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Classroom Management Self-Efficacy and New Teacher Retention

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Classroom Management Self-Efficacy and New Teacher Retention

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

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Abstract

Since 2014, new teacher retention rates have been declining in Volusia County School District. Prior to 2015, the district experienced relatively stable retention rates for all teachers and increasing retention rates for new teachers. However, between 2015-2016 and 2016-2017, new teacher retention decreased by 21%, indicating a continued trend of teacher turnover. Volusia County School District focused a large amount of resources on recruitment to fill the vacancies; however, leadership recognized the need to look within the organization to improve teacher retention rates. The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine to what extent significant mean differences exist between new teachers who complete (a) the one-day new teacher classroom management training, (b) the two-day new teacher classroom management training, and (c) the online new teacher classroom management training and their classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale (CMSBS); and to determine if the new teacher Classroom Management Self Efficacy (CMSE) from each of the various trainings is correlated with new teacher retention intentions. Survey results from 141 new teachers were analyzed using both a causal-comparative and a correlational design to answer the research questions. The Kruskal Wallis test showed there was a statistically significant difference classroom management self-efficacy among the three training modes. The Pearson's r results indicated a statistically significant correlation between the CMSE from the new teachers who attended the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions. No statistically significant correlation was found between the CMSE from the new teachers who attended the other classroom management trainings and their retention intentions.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Teacher turnover is a national problem in the United States, particularly among teachers employed between 1 and 5 years (Sutcher, Darling-Hammond, & Carver-Thomas, 2016). Teacher retention rates are declining annually, and school districts are struggling to determine how to keep quality teachers in the classroom. The literature suggests that teacher shortages are common across the nation for various reasons (Donitsa-Schmidt & Zuzovsky, 2016; Gray & Taie, 2015), and districts are looking for ways to address this problem.

Background

According to Ingersoll (as cited in Dupriez, Delvaux, and Lothaire, 2015), 11% of teachers in the United States leave the profession within their first year and 39% within their first five years. In a longitudinal study of a nationally representative cohort, teacher turnover (as measured annually by the combined percentage of those who changed schools or who left education after five years) was 46%. Moreover, of that 46% turnover rate, 29% of teachers moved to other schools or districts, and 17% stopped teaching entirely (Gray & Taie, 2015).

A teacher shortage exists when the supply cannot meet the demand. Between 2010 and 2021, the number of teaching positions needed in the United States is anticipated to increase by 14% (ACT, 2016). An increase in students drives the increase in demand for teachers. This is a problem shared by many countries (Donitsa-Schmidt & Zuzovsky, 2016). It impacts the nation (Epps & Foor, 2015; Sutcher et al., 2016), individual states, and individual content areas (Cross, 2017). Because of this shortage, staffing classrooms with quality teachers is a challenge to school administration as they try to navigate legislative requirements, student needs, and funding allocation issues, to name a few. Several factors contribute to these shortages, including declining teacher retention rates in school districts such as teacher retirement, new teacher

preparation and induction programs, and new teacher evaluations.

Baby Boomer retirements are also impacting increasing teacher shortages (Aaronson & Meckel, 2009; Hancock, 2016; Ingersoll, 2012; Shakrani, 2008; Watson, 2018). According to Aaronson and Meckel (2009), retirements account for one-third of the labor force needed between the years of 2010 and 2020. Additionally, a study from 2009 reported that more than 50% of America's teachers were Baby Boomers and expected to retire within the next 10 years (Report Shows Tidal Wave, 2009), increasing the concerns about the impact of their retirement (Watson, 2018). However, Roehrig, Donna, Billington, and Hoelscher (2015), indicated teachers leaving prior to retirement, rather than Baby Boomer retirements, is the significant factor behind teacher shortages.

School district leaders have recognized the toll teacher turnover takes on the students as well as the general budget. In 2012, according to the Alliance for Education report, the United States spent $2.2 billion on recruiting, hiring, and training new teachers (Haynes, 2014). Since 2014, 11 state task forces and other groups across the nation have been created to study teacher shortages and provide potential solutions to policymakers (Aragon, 2016). Teacher shortages also exist in Volusia County Schools, a large Florida school district and the site of the research study, where teacher retention dropped from 89% to 84% during the 2015-16 school year and remained stagnant at the same percentage in 2016-2017.

Local Organizational Impact

The present study focuses on the Volusia County School district, a local education agency situated on the east coast of Florida. This district is not immune to the national trends mentioned earlier. Since 2014, new teacher retention rates have been declining in Volusia County School District. Prior to 2015, the district experienced relatively stable retention rates for

all teachers and increasing retention rates for new teachers. Between 2015-2016 and 2016-2017, however, new teacher retention decreased by 21% ("2017-2018 Approved Operating Budget", 2017), indicating a continued trend of teacher turnover. School leaders in the Volusia County School District focus a large amount of resources on recruitment to fill the vacancies; however, leadership is now recognizing the need to look within the organization to improve teacher retention rates. Table 1 presents teacher retention rates over a 5-year period ("2017-2018 Approved Operating Budget", 2017).

Table 1

Volusia County Teacher Retention Rates From School Year 2012 Through 2018

School Year	Total # Teachers	Retired	Separated	Teacher Retention Rate
2012-2013	4,323 (*249)		455 (*117)	89% (*53%)
2013-2014	4,456 (*577)	128 (28% of Separated Ts)	450 (*160)	90% (*72%)
2014-2015	4,754 (*603)	152 (28% of Separated Ts)	543 (*165)	89% (*73%)
2015-2016	4,807 (*628)	183 (24% of Separated Ts)	766 (*205)	84% (*67%)
2016-2017	4,902 (*702)	112 (14% of Separated Ts)	792 (*376)	84% (*46%)
2017-2018		105		

Note. *denotes new teachers; Ts denotes teachers.

Even though Baby Boomer retirements created shortages, the retirements of Baby Boomers in Volusia County School District peaked in the 2015-2016 school year (see Table 1) because of a change in the Deferred Retirement Option Program (DROP) retirement interest rate. DROP is a voluntary retirement program offered through the Florida Retirement System Pension Plan. Teachers who participate in DROP begin accumulating their retirement benefits while delaying their termination for up to 60 months. Teachers who entered DROP before July 1, 2011

earned a compounded monthly interest at an effective annual rate of 6.5% on their DROP

accumulation (Retirement, n.d.). Teachers entering after July1, 2011 would be eligible for 3%,

which enticed all teachers eligible for DROP to enter that school year to secure the 6.5% rate.

The teachers who entered DROP all retired by the 2015-2016 school year. This finding explains

why there was a decrease in retirement separations from 24% to 14% prior to school year 2016-

2017. These suggest the trend of decreasing teacher retention rates in Volusia County School

district is not due to Baby Boomer retirements. While this fact may offer explanation to the

overall teacher shortage problem, it is not of concern in the present study as the research

questions relate to new teacher retention and not veteran teacher retention. As such, retirements

are not a relevant factor to this study.

Leadership in the Volusia County School District is now focusing on its New Teacher

Induction (NTI) program components to increase teacher retention. According to Ingersoll

(2012), NTI programs "aim to improve the performance and retention of new hires and to

enhance the skills and prevent the loss of new teachers" (p. 47). Volusia County's NTI program

components include providing preservice training addressing:

- professionalism and ethics,

- teacher evaluation (Volusia Schools currently employs the Danielson Framework for
  Teaching), and

- classroom management through an approach called *CHAMPS* (Conversation, Help,
  Activity, Movement, Participation, Success).

New teachers also receive individual support from a school-based mentor (teacher leader

or administrator) and either from a district Peer Assistant and Review (PAR) Teacher or a

school-based instructional coach. District classroom management coaches also provide

individualized, follow-up coaching after the teachers attend one of three *CHAMPS* classroom management training options.

Classroom Management

Classroom management is broadly defined as "the actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social-emotional learning" (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006, p. 4). According to Garwood, Harris, and Tomick (2017),

> Results of a comprehensive literature review identified 20 evidence-based practices in classroom management (Simonsen, Fairbanks, et al., 2008). The authors collapsed the 20 practices into the following five categories: (a) maximizing structure; (b) teaching, monitoring, and reinforcing expectations; (c) engaging students in observable ways; (d) using a continuum of strategies to increase positive behaviors; and (e) using a continuum of strategies to decrease negative behaviors. (p. 79)

In addition to classroom management strategies, Baumrid (1971) identified four classroom management styles that categorize teachers– authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and indulgent. Gultekin and Acar (2014) also defined each of the four classroom management styles.

> The authoritative style is characterized by behavioral principles, high expectations of appropriate behavior, clear statements about why certain behaviors are acceptable and others unacceptable, and warm student-teacher relationships. The authoritarian style tends to be characterized by numerous behavioral regulations. It is often seen as punitive and restrictive and gives students neither a say in their management nor the courtesy of an explanation when appropriate; …the permissive style is characterized by a lack of involvement. The environment is non-punitive, there are few demands on students, and there is a lot of freedom. The indulgent style presents an environment where there are no demands on the student of any sort, and the students are actively supported in their efforts to seek their own ends using any reasonable means. (Gultekin & Acar, 2014, p. 297)

Relationship to teacher efficacy. There is an important relationship between classroom management and teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy refers to a teacher's belief in his or her ability to promote learning. When a teacher believes in his or her ability to teach effectively, the results is an increase in job satisfaction. A teachers' well-being and job satisfaction are positively

correlated with improved student-teacher relationships and teacher efficacy (Karabiyik, & Korumaz, 2014; Veldman, Tartwijk, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 2013). Teacher self-efficacy positively affects teachers' beliefs about teaching (Miller, Ramirez, & Murdock, 2017). Additionally, teachers with high self-efficacy beliefs are more likely to practice classroom management and handle classroom problems effectively (Miller et al., 2017).

One area of new teacher induction that may increase teacher self-efficacy is the classroom management training. According to Dicke et al. (2014), when self-efficacy in classroom management is low, it predicts emotional exhaustion. Dicke, Elling, Schmeck, and Leutner (2015) posited that classroom management training can have a substantial effect on novice teachers' classroom management self-efficacy (CMSE) as well as their wellbeing, which in turn supports teacher retention. Additionally, Wang, Hall, and Rahimi (2015) contended teachers' self-efficacy in classroom management should lead to positive changes in well-being and persistence. O'Neill & Stephenson (2011) linked teacher attrition to low CMSE and burnout. Classroom management is the biggest challenge facing new teachers (Goodwin, 2012; Ritter & Hancock, 2007; Tok & Tok, 2016).

Classroom management training. Successfully equipping new teachers with effective classroom management strategies often becomes the responsibility of the hiring school district administration. Leadership within the Volusia County School District heavily relies on local colleges and universities as a pool for hiring new teachers. However, the teacher preparation programs at these local institutions offer minimal classroom management training even though their students' complete internships. This lack of preservice training is common according to Gaudreau, Royer, Frenette, Beaumont, and Flanagan (2013) and Peterson-Ahmad, Hovey, and Peak (2018), who stated that preservice teachers are exposed to very little classroom

management training. Goodwin (2012) found new teachers who were interviewed indicated that they did not receive adequate classroom management training during their preservice programs. This research suggests that this issue is not isolated to local teacher preparation programs. This is further supported by Ingersoll (2012), who noted teacher preparation programs rarely provide everything necessary to successful teaching; most of this knowledge can only be acquired on the job.

There are also other areas in which preservice training is lacking as well. According to Peterson-Ahmad et al. (2018), areas such as collaboration among professionals, collaboration with families, and teaching social skills to their students are not adequately addressed during preservice training. Additionally, cultural diversity (Peterson-Ahmad et al., 2018), teaching English Language Learners, and inclusive classroom practices are also areas of need in teacher preparation programs (Nguyen, 2018). Whereas these areas are sometimes a struggle for new teachers, the focus of this study was on that of classroom management training and how it may positively impact teacher retention rates.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of practice associated with this research study was the trend of decreasing teacher retention rates in Volusia County Schools. Several factors influence retention rates, including compensation, working conditions, mentoring programs, and teacher preparation programs (Donitsa-Schmidt & Zuzovsky, 2016; Gray & Taie, 2015; Sutcher et al., 2016). Interestingly, while compensation is mentioned as an important factor, Bland et al. (2014) found salary alone does not influence retention. Moreover, compensation is not the main source of teacher job satisfaction (Bozeman, Scogin, & Stuessy, 2013). Additionally, salary is one area over which districts often have limited control.

