communicated through report cards (Erickson & Pianta, 1989). This transition into middle school challenges the middle school students' belief in themselves, underlining the importance of relationships with a significant adult to ease the transition in this part of their educational journey (Blyth, Simmons, & Carlton-Ford, 1983; Wigfield & Eccles, 1994).

Saft and Pianta (2001) conducted a study of teacher-student relationships with the perception of the teacher being influenced by child age, gender, and ethnicity and teacher ethnicity. The researchers discovered teacher attributes accounted for between 4.5% and 27% of negative experiences in relationships with students. In a separate study, Hughes and Cao (2018) tracked student perceptions through the last 4 years of elementary school and the 3 subsequent years into middle school. They found that students perceived the teachers to be less warm immediately following the transition into middle school. This may suggest that teacher-student relationships are in jeopardy before the student enters middle school. Meanwhile, teacher beliefs and trust in student motivation and achievement decline as the students enter middle school (Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1988).

Teacher Emotions

According to Sutton, Mudrey-Camino, and Knight (2009), teachers experience a myriad of emotions when instructional objects are not met: frustration when students do not understand a concept, anger with misbehavior, disappointment with lack of effort, and anxiety when competence is challenged. Teachers acknowledging their emotional experiences in the classroom makes relationships with others and the environment possible. Teachers acknowledging their emotions has an impact on teacher behavior, teacher-student relationships, and the teacher's psychological well-being (Hensley, Pekrun, Goetz, Frenzel, & Keller, 2014; Schutz, Aultman, & Williams-Johnson, 2009). Teachers are faced with a variety of stressful and emotional situations in the classroom that can compromise their relationships with students, how they manage their classroom, and student learning (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Teachers with a custodial orientation were found to experience more depersonalization, less personal accomplishment in the teaching profession, and more emotional exhaustion (Bas, 2011). Newberry (2013) conducted a study with 27 students and one classroom teacher for one school year. The researcher conducted interviews, made classroom observations, and collected written reflections by the classroom teacher. The researcher found that teacher-student relationships vary by student need. It is the belief system held by the teacher that determines how the need is interpreted and judged.

The emotional response to students in the classroom is one where the teacher must balance his/her own emotions as well as the classroom. When teachers have a better interpretation of their emotional intelligence in the classroom, classroom management can become preventive rather than reactive (Poulou, 2017). Yet, the implications for teachers and their emotional experiences in the classroom reach far beyond the connections they make with students. Teachers' belief systems and emotions influence curriculum planning, pedagogy, and the structure in which they work (Hargreaves, 1998). If teachers are to understand the implications of their own behavior in the classroom, it is necessary for teachers to identify their emotional experiences, identify ineffective patterns of judgments on classroom events, and reflect on the emotions they feel (Chang, 2009).

Positive School Outcomes

Students who feel connected to school and their teachers have the following characteristics: caring about what others think about them, compliance with school rules, active participation in school activities, and belief in the institution (Hagborg, 1994). The students are not the only stakeholders in creating and maintaining positive school outcomes. Teachers are also an integral component of the success of the students at school. Teachers who create environments where students feel connected at school feel more supported, and teachers who are supported in their work report greater job satisfaction (Marshall, 2006). Research has suggested that four major aspects of

school life affect and shape school climate (Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, & Pickeral, 2009):

1. Safety: (a) physical, (b) social-emotional
2. Teaching and learning: (a) quality of instruction, (b) social, emotional, and ethical learning, (c) professional development, (d) leadership
3. Relationships: (a) respect for diversity, (b) school and community collaboration, (c) moral and “connectedness”
4. Environmental-structural

Zullig, Koopman, Patton, and Ubbes (2010) examined the school climate literature to solidify the definition of school culture and the impact it has on everyone on a school campus. The main finding in this study was the prominence of teacher-student relationships and the connectedness the people feel on campus. In a separate study, Cohen et al. (2009) found that when teachers have “agency” or teachers are working together with other teachers, parents, and students, a sense of community and relationships are formed. When teachers have this belief in their school community, the results are connections made with students and their families.

A second way of looking at positive school outcomes lies in the belief system of the teacher and his/her collective efficacy. Bandura (1997) used the term *collective efficacy* to describe the school as one unit in the belief that the school staff will have a positive impact on the school. Tschannen-Moran and Barr (2004) and Goddard, Hoy, and Hoy (2000) stressed that collective efficacy

had an impact on middle school students' math and reading achievement. In a separate study, Goddard and Skrla (2006) found that teachers of color in schools with high collective efficacy beliefs are more optimistic toward their teacher colleagues, whereas nonminority colleagues do not feel the same about their non-White colleagues. It is the responsibility of the school principal to bring staff and students together. When schools have a strong academic focus throughout, this is the motivating factor to help teachers and students succeed; these two factors work together and not independently (Hoy, Sweetland, & Smith, 2002).

While collective efficacy demonstrates what the school believes is distinctive in its own educator beliefs, the school's beliefs are also interrelated with the beliefs of the teacher in the classroom. This study explored how teachers' belief systems affect teacher-student relationships while observing how teachers plan for challenging behaviors and students who struggle academically, and how these factors affect teacher emotions. Previous research has established the importance of a teacher's belief system regarding students and how they interact with students and approach classroom management based on those views. This study explored teacher-student relationships through the lens of pupil control ideology and classroom management styles. Further, this study explored the influence of teachers' awareness regarding their pupil control ideology and classroom management style on their perceived relationships with students.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine possible correlations between teachers' pupil control ideology (PCI) and management beliefs and their perceived relationships with their students. PCI is a viewpoint of how much control teachers want over their students. This belief serves as a baseline for the overall climate of the school. Chapter Three outlines the methodology used within this research study. Sections in this chapter include the following: research questions and hypotheses, research design, sample demographics, recruitment and data collection methods, instrumentation, variables, and data analysis procedures.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The primary research questions developed for this study as a part of exploring possible correlations between pupil control ideology, classroom management beliefs, and teacher-student relationships were the following:

1. What are the overall descriptive data based on middle school teachers' pupil control ideology, management beliefs, and perceived teacher-student relationships?

