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Instructor's Employment-Level, Instructor-Efficacy, and Knowledge of Effective Classroom Strategies for Emotional Disorders

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MA, St. Mary's University, 2001

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Community college instructors are responsible for creating learning opportunities for all students, including adult students affected by emotional disorders (ED). Concerns in the literature have grown over how invested part-time instructors are in their teaching; however, limited data were available regarding instructor knowledge of ED, instructor-efficacy, and the impact of employment status. The purpose of this study was to address the gap in the literature and analyze relationships between instructor knowledge of ED strategies (as assessed by Teaching Students with Emotional Behavior Disorders scale) and instructors' efficacy beliefs (as assessed by the Ohio State Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale). It also evaluated the impact of employment status (part-time versus full-time) on instructor-efficacy beliefs and knowledge of classroom management strategies for adult students affected by ED. A convenience sample of 104 community college instructors across 2 colleges in the Midwestern United States with a population of 201 instructors chose to complete either paper or online surveys. This study was guided by Bandura's self-efficacy theory. The data analysis included Pearson correlation, ANOVA, linear regression, Kruskal-Wallis, and LSD post hoc tests. Key findings included a statistically significant association between knowledge and instructor-efficacy scores and a statistically significant difference in ED knowledge between part-time and full-time instructors. The study findings promote positive social change by providing information for use by community college administrators for professional development programs to improve ED instructional practices, improving the quality of instruction and experience for community college instructors, students affected by ED, and the community at large.

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Dedication

This is dedicated to my children, Brady, Mitchel, and Jack who continually cheer me on, love unconditionally, and always provide an outlet for fun and relaxation.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Moving from the regulated world of U.S. secondary education to an unfamiliar community college environment that requires autonomy and independence can be overwhelming for any student, but is especially so for students with emotional disorders (ED). Students with ED may or may not have met official eligibility for obtaining accommodation services through their college disability service office. Whether an instructor has been notified by the college disability services office or not, there is a significant chance that they will encounter students with ED within the classroom (Connor, 2012). Community college instructors' beliefs about their abilities to teach and their knowledge of classroom management strategies significantly impacts these students' success or failure in postsecondary educational settings (Lombardi & Murray, 2011).

Community college classrooms are inclusive which ensures that students with disabilities and their peers are placed together within the same classroom environment (Kelepouris, 2014). The number of students with disabilities attending U.S. postsecondary institutions such as community colleges has tripled in the past three decades (Connor, 2012). Twenty percent of students with ED attempt postsecondary schooling but frequently earn lower grades and demonstrate a high dropout rate (Military Community and Family Policy, 2014). Furthermore, students with ED exemplify disability needs that many college educators are unaware of that encompass both learning and behavioral problems (Lombardi & Murray, 2011; Sutherland, Lewis-Palmer,

Stichter, Morgan, 2008). Consequently, the development of effective behavioral and academic classroom strategies that will enable students with ED to have success is critical to successful inclusive placements of these students (Scanlon & Baker, 2012).

The term ED encompasses a wide range of differing disorders such as anxiety disorders, personality disorders, mood disorders, schizophrenia, and psychiatric disorders (Souma, Rickerson, Burgstahler, 2012). Common issues that students with ED share include poor relationships, inappropriate behaviors, depression, learning difficulties not due to intelligence, and development of school related fears (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Students with ED often encounter both learning and behavioral problems (Sutherland et al., 2008). These student issues may manifest in the classroom through inappropriate disruptions, social skills deficits, verbal and/or physical aggression, lack of motivation, and negative interactions with peers and instructors (MacSuga-Gage, Siomonsen, Briere, 2012). If appropriate teaching strategies are not used, students with ED are likely to experience failure in the inclusive college classroom and instructors will experience problematic classroom management (Evans, Weiss, & Cullinan, 2012). The goal for instructors is to ensure that students' behavior can be moderated and controlled so effective instruction for all students takes place (Evans, Weiss, & Cullinan, 2012).

Numerous techniques regarding elementary school and secondary school instructors' ability to incorporate management strategies in their classrooms for students with ED have been discussed in the literature (e.g., Evans et al., 2012; Schlein, Taft, Tucker-Blackwell, 2013; Weigert, 2012). However, there remains a lack of discussion in the literature regarding effective classroom management strategies and perceptions of

instructors at the community college level for adult students with ED. Although administrative and legal expectations exist for providing appropriate classroom management strategies within the inclusive community college classroom, there have been no protocols or instructions outlining effective practices (Scanlon & Baker, 2012). In addition, there have been no universal policies developed with regard to including students with ED that community colleges must enforce (Hindes & Mather, 2007).