Salary and teacher retention. According to Sutcher et al. (2016), compensation influences teacher retention, yet salaries vary by state and even by the individual school district. Because district funding differences cause inequalities in funding (Sutcher et al., 2016), districts have minimal control over teacher compensation packages. Appendix A presents Florida Department of Education data for district median salaries across the state of Florida. Additionally, Volusia County's competing and neighboring districts compensate new teachers with comparable salaries (see Appendix B). School district leaders are looking for other ways to improve retention by focusing on variables that they can control, such as classroom management training.

Classroom Management and Teacher Retention. According to Woolfolk (2007), proactive classroom management and teacher efficacy are positively correlated. Classroom management is an area that impacts new teacher effectiveness and success. Classroom management is a leading concern for new teachers (McCarthy, Lineback, & Reiser, 2015; Schmidt, Klusmann, Lüdtke, Möller, & Kunter, 2016). Additionally, without CMSE, teachers are less likely to experience job satisfaction or organizational commitment.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine to what extent significant mean differences exist between new teachers who complete (a) the one-day new teacher classroom management training, (b) the two-day new teacher classroom management training, and (c) the online new teacher classroom management training and their classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale (CMSBS); and to determine if the new teacher CMSE from each of the various trainings is correlated with new teacher retention intentions. At the time of the study, I was a Coordinator in the Federal

Programs and Grants Development department of Volusia County Schools, a role that included

supporting new teachers. This research was designed to provide district administration with

information to use when making future decisions regarding classroom management offerings.

CHAMPS Classroom Management Training

CHAMPS is a nationally recognized classroom management 'toolkit' that teachers utilize

districtwide and is a required component of Volusia County's New Teacher Induction program.

According to Knight (2006),

> CHAMPS, a proactive and positive approach to Classroom Management is a tool for
> collaboratively developing a classroom management plan with the teacher. Among the
> tools in CHAMPs is a framework coaches can use to identify and explain what they
> expect from students in five important areas of behavior, encapsulated in the CHAMPs
> acronym. The areas of behavior are: (a) Conversation--What kind of conversation is
> acceptable? (b) Help--How should students ask for help? (c) Activity--What should the
> student be doing? (d) Movement--What kind of movement, if any, is permitted, and (e)
> Participation--what does appropriate participation look like? (p. 37)

Teachers may elect to participate in either a two-day, face-to-face training offered prior to

the start of the school year; a one-day, face-to-face training offered throughout the school year;

or through an online, self-paced course also offered throughout the school year. All options

include the one-to-one, face-to-face follow up classroom management coaching support. The

two-day CHAMPS training is provided during the summer, prior to preservice training for new

teachers. Teachers have two opportunities to attend this two-day training. These trainings consist

of direct instruction of all CHAMPS components, teachers view video content of multiple

classroom examples of strategies and have multiple opportunities for collaborative discussions.

Teachers who attend the two-day training complete a classroom management plan to implement

during the first week of school.

During the one-day CHAMPS trainings, teachers receive direct instruction of selected

CHAMPS components, view video content of classroom examples of strategies, have collaborative discussions, and complete a classroom management plan they can implement when they return to school. These trainings are offered multiple times after the school year begins and teachers are provided substitute teachers to attend during their workday. This training is abbreviated where some strategies and many of the collaborative components are removed to conserve time.

The online training is a comprehensive, self-paced course that consists of seven modules. Teachers receive content through both written and video instruction. The modules include video content of classroom examples of strategies, opportunities for peer discussion using electronic discussion threads, and the opportunity to create a classroom management plan. Unique to this training option are the 10 participant submission requirements. Participants receive feedback on their submissions from the course facilitator to support their learning of each strategy. Over the course of five modules, as classroom management strategies are taught, participants are asked to submit reflections on their learning, their implementation plans, and their experiences. Table 2 presents an outline of the submission requirements addressing the strategies taught in the course.

Table 2

Submission Topics From the Online Canvas Course

Submission	Topic
1	Characteristics of a highly structured classroom
2	Guidelines for Success
3	Classroom Rules
4	Classroom Procedures
5	Attention Signal
6	Using the CHAMPS Acronym for activity expectations
7	Ratio of Positive to Corrective Interactions
8	Increasing Student Motivation
9	Responding to common classroom management challenges
10	Goal Setting

Table 3 lists the percentage of new teachers who have participated in each of the three *CHAMPS*

training options.

Table 3

Number of New Teachers in Each of the Three CHAMPS Training Opportunities

New Teachers	Online	1-day	2-day
2017-2018	77	268	152
2018-2019	100	321	121

Source: S. Archer, personal communication, January 30, 2019.

Research Questions

Research Question 1 focused on each of the three classroom management training options

and their relationship to new teacher classroom management self-efficacy beliefs. The following

three research questions further addressed the relationship between new teacher classroom

management self-efficacy beliefs and teacher retention intentions.

- **Q1.** To what extent do significant mean differences exist between new teachers who complete (a) the one-day classroom management training, (b) the two-day classroom management training, and (c) the online classroom management training, and their perceptions of classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the CMSBS?

- **Q2.** To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the one-day classroom management training and their retention intentions?

- **Q3.** To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions?

- **Q4.** To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the online classroom management training and their retention intentions?

Null Hypotheses

The following related null hypotheses were examined:

- HO_1: Significant mean differences do not exist between new teachers who complete the one-day classroom management training, (b) the two-day classroom management training, and (c) the online classroom management training, and their perceptions of classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the CMSBS.

- HO_2: A significant correlation does not exist between the CMSE of new teachers who

  o participate in the one-day classroom management training and their retention intentions.

- HO_3: A significant correlation does not exist between the CMSE of new teachers who

  o participate in the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions.

- HO_4: A significant correlation does not exist between the CMSE of new teachers who

o participate in the online classroom management training and their retention intentions.

Hypotheses

The following related hypotheses were also examined:

- H_1: Significant mean differences exist between new teachers who complete the one-day classroom management training, (b) the two-day classroom management training, and (c) the online classroom management training, and their perceptions of classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the CMSBS.

- H_2: A significant correlation exists between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the one-day classroom management training and their retention intentions.

- H_3: A significant correlation exists between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions.

- H_4: A significant correlation exists between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the online classroom management training and their retention intentions.

Definition of Key Terms

Alternative certified teacher. A teacher who enters the teaching profession without a degree in education and earns their teacher certification while employed (Ritter & Hancock, 2007).

Burnout. A state defined as "emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment" (Skaalvik & Skaalivik, 2010, p. 1060).

Conversation, Help, Activity, Movement, Participation, Success (CHAMPS). "A systematic, prevention-oriented approach that guides teachers in providing universal classroom supports that are likely to promote appropriate behavior and reduce disruptive behavior in the

classroom" (Sprick, 2009, p. 456).

Classroom management. A practice defined as "the actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social-emotional learning" (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006, p. 4).

Classroom management self-efficacy (CMSE). A concept defined as "teachers' beliefs in their future capabilities to organize classroom resources, routines, time, and to manage students' attention, socialization, and behavior" (O'Neill, 2016, p. 120).

Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale (CMSBS). A valid and internally consistent (reliable) measurement tool for classroom management self-efficacy (Tok & Tok, 2016).

Coaching. A nonevaluative, professional relationship between a coach and a teacher, who share the stated goal of learning together to improve practice through job embedded professional learning (Knight, 2006). A coach is the teacher's thought partner. Coaching includes components such as data analyses, goals setting, planning, observing, reflecting, and problem solving to set future action steps (Knight, 2007).

Job satisfaction. A quality consisting of "employees' attitudes towards their jobs" (Akar, 2018, p. 102).

Leadership. As defined by Burns (1978), the practice of "leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivation – the wants and the needs, the aspirations and expectations – of both leaders and followers" (p. 19).

New teacher. For the purpose of this study, teachers in their first year of teaching at Volusia County Schools.

Novice new teacher. Teachers who are in their first year of teaching and new to Volusia

County Schools.

Organizational Commitment. A concept defined as "a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership" (Watson, 2010, p.18).

Self-efficacy. A concept defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1977, p. 3).

Teacher burnout. Teachers' emotional exhaustion (Rumschlag, 2017) and "the chronic, multidimensional, negative disposition towards teaching and working in a school" (Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2013, p. 104).

Teacher self-efficacy. A teacher's perception of their professional capability. Bandura (1977) defined teacher self-efficacy as the teachers' confidence in their ability to motivate students to learn and increase student learning outcomes.

Teacher Induction Program. A year-long program that provides training and support for all teachers new to Volusia County Schools.

Teacher preparation program. Any educational program leading to a teaching degree.

Teacher retention. The decision teachers make to remain in the classroom.

Traditionally certified teachers. Teachers who "enter the teaching profession by completing certification and 4-year baccalaureate degree requirements while enrolled in a teacher education program" (Ritter & Hancock, 2007, p. 1207).

Theoretical Framework

Many factors have been studied relating to teacher retention. Bandura's self-efficacy theory and its relationship with classroom management and teacher retention formed the theoretical framework for this study. Bandura's self-efficacy theory involves the belief in oneself

to successfully accomplish a particular task (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1997). For the purpose of this study, these theories influence the concept that a new teacher's belief that they can successfully manage a classroom influences their retention. Because classroom management is described by new teachers as a challenge (Baker, Gentry & Larmer, 2016), if new teachers can experience success rather than frustration, retention may increase. In addition to teacher classroom management self-efficacy, other areas that the literature addresses as impacting teacher retention are also discussed.

Summary

Classroom management self-efficacy has a positive correlation with teacher retention. According to Glickman and Tamashiro (as cited in Sivri & Balcı, 2015), teachers with low CMSE are the ones most likely to leave teaching. Sivri and Balcı (2015) posited that improving new teachers' CMSE requires induced experiences of success. The first step in creating these experiences is to develop teacher training that provides "required hands-on competences to deal with disruptive student behaviors" (Sivri & Balcı, 2015, p. 47).

The literature review in Chapter 2 begins with the theoretical framework that supports the impact of self-efficacy on teacher retention. Chapter 2 also includes factors other researchers identified as impacting retention. The chapter concludes with an introduction to the methodology selected for this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Many factors contribute to decreasing teacher retention rates. District leaders have decision-making power that can impact some of these factors and have limited-to-no impact over others (i.e., salaries). This study focused on the factors that district leadership can positively impact to improve teacher retention rates. Specifically, I analyzed which classroom management training opportunity has the greatest impact on new teacher classroom management self-efficacy (CMSE). By identifying which training format had the greatest impact on CMSE, it was hypothesized that the retention rates of the teachers who received training via this format would be higher than those teachers attending the other options.

Chapter 1 consisted of an introduction to the problem and purpose of the study. Chapter 2, the literature review, includes an in-depth review of the theoretical framework, a historical background including the factors that influence retention, and a conceptual framework discussion. Chapter 2 closes with an introduction to the methodological framework of this study.

Background and Context for the Study

The decline in teacher retention rates is a highly impactful international problem and, as a result, has been a primary focus within educational research. Studies show that more than half of new teachers leave the profession within the first 5 years of teaching (Zhang & Zeller, 2016; Pas, Bradshaw, & Hershfeldt, 2012) and hundreds of thousands leave teaching annually (Goodwin, 2018; Sutcher et al., 2016). Volusia County School District is not immune to the impact of decline teacher retention rates. The district is investing in multiple areas to intercede this trend. The New Teacher Induction Program is one area of increased focus over the past several years.

Self-efficacy is another area that has shown impact on teacher intentions (Dicke et al., 2014; Miller et al., 2017; O'Neill & Stephenson, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

Theoretical Framework Discussion

Bandura's self-efficacy theory comprises the theoretical framework for this study and provided the backdrop for the motivating factors that inspire teachers to remain in the profession. Self-efficacy is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1977, p. 3). Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory is the foundational framework for his theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Vadahi & Lesha 2015); indicating people have power to influence what they do (Skaalvik, & Skaalvik, 2010). According to Mosoge, Challens, and Xaba (2018), the key to social cognitive theory is the presence of human agency which describes how people exercise control over their lives. Self-efficacy, then, is a natural derivative of social cognitive theory.

In the theory of self-efficacy, Bandura (1977) identified two types of expectancy which may yield successful performance: (a) the belief that one will be successful in their performance (efficacy expectation) and (b) the expectation and certainty that they will generate concrete outcomes through their performance (outcome expectancy). As Bandura (1977) noted, "The strength of people's convictions in their own effectiveness is likely to affect whether they will even try to cope with given situations" (p. 193). Self-efficacy beliefs are formed by interpreting information about one's own capabilities that originate from four major sources of information: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states (Bandura, 1997).

Mastery experiences or personal accomplishments (Bandura, 1977) are those successes or failures that one experiences. Bandura explained that successes increase mastery expectations

and repeated failures reduce them. Additionally, the negative impact of occasional failures is likely reduced if strong efficacy expectations have been developed after repeated successes.