2. What do middle school teachers say about their results of their pupil control ideology, teacher management beliefs, and perceived relationships with their students?
3. How do middle school teachers describe their relationships with students that are not positive?
4. What do middle school teachers think they could do and the school could do to support the development of positive relationships with students?

For this study, the following alternative hypothesis was tested:

H₁: There will be a significant relationship between teachers' pupil control ideology, teachers' management beliefs, and their perceived relationships with their students.

A null hypothesis was developed along with the stated alternative hypothesis. The null hypothesis for the study was the following:

H₀: There will be no significant relationships between teachers' pupil control ideology, teachers' management beliefs, and their perceived relationships with their students.

Research Design

This study used explanatory mixed methods as part of the overall research design. The implementation of a mixed-methods approach is appropriate for describing teachers' pupil control ideology, classroom

management beliefs, and teacher-student relationships. According to Clark and Creswell (2014), “Explanatory mixed methods capture both aspects quantitative and qualitative data—to obtain quantitative results from a population in the first phase, and then refine or elaborate these findings through an in-depth qualitative exploration in the second phase” (p. 299). To understand further the impact that pupil control ideology and classroom management beliefs have on teacher-student relationships, it was advantageous to employ qualitative methods that allowed for teachers to describe how and why classroom management beliefs, control ideologies, and relationships with students affect them (positively or negatively). Teacher beliefs and ideologies frequently involve mood, feelings, emotions, and subjective evaluations and take time for processing (Nespor, 1987). Therefore, the data and analysis within this study acted as a snapshot of a small portion of teachers who work in middle school.

In order to further understand the participants’ beliefs, ideologies, and relationships with their students, a qualitative component was developed to supplement the quantitative data. The discussion allowed for improved understanding of the personal experiences of teachers, as each classroom is managed by a different style yet is a unit of a social group, consisting of a unique culture. This segment is described further in the Instrumentation section of Chapter Three.

Sample Demographics

The participant group consisted of middle school teachers. All of the participants within the final sample group work for the same school district in southern California. A total of 34 middle school teachers completed the survey online, acknowledging their consent to participate on the initial page of the survey. Of the participants, seven (19%) were male and 27 (81%) were female. Table 1 summarizes the demographics of the whole sample population.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------|
| <i>Gender</i> | | |
| Female | 27 | 79.4 |
| Male | 7 | 20.6 |
| <i>Race/Ethnicity</i> | | |
| Asian | 2 | 5.9 |
| Black or African American | 2 | 5.9 |
| Decline to State | 1 | 2.9 |
| Hispanic/Latino | 7 | 20.6 |
| White | 22 | 64.9 |

Note. $N = 34$.

The descriptive statistics for the sample population indicated that 22 participants (61%) reported their race or ethnicity as White, and seven participants (25%) reported it as Hispanic/Latino. All other races and/or ethnicities were indicated by five participants or less.

Participants were requested to note their experience levels in education. The participant group represented a variety of teaching experience. Two (18%) had less than 5 years of teaching experience, 11 (31%) had 6–15 years of teaching experience, 17 (50%) had 16–25 years of teaching experience, and four (11%) had 26 or more years of teaching experience. Table 2 summarizes the teaching experience of the participant group overall, with current teaching assignments. Participants' current teaching assignments in middle school were as follows: nine (29%) were teaching sixth grade, three (13%) were teaching seventh grade, eight (29%) were teaching eighth grade, and nine (29%) were teaching multiple grades.

Recruitment and Data Collection Methods

Participants were recruited by snowball (also called chain or network) sampling to recruit middle school teachers for this study. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2015), this type of purposeful sampling requires the researcher to ask the initial participants to refer the researcher to someone else to participate in the study. Once teachers were recruited for the study, I sent them a link to the survey by email. From the link, they were taken to the informed consent

document. After the participants agreed to participate in the study, they were taken to the survey. At the end of the survey, the participants were asked if they would be interested in being interviewed to discuss the results of their surveys. Teachers were notified they could opt out of the interview at any time.

Table 2

Participant Experience

| Characteristic | Frequency | Percent |
|------------------------------------|-----------|---------|
| <i>Years in education</i> | | |
| 0–5 | 2 | 5.9 |
| 6–15 | 11 | 32.3 |
| 16–25 | 17 | 50.0 |
| 26 or more | 4 | 11.8 |
| <i>Current teaching assignment</i> | | |
| 6 | 9 | 26.5 |
| 7 | 3 | 8.8 |
| 8 | 8 | 23.5 |
| Multiple grades | 9 | 26.5 |

Demographic and experiential information was needed for this study. Participants were asked to indicate their gender, race or ethnicity, years of experience in the teaching field, and current grade level. This information was

used as part of the descriptive analysis. Participants were asked to provide their personal email to distribute the survey, further protecting the participants from any school affiliation. Teachers were asked to provide an email address only if they agreed to participate in the interview, so a reminder email could be sent to the participant with the date and location of the interview. The identities of all the participants were concealed in all reporting, with participants being assigned an identification number based on the order of survey submission. The survey information and links were distributed twice during the survey window, and the follow-up interview was held twice within the data collection period.

Instrumentation

The survey was piloted with a small test sample as a part of developing the instrument for the survey. The reliability of the Pupil Control Ideology Form is shown as .80 (Willower et al., 1967). The Cronbach's alpha reliability as reported by Martin et al. (2007) for the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory is .70. Reliability results for the subscale of instructional management range from .70 to .83. The people management subscale reliability ranges from .71 to .80. The Student-Teacher Relationship Scale (Pianta, 2001) reliability results are as follows: closeness, .88; conflict, .92.