The Americans with Disabilities Act and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act outline legal requirements postsecondary institutions must abide by, yet these requirements only state that discrimination must not occur against students with disabilities (Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990, 2000; H.R. 8070--93rd Congress: Rehabilitation Act, 1973). The requirements do not mandate universal strategies or practices (Kelepouris, 2014). Disability service offices on community college campuses are to aid students on a case by case basis to acquire reasonable accommodations (Kelepouris, 2014). This case by case practice does not provide a broader knowledge of ED or classroom management strategies for instructors (Lombardi, Murray, & Dallas, 2013).

Additionally, many school policies pertaining to classroom practices address assessments and do not address instructor knowledge of classroom management strategies for students with ED (Hindes & Mather, 2007; Scanlon & Baker, 2012). The choice of classroom strategies that community college instructors utilize to ensure equity within their classrooms for students with ED is a nonmandated choice. In lieu of specific legal statutes, instructors' classroom management strategies should be supported by

research on effective practices (Kelepouris, 2014; Lane, Jolivette, Conroy, Nelson, & Benner, 2011; McLaughlin, 2010).

However, there is limited data effective classroom management strategies for students with ED at the community college level, and disagreement exists over effectiveness of strategies (Christensen, Renshaw, Caldarella, Young, 2012; Lane et al., 2011; MacSuga-Gage, Simonsen, Briere, 2012; Moreno & Bullock, 2011). Disagreement also remains regarding whether there is a need to individualize coursework (Dixon, Yssel, McConnell, Hardin, 2014; Lombardi & Murray, 2011).

Furthermore, past studies have linked the quality of instruction with instructors' sense of teaching-efficacy at the primary and secondary levels of education (Holzberger, Philipp, Kunter, 2013). Research at compulsory levels of education confirmed that instructors' efficacy can be affected by the teaching process (Holzberger et al., 2013). The knowledge regarding community college levels of education has been limited in this area. Specifically, there was a lack of knowledge regarding community college instructors' efficacy when dealing with the specific challenges concerning classroom management for students with ED.

In addition, community college instructors differ from instructors at primary and secondary levels of education in three major ways:

1. Community college instructors do not have to abide by all of the same legal requirements set forth for kindergarten through twelfth grade when creating management strategies (Kelepouris, 2014).

2. Community college instructors' employment statuses (e.g., being full-time tenured/tenure-track faculty, full-time non-tenure track faculty, or part-time) impact their beliefs regarding teaching ability and knowledge of strategies that work specifically for students with ED (ASHE Higher Education Report, 2010; Lei, 2007; Wilson, 2013).
3. Community college instructors typically have expertise in one discipline and their higher degrees have not required knowledge surrounding differing teaching practices, classroom management, or strategies for including students with needs due to ED (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Lombardi & Murray, 2011).

Statement of the Problem

Students with ED's struggles within the college classroom aid in shaping instructors' perceptions surrounding their personal teaching-efficacy (Holzberger et al., 2013). This is important as researchers have found that instructor-efficacy influences teaching behaviors and how instructors choose strategies to reach curriculum based goals set forth by management (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Margolis, 2012). Community college instructors are bound by the college's administration standards, The Americans with Disabilities Act (2000), and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 to provide classroom strategies for students with disabilities. These federal laws mandate the provision of reasonable accommodations for students with disabilities yet do not explicitly state what types of classroom management strategies are necessary for adult students with ED (Kelepouris, 2014). Disability service offices on community college

campuses aid students on a case-by-case basis. This does not provide a broader knowledge of ED or classroom strategies for instructors.

Improving instructor-efficacy and ultimately instructors' choices of classroom management strategies is a very relevant concern in light of the legal directives. What is problematic is that instructors at the community college level commonly have knowledge and expertise in one specific area of content versus a broader knowledge of classroom management practices, teaching skills, or general pedagogical methods (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Lombardi & Murray, 2011). The interplay between instructors' efficacy beliefs and the lack of training in specific teaching methods for ED is problematic because it creates a potential inadequacy for effective teaching and adherence to legal mandates. Moreover, training programs offered for community college instructors regarding teaching practices and tips for the student population with ED may be limited or nonexistent (Lombardi & Murray, 2011).

Instructors often have a difficult time distinguishing between the experience of students with physical disabilities and students that have emotional disorders (Krentel, 2007). Students with physical disabilities are more easily identified, and much more research exists pertaining to strategies for physical disabilities and the role educators' play (Krentel, 2007). For instance, typical strategies that are expected for physical disabilities include allowing extra time for exams, providing course material in alternative formats such as Braille or digital files, provision of note takers, and qualified interpreters for hearing impairments (Burghstahler, 2012). Emotional disorders are more often negatively stigmatized than physical disabilities (Barnard, Stevens, Siwatu, & Lan,

2008) and significantly less research exists regarding strategies, and knowledge specifically for community college instructors.