Vicarious experiences involve observing others successfully perform threatening activities (Bandura, 1977). These observations can generate expectations in observers that they will also meet with success. Bandura posited that vicarious experiences alone are a less dependable source of information than mastery experiences, causing the efficacy expectations induced "to be weaker and more vulnerable to change" (Bandura, 1977, p. 197).

Verbal persuasion attempts to instill outcome expectations by telling others what to expect (Bandura, 1977). The impact of verbal persuasion is increased if it is received from "significant others" (Bandura, 1997, p.101) particularly if they are considered credible. Bandura (1977) suggested resulting efficacy expectations will likely be weaker than those from mastery experiences "because they do not provide an authentic experiential base for them" (p. 198).

Further, Bandura (1977) indicated physiological and affective states, also referred to as emotional arousal, provide information about how one believes they will handle a specific situation. Bandura posited that "people rely partly on their state of physiological arousal in judging their anxiety and vulnerability to stress" (p. 198). Adverse reactions such as fear or anxiety can be reduced by experiences such a modeling (vicarious experiences) and even more so by mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977), thereby increasing their efficacy expectations.

Bandura (1977) argued, "Efficacy expectations determine how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences. The stronger the perceived self-efficacy, the more active the efforts" (p. 194). Effective teachers must possess expertise in multiple areas. If teachers are to remain in the classroom, they must believe they have the skills to successfully execute their job responsibilities.

Efficacy expectations differ in magnitude, generality, and strength (Bandura, 1977). Magnitude is related to the level of difficulty; an individual's level of efficacy may be limited to simple tasks or extend to the most challenging tasks. Generality refers to specific circumstances generating confined expectations; conversely one may possess efficacy that extends beyond those specific circumstances. Finally, strength refers to the construct that one with weak expectations will not persevere through difficulty whereas one with strong expectations of efficacy will identify ways to cope and overcome difficulty. One way to increase teacher efficacy expectations is through classroom management training (Dicke, et al., 2015; Sivri & Balcı, 2015).

Historical Background

Factors that influence retention. Several studies identifying various reasons for decreasing teacher retention rates exist. For the purposes of this study, salaries will not be addressed as they are often subject to national and/or state policy, making them difficult to impact at the local level (Burke, Aubusson, Schuck, Buchanan, & Prescott, 2015). "Changing salaries will require a fundamental shift in policy and legislative action; improving teachers' classroom management tool sets is a much more realistic and achievable goal in the pursuit of improved student outcomes and teacher retention" (Garwood, Harris, & Tomick, 2017, p. 79). Similarly, Klassen and Anderson (2009), agreed issues such as student behavior have displaced issues such as salary.

Ingersoll (2003) claimed job dissatisfaction was a major contributing factor to teacher retention problems. Conversely, job satisfaction has a positive influence on organizational commitment (Nagar, 2012; Tentama & Pranungsari, 2016); which is a factor that researchers believe can positively impact retention rates (Epps and Foor, 2015). Administrative leadership is

another factor that influences job satisfaction (Burke et al., 2015). Finally, coaching (Shernoff, Lakind, Frazier, & Jakobsons, 2015), and teacher self-efficacy (Wang et al., 2015) are also factors that prior research shows have an impact on teacher retention rates.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is another area that impacts teacher retention. Teacher job satisfaction is a construct rooted in Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Aldridge & Fraser, 2015). Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory (also known as Two-Factor Theory) examined job satisfaction surrounding workplace conditions. Herzberg (1966) posited that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are independent of one another and scan be broken down into two categories: motivation and hygiene. Hygiene is related to factors that cause dissatisfaction (i.e., salary, benefits, working conditions, etc.). Motivation is related to factors that cause satisfaction (i.e., recognition, achievement, growth). Many researchers have studied the relationship between job satisfaction as a predictor of teacher retention (Green & Munoz, 2016; Larkin, Brantley-Dias, & Lokey-Vega, 2016). According to Shen, Leslie, Spybrook, and Ma (2012), job satisfaction is positively correlated with classroom control, which confirms that successful classroom management is positively correlated with job satisfaction. Research indicates that a lack of teacher job satisfaction (Green & Munoz, 2016; Larkin et al., 2016) directly impacts retention rates. If this is the case, and teachers begin to have increased job satisfaction, teacher retention rates may increase. One key factor in improving teacher satisfaction is effective classroom management training.

Student-teacher relationships. Multiple studies have shown that student-teacher relationships are critically important for teachers' job satisfaction (as cited by Veldman et al., 2013). Grayson & Alvarez (2008) found teachers who succeeded in keeping a positive relationship with their students were also more likely to remain motivated, enthusiastic, and

enjoyed their workplace. Spilt, Koomen, & Thijs (2011) suggested that "teachers' relationships with specific students can be primary sources of teachers' everyday emotional experiences and wellbeing because teacher–student relationships contribute to a basic need for relatedness" (p. 473). Pianta (2006) noted student-teacher relationships were a critical component of successful classroom management, which were also related to teachers' job satisfaction and self-efficacy. "Beliefs in competence play a major role in job satisfaction" (Epps & Foor, 2015, p. 125), indicating that job satisfaction is also impacted by self-efficacy.

Xia, Izumi, and Gao (2015) found in a study of teacher job satisfaction, job satisfaction was associated with both principal leadership and school culture. They identified school processes as an additional factor contributing to job satisfaction. School processes, (Xia et al., 2015), included classroom control, staff collegiality, working conditions, administrative communication, administrative support, parental support, and student behavior. Four of the seven school processes were significant predictors of teacher job satisfaction: positive student behavior staff collegiality, career and working conditions, and administrative support (Xia et al., 2015). In addition to job satisfaction, student-teacher relationships can impact the effectiveness of classroom management. Student-teacher relationships are strengthened when teachers provide clear purpose and guidance that are conveyed by equitable rules and practical routines, along with clear learning goals and expectations (Greenburg, Putnam, Walsh, & National Council on Teacher Quality, 2014; Marzano, Marzano, & Pickering, 2003).

Organizational commitment and job satisfaction. It is the responsibility of district and school-based leaders to address the increasing problem of teacher retention. DeAngelis, Wall, and Che (2013) reported teachers in their first 3 to 5 years of who receive support are less likely to leave the classroom early. Considering that retention rates of novice

teachers are decreasing annually, district leaders must consider the factors contributing to job satisfaction and self-efficacy of these new teachers. Whereas multiple factors may contribute to the departure of new teachers (Watson, 2018), job satisfaction (Tentama & Pranungsari, 2016) and commitment (Nagar, 2012) have been shown to have an important impact on teacher retention. Epps and Foor (2015) stated that employees who are more satisfied are generally more productive and committed to the profession. They posited that "maintaining a high level of job satisfaction among teachers is an important goal for administrators, superintendents, and school systems" (p. 126). Tentama and Pranungsari (2016) supported Epps and Foor stating, "job satisfaction is also the key factor influencing organizational commitment" (p. 40).

Researchers have studied the relationship between organizational commitment and teacher retention. For example, Larkin et al. (2016) incorporated organizational commitment as a third prominent theory in their study, citing Nagar who stated, "organizational commitment is essential for retaining and attracting well qualified workers as only satisfied and committed workers are willing to continue their association with the organization and make considerable efforts towards achieving its goals" (p. 43).

Nagar (2012) examined the relationship between overall job satisfaction (intrinsic and extrinsic) and organizational commitment. Nagar did not explicitly define intrinsic versus extrinsic job satisfaction. However, he provided examples of organizational stressors that impacted intrinsic job satisfaction: poor working conditions, work overload, lack of growth opportunities, poor collegial relationships, and organizational culture. In the study of 153 randomly selected university teachers, job satisfaction was found to be a strong predictor of teacher commitment to his/her organization. Additionally, "teachers high on job satisfaction are more likely to exhibit greater organizational commitment" (Nagar, 2012, p. 55).

Scholarly research studies have investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and teacher retention. Larkin et al. (2016) used grand theories such as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs to support the theoretical framework of job satisfaction. According to Maslow (1954), motivation can influence job satisfaction because it is closely related to personal and professional satisfaction. Maslow based his motivation theory on the concept of a hierarchy of needs (physiological needs, safety needs, a need for belonging/love, need for esteem, and self-actualization). Maslow posited that people will not desire a higher level of need until their most basic level of needs are met (Xia et al., 2015).

Teachers' basic needs must be met prior to them being able to experience job satisfaction. Larkin et al. (2016) posited, "only when one feels connected, safe, and a sense of belonging at their place of employment can the higher-level needs, such as esteem and self-actualization be achieved" (p. 28). This mixed methods study sought to measure and explore factors influencing K-12 online teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions in two phases. Phase I consisted of the quantitative portion and Phase II consisted of the qualitative portion.

Phase I results indicated that the 108 participants identified the most satisfying components of their job as flexibility, meeting student needs, technical support, and their professional communities (Larkin et al., 2016). The Phase II results from eight focus group participants identified having a *support network* as key to their satisfaction and retention. The support network was specified as effective leadership, timely assistance, collaboration with other teachers, recognition for their accomplishments, and professional development opportunities (Larkin, et al., 2016). Larkin et al. (2016) stressed, "job satisfaction and organizational commitment have a reciprocal relationship and are the antecedents of the formation of

individual's turnover intentions" (p. 30).

Leadership. The lack of teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction are both negatively impacting teacher retention. However, effective leadership can improve these trends within the organization (Dou, Devos, & Valcke, 2016; Mancuso, Roberts, White, Yoshida, & Weston, 2011). Over the next 20 years more personal forces such as shifting societal norms will play a significant role in changing the way work is shaped (Gratton, 2016). Teachers will require leadership support if both job satisfaction and organizational commitment are to be achieved. According to Ingersoll (2012), lack of leadership support is one of the main reasons for the "revolving door" of teachers leaving the profession before retirement. Shaping the values and behaviors of leaders and readjusting the structure of the organization regarding how work is performed are two important sources of leverage (Gratton, 2016).

Researchers have investigated the impact of leadership on job satisfaction. For example, Hauserman, Ivankova, and Stick (2013) interviewed 259 teachers using open-ended response questions followed by conducting in-depth phone interviews with nine teachers who identified teachers in both the highest and lowest quartiles of transformational leadership qualities. The qualitative portion of the interview indicated that teachers viewed highly transformational principals as being fair and consistent with staff and students, interacted daily with subordinates, engaged in principle-based decision making, and had high expectations for staff and students. Teachers also felt that these types of leaders influenced their perceptions positively and had a large impact on employee satisfaction and school climate (Hauserman et al., 2013).

Teachers must be able to trust their school-based and district leaders. Gratton (2016) claimed authentic and transparent leadership is important for future leaders. Additionally, teachers must experience ownership as it relates to their work, their students, and school-based

decision making. While teacher autonomy was important, according to Xia et al. (2015), considerable administrative support from school-level or above (including school administrative support, school working condition, and school discipline) had the greatest impact on teacher job satisfaction. Additionally, Aldridge and Fraser (2015) stated that, "the extent to which school principals are approachable and supportive contributes both directly and indirectly to teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction" (p. 302).

School culture has the most significant influence on teacher retention (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Kukla-Acevedo, 2009) and is greatly influenced by school leadership (Chiong, Menzies, & Parameshwaran, 2017; Curtis, 2012). In a mixed methods study consisting of questionnaires from over 900 teachers and interviews from 14 long-serving teachers, Chiong et al. (2017) attempted to identify the reasons why teachers stay in the teaching profession. Findings indicated that the quality of management and leadership was more important to newer teachers (0-9 years teaching) than to more experienced teachers. Conversely, results indicated that school culture was more important to more experienced teachers and less important to those newer teachers. These findings support other research that argued the importance of the role that effective leadership plays in retaining new teachers. Additionally, while extrinsic motivations were not found to be unimportant to teachers, they were found to be subordinate to intrinsic, altruistic and professional factors, which strengthen over time (Chiong et al., 2017).

Youngs, Kwak, and Pogodzinski (2015) conducted a qualitative research study examining novice teachers' perceptions of their principals' methods involving managing student behavior, teacher collaboration, instructional leadership, and principal/staff trust. The novice teachers interviewed reported high levels of job satisfaction and each indicated their intention to return to teaching the following year. The researchers posited that it was their principal's

leadership that influenced the reported outcomes.

In a nationwide quantitative study of 1,571 math teachers, administrative support was shown to be directly correlated with a teacher's decision to remain teaching (Curtis, 2012). Results from that study indicated that teachers who felt they received positive and encouraging support from their administrator were more likely to remain in the profession. Curtis also reported that in another study of over 250,000 teachers, those who planned to leave the profession expressed significant concerns about the low levels of trust on their campuses, their lack of empowerment, and poor leadership. Research supports the claim that school leadership has a tremendous impact on teacher retention rates.