Three instruments were used as part of the overall participant survey. Following entry of demographic information, participants responded to items regarding classroom management beliefs, pupil control ideology, and teacher-

student relationships. The first instrument used in this study was the revised Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory (Martin, Yin, & Baldwin, 1998). The ABCC-R was developed to measure various aspects of teachers' perceptions and predispositions of their classroom control practices. Responses to the 20-item ABCC-R survey fall into four categories: *4 = Describes me well*, *3 = Describes me usually*, *2 = Describes me somewhat*, and *1 = Describes me not at all*. Items 1, 3, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, and 20 are reverse scored. The ABCC-R is divided into two subscales, instructional management (10 items) and people management (10 items). Teachers with higher scores are considered to have more interventionist beliefs regarding classroom management, and lower scores indicate teachers with a noninterventionist classroom management style. Middle scores are considered to be more interactionist. In the instructional management subscale, the reliability ranges from .70 to .83. The people management subscale ranges from .71 to .80 (Martin et al., 2007).

The second segment targeted teacher pupil control ideology. The Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI) features a 20-item Likert scale that measures a teacher's pupil control ideology (Willower et al., 1967). The items have a reliability coefficient of .80 to .91. The higher the score on the scale, the more custodial the teacher's ideology, and the lower the score on the scale, the more humanistic the teacher's ideology of pupil control. Items were scored with five categories: *5 = strongly agree*, *4 = agree*, *3 = undecided*, *2 = disagree*, and *1 = strongly disagree*. Items 5 and 13 on the PCI form are reverse scored.

The third segment targeted teacher-student relationships. The Student-Teacher Relationships (STRS) Scale short form (Pianta & Steinberg, 1992) measures teachers' perceived relationships with their students. It is a 15-item Likert scale with five response categories: 5 = *Definitely Does Not Apply*, 4 = *Not Really*, 3 = *Neutral, Not Sure*, 2 = *Applies Somewhat*, and 1 = *Definitely Applies*. This measure is designed to gather scores regarding conflict and closeness between teachers and their students. The Teacher-Student Relationship Survey (TSRS) was modified, with permission from the survey author, to say "the students" instead of "the children," which was for a previous study. The modified version was used for this study. As a result of the modifications made, existing validity and reliability measures do not apply.

A qualitative segment was created for further descriptive data collection. Participants were asked to participate in an interview. Teacher interview questions were piloted as part of the development of the survey. The interview questions required participants to reflect on and respond to their connection with students in the classroom and the connection to their classroom management beliefs. Participants were able to talk for as long as they wanted or not answer a question if they chose not to. This method was selected primarily to capture the participants' descriptions in their own words. Participants were recruited by the researcher, and each was asked to refer the survey to another middle school teacher colleague to complete the survey. Participants completed a survey consisting of three main segments. Participants were asked if they wanted to

participate in an interview at the end of the survey. The interview questions included discussing survey results, how teachers think about their positive and negative experiences in the classroom, and how teachers continue to build relationships with their students. Demographic information regarding the participants' gender, age, years in the profession, and current teaching assignment was collected.

Variables

For the correlation analysis, the variables explored were age, ethnicity, gender, years in the teaching profession, and current teaching assignment. Three predictor or independent variables (PCI, ABCC-R, and STRS) were examined. Teacher-student relationship survey item scores were clustered, in order to control with the cluster scores used as criterion data for the analysis. ABCC-R and PCI scores were calculated and used to create cluster scores used as predictor variables within the correlation table. All other data collected were used for descriptive analysis and frequency reporting.

Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis was completed using mixed methods. Demographic and experience-level data were used for population sample descriptive analyses. Descriptive analyses and frequency tables were generated for the ABCC-R, PCI, and STRS to assess the item score outcomes. The ABCC-R has two subscale scores in instructional management (IM) and people management (PM), the PCI

form provides a score, and the STRS has two subscale scores in closeness and conflict per the design of the instrument. The clustered scores were used in a Pearson's product-moment correlation analysis to determine possible connections between teachers' classroom management beliefs, pupil control ideology, and student-teacher relationships. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 24) was used to generate descriptive and correlation analyses. Hypothesis testing was conducted using the results of the correlation analysis.

The second phase of this study employed interview questions. Teachers were asked to volunteer at the end of the survey response portion to participate in an interview. Teachers were asked to sign an informed consent document and to note the time and location of the interview. The interview questions were field tested by four teachers prior to the interviews. Minor changes were made to the interview questions based on their feedback. The interview was tape recorded, transcribed for accuracy, and coded for themes regarding the teacher's thoughts on classroom management, pupil control ideology, and teacher-student relationships. The analysis of the transcribed data began by reading through the transcription multiple times and looking for initial themes. The interview took place in an empty classroom after the teacher work day was finished and lasted for 60 minutes. The interview was conducted by the researcher.

Summary

This study followed a mixed-methods approach. Descriptive and correlation analyses were used for the ABCC-R, PCI, and STRS survey to determine possible correlations between the five variables. Interviews were audio recorded and transcribed for themes. Results are reported in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which teachers' pupil control ideology related to their classroom management beliefs and perceived relationships with their students. Pupil control ideology is one way of looking at how much supervisory pupil control or humanistic pupil control teachers want to have over their students. The classroom management beliefs inventory is multifaceted and reflects teacher personality, teaching, and discipline. Finally, the teacher-student relationships scale measures teacher closeness and conflict with their students.

Multiple research questions were investigated as a part of this study. The target research questions were the following:

Research Question 1: What are the overall descriptive data based on middle school teachers' pupil control ideology, management beliefs, and perceived teacher-student relationships?

Research Question 2: What do middle school teachers say about their results of their pupil control ideology, teacher management beliefs, and perceived relationships with their students?

Research Question 3: How do middle school teachers describe their relationships with students that are not positive?

Research Question 4: What do middle school teachers think they could do and the school could do to support the development of positive relationships with students?

In conjunction with these research questions, a hypothesis was developed for the quantitative segments of the study. The hypothesis for the study was the following:

H₁: There will be a significant relationship between teachers' pupil control ideology, teachers' management beliefs, and their perceived relationships with their students.