School leaders should invest in resources to provide Herzberg's motivational factors to their faculty and staff (Hammonds, 2017). In a qualitative phenomenological study of 6 elementary school leaders in one urban school district, four important themes emerged:

 (a) the importance of identifying common challenges teachers experience at urban schools; (b) a need for school leaders to establish support systems that will assist teachers with overcoming challenges; (c) identify challenges that exist relating to teacher retention; and (d) a need for school leaders to implement strategies to retain teachers. (p. 70)

Hammonds (2017) posited that leaders can employ several specific strategies to improve teacher retention such as improving working conditions addressing student behavior issues, minimizing class size, being accessible, providing timely and honest feedback, and providing collaboration and planning time for teachers. Additionally, school leaders should provide access to videos of highly effective teachers, offer resources for educational materials, and provide them with classroom management strategies. Research participants also stressed the importance of offering teachers support from mentors and instructional coaches. According to Hammonds, coaches provide support that is individualized to teachers' needs such as modeling lessons, co-

teaching, and providing post observation feedback.

In a case study that focused on one Florida school district, the number of new teachers leaving a rural elementary school doubled within one school year, exceeding the national average (Suriano, Ohlson, Norton, & Durham, 2018). Suriano et al. reported that exit interviews revealed that a lack of new teacher support was a primary cause of the new teachers' departures. The school leadership team developed a new teacher program that included monthly meetings, book studies, informal meetings with their administrators, and instructional coaching. The results after the first year of implementation yielded a 50% increase in teacher retention rates; those new teachers who returned the following year cited leadership support, peer support, and instructional coaching as contributing factors in their decisions to stay (Suriano et al., 2018).

Coaching. One of the most impactful ways that districts can help increase new teacher retention is through instructional coaching. Knight (2007) described instructional coaching as a coach and teacher partnership, describing a coach as the teacher's thought partner. Coaching includes components such as data analyses, goals setting, planning, observing, reflecting, and problem solving to set future action steps (Knight, 2007). Instructional coaches provide differentiated and intensive support to teachers (Knight, 2007). Some researchers address instructional coaching together with new teacher induction mentoring (Helms-Lorenz, van de Grift, & Maulana, 2016), however, coaching is different from mentoring. Mentors are seasoned teachers who lead the evaluations and goal setting whereas in coaching, the coaching process provides the teacher more control over the goal setting and course of their growth and autonomy (Carr, Holmes, & Flynn, 2017). In their research on the effects of induction programs on retention, Helms-Lorenz et al. found coaching and observing to be the most powerful induction component, which aligns with the effects of mentoring cited by Ingersoll and Strong (2011).

In a randomized controlled trial of 158 teachers in six elementary and six middle schools, both the control and experiment groups received a five-part series of school-wide professional development while only the experiment group received coaching (Bradshaw et al., 2018). The goal of the coaching was to "provide ongoing support for teachers' adoption of classroom management and culturally responsive practices" (Bradshaw et al., 2018, p. 123). Researchers hypothesized that coaching would have a positive impact on teachers' classroom management practices.

Findings indicated that participants in both the control group and the experiment group reported improvement in self-efficacy and culturally responsive behavior management following professional development. However, in classrooms taught by coached teachers, trained observers documented fewer disruptions from student behaviors, more anticipation of and responsiveness to student needs, and higher use of proactive behavior management by teachers. Researchers proposed that coaching combined with school-wide professional development for improving classroom management practices has great promise.

Woulfin and Rigby (2017) posited that "instructional coaching has emerged as a prevalent and much-lauded instrument for capacity building" (p. 323). According to Shernoff et al., (2015), coaching can increase teacher effectiveness and foster retention by providing real-time support as new teachers learn to balance all their classroom demands. Instructional coaches are an integral part of improving the quality of teachers. In addition to teacher retention, the support that coaches provide to new teachers positively influences teacher efficacy. New teachers are who are unprepared and not supported in challenging teaching situations are more at risk of leaving during their first year of teaching (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2008). The key to retaining new teachers lies in the level of success they experience in improving their

students' academic achievement (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2008); this success may also be referred to as teacher self-efficacy.

Teacher self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) defined teacher self-efficacy as the teachers' confidence in their ability to motivate students to learn and increase student learning outcomes. Self-efficacy beliefs are formed by interpreting information about one's own capabilities stemming from four sources: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states (Bandura, 1997). According to McKim and Velez (2017), the strongest developers of self-efficacy are mastery experiences and Shohani, Azizifar, and Kamalvand (2014) stated "the most prevailing and powerful influence on efficacy is mastery experience in which a successfully performed behavior increases self-efficacy of that behavior" (p. 134).

The development of and factors that predict teacher self-efficacy an under researched area (McKim & Velez, 2017; Pfitzner-Eden, 2016). Though there is little quantitative research focusing on sources of teacher self-efficacy, there should be a strong correlation between mastery experiences and teacher self-efficacy development along with teacher self-efficacy changes (Pfitzner-Eden, 2016). In his quantitative study of preservice teachers at various stages of a program, Pfitzner-Eden found that the development of teacher self-efficacy was impacted significantly by a mentor teacher's positive feedback. Pfitzner-Eden posited that the impact could be a result of mastery experience perception but was also consistent with Bandura's (1997) description of verbal persuasion from an expert in the field who possesses credibility (the mentor teacher) as being particularly influential.

Epps and Foor (2015) contended that in the context of teaching, self-efficacy is referred to as the teacher's sense of efficacy; that is "the belief that a teachers' capabilities can determine

the outcomes of student engagement and learning among even the most difficult or unmotivated students" (p. 128). Research has shown that teacher self-efficacy is positively correlated with teachers' job satisfaction and engagement (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014). Additionally, increasing teacher self-efficacy is key to increasing teacher retention rates. According to Wang et al., (2015), self-efficacy was a strong predictor of teachers' quitting intentions.

Classroom management is a competency area that impacts teacher self-efficacy (Bulut & Topdemir, 2018; Dicke et al., 2015; Miller et al., 2017). Dicke et al. (2015) stated novice teachers may not fully grasp the multifaceted association between classroom management, student behavior, and academics, as they are lacking the classroom practice. Teachers who are hired without adequate preparation increases the need for intensive teacher induction that includes classroom management training.

Novice teachers often lack confidence in their ability to manage their classes (Shohani et al., 2014). This lack of confidence in classroom management could negatively impact their level of commitment to teaching. In a meta-analysis of 33 studies including 16,122 preservice and in-service teachers, findings indicated that self-efficacy beliefs are positively correlated to the teachers' commitment to the profession (Chesnut & Burley, 2015). However, the development of teacher self-efficacy remains an under researched area (McKim & Velez, 2017; Pfitzner-Eden, 2016).

Conceptual Framework Discussion

Teacher preparation programs. Nguyen (2018) reported teacher preparation programs began in the early nineteenth century. Nguyen stated, "the teacher education program, besides content domain, teachers-to-be were trained in pedagogical methods, class management, and moral character development" (p. 77). Today, there is a gap between knowledge gained through

preservice coursework and the necessary application of knowledge required in the workplace (Nguyen, 2018). Nguyen also posited that teachers needed assistance with the knowledge transfer from college to the classroom; stating that it did not occur automatically. Prilleltensky, Neff, and Bessell (2016) posited that teacher preparation programs are not adequately equipping our teachers for the daily demands that teachers face in their classrooms. Consequently, research indicates that novice teachers feel unprepared to successfully deal with difficult behaviors, foster student engagement, and create a structured classroom environment (Baker et al., 2016; Goodwin, 2012).

There is tremendous controversy as to how teachers should be prepared, certified, and licensed, or even if teacher preparation programs are necessary at all (Cochran-Smith, et al., 2011). However, Cochran-Smith et al. (2011) argued, "teacher education has the power both to shape teachers' beliefs and practices, especially when the program's focus is consistent and clear throughout course and field offerings, and improve retention, especially when teachers are selected and prepared for specific contexts" (p. 25). Teacher preparation programs have experienced a downward trend of enrollment annually since 2009. According to Aragon (2016), 725,518 students were enrolled in teacher preparation programs in 2008; by 2014, that number had dropped to 465,536. Interest in becoming a teacher as measured by graduates who have taken the American College Test has also continuously declined. The number of students between 2010 and 2014 graduating from high school who are interested in becoming teachers has decreased by over 16% (ACT, 2016).

The knowledge transfer gap between college and the classroom coupled with declining teacher preparation program enrollment creates a need to increase the quality of teacher preparation, particularly in the area of classroom management. In a study of 144 preservice

teacher candidates, findings indicated that those who completed a year-long internship expressed greater self-efficacy in their ability to manage classroom behavior and student engagement compared to their colleagues who completed a one semester internship (Colson, Sparks, Berridge, Frimming, & Willis, 2017). In a study of 164 preservice teachers, survey results indicated that classroom management was the most beneficial professional development topic (Peterson-Ahmad et al., 2018). "Unfortunately, prior to beginning their teaching careers, many teachers do not receive adequate classroom management skills and feel unprepared for the demands of managing student behaviors in their classrooms" (Peterson-Ahmad et al., 2017, p. 13). Additionally, Freeman, Simonsen, Briere, and MacSuga-Gage (2014) noted, of the 51 teacher-licensure state agencies, only 55% currently require preservice general education teachers to participate in an evidence-based classroom management course.

Even though the models of preservice classroom management appear to share common content (O'Neill & Stephenson, 2011), studies surrounding the impact of preservice classroom management training have contradictory findings. For example, according to Yüksel, (2014) in a study of preservice teachers, those who participated in a classroom management course had higher level of self-efficacy than those who did not. However, in a study of 299 kindergarten teachers, results indicated that their level of preservice training did not influence their CMSE beliefs (Cobbold & Boateng, 2016). Unfortunately, Greenberg et al., (2014) conceded, "the field of teacher education has not reached any sort of consensus on the "who, what, where, when or why" of classroom management preparation" (p. 21). The lack of preparedness that new teachers face is evident and places even greater value and responsibility on new teacher induction programs.

Teacher induction programs. Teacher induction programs are widely used to increase

new teachers' commitment to teaching (Helms-Lorenz et al., 2016). Similarly, Prilleltensky, et al., (2016) reported, "a growing body of research supports the idea that teacher mentoring, and induction programs can increase novice teachers' efficacy, job satisfaction, and retention" (p. 106). Many studies show a positive correlation between teacher induction programs and new teacher retention rates (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). In fact, across the United States, more than half the states require a mandatory induction program of some type for new teachers (Goldrick, Osta, Barlin, & Burn, 2012). However, Goldrick (2016) posited that of the 29 states who require some type of new teacher support, only 15 require support in their first and second years. Ronfeldt and McQueen (2017) stressed teacher induction programs support teacher retention and should be implemented as a best practice. In a secondary analysis of nationally representative data from teachers, findings indicated that "receiving induction supports in the first year predicts less teacher migration and attrition, suggesting that using induction to reduce new teacher turnover is a promising policy trend" (Ronfeldt & McQueen, 2017, p. 394).

In a longitudinal, experimental design research study, researchers randomly assigned 338 new teachers at 71 secondary schools to an experimental or a control group (Helms-Lorenz et al., 2016). The control group received some induction support, but it was limited to one year while the experimental group received 3 years of intensive induction support involving workload reduction, school enculturation, support both inside and outside of the classroom. Results indicated the experimental group had only a 2% higher retention rate than the control group (Helms-Lorenz et al., 2016). The researchers posited that this minimal induction impact was not surprising since the extent of attrition in the secondary schools was smaller than expected.

Kearney (2017) suggested one of the most effective ways to support new teachers is through quality new teacher induction programs. Conversely, one large experimental study's

results indicated that teacher induction did not positively impact teacher retention (Glazerman, et al., 2010). One possible reason for this finding is that in the study, both the control group and the treatment group received similar interventions (Ronfeldt & McQueen, 2017). One may infer that there would be no evidence of improvement comparing the two groups if their interventions were in fact similar, rather than using teachers with no induction support as a comparison group.

Several variations of induction exist across the nation. Ingersoll (2012) indicated induction program participation is related to retention, but the strength of that relationship depends on the types of supports new teachers receive. Specifically, Ingersoll (2012) posited that "collectively, getting multiple induction components had a strong effect on whether beginning teachers stayed or left. Moreover, as the number of components in the packages increased, both the number of teachers receiving the package and the likelihood of their turnover decreased" (p. 50). New teacher induction components are integral in keeping novice teachers in the profession and increasing their self-efficacy (Sutcher et al., 2016).

However, even with the appearance of understanding the importance of supporting new teachers, researchers describe the profession with negative descriptors such as a "revolving door" and one that "cannibalizes their young" (Ingersoll, 2012) and one that has a "sink or swim" mentality (Goldrick, 2016). Brophy (1988) analogized teaching with circus performers who balance spinning plates on sticks stating, "teachers must not only establish a management system that works but keep it working by monitoring events continually and responding quickly when breakdowns threaten" (p. 10). This balancing act requires skills that new teachers may not naturally possess.

One key component of many new teacher induction programs is classroom management professional development. According to Evertson and Weinstein (2006) classroom management

involves teacher actions that create an environment that enables both academic and social-emotional learning to occur. Jere Brophy, one of the pioneers in classroom management research, described classroom management as "actions taken to create and maintain a learning environment conducive to attainment of the goals of instruction (arranging the physical environment of the classroom, establishing rules and procedures, maintaining attention to lessons and engagement in academic activities)" (Brophy, 1988, p. 8). Because classroom management is well documented as one of the greatest challenges for beginning teachers (Baker et al., 2016; Goodwin, 2012; Ritter & Hancock, 2007; Tok & Tok, 2016), new teachers are in need of quality classroom management professional development.

Classroom management professional development. Since teacher preparation programs provide minimal training in classroom management (Baker et al., 2016; Greenberg et al., 2014), school districts must assume the responsibility of providing this training to their new teachers. New teachers need practical solutions to classroom management (Baker et al., 2016). As Greenburg et al. (2014) noted, "It is critical that teachers plan and implement daily routines before any misbehavior has a chance to erupt, and second, teachers should establish the right kinds of interactions with students…to consistently maintain a focus on instruction" (p. i). If new teachers are to implement these two recommendations, they will need adequate training in effective classroom management strategies.

In a summary of 150 studies over the past 6 decades, there were five strategies coined as the *Big Five* that researchers identified as having significant evidence of effectiveness (Greenburg et al., 2014). The Big Five include (a) rules, (b) routines, (c) praise, (d) misbehavior, and (e) engagement. The Big Five are the most effective research-based classroom management strategies that all new teachers need to know and practice (Greenburg, et al., 2014). To combat

the missing teacher preparation program's lacking classroom management training, new teacher induction programs can include training in these top-five research-based strategies.

Training in classroom management is one way to improve teacher retention. Marquez et al. (2016) stated the method and delivery of classroom management professional development may determine how successful teachers are in implementing evidence-based strategies in their classrooms. In a longitudinal study of 97 beginning teachers, researchers suggested that receiving a two-and-a-half-day classroom management training "can have a significant effect on beginning teachers' perceived classroom management skills and well-being, thus helping to prevent reality shock, support teacher retention, and further foster the cultivation of high-quality teachers" (Dicke et al., 2015, p. 10). Additionally, in a study of 347 new teachers who participated in a three-day classroom management training, survey findings indicated that they experienced an increase in job satisfaction (Garwood et al., 2017).

Classroom management self-efficacy. Classroom management self-efficacy (CMSE) is a subcomponent of teacher self-efficacy (Aloe et al., 2013; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy 2001). Self-efficacy in classroom management is defined as teachers' beliefs in their capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to maintain classroom order (Brouwsers & Tomic, 2000). Aloe et al. (2013) described classroom management self-efficacy as "efficacy for controlling disruptive behavior, calming and responding to defiant students, and establishing a routine and order to keep learning activities running smoothly" (p. 105).

In the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) combined portions from numerous different scales to create three primary components of teacher self-efficacy (TSE) – instructional efficacy, engagement efficacy, and classroom management efficacy; therefore, separating CMSE into its own subscale component. Other researchers have

also recognized the need to analyze CMSE separately. According to Sivri and Balcı (2015),

"investigating teachers' self-efficacy specifically in classroom management is a distinct study

area on its own" (p. 39). In fact, many researchers have separated out CMSE from TSE and

created its own categories. For example, O'Neill and Stephenson (2011) identified six personal

teacher action categories related to measuring CMSE:

> (1) organizing resources in the classroom environment (including time, space, materials
> and physical environment); (2) establishing and maintaining rules, routines, procedures
> and expectations; (3) gaining and maintaining attention and monitoring engagement in
> tasks; (4) facilitating student socialization and cooperation (including building classroom
> climate or a community of learners); (5) maintaining order and control; or (6) general
> classroom management items. Personal SE items were required to remain consistent with
> the construct of teacher SE. (p. 265)

Furthermore, Sivri and Balcı (2015) posited that research studies regarding teacher self-

efficacy in specific areas such as classroom management is lacking. Professional development in

classroom management is key to improving classroom management self-efficacy. Researchers

described classroom management courses as essential contributors to teachers' sense of self-

efficacy (Patterson & Seabrooks-Blackmore, 2017).

In a multivariate meta-analysis of 16 studies, findings indicated that teachers who have

higher levels of CMSE are less likely to experience feelings of burnout (Aloe et al., 2013).

Furthermore, Reinke, Herman, and Stormont (2013) found teachers who possessed high-quality

classroom management reported lower incidents of burnout as well as higher self-efficacy rates.

Since research indicates that burnout attributes to teacher attrition and turnover (Aloe et al.,

2013; Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; O'Neill & Stephenson, 2011; Rumschlag, 2017), if CMSE

can improve feelings of burnout, it should be a focus area for new teacher training to improve

retention. In fact, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) claimed the relationship between teacher burnout

and teacher self-efficacy is likely reciprocal.

Some studies yield findings suggesting that different factors influence CMSE. For example, Yerli Usul and Yerli (2017) in their study of 85 preservice teachers, found there was a difference between novice and experienced teachers' self-efficacy perceptions. Since self-efficacy beliefs are often based on experiences, and Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) posited that novice teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are not as strong as experienced teachers, it is no surprise that experienced teachers may experience higher levels of classroom management self-efficacy.

Summary

Teacher retention is a concern across the nation and Volusia County School district leadership is seeking ways to help increase new teacher retention. Understanding Bandura's self-efficacy theory, I analyzed the relationship between three different classroom management trainings and new teacher classroom management self-efficacy. I used data from the CMSBS completed by participants who attended all three CHAMPS classroom management trainings to see which training format had the greatest impact on teacher CMSE. I then compared that data with new teacher retention intentions to determine if there was a relationship between a new teacher's CMSE and new teacher retention intentions.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this study was twofold: to determine (a) which delivery method of classroom management training yielded the highest classroom management self-efficacy beliefs of new teachers and (b) if classroom management self-efficacy beliefs positively impact the participants intentions to remain in Volusia County Schools. This chapter describes both the methodology and research design utilized to study the impact of new teacher self-efficacy. Specifically, it outlines the population, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, research questions, hypothesis, instrumentation, data collection process and statistical used. The purpose of this study was twofold. I sought to determine (a) which delivery method of classroom management training yielded the highest classroom management self-efficacy beliefs of new teachers and (b) if classroom management self-efficacy beliefs positively impact the participants intentions to remain in Volusia County Schools.

Design

This study is nonexperimental and quantitative in nature. While another avenue of research design could incorporate qualitative methodologies, I was primarily interested in investigating the relationship between multiple variables that included data from the Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale (CMSBS). This scale is numerical and, as noted by Muijs (2011), quantitative research collects numerical data to explain an identified phenomenon. The CMSBS was completed by participants who attended all three Conversation, Help, Activity, Movement, Participation, Success (CHAMPS) classroom management trainings to see which training format yielded the highest classroom management self-efficacy. I compared these results with new teacher retention intentions to determine the degree to which a new teacher's classroom management self-efficacy was correlated with new teacher retention intentions observed within

Volusia County Schools.

I used a causal-comparative design to answer the first research question. Causal-comparative research designs are used to find relationships between dependent and independent variables after the treatment or intervention is used. In causal-comparative research, researchers do not create the groups or influence the variables that are studied (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012). Instead, causal-comparative designs attempt "to determine the cause or consequences of differences that already exist between or among groups of individuals" (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun., 2012, p. 366). Causal-comparative designs are also referred to as ex-post facto designs since they use independent variables to explain the outcome measure concentrating on actions that have already occurred.

This design method was appropriate for the first research question because the goal was to determine to what extent each of the independent variables (interventions) affected the dependent variables (outcomes). Causal-comparative research design was also appropriate for this study because the three various classroom management training methods have already occurred. A causal-comparative research design is used when "researchers seek to identify cause-and-effect relationships by forming groups of individuals in whom the independent variable is present or absent- or present at several levels- and then determining whether the groups differ on the dependent variable" (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007, p. 306). For the first research question, the dependent variable was new teacher self-efficacy classroom management beliefs and the independent variable was new teacher classroom management training.

I used a correlational design for the remaining research questions. The correlation coefficient is a statistic used to analyze the association between two continuous variables within a data set. In this correlational design I determined if there was a relationship between the two

scale variables: the new teacher classroom management self-efficacy beliefs from each of the three different trainings and their retention intentions.

All new teachers were required to participate in one of the three trainings, but they were given the choice of which to complete. The one-day CHAMPS training consisted of direct instruction of selected CHAMPS components, view video content of classroom examples of strategies, have some collaborative discussions, and complete a classroom management plan that they can implement when they return to school. The training was abbreviated as some strategies and many of the collaborative components are removed to conserve time.

The two-day CHAMPS training consists of direct instruction of all CHAMPS components. The teachers viewed video content of multiple classroom examples of strategies and have multiple opportunities for collaborative discussions. Teachers who attended the two-day training complete a classroom management plan to implement during the first week of school.

The online training is a comprehensive, self-paced course that consists of seven modules. Teachers received content through written word and video instruction. The modules included video content of classroom examples of strategies, opportunities for peer discussion using electronic discussion threads, and the opportunity to create a classroom management plan. There were 5 modules and as classroom management strategies were taught, participants were asked to submit reflections on their learning, their implementation plans, and their experiences.

Population

Volusia County's public-school system is classified as a large-sized school district in the state of Florida with over 8000 employees serving 61,000 students. The district is the thirteenth largest in the state and is comprised of 16 municipalities. Volusia County Schools (VCS) is also

the largest employer in a county of nearly 500,000 residents ("Welcome to the School Board of Volusia County", 2017).

The research participants consisted of new, novice teachers; that is teachers who were new to Volusia County Schools and new to the teaching profession. Of the 527 new teachers in Volusia County Schools, 437 were new, novice teachers. The remaining teachers were new to Volusia, but not new to teaching. They were not included in the sample population. Each of these new, novice teachers previously completed one of the three classroom management trainings.

Data Collection

I sent an email to each of the 437 new, novice teachers introducing myself and requested permission to use their survey information for this research study. These new teachers were surveyed through SurveyMonkey, an online survey platform. In the email to the new teachers, a detailed description of the research, my contact information, my dissertation chairperson's contact information, and the institution's information were clearly identified. Participant anonymity was ensured as identifying information was not included in the survey. Additionally, I added a statement indicating the completion of the survey constituted consent to use the resulting data.

I originally intended to used stratified random sampling by stratifying the population of new teachers (based on training delivery method) and then taking a random sample from each stratum of all survey respondents to ensure adequate participation representation from each of the three trainings. The ideal sample size was 195 new teachers with a 95% confidence interval and a 5% margin of error. There were a total of 141 respondents: 94 respondents from the one-day training, 32 from the two-day training, and 15 respondents from the online training. Because the three trainings were not equally represented by the respondents, stratified random sampling

was not appropriate.

Assumptions

The following were assumptions for this study:

- Participants selected which training mode they believe would be best suited for them.

- Participants responded honestly and openly regarding their survey answers.

- Each new teacher participated voluntarily and not out of fear of reprisal.

- Participants were assured that their answers would not be shared with anyone outside of the investigators for this study.

- The same facilitator led the one-day, two-day, and online trainings.

Limitations

The following were limitations for this study:

- Factors unrelated to classroom management self-efficacy may cause teachers to leave the classroom.

- Self-reporting may be a limitation if participants fear that their answers may be subject to judgement about their classroom management abilities.

- Classroom management self-efficacy may be related to personal attributes in addition to the various trainings.

- Retention data does not specify if a teacher leaves Volusia County Schools to teach in another district.

- New teachers have various levels of preparedness (i.e., traditional teacher preparation programs versus alternative certification programs) therefore, some new teachers may have prior exposure to classroom management training.

- Causal comparative ex post facto research uses groups formed prior to the study causing a lack of "randomness, manipulation, and control" (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012, p. 232).

Delimitations

The following delimitations were made for this study:

- The scope was delimited to new teacher in one public-school district in the state of Florida and spanned only one academic school year.