The corresponding null hypothesis was the following:

H₀: There will be no significant relationship between teachers' pupil control ideology, teachers' management beliefs, and their perceived relationships with their students.

Overall Attitudes and Beliefs, Pupil Control Ideology, and Teacher-Student Relationship Descriptive Results

Participants responded to 45 total items about their classroom management beliefs, pupil control ideology, and teacher-student relationships. Items 1–20 corresponded to teachers' classroom management beliefs. The Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory has two subscales, instruction management and people management. The people management dimension pertains to what teachers do to prevent misbehavior in class and how the teacher responds to misbehavior. The instructional management subscale

addresses what teachers do to actively get student participation—does the teacher take into consideration the needs, interests, and backgrounds of the students (Martin & Sass, 2010). For both dimensions, the instrument measures three categories: interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionist. Teachers who score above the mean demonstrate an interventionist belief in the classroom (high levels of control in the classroom). Teachers who score below the mean hold noninterventionist beliefs, meaning students should be nurtured, not controlled, and students should control their own actions and behaviors. In between the interventionists and noninterventionists are the interactionists, whose beliefs reflect an attitude that teachers and students should share equal power and responsibility in the classroom.

Participants responded to each item using a 5-point Likert scale, indicating the level of their agreement with the statement. Items scored with a 1 indicated the statement “Definitely does not apply.” Items scored with a 5 indicated that the statement “Definitely applies.” Responses to the survey items were summed to obtain a score for each participant. The highest possible raw score for instructional management was 40, people management was 40, and total attitudes and beliefs on classroom control was 80. Participants scoring above the mean were identified as more controlling; those who scored below the mean were considered less controlling. Table 3 summarizes the descriptive statistics for scores in instructional management, people management, and total attitudes and beliefs on classroom control (ABCC-R).

The Attitudes and Beliefs items are noted as indicating one of the two dimensions (instructional management and people management) and a total score on the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control Inventory (ABCC-R). The mean score for instructional management was 25.62 ($SD = 6.25$). The mean score for people management was 25.53 ($SD = 4.93$). The Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC-R) mean score was 51.15 ($SD = 8.51$).

Items 21–41 reflected teachers' pupil control ideology. Teachers who reflect a custodial ideology would score higher, meaning teachers' expectation of the school climate is more structured and rule oriented. Teachers who reflect a humanistic score are related to optimism, openness, flexibility, understanding, and increased student self-determination (Hoy, 2001). Participants responded to a 5-point Likert scale indicating their agreement with the statement. Items scored with a 1 indicated the statement "Strongly disagree." Items scored with a 5 indicated the statement "Strongly agree." Table 3 summarizes the descriptive statistics for pupil control ideology. The highest maximum raw score on PCI was 100. The mean score was 49.5 ($SD = 8.19$).

Items 42–56 were adapted from the Student-Teacher Relationship Scale (Pianta, 2001). These items assessed teachers' perceptions of their relationships with their students. Scores in the two dimensions of this instrument included a closeness score and a conflict score. The closeness score measures warmth and affection, and the conflict score measures how much conflict the teachers perceive exists between teacher and student. The highest maximum

raw score on the closeness subscale was 40. The highest maximum raw score on the conflict subscale was 35. The closeness mean was 27.53 ($SD = 2.64$). The conflict mean was 16.97 ($SD = 4.60$). Table 3 summarizes the descriptive scores of the Student-Teacher Relationship Scale.

Table 3

Item Descriptive Statistics

| Survey category | Maximum | Minimum | Mean | SD |
|-------------------------------|---------|---------|-------|-------|
| Instructional management (IM) | 39 | 14 | 25.62 | 6.252 |
| People management (PM) | 37 | 16 | 25.53 | 4.925 |
| Total ABCC-R | 65 | 35 | 51.15 | 8.514 |
| Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) | 64 | 38 | 49.50 | 8.196 |
| Closeness | 32 | 18 | 27.53 | 2.643 |
| Conflict | 25 | 8 | 16.97 | 4.609 |

Note. $N = 34$.

Correlation Analysis

The Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC-R), Pupil Control Ideology (PCI), and Teacher-Student Relationships were entered into a correlation analysis with demographic information to determine if relationships could be established between the variables. Using the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control, Pupil Control Ideology, and Student-Teacher Relationships

scores, the categories of age, gender, ethnicity, and current grade level were found to not be significant. That is, there were no significant differences between any of these subgroups on the above-mentioned variables. Regarding years in the teaching profession, Table 4 describes the descriptive statistics. The years in the profession were categorized into two subgroups: 0–15 years in the profession and 16 or more years.

Using the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control and Pupil Control Ideology scores with years in the teaching profession, a one-way ANOVA was conducted (Table 5).

A one-way analysis of variance revealed that there were significant differences among the means of years in the teaching profession and instructional management, $F(1,32) = 10.96, p = .003$; people management, $F(1,32) = 11.25, p = .002$; and PCI, $F(1,32) = 10.20, p = .003$. Visual inspection of the group means revealed that in instructional management and people management, teachers become more interventionist in their beliefs the longer they stay in the profession. The results indicated the same to be true for teachers' pupil control ideology; the longer educators stay in the profession, the more custodial their ideology.

Table 4

Item Descriptive Statistics (Years in the Profession)

| Years in the profession | <i>N</i> | Mean | <i>SD</i> |
|-------------------------------|----------|--------|-----------|
| Instructional management (IM) | | | |
| 0–15 | 13 | 21.769 | 5.918 |
| 16 or more | 21 | 28 | 5.282 |
| People management (PM) | | | |
| 0–15 | 13 | 22.384 | 2.844 |
| 16 or more | 21 | 27.476 | 4.976 |
| Pupil Control Ideology | | | |
| 0–15 | 13 | 45.538 | 8.272 |
| 16 or more | 21 | 51.476 | 8.183 |
| Conflict | | | |
| 0–15 | 13 | 16.692 | 4.732 |
| 16 or more | 21 | 17.142 | 4.639 |
| Closeness | | | |
| 0–15 | 13 | 28.076 | 2.660 |
| 16 or more | 21 | 27.190 | 2.638 |

Note. *N* = 34.