- If the response rate was not as anticipated, it may have limited generalizability.

Research Questions

To guide this study, four research questions were posed.

- **Q1.** To what extent do significant mean differences exist between new teachers who complete (a) the one-day classroom management training, (b) the two-day classroom management training, and (c) the online classroom management training, and their perceptions of classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the CMSBS?

- **Q2.** To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the one-day classroom management training and their retention intentions?

- **Q3.** To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions?

- **Q4.** To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the online classroom management training and their retention intentions?

Hypotheses and Null Hypotheses

Muijs (2011) defined a hypothesis as "a tentative explanation that accounts for a set of facts and can be tested by further investigation" (p. 7). I therefore developed a null hypothesis (H_0) and an alternative hypothesis (H_1) to explain (a) the relationship between participation in the classroom management trainings and classroom management self-efficacy, and (b) the relationship between classroom management self-efficacy and new teacher retention intentions. A null hypothesis specified that there will not be an effect, and the alternative hypothesis specified that there will be an effect. Based on the research questions, the hypotheses were as follows:

- HO1: Significant mean differences do not exist between new teachers who complete the one-day classroom management training, (b) the two-day classroom management training, and (c) the online classroom management training, and their perceptions of classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the CMSBS.

- HO2: A significant correlation does not exist between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the one-day classroom management training and their retention intentions?

- HO3: A significant correlation does not exist between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions.

- HO4: A significant correlation does not exist between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the online classroom management training and their retention intentions.

- H1: Significant mean differences exist between new teachers who complete the one-day classroom management training, (b) the two-day classroom management training, and (c) the online classroom management training, and their perceptions of classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the CMSBS.

- H2: A significant correlation exists between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the one-day classroom management training and their retention intentions?

- H3: A significant correlation exists between the CMSE of new teachers who \participate in the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions.

- H4: A significant correlation exists between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the online classroom management training and their retention intentions.

Instrumentation

The instrument used to collect data was the Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale (CMSBS) survey. This scale was developed by S. Çetin (2013) through an in-depth review of the existing literature (Sivri & Balcı, 2015; Tok & Tok, 2016). The survey was designed as a measure to be used with new teachers to determine their perspective of how self-sufficient they are in classroom management. I obtained permission from Dr. Cetin to use this tool for this study. I added questions to collect demographic information about the participants in the beginning of the survey. These demographics included gender, age, and traditional/alternative preservice training method.

The CMSBS has been used to measure the CMSE of preservice, novice teachers. Tok and Tok (2016) used the CMSBS to determine 85 novice teachers' CMSE beliefs as well as the extent to which these beliefs change according to independent variables. Their findings indicated no significant difference apart from male novice teachers having a higher CMSE compared to females. Sivri and Balcı (2015) completed another study using the CMSBS to assess 362 senior preservice teachers to reveal their beliefs about their capabilities in classroom management. Their findings indicated that their self-efficacy differed significantly depending on their major (i.e., elementary and prekindergarten teaching programs versus science teaching programs.)

Psychometric Properties

  Instrument scoring and use. The CMSBS consisted of 15 items that are scored on a five-point Likert scale. The items were divided into two subdimensions: classroom management efficacy (8 items) and classroom management result expectancy (7 items). Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient is 0.81, and for the subdomains, the coefficients are .76 and .77 (Sivri & Balcı, 2015; Tok & Tok, 2016). Because there were 15 items on the scale, the lowest point given the 5-point Likert scale is 15; the highest is 75. The scale ranges from 1 (Never agree) to 5 (Totally agree). A high score indicates high self-sufficiency and a low score indicates low self-sufficiency. The instrument was easy to use, was not lengthy, and was easily converted into an online survey (i.e., Survey Monkey). Researchers who used this measurement tool used measurements of central tendency, standard deviation and independent sample t tests for the analysis of data. For example, Tok and Tok (2016), indicated in their study that "total mean, standard deviation and minimum, medium, maximum scores from the scale were taken as criteria…teachers express their opinions towards classroom management efficacy belief with the score mean of 32.84" (pp. 5597-5598).

  Validity and reliability. Validity and reliability are two of the three key concepts related to measurement in quantitative research (Muijs, 2011). Validity refers to the ability of a tool to measure the construct for what it was designed to measure while reliability is a measure of how consistent the results of a tool are. Content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity are the three main types of validity. Repeated measures and test-retest reliability are the two main types of reliability. According to Tok and Tok (2016) the CMSBS is a valid and internally consistent (reliable) measurement tool for classroom management self-efficacy.

Procedures

After approval from the University's Institutional Review Board and the research proposal committee, the study began in February 2019. I obtained permission from the district's research review committee before the study began. First, I compared the three participant groups in terms of the independent variables (one of the three classroom management training options) to identify which mode of classroom management training yielded the highest new teachers' classroom management self-efficacy. I then compared the new teachers' CMSE score to their retention intentions – that is to continue teaching in Volusia County Schools. The final question on the survey provided an opportunity for participants to indicate their likelihood to remain teaching based on a 5-point Likert scale.

Data Analysis

SPSS was used to analyze the data. No participants or their schools of employment were identified. I conducted descriptive analysis and descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data.

ANOVA. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was originally going to be used to compare the spread of values within groups when comparing continuous variables between two or more groups. ANOVA uses an F-test to determine if there are significant differences between the groups. Muijs (2011) explained that ANOVA tests the null hypothesis that several group means are equal in the population. However, for the first research question, while I intended to use a one-way ANOVA to compare the mean differences between the dependent variable (classroom management self-efficacy beliefs of new teachers) and the independent variable (classroom management training), the three different groups were not equal in population. The Kruskal-Wallis test is a nonparametric test and was an alternative to the one-way ANOVA when the

groups of an independent variable are not equal in population.

Kruskal-Wallis. The Kruskal-Wallis test identified whether there was a statistically significant difference between two or more groups of an independent variable, but not which specific groups were statistically significantly different from one another. Four assumptions must be met to determine if the Kruskal-Wallis was the appropriate statistical test: 1) the dependent variable must be ordinal; 2) the independent variable must consist of two or more categorical, independent groups; 3) there are different participants in each group; 4) the distributions in each group have the same variability (Kruskal-Wallis H Test, n.d.). In this study, all four assumptions were met, therefore, it was appropriate to use the Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric test to answer the first research question.

Pearson's *r*. Pearson's *r* is one type of correlation coefficient that is used when comparing continuous variables. Pearson's *r* varies between -1 (a perfect negative relationship) and +1 (a perfect positive relationship). Both direction and strength of a relationship are provided by Pearson's r. For research questions two, three, and four, I used a correlation design to analyze the classroom management self-efficacy beliefs of teachers from each of the three trainings with their retention intentions to determine if there was a correlation. Pearson's *r* was appropriate to use in this study as I compared the linear relationship between the two continuous variables – CMSE beliefs and New Teacher Retention Intentions. To determine if the relationship was statistically significant, I used the F-Test. Once the F-Test statistics were calculated, I calculated the *p*-value and used 0.05 as the level of significance to determine if a statistical significance existed between the three correlational models and the new teachers' retention intentions.

Summary

I addressed ethical considerations prior to each research step. I informed participants with no coercion or pressure of the opportunity to participate in the study and ensured that communications were clear and straightforward to avoid any confusion. I safeguarded the participants' privacy and shared no information with parties outside of the direct research. Utilizing a causal-comparative quantitative design, I identified to what extent significant mean differences existed between the one-day classroom management training, the two-day classroom management training, and the online classroom management trainings, and new teachers' perceptions of classroom management self-efficacy. Additionally, I determined to what extent a correlation existed between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the one-day, two-day, and online classroom management trainings and their retention intentions. The study was conducted during the 2018-2019 school year. The findings from this study are shared in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine to what extent significant mean differences existed between new teachers who completed (a) the one-day new teacher classroom management training, (b) the two-day new teacher classroom management training, and (c) the online new teacher classroom management training and their classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale (CMSBS); and to determine if the new teacher Classroom Management Self Efficacy (CMSE) from each of the various trainings was correlated with new teacher retention intentions. Statistical tests applied included Kruskal-Wallis and Pearson's *r*. The results of these analyses are presented in this chapter.

Demographics of Participants

The survey included demographic questions indicating gender, age, preservice training, and classroom management training delivery method. As represented in Table 4, most participants were female, and the largest percentage of new teachers fell between the ages of 25 and 44 years old. The number of new teachers who were traditionally certified and those who were alternatively certified were relatively equal. Additionally, the majority of survey participants attended the one-day classroom management training.

Table 4

*Demographics of Participants (*n *= 141)*

Demographics	Frequency (*n*)	%
Gender		
Female	113	81.88
Male	25	18.12
Missing	3	
Age		
18-34 years old	16	11.35
25-34 years old	39	27.66
35-44 years old	42	29.79
45-54 years old	34	24.11
55-64 years old	8	5.67
65+ years old	1	0.71
Missing	1	0.71
Preservice		
Traditional	71	50.35
Alternative	70	49.65
Training Mode		
One-day	94	66.67
Two-day	32	22.69
Online	15	10.64

Presentation and Analysis of the Data

Research Question 1. The first question in this study was: To what extent do significant mean differences exist between new teachers who complete (a) the one-day classroom management training, (b) the two-day classroom management training, and (c) the online classroom management training, and their perceptions of classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the CMSBS? To answer this question, I used the Kruskal-Wallis test instead of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) because the non-normal distribution assumption was violated (each group of the independent variable were disproportionate in size and the data). Additionally, the data met all four required Kruskal-Wallis test assumptions. The independent variable,

classroom management training, included three groups: the one-day classroom management training ($n = 94$), the two-day classroom management training ($n = 32$), and the online classroom management training ($n = 15$).

The descriptive statistics in Table 5 include the overall minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of the new teacher CMSE for the three trainings combined along with the minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation of CMSE for each of the three classroom management training modes individually.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics

	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
CMSBS Total Sum	141	56.80	7.16	37	74
CMSBS One-day	94	55.78	7.29	37	74
CMSBS Two-day	32	57.63	6.39	44	71
CMSBS Online	15	61.67	5.88	52	74

The Kruskal Wallis test showed there was a statistically significant difference in classroom management self-efficacy beliefs among the three groups (*Chi square* = 8.530, *p* = .014, *df* = 2), with a mean rank classroom management self-efficacy score of 65.45 for the one-day classroom management training, 74.70 for the two-day classroom management training, and 97.90 for the online classroom management training, as shown in Table 6. For this research question, the null hypothesis, HO_1, can be rejected.

Table 6 presents the Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric test participant sample separated into the three different classroom management training modes.

Table 6

Kruskal-Wallis Descriptive Statistics

	Classroom Management Training Completed:	*n*	Mean Rank
CMSBS	One-day Classroom Management Training	94	65.45
	Two-day Classroom Management Training	32	70.74
	Online Classroom Management Training	15	97.90
	Total	141	

Sample Sizes and Mean Ranks for New Teacher Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs for each of the three individual classroom management training options

Research Question 2. The second research question was: To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the one-day classroom management training and their retention intentions? I calculated a Pearson Correlation Coefficient between the two continuous variables – CMSE and New Teacher Retention Intentions. The result, $r(94) = .163$, $p = .116$, indicated a weak, positive relationship existed however it was not statistically significant. The null hypothesis, HO_2 for this research question could not be rejected. The full results of this calculation are given in Table 8.

The Pearson correlation coefficient calculated corresponded to (r^2) of 0.027; their CMSE total score on the survey can only account for approximately 3% of the variance or differences seen in their retention intentions.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of Mean and Standard Deviation for New Teachers Who Participated in the One-Day Classroom Management Training and Their Retention Intentions

	Mean	Std. Deviation	*n*
CMSBS	55.78	7.29	94
New Teacher Retention Intentions	4.32	0.82	94

Table 8 provides the Pearson's *r* correlation results for the relationship between new teachers' classroom management self-efficacy for those who participated in the one-day classroom management training and their intent to return to teaching the following school year.

Table 8

Pearson Correlation Statistics

		CMSBS	New Teacher Retention Intentions
CMSBS	Pearson Correlation	1	0.163
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.116
	n	94	94
New Teacher Retention Intentions	Pearson Correlation	0.163	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.116	
	n	94	94

Research Question 3. The third research question was: To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions? I calculated a Pearson Correlation Coefficient between the two continuous variables – CMSE and New Teacher Retention Intentions. The result, *r* (32) = .437*, p* = .012, indicated a moderately, positive relationship between both continuous variables.

The null hypothesis, HO₂ for this research question could be rejected. The full results of this calculation are given in Table 10.

The Pearson' correlation coefficient calculated corresponded to an (r^2) of 0.19; their CMSE total score on the survey can account for approximately 19% of the variance or differences we see in their retention intentions.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics of Mean and Standard Deviation for New Teachers Who Participated in the Two-Day Classroom Management Training and Their Retention Intentions

	Mean	Std. Deviation	n
CMSBS	57.63	6.39	32
New Teacher Retention Intentions	4.69	0.59	32

Table 10 provides the Pearson's *r* correlation results for the relationship between new teachers' classroom management self-efficacy for those who participated in the two-day classroom management training and their intent to return to teaching the following school year.

Table 10

Pearson Correlation Statistics

		CMSBS	New Teacher Retention Intentions
CMSBS	Pearson Correlation	1	0.44
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.01
	n	32	32
New Teacher Retention Intentions	Pearson Correlation	0.44	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01	
	n	32	32

Research Question 4. Research Question 4 was: To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the online classroom management training and their retention intentions? I calculated a Pearson Correlation Coefficient between the two continuous variables – CMSE and New Teacher Retention Intentions. The result, r (15) = .204, p = .467, indicated a weak, positive relationship existed, however, it was not statistically significant.

The null hypothesis, HO_2 for this research question could not be rejected. The full results of this calculation are given in Table 12.

The Pearson correlation coefficient calculated corresponded to an (r2) of 0.042; their CMSE total score on the survey can only account for approximately 4% of the variance or differences we see in their retention intentions.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics of Mean and Standard Deviation for New Teachers Who Participated in the Online Classroom Management Training and their Retention Intentions

	Mean	Std. Deviation	n
CMSBS	61.67	5.88	15
New Teacher Retention Intentions	4.73	0.46	15

Table 12 provides the Pearson's r correlation results for the relationship between new teachers' classroom management self-efficacy for those who participated in the online classroom management training and their intent to return to teaching the following school year.

Table 12

Pearson Correlation Statistics Among Variables

		CMSBS	New Teacher Retention Intentions
CMSBS	Pearson Correlation	1	0.204
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.47
	n	15	15
New Teacher	Pearson Correlation	0.204	1
Retention	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.47	
Intentions	*n*	15	15

Summary

This chapter presented the results from both the Kruskal-Wallis test and the Pearson's *r* Correlation Analysis. The findings were organized in correspondence to the four research questions. The Kruskal-Wallis results yielded a significant mean difference in the new teachers' classroom management self-efficacy beliefs among the three different classroom management trainings. The Pearson's *r* results indicated a statistically significant correlation between the new teachers' classroom management self-efficacy from the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions. The Pearson's *r* results did not yield a correlation between new teachers' classroom management self-efficacy from either the one-day or the online training and their retention intentions. A discussion of these findings and recommendations for future research are provided in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Discussion

In recent years, new teacher retention has gained interest internationally (Chiong, Menzies, & Parameshwaran, 2017). It is well documented that classroom management is one of the greatest challenges for beginning teachers (Baker, Gentry & Larmer, 2016; Goodwin, 2012; Ritter & Hancock, 2007; Tok & Tok, 2016). Further, many teacher preparation programs do not adequately equip prospective teachers for the daily demands that teachers face in their classrooms (Prilleltensky, Neff, & Bessell, 2016). This challenge has fallen to school leaders, who must implement effective new teacher induction program components, which according to Sutcher, Darling-Hammond, and Carver-Thomas (2016) are integral in keeping novice teachers in the profession and increasing their self-efficacy. In the Volusia County School district, one major component of the new teacher induction program is classroom management training that is intended to increase classroom management self-efficacy.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine to what extent significant mean differences exist between new teachers who complete (a) the one-day new teacher classroom management training, (b) the two-day new teacher classroom management training, and (c) the online new teacher classroom management training and their classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale (CMSBS); and to determine if the new teacher Classroom Management Self Efficacy (CMSE) from each of the various trainings is correlated with new teacher retention intentions. This final chapter provides a discussion of the findings in relation to past literature, identify the limitations within the context of the study design, and discuss recommendations for practical application and future research.

Interpretation of the Findings

Whereas new teacher retention is a growing concern across the nation, the findings from this study indicated a statistically significant mean difference among the three different classroom management trainings and new teacher classroom management self-efficacy (CMSE). Additionally, there was a statistically significant correlation between the new teachers' classroom management self-efficacy from the two-day classroom management training and their retention intentions. Finally, there was no statistically significant correlation between new teachers' classroom management self-efficacy from either the one-day or the online training and their retention intentions.

Research Question 1. Noted previously, Bandura's theory of self-efficacy (1977) identified two types of expectancy which may yield successful performance: efficacy expectation and outcome expectancy. Bandura posited that self-efficacy beliefs are formed through master experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states. This study focuses on the three latter sources of self-efficacy with the objective of creating higher classroom management self-efficacy and outcome expectancy for new teachers. Because efficacy expectations differ in magnitude, generality, and strength (Bandura, 1977), I hypothesized different training methods would result in a difference in classroom management self-efficacy beliefs for new teachers.

Research question 1 states, "To what extent do significant mean differences exist between new teachers who complete (a) the one-day classroom management training, (b) the two-day classroom management training, and (c) the online classroom management training, and their perceptions of classroom management self-efficacy as measured by the CMSBS?" The results yielded a significant mean difference in the new teachers' classroom management self-

efficacy beliefs among the three different classroom management trainings. The findings indicate the three trainings, though they intended to produce the same outcome in each participant, yielded different classroom management efficacy outcomes. Researchers Dicke, Elling, Schmeck, and Leutner (2015) and Sivri and Balcı (2015) posited that classroom management training increases teacher efficacy expectations. The findings from this quantitative study support that claim and further suggest there are differences in classroom management self-efficacy based on the types of training received.

Research Questions 2-4. Classroom management is a competency area that impacts teacher self-efficacy (Bulut & Topdemir, 2018; Dicke et al., 2015; Miller, Ramirez, & Murdock, 2017) and according to Wang, Hall, & Rahimi (2015), self-efficacy is a strong predictor of teachers' quitting intentions. Given this precept, I hypothesized this study would show a statistically significant correlation between new teacher classroom management self-efficacy and their retention intentions. Research Questions 2-4 are identical except for the type of training. Each question states, "To what extent is there a correlation between the CMSE of new teachers who participate in the (format of classroom management training) and their retention intentions?" For research question 3, the findings indicated a statistically significant, moderately positive relationship between both continuous variables in the two-day training format. Using a Pearson's r to determine if there was a correlation between CMSE and New Teacher Retention Intentions, the correlation for the two-day classroom management training was $r = .437$ ($p = .012$). It is evident that attendance in the two-day classroom management training correlates with new teacher retention intentions.

For Research Questions 2 and 4, the findings indicated a weak, positive relationship between both continuous variables in both the one-day and online training formats. Using a

Pearson's *r* to determine if there was a correlation between the two continuous variables –

CMSE and New Teacher Retention Intentions, the correlation for the one-day classroom

management training was, $r = .163$ ($p = .116$) and the correlation for the online classroom

management training was $r = .204$ ($p = .467$). It is not evident that attendance at either the one-

day or online classroom management training correlates with their retention intentions.

Impact on teacher retention. Other studies have shown that classroom management

training results in greater job satisfaction (Garwood, Harris, & Tomick, 2017), teacher retention

(Dicke et al., 2015), and teacher self-efficacy (Patterson & Seabrooks-Blackmore, 2017). Studies

have also shown that teachers with a higher sense of self-efficacy in classroom management

report lower incidents of burnout (Reinke, Herman, & Stormont, 2013) which also leads to

teacher attrition and turnover (Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2013; Evertson & Weinstein, 2006;

O'Neill & Stephenson, 2011; Rumschlag, 2017). The statistically significant correlation between

the two-day classroom management training and new teacher retention intentions both align and

support the findings from these research studies.

The findings from the Kruskal-Wallis test, indicating a significant mean difference

between the three different modes of classroom management training further supports the

statistically significant correlation between the two-day classroom management training and

those teachers' retention intentions. Several reasons likely contribute to the positive impact on

retention intentions of the two-day training compared to the one-day and the online training. The

two-day training is more comprehensive and allows for multiple opportunities for movement and

collaborative discussions following direct instruction. Additionally, because this training occurs

during the summer, the new teachers complete a classroom management plan to implement

during the first week of school. These new teachers also likely begin their school year with a

greater awareness of the support network they have in their colleagues along with district support staff.

The one-day training, though it covers identical content, is conducted at a faster pace and with limited collaborative discussions. It also occurs throughout the school year rather than during the summer; therefore, teachers do not have the opportunity to begin the school year with a classroom management plan in place. The online training is self-paced and does allow for collaborative discussions, but they are asynchronous, and feedback is delayed rather than occurring in real time. New teachers who select this classroom management training option also forgo the opportunity to start the school year with a classroom management plan in place.

Limitations

In addition to the limitations listed in Chapter 3, there were other limitations that I uncovered after the research concluded. One limitation that I had not considered was that the total number of respondents from each of the trainings would not be normally distributed. Though every training participant was encouraged to participate, the one-day training yielded a significantly larger number of survey participants.

One of the assumptions listed was that the participants would be honest in their self-reporting. However, this may not have occurred, and therefore, it could have been a limitation. Another limitation was that the participants' survey responses were not validated to ensure accuracy, particularly their retention intentions. Though the participants were assured that their responses were anonymous, and precautions were taken to ensure this commitment, they may have refrained from indicating what they may have considered an unfavorable answer had anyone connected their response to their name. This limitation may be a result of "not knowing what they don't know," which could explain the differences between the two-day group and the

others. For example, with a longer training and more discussion, they learn more about what they know and what they don't; which may lead them to be more honest with themselves and when answering the survey. Further, this could be why the correlation between the two-day training and their retention intentions are higher; that is, their survey responses more accurately reflect what they reflect on themselves.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are identified according to practical application and future research. The recommendations for practical application are intended to improve the current classroom management training offered by school districts, particularly within Volusia County Schools. The recommendations for future research are needed to both identify and understand the relationship between new teacher classroom management self-efficacy and new teacher retention.

Recommendations for district leadership. Recommendations for improving current practices include revisiting the current new teacher induction program components and providing a more cohesive relationship between classroom management training, classroom management coaching, and instructional coaching. The training piece alone may positively impact classroom management self-efficacy; however, Bandura (1977) described mastery experiences as the strongest source of information that impacts self-efficacy beliefs and that successes increase mastery expectations. These experiences may be able to be simulated in training; however, follow-up classroom management and instructional coaching can facilitate the actual mastery experience for a new teacher in their own classroom.

The induction components in place currently include classroom management training, along with classroom management coaching follow-up and instructional coaching. According to

Helms-Lorenz et al. (2016), coaching is the most powerful induction component. Unfortunately, the classroom management coaching and instructional coaching are often conducted as two separate activities, rather than blending the two. Perera, Calkins, and Part (2019) stated that when a high level of self-efficacy for instructional strategies is combined with low levels of classroom management self-efficacy, "the potentially beneficial effects of high self-efficacy for instructional strategies on instructional practices may be inhibited by doubts about abilities to control disruptive behavior and engage students in the learning process" (p. 188). It is important for district leaders to recognize the need to provide classroom management training and then follow-up coaching for all the other critical domains of teacher practice (i.e., classroom management, instructional strategies, pedagogical competencies, etc.)

As stated earlier, instructional coaches are an integral part of improving the quality of teachers, and coaching can increase teacher effectiveness and foster retention by providing real-time support as new teachers learn to balance all their classroom demands (Shernoff, Lakind, Frazier, & Jakobsons, 2015). Combining classroom management training with follow-up coaching involving classroom management and instruction may increase teacher self-efficacy along with teacher retention.

Recommendations for further research. Sivri and Balcı (2015) posited that research studies regarding teacher self-efficacy in specific areas such as classroom management are lacking. Classroom management is well documented as one of the greatest challenges for beginning teachers (Baker et al., 2016; Goodwin, 2012; Ritter & Hancock, 2007; Tok & Tok, 2016). Therefore, addressing the need for classroom management training must continue to be a focus for districts who are struggling to keep beginning teachers. As evidenced by this study, various professional development trainings in classroom management do impact classroom

management self-efficacy differently; however, more research is needed to identify the reasons for the difference in impact.

The methods and survey used in this study can be replicated; however, a valuable addition to this study would be to include a qualitative component. A mixed method study adding qualitative interviews could provide a deeper look into classroom management self-efficacy beliefs. Additionally, focus groups or semistructured interviews could uncover additional means to increase new teacher retention. For example, it may be valuable for district leaders to expand on this study by including a follow-up coaching component. A mixed methods study would allow the quantitative survey to be utilized as well as interviews of those teachers who receive classroom management coaching that is paired with instructional coaching versus those teachers who receive them separately by two different coaches.