Table 5

ANOVA Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (Years in Profession)

| Variable | Mean | Sum of squares | Df | Mean square | F |
|-----------|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|---------|
| IM | Between groups | 311.721 | 1 | 311.721 | 10.196 |
| | Within groups | 978.307 | 32 | 30.572 | |
| | Total | 1290.02 | 33 | | |
| PM | Between groups | 208.155 | 1 | 208.155 | 11.2456 |
| | Within groups | 592.315 | 32 | 18.5098 | |
| | Total | 800.470 | 33 | | |
| PCI | Between groups | 283.09 | 1 | 283.09 | 4.19302 |
| | Within groups | 2160.4689 | 32 | 67.5147 | |
| | Total | 2443.558 | 33 | | |
| Conflict | Between groups | 1.629 | 1 | 1.629 | 0.074 |
| | Within groups | 699.340 | 32 | 21.854 | |
| | Total | 700.970 | 33 | | |
| Closeness | Between groups | 6.390 | 1 | 6.309 | 0.900 |
| | Within groups | 224.161 | 32 | 7.005 | |
| | Total | 230.470 | 33 | | |

Note. $N = 34$.

The data also showed strong positive correlations. The scores were significant in three categories: beliefs, ideology, and relationship areas. Pupil Control Ideology ($R .635$, sig. = .000) showed a strong correlation with instructional management. Estimates of effect size revealed a large strength in associations. Pupil control ideology accounts for 41% of the variable. As cited in Salkind (2017), Cohen established the following criteria for evaluating effect size: a small effect ranges from 0 to .2, a medium effect size ranges from .2 to .5, and a large effect size is any value above .5.

Table 6

Correlation Table

| Belief item cluster | | IM | PM | Total ABCC-R | PCI | Closeness | Conflict |
|---------------------|-----------------|----|------|--------------|--------|-----------|----------|
| IM | Pearson R | 1 | .148 | .820** | .635** | -.231 | .233 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .402 | .000 | .000 | .188 | .185 |
| | N | | 34 | 34 | 34 | 34 | 34 |
| PM | Pearson R | | 1 | .687** | .238 | -.129 | .057 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | .000 | .175 | .466 | .750 |
| | N | | | 34 | 34 | 34 | 34 |
| Total ABCC-R | Pearson R | | | 1 | .604** | -.245 | .204 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | | .000 | .163 | .247 |
| | N | | | | 34 | 34 | 34 |
| PCI | Pearson R | | | | 1 | -.141 | .3844* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | | | .425 | .025* |
| | N | | | | | 34 | 34 |
| Closeness | Pearson R | | | | | 1 | .083 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | | | | .639 |
| | N | | | | | | 34 |
| Conflict | Pearson R | | | | | | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | | | | |
| | N | | | | | | |

Note. **statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level; * = statistically significant at $p < .05$ level.

Pupil Control Ideology ($R .604$, sig. = .000) and total Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control showed another strong relationship at the 0.01 level.

Estimates of effect size revealed a large strength in associations. Pupil control ideology accounted for 36% of the variable. Pupil Control Ideology and Conflict ($R .384$, sig. = .025) showed significance at the 0.05 level. Estimates of effect size revealed a medium strength in associations. Pupil control ideology

accounted for 14% of the variable. As seen in Table 6, the data showed a relationship between instructional management and ABCC-R and PM and ABCC-R. Instruction management and people management do correlate with ABCC-R, but that is to be expected as they are subcategories of ABCC-R.

Research Hypotheses

The null hypothesis used for this study was, “There will be no significant relationship between teachers’ pupil control ideology, teachers’ management beliefs, and their perceived relationships with their students.” The null hypothesis was rejected due to the relationship between teacher classroom beliefs, teacher ideology, and teacher-student relationships.

Therefore, the alternative hypothesis is accepted as follows: “There will be a significant relationship between teachers’ pupil control ideology, teachers’ management beliefs, and their perceived relationships with their students.” Based on the data in the correlation analysis, the hypothesis was supported through three significant *R* values when correlating the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control, Pupil Control Ideology, and Teacher-Student Relationships scores. This significance will be further explored in Chapter Five.

Qualitative Item Results

During the coding review, four themes emerged: feedback (positive and negative), expectations (high and low), teacher modeling, and care. These themes were intended to allow participants to further explain their beliefs and

experiences with students in the classroom. A total of 12 teachers agreed to participate in the focus group interview. One out of 12 participants showed up to participate in the focus group. Rather than a focus group, an interview was held with one teacher, who agreed to discuss her results and relationships with her students. The interview provided qualitative data, based on the responses for the research questions:

1. What do middle school teachers say about their results of their pupil control ideology, teacher management beliefs, and perceived relationships with their students?
2. How do middle school teachers describe their relationships with students that are not positive?
3. What do middle school teachers think they could do and the school could do to support the development of positive relationships with students?

Teacher Interview

The interview began with introductions and basic interview guidelines. The participant was told she would be asked a series of questions related to pupil control ideology, classroom management beliefs, and teacher-student relationships. The interviewer remained silent while the participant responded to each question. The teacher has been in education for 15 years and has for most of her career served as a middle school teacher.

Qualitative Item 1

The participant began the qualitative section by responding to the question “What do middle school teachers say about their results of their pupil control ideology, teacher management beliefs, and perceived relationships with their students?” The teacher acknowledged that the results were accurate regarding how she feels about her students, her classroom management beliefs, and her ideology. The teacher stated, “Yeah, this is actually a lot like me. My classroom runs in organized chaos. I don’t always see it as a classroom management type thing, as more of a, me meeting the needs of my students.” The teacher acknowledged the support from her grade level department, which, at the beginning of the school year, made a list of student behaviors that were acceptable, and the entire grade level department agreed it would be in the best interest of the students to have the same behavior policy in the case of students being changed from class to class. The teacher also acknowledged the administration for requiring the teachers to hold restorative practice circles at the beginning of the school year so the teachers could get to know their students.

As the teacher began to speak about classroom management, it became clear the teacher models the socialization expectation as the students enter the room. The teacher makes a point to acknowledge each student in some way as they enter the class. This example of caregiving demonstrates to the students the teacher is trying to connect to the students:

My classroom management although it seems to be planned out, sometimes it seems to just happen. And it's a lot of times it's based off of what I see going on in my classroom. Um, so doing restorative circles, the two really, the first two weeks of school it allowed me to see where the kids needed. What type of structure the kids needed.

The teacher spoke of restorative practice circles as a management tool to get to know the students. The teacher described restorative practice circles as an accelerated method of getting to know students and a way to build relationships with students. When the teacher discussed positive teacher-student relationships, the teacher became emotional as she spoke of a student who was no longer at the school site. The teacher described the efforts that were made on the student's behalf when the student got in trouble in another class, when the student's schedule got changed, and how the teacher always made the effort to make sure the student stayed with her. These thoughtful interactions between the teacher and her students allowed for consistency within the school day with clear expectations.

Qualitative Item 2

Question two related to how teachers struggle with connecting with students who are resistant to making a connection with a teacher: "How do middle school teachers describe their relationships with students that are not positive?" The teacher referred to her classroom management style of working on techniques that would acknowledge the teacher meeting student needs, such

as changing seats in class, working with partners, and speaking to the student separately from the class. The teacher's working knowledge of using the physical space to create a sense of care, safety, and learning was clear. Even if students miss the message, the teacher made it clear that every student receives a fresh start at the beginning of every period:

I can picture the student and the student is in my last class of the day. I'll be talking and two seconds later, the student has no idea what is going on. The student asks repeatedly, and again, and again. It is to the point where I have to walk away. It is not because as a kid I dislike them. It is just the, I am at the point I am. Where the constant questioning over and over . . . I think the student understands I don't want to be upset or irritated by him every day. And the student knows that when they walk in and they start fresh every day.

The teacher made clear how much of a struggle it is to maintain her message to the class and to students who are challenging. The teacher makes it very clear to everyone in the class that they get a fresh start every day. The teacher even has a sign in her classroom that reads, "Every day is a new day." Additionally, the teacher stated,

For the classes I have back to back, it says every period is a new period. So, I don't drag it from one class to the next because that is not fair to them. It's not fair to me to retain that whatever little resentment that has built up, because that takes a toll on me. And it takes a toll on the

relationship. Not just that one student, but the students that they sit with or if it bleeds into the rest of the class.

The interviewee also acknowledged the fear that may exist between the teacher and the student:

It's their fears. It's people knowing about them. People knowing about their lives. You know we have students that say my parents don't want me talking to the school counselor, they don't want me talking to teachers. They don't want them to know our business.

The interviewee indicated that when teachers try to work with students despite resistance from students, it is a reminder of the emotional toll that relationships can have in the classroom. When teachers attempt to achieve balance and harmony, it is necessary that teachers clearly acknowledge how they feel as well as think about how they influence the behavior in the classroom.

Qualitative Item 3

The third and final question of the interview asked, "What do middle school teachers think they could do and the school could do to support the development of positive relationships with students?" The teacher pointed out two very specific examples of building relationships and how to continue building relationships with their students:

Realizing they are not just students, they are not just kids. But they are human beings. They're going to make mistakes, they are going to be late, because of whatever reason. Let's face it: We drive up late because we

decided we needed Starbucks in the morning. And we are that few minutes late. Realizing that even though they are kids, they are still human beings. And they have the same flaws as everyone else. Um, this idea that I've seen in some of my colleagues is that "I'm the adult." Because your reactions to this kid are no different than his reactions to you. The bottom line is we are all humans; we are all flawed. And we all express our flaws differently. We all deal with our emotions differently.

This teacher is thinking and utilizing social-emotional learning strategies with her students. The teacher spoke of how limited a time she has to build a sense of community with her students because of a shorter transition time from elementary to middle school; the students are soon off to high school. The teacher recognized the time needed to build these connections is short, and a lot needs to happen in between those moments. The teacher credited school administration for providing those opportunities:

I'm very lucky our administration is very big on making those connections. Um, he is really big on making sure we know our students, making sure we understand what they go through. What I mean by that administration knows our kids as well as we know our kids. The principal makes sure to address the kids. The kids know when administration is not on campus. Because if administration is not out in the front helping direct traffic and greeting them, they know administration is not on campus. So, administration is in there with us pretty much every step of the way.

The teacher indicated that the relationships across the entire campus need to be valued and made a priority, in order for the entire campus to meet the needs of the students.

Summary

In this chapter, quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed and presented in an effort to answer the research questions. Frequencies and descriptive statistics were reported for Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (Martin et al., 1998), Pupil Control Ideology (Willower et al., 1967), and Teacher-Student Relationships (Pianta, 2001). Survey items were clustered together and were used through a Pearson correlation analysis to determine connections between pupil control ideology, classroom management beliefs, and teachers' relationships with their students. Significant correlations were found between PCI and the STRS subcategory of conflict and between the total PCI and ABCC-R, one at the 0.01 level and one at the 0.05 level. The hypothesis for this study was supported, indicating significant correlations between teachers' classroom management beliefs and their pupil control ideology. The null hypothesis was rejected, as correlations were found in five areas.