Another future study that could yield valuable information to the district would be to follow those new teachers who participated in the various classroom management trainings and analyze their teacher evaluation measures to determine if there is a correlation between their training and their evaluation scores. For example, in the Volusia County School district, the teacher evaluation used includes a *classroom environment* domain. This domain includes indicators such as managing classroom procedures and managing student behaviors. District leadership should analyze whether one specific classroom management training yields higher scores than another in these specific evaluation areas.

After my research, one interesting finding was noted when I used a fourth Pearson's r test that included all of the participants combined rather than separating them by training group. This correlational analysis yielded a statistically significant correlation among all of the three groups and their retention intentions. This finding could be inferred as evidence of a correlation between

classroom management training as a whole and new teacher retention intentions. Additionally, further research using a mixed methods study would provide a more complete understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2014). According to Shen, Leslie, Spybrook, & Ma (2012), job satisfaction is positively correlated with classroom control, which confirms that successful classroom management is positively correlated with job satisfaction. Research indicates that a lack of teacher job satisfaction (Green & Munoz, 2016; Larkin, Brantley-Dias, & Lokey-Vega, 2016) directly impacts retention rates. A mixed methods study would permit a researcher to use a focus group or semistructured interviews to provide a more comprehensive picture regarding additional variables that impact retention decisions.

Future research should also focus on determining if there are significant mean differences in those new teachers who are traditionally certified versus those who are alternatively certified and their classroom management self-efficacy after participating in the same classroom management training. A researcher cannot assume that all participants start with the same level of classroom management knowledge. For example, one teacher may have taken a classroom management course during their preservice training and another teacher may be hearing about classroom management for the first time during their training.

Additionally, traditionally certified teachers may also have had previous opportunities to student teach prior to their first official year as a teacher. Yerli Usul & Yerli (2017) found in their study of 85 preservice teachers that there was a difference between novice and experienced teachers' self-efficacy perceptions. This finding may also be true for novice teachers who receive preservice classroom management training and those who are alternatively certified and did not receive preservice classroom management training.

In the current study, the survey responses indicate that the traditionally versus alternatively certified new teachers were equally distributed: 71 of the 141 respondents were traditionally certified, and 70 of the 141 respondents were alternatively certified. One way to examine this in future research might be to stratify the differences in each certification group and determine if there were differences in their classroom management self-efficacy beliefs compared to one another within the same training group. These results could support the findings from Peterson-Ahmad, Hovey, and Peak (2018) that indicated preservice teachers believed classroom management was the most beneficial professional development topic during their preservice training and Patterson and Seabrooks-Blackmore (2017) who indicated that researchers described classroom management courses as essential contributors to teachers' sense of self-efficacy.

Because of the limited sample size, further research could investigate whether a larger sample size would yield different results. Additionally, the online classroom management training had the smallest number of respondents ($n = 15$) to the Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs survey. This small sample size may have contributed to the outcome of no significant correlation. Again, further research could investigate to determine if a larger sample size would yield different results.

Conclusions

As a district leader and researcher, my greatest hope was that this study would result in valuable findings to help lead decision-making as it relates to the most valuable and largest personnel investment in Volusia County Schools: new teachers. The profession has gotten more and more difficult over the years and leaders cannot afford to ignore the problems facing districts when new teachers are not properly equipped with the knowledge and skills that they need to be

successful their first year and thereafter. This study has added knowledge to the research base

regarding both classroom management self-efficacy and new teacher retention.

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Appendix A: Median Florida Teacher Salary Data 2017-18

DISTRICT #	DISTRICT NAME	TEACHER		
		AVERAGE SALARY	NUMBER EMPLOYED	EMPLOYMENT LENGTH (in Months)
00	FLORIDA	$48,168	175,225	10
01	ALACHUA	$42,839	1,743	10
02	BAKER	$43,345	293	10
03	BAY	$44,283	1,845	10
04	BRADFORD	$39,520	216	10
05	BREVARD	$47,065	4,741	10
06	BROWARD	$52,220	16,119	10
07	CALHOUN	$39,573	153	10
08	CHARLOTTE	$46,601	926	10
09	CITRUS	$46,139	977	10
10	CLAY	$43,859	2,515	10
11	COLLIER	$54,054	3,087	10
12	COLUMBIA	$43,298	641	10
13	MIAMI-DADE	$51,819	18,870	10
14	DESOTO	$43,761	280	10
15	DIXIE	$41,839	124	10
16	DUVAL	$46,143	7,976	10
17	ESCAMBIA	$43,963	2,699	10
18	FLAGLER	$50,139	716	10
19	FRANKLIN	$41,648	79	10
20	GADSDEN	$37,144	370	10
21	GILCHRIST	$47,959	155	10
22	GLADES	$49,606	149	10
23	GULF	$43,516	122	10
24	HAMILTON	$41,230	92	10
25	HARDEE	$43,726	325	10
26	HENDRY	$44,750	409	10
27	HERNANDO	$46,729	1,449	10
28	HIGHLANDS	$44,612	752	10
29	HILLSBOROUGH	$49,484	14,325	10
30	HOLMES**	**	**	**
31	INDIAN RIVER	$48,399	1,122	10
32	JACKSON	$42,413	465	10
33	JEFFERSON	$50,937	56	10

DISTRICT #	DISTRICT NAME	TEACHER		
34	LAFAYETTE	$47,969	72	10
		TEACHER		
DISTRICT #	**DISTRICT NAME**	**AVERAGE SALARY**	**DISTRICT #**	**DISTRICT NAME**
00	**FLORIDA**	**$48,168**	**175,225**	**10**
35	LAKE	$45,472	2,653	10
36	LEE	$46,054	5,538	10
37	LEON	$44,226	2,051	10
38	LEVY	$43,513	318	10
39	LIBERTY	$40,463	105	10
40	MADISON	$40,008	174	10
41	MANATEE	$46,919	3,249	10
42	MARION	$45,651	2,575	10
43	MARTIN	$45,286	1,189	10
44	MONROE	$58,326	515	10
45	NASSAU	$45,852	718	10
46	OKALOOSA	$50,768	1,797	10
47	OKEECHOBEE	$46,032	392	10
48	ORANGE	$47,198	12,689	10
49	OSCEOLA	$45,135	3,737	10
50	PALM BEACH	$50,269	12,499	10
51	PASCO	$43,288	4,860	10
52	PINELLAS	$48,765	6,671	10
53	POLK	$46,507	6,546	10
54	PUTNAM	$45,637	617	10
55	ST. JOHNS	$45,607	2,339	10
56	ST. LUCIE	$45,527	2,374	10
57	SANTA ROSA	$44,913	1,794	10
58	SARASOTA	$54,095	2,978	10
59	SEMINOLE	$48,283	4,237	10
60	SUMTER	$47,736	540	10
61	SUWANNEE	$47,885	355	10
62	TAYLOR	$43,809	173	10
63	UNION	$39,689	165	10
64	VOLUSIA	$45,585	4,148	10
65	WAKULLA	$41,092	324	10
66	WALTON	$44,334	624	10
67	WASHINGTON*	$44,935	232	10
68	DEAF/BLIND	$46,165	140	10
71	FL VIRTUAL	$50,613	1,623	12

DISTRICT #	DISTRICT NAME	TEACHER AVERAGE SALARY	DISTRICT #	DISTRICT NAME
72	FAU LAB SCH	$47,706	152	10
00	FLORIDA	$48,168	175,225	10
73	FSU LAB SCH	$40,101	162	7
74	FAMU LAB SCH	$41,416	46	10
75	UF LAB SCH	$40,026	63	10

Appendix B: Starting Salaries in Competing and Neighboring Districts

District	Starting Salary For SY 2017-18	Master's Degree	Specialist Degree	Doctorate Degree
Brevard	$ 39,266	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable
Flagler	$ 40, 203	$ 42,953	$ 44,453	$ 45,703
Lake	$ 40,000	$ 42,375	$ 43,325	$ 44,325
Seminole	$ 40,000	$ 44,125	$ 47,500	$ 51,000
Volusia	$ 38,712	$ 41,703	$ 43,125	$ 44,605

Appendix C: Permission for Survey Usage

From: SABAN CETIN <scetin@gazi.edu.tr>
Sent: Thursday, November 1, 2018 10:36 AM
To: McDonough, Jenny L. <jlmcdono@volusia.k12.fl.us>
Subject: Re: Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Instrument

 CAUTION: **This email originated from outside of Volusia County Schools. DO NOT** click links or open attachments unless you recognize the sender and are expecting the information or have verified with the third party and/or **Customer Support** at ext. **20000**, option **2** that the content is safe.

 Thank you for your email and interest in using the scale. You have my permission to use it for your research. There are no other researchers or publishers who hold the right to grant the permission. I would be appreciated if you could include citation to the work. I may sign the permission document, scan and send it as an attachment, however, I wonder whether it would be suitable for you or would you still need the document in enclosed envelope?

I wish you success in your research,

Best wishes,

 Doç.Dr.Şaban ÇETİN
Gazi Üniversitesi
Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü
Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim ABD

Assoc. Prof.Dr. Saban CETİN
Gazi University
Faculty of Education
Department of Educational Sciences
ANKARA/TURKEY

Kimden: "Jenny L. McDonough" <jlmcdono@volusia.k12.fl.us>
Kime: scetin@gazi.edu.tr, cetin09@gmail.com
Gönderilenler: 30 Ekim Salı 2018 18:59:50
Konu: Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Instrument

Hello there!

My name is Jenny McDonough, and I am working on my dissertation here in the United States. I would like to know if you would be willing to grant me permission to use your Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Belief Scale as my research instrument. In my research, I have come across other dissertations who used the scale referenced in your 2013 article:

Öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusundaki öz yeterlik inançlarını Belirleme ölçeği (SYÖİÖ) geliştirme çalışması. [Development of a scale to measure prospectıve teachers' self-effıcacy belıefs regardıng classroom management (CMSES)] *Turkish Studies, 8* **(12),299-310.**

I am attaching a permission document if you would please do me the honor of granting me permission to use this instrument.

Choosing joy,
Jenny McDonough
Coordinator, Federal Programs and Grants Development
(386) 255-6475 x 33223

Appendix D: Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale Survey

1. I understand that by completing this survey I am agreeing to allow my answers to be used in a research study.
   - Yes
   - No

2. Please select one of the following choices that best describes your preservice training:

   - I am a traditionally certified teacher (attended college or a university for teaching)

   - I am an alternatively certified teacher (attended college or a university for something other than teaching)

3. Please select your gender:
   - Male
   - Female

4. Please select your age range:

   18-24   45-54
   25-34   55-64
   35-44   65+

5. I completed the following CHAMPS Classroom Management Training:

   - Two-Day Summer CHAMPS Classroom Management Training
     (July 18-19, 2018 or July 23-24, 2018)
   - One-Day CHAMPS Classroom Management Training (August 2018-March 2019)
   - Online CHAMPS Classroom Management Training (August 2018 - March 2019)

6. I know what I need to do to deliver effective classroom management.
7. I know what to do with unwanted situations in the classroom.
8. I can easily handle the negativity in the classroom.
9. I wish two teachers were in the classroom during every lesson.
10. It makes me very anxious to be confronted by students in the classroom.
11. I'd like to talk about classroom management in practice constantly.
12. I can explain my thoughts on classroom management in any environment.
13. I can always bring rational contributions when solving the problems of my friends in classroom management.
14. I can effectively manage a class.
15. The students' success in lessons is directly associated with the teachers' classroom management.
16. Being assessed on how I manage the class is never a problem.
17. The less complaints about the class, the more successful a teacher is in classroom management.
18. The problems that I have in teaching are unrelated to classroom management.
19. I am confident in the classroom management skills that I possess.
20. I believe that I have had a very effective teaching experience with classroom management.
21. I plan on returning as a teacher in the 2019-2020 school year.

Appendix E: IRB Approval

ABILENE CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY

Educating Students for Christian Service and Leadership Throughout the World

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
320 Hardin Administration Building, ACU Box 29103, Abilene, Texas 79699-9103
325-674-2885

Dear Jenny,

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board, I am pleased to inform you that your project titled

(IRB# 19-009   )is exempt from review under Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects.

If at any time the details of this project change, please resubmit to the IRB so the committee can determine whether or not the exempt status is still applicable.

I wish you well with your work.

Sincerely,

Megan Roth

Megan Roth, Ph.D.
Director of Research and Sponsored Programs

Our Promise. ACU is a vibrant, innovative, Christ-centered community that engages students in authentic spiritual and intellectual growth, equipping them to make a real difference in the world.