Qualitative item responses were transcribed and coded. The qualitative interview revealed that feedback to students, expectations, teacher modeling, and care were things the teacher valued with students. The teacher felt that having a supportive administration and school culture supported teachers' efforts

to work within the classroom to ease the transition from elementary to middle school. The teacher also found this combination of support helped to build positive relationships with students. Chapter Five will present a summary, conclusions, and implications of the findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In this final chapter, I interpret the major findings from this study and discuss the findings in relation to existing literature. In this study, teachers were asked to reflect upon their control ideologies, classroom beliefs, and existing relationships with their students. The findings revealed that teachers' dominant view of their students is controlling in nature, and conflict is present among some relationships with students. Related to their teaching practices, the articulations that emerged that shape a positive classroom environment and relationships were feedback, expectations, modeling, and care. I then discuss implications for school administrations to help support teachers who demonstrate controlling ideologies, interventionist beliefs in the classroom, and conflicting relationships with students.

Teacher Control Ideologies, Classroom Management Beliefs, and Teacher-Student Relationships

The first phase of this research measured the extent of teacher control ideologies, classroom management beliefs, and teacher-student relationships. The core of the Pupil Control Ideology Form is to recognize that the school is a socially oriented institution, where the culture is defined by the perceived social and psychological status of the teachers in the school. School campuses that are more custodial in nature are competing in a sense with the control or lack of

control with other teachers on campus. Aligned with previous literature, educators who teach in low socioeconomic areas have the tendency to demonstrate more custodial behaviors toward students (Barfield & Burlingame, 1974; Campbell & Williamson, 1978). In addition, this research looked at the classroom management beliefs of students. Classroom management beliefs encompass a wide definition that relates to teacher personality, view of teaching, and how a teacher handles discipline (Martin et al., 1998). Teachers in this study had interventionist beliefs. Teachers who work in low socioeconomic schools may resort to a more controlling management style if they do not know how to connect with students of color (Barfield & Burlingame, 1974; Campbell & Williamson, 1978). According to Weinstein et al. (2004), appropriate behavior is culturally influenced, and conflicts are likely to occur if these are not explored fully. Many teachers will default to the school's own culture and rules, and when students do not comply, the view teachers have of the students may change how they see the student or the class (Weinstein et al., 2004).

Finally, aspects of how teachers view their relationships with students were explored. Teachers were asked to reflect on their relationships with their students, and the areas assessed were two subcategories, closeness and conflict. Teachers in this study had a relatively high conflict score. Pianta (2006) described teachers who convey emotional warmth and acceptance as being more likely to foster positive relationships with students, whereas teachers who demonstrate more conflict characteristics with their students are apt to perceive

students as angry, negative, or conflictual. Research has indicated that teachers who demonstrate inconsistent responses to students (Conroy, Sutherland, Stormont, & Harmon, 2009) and teachers who demonstrate more behavioral control result in more classroom misbehavior (Nie & Lau, 2009). As the results of this study suggest, this tendency toward control predicts the conflict that a teacher may experience with students. Consequently, the belief that students need to be controlled can have adverse effects on student misbehavior.

Teacher Interview

The second phase of this research explored teacher responses in an in-person interview. The themes that emerged from the interview were related to feedback (positive and negative), expectations (high and low), teacher modeling, and care. The interview yielded interesting results in that it demonstrated the characteristics of any relationship, including temperament, personality, self-perceptions and beliefs, gender, age, and how each participant views the relationship (Pianta, 2006). Within this study, when teacher-structured expectations were clearly defined, the relationships with the students contained less conflict. Reeve (2006) indicated that establishing clear expectations in the classroom means having a structure in place that clearly defines the conditions in the classroom. These conditions are, but are not limited to, expectations (i.e., incentives, rules, limits, and choices), scaffolding (how to redirect attention, coaching, and modeling), and feedback (posttask analysis, identifying areas of

improvement). In addition, the interview reinforced that how information is exchanged (tone of voice, posture/proximity, timing of behavior, contingency or reciprocity of behavior) is far more important than what is actually performed behaviorally (Pianta, 2006).

Implications

This study was initially conceived as a possible resource for school site administrators to assist teachers in connecting with their students as they enter middle school. The premise of the Pupil Control Ideology Form is to determine if a teacher is custodial or humanistic in nature. A school that is too custodial could potentially influence teachers to focus on control rather than on student learning. If a teacher demonstrates a custodial ideology, does this mean that the teacher holds these same beliefs in the classroom, and if so, does this affect the relationship between teachers and their students? This research study could be used as a baseline for school administrators to consider if they have a more senior staff at their school site. Using the information in this study regarding years in the teaching profession, where the participants surveyed at 97% exhibiting a more custodial, interventionist belief in instructional management, an administrator could begin surveying teachers regarding their control ideologies, monitor student referral data, and teacher state test scores to begin the process of making changes to a middle school's behavioral plan. Research has supported classroom management as being critically important during the middle

grade years, as students are likely to experience declines in academic motivation and self-esteem (Anderman, Maehr, & Midgley, 1999). Therefore, it would be beneficial if site administrators could look at ways to improve their understanding of teacher dynamics with their students.

The results of this study indicated one main consideration as it applies to teacher beliefs and teacher-student relationships. Teachers who demonstrate an interventionist management style are going to demonstrate struggles with students as the teacher takes full responsibility for the actions in the classroom, leaving the student with no responsibilities other than to be a body in the classroom with no voice. If this is combined with a custodial ideology, the teacher may have some struggles with students in the classroom. It is not uncommon to find teachers with the belief that they will get to know students through their teaching, but such a belief ignores how classroom relationships and learning interact (Wolk, 2003). Added to a custodial ideology and an interventionist classroom management style, a conflicting score on the student-teacher relationship scale adds stress on teachers, as they may feel drained or ineffective with students whom they perceive as difficult. In order to help teachers connect with their students, school administrators would need to consider professional development for teachers who have been in the profession longer than 16 years who may be struggling with this aspect of their classroom management. By having these educators attend professional development on cultural competence, work with an instructional coach who can help document

what is not working in the classroom, or just talk with an instructional coach regarding issues in the classroom, administrators can create a safe, non evaluatory environment for teachers to reflect on their relationships with students and potentially improve them.

The results of the interview within this study seemed to indicate that the school site administrator has a vital role to play in helping teachers throughout the school year. An administrator could conduct a survey on ABCC-R and PCI at the beginning of every school year to assess how the teachers are feeling as the school year begins. This would offer useful information regarding teacher beliefs that this current study has demonstrated predict teacher relationship conflict. At this point, teachers would have a reference point as to where they currently stand, and assistance guiding teachers with a management plan could help teachers at the start of the school year. The administrator could conduct follow-up conversations with the teachers regarding their scores and concerns they may be having in class. In addition, the PCI information could be shared with instructional coaches to help teachers ease into planning and share their concerns regarding student behavior and the progress made on lessons.

Limitations

This study was intended to identify how teachers' pupil control ideology and classroom management beliefs affect teacher-student relationships. The participants selected for this study were a network sample, affecting the

generalizability of the study. Although participants were invited throughout the school district to participate in the study, the views and opinions expressed may not be the same as those of other teachers from other school districts. In addition, due to the nature of the data collection, the sample size was very small and may not reflect the opinions or views of other teachers in the school district. Teacher discipline and academic data were not collected from each teacher in this research. This information could provide insight to further explain the custodial or interventionist behaviors of teachers.

Another limitation of the study involved the lack of participation in the focus group interview. The focus group was intended to include multiple teachers discussing their experiences building relationships with students, their classroom management beliefs, and how they view control. Hearing the testimonials of other professional educators could affect the analysis of how teachers experience conflict in the classroom. The experience from the one teacher in this study was able to demonstrate how that teacher deals effectively with weaving in and out between the roles of teacher and classroom manager, but having more teachers participate would have provided more data.

Finally, students were not asked to participate in this study. The student voice is critical in understanding further what the classroom relationship looks like for students and how they perceive the actions of their teachers.

Directions for Future Research

There have been a number of studies on different classroom management strategies and techniques for teachers. In addition to these, there have been a number of studies indicating the complexities of the classroom environment. In order to effectively help teachers develop nurturing and caring relationships with students as they enter middle school, it is essential that teachers allow administrators and coaches into the classroom to help them sort out the dynamics in the classroom. One possibility is to equip teachers with conflict resolution strategies. Conflict resolution strategies can not only help teachers identify their own classroom triggers, but also help students identify negative classroom responses. The use of a peer teacher coach, school counselor, or administrator could help create communities between teachers and their students. Future studies could explore the dynamics of conflict resolution strategies as teachers utilize this tool in the classroom to build relationships with their students. Additionally, future research could incorporate student voices regarding the students perspective concerning their relationship with their teachers. As noted earlier, if a teacher's belief system or management is based on what the teacher interprets the class needs, it would be revealing to interview the students in that classroom to determine if the teacher perception matches the student perception. In addition, if teachers could come together to participate in focus groups to discuss their beliefs and how these beliefs impact their relationship in their classroom, they could begin making strides to have better

connections with their students. This allows for teachers to document and build a narrative of responses of student behavior that are both positive and negative and how these actions impact relationships with students. Further research needs to be done using control ideologies as the lens to identify how teachers approach students of color. Do teachers become more custodial sooner as a result of teaching students of color? Is discipline worse as a result of teachers trying to control student behavior? More importantly, what is the teacher thinking and feeling as they are working with students of color.

Conclusions

The results of this study suggest that teachers who identify with custodial ideologies employ an interventionist classroom management style and may struggle with their students. While it is important to recognize that teachers have different viewpoints regarding classroom management, it is possible for all teachers to grow in creating connections with students. Teachers who create balance with the students in their classroom are building trust and respect and acknowledging their students as people. More importantly, working with school administration and other school personnel to help facilitate growth and community between teachers and their classrooms is key to helping build positive relationships with students.

APPENDIX A

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD LETTER



January 10, 2020

CSUSB INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

Expedited Review

IRB-FY2020-158

Status: Approved

Ms. Jo Ann Conriquez and Prof. Donna Schnorr
COE - Doctoral Studies, COE - Educ Leadership&Tech ELT
California State University, San Bernardino
5500 University Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dear Ms. Conriquez and Prof. Schnorr:

Your application to use human subjects, titled "The relationship between teacher beliefs, classroom management, teacher-student relationships and the role of follow-up focus group interviews." has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The informed consent document you submitted is the official version for your study and cannot be changed without prior IRB approval. A change in your informed consent (no matter how minor the change) requires resubmission of your protocol as amended using the IRB Cayuse system protocol change form.

Your application is approved for one year from January 10, 2020 through January 10, 2021.

Please note the Cayuse IRB system will notify you when your protocol is up for renewal and ensure you file it before your protocol study end date.

Your responsibilities as the researcher/investigator reporting to the IRB Committee include the following four requirements as mandated by the Code of Federal Regulations 45 CFR 46 listed below. Please note that the protocol change form and renewal form are located on the IRB website under the forms menu. Failure to notify the IRB of the above may result in disciplinary action. You are required to keep copies of the informed consent forms and data for at least three years.

You are required to notify the IRB of the following by submitting the appropriate form (modification, unanticipated/adverse event, renewal, study closure) through the online Cayuse IRB Submission System.

- 1. If you need to make any changes/modifications to your protocol submit a modification form as the IRB must review all changes before implementing in your study to ensure the degree of risk has not changed.**
- 2. If any unanticipated adverse events are experienced by subjects during your research study or project.**
- 3. If your study has not been completed submit a renewal to the IRB.**
- 4. If you are no longer conducting the study or project submit a study closure.**

Please ensure your CITI Human Subjects Training is kept up-to-date and current throughout the study.

The CSUSB IRB has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval notice does not replace any departmental or additional approvals which may be required. If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, the IRB Compliance Officer. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgillesp@csusb.edu. Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Donna Garcia

Donna Garcia, Ph.D., IRB Chair
CSUSB Institutional Review Board

DG/MG

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