There is agreement in the literature that the role of the instructor's ability plays a critical role in the development of classroom strategies for ED students (Blake & Monahan, 2007; Chong & Kong, 2012; Lane, Menzies, Kalberg, Oakes, 2012). Problems found within the literature referred specifically to knowledge of and for the community college instructor population. For instance, there was a lack of information regarding the impact of community college instructor's personal instructing efficacy and knowledge of classroom management strategies specifically when including adult learners with ED.

Additionally, the question of whether employment status and its relationship with instructing efficacy and knowledge of classroom strategies for students with ED was unanswered within the literature. What had been written mainly addressed the elementary school and secondary school levels of education. Differences at the community college level were not addressed. This study sought to investigate further since community college instructors differ markedly from elementary and secondary school instructors.

To illustrate the differences that remain for community college instructors, a few central characteristics exist. For example, community college instructors do not undergo formal training of teaching methods and philosophies (Krentel, 2007; Lombardi & Murray, 2011). They typically have expertise in only one concentrated subject area (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009). Some community college instructors teach as part-time employees without the same benefits or optimal working conditions as full-time faculty members (Rossi; 2009; Wilson, 2013). These

gaps in the literature provided an opportunity for expansion in this area as well as an opportunity to add knowledge to the literature base for administrators and instructors at the community college level of education.

This study was unique as it addressed an area of higher education that has been insufficiently researched with an instructor population that has seen dramatic changes in employment status due to a troubled economy (Rossi, 2009). The results of this study have provided necessary insights into classroom knowledge, instructor-efficacy beliefs, and relationship to employment status community college instructors' possess. This was of the essence for two reasons. First, the student- instructor relationship is a critical component of academic success for students with ED (Kelepouris, 2014; Krental, 2007). Secondly, community college instructors are to provide equity in education so that all students have access to effective instruction (Kelepouris, 2014).

The knowledge gained from this study provided opportunities for positive social change for the community college profession. Implications for positive social change were discovered based on the findings pertaining to instructor-efficacy beliefs when working with students affected by ED, how those beliefs related to knowledge of ED, and through a new understanding of the value instructors' place on knowledge of ED. Additionally, positive social change implications were found based on the influence of part-time or full-time employment status.

The new areas of knowledge gained from this study served as a preliminary step in creating positive social change. Insights from this study have identified areas needed for instructor professional development training, thus supporting instructors and

administrators in making decisions regarding training opportunities. The knowledge gained from this study also informs future studies aimed at providing educational interventions for instructor development specifically for effective inclusion of postsecondary students with ED.

Background

Disagreement occurred within the literature regarding appropriate classroom management strategies when instructing adult students with ED. Disagreement and questions arose surrounding the relational impact between instructors' teaching beliefs and instructor employment status of part or full-time. For example, literature on classroom management strategies debated how much individualization is favorable as well as the argument regarding feasibility for the community college instructor.

Primary classroom management strategies discussed in the literature included function-based supports (FBS), positive behavior supports (PBS), Universal Design principles (UD), and differentiated instruction principles. Advocates of FBS stated that specific individualization is necessary due to targeting specific social skill needs, as well as instructional, and curricular needs (Christensen et al., 2012). Much of the research for FBS has been completed at the elementary and secondary levels of schooling; however, Mock and Love (2012) argued that the plans could be adapted when transitioning to postsecondary levels of schooling.

PBS incorporate classroom management strategies on a broader level and utilize administration support, instructor collaboration, and target nonclassroom areas (Lane et al., 2012). Positively affecting the environment at large was the goal of this broader level

of intervention practice and aimed to create an atmosphere of collaboration between instructors (Lane et al., 2012). PBS include three levels of environmental strategies, based on positive behavior models, to effectively reach students with various behavioral disabilities (Moreno & Bullock, 2011). Advocates of PBS endeavored to address intermingled social, emotional, and academic environments of students with disabilities to affect the entire school experience (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). Advocates of both FBS and PBS suggested individualized strategies but did so from slightly different perspectives as PBS incorporated a much broader view of the entire school experience versus just the classroom.

The supports outlined in the literature provide what is currently known for application within elementary and secondary schools. Community colleges are not legally bound to provide the same types of supports as elementary and secondary schools (Americans With Disabilities Act, 2000; H.R. 8070--93rd Congress: Rehabilitation Act, 1973). The research base was slim in regards to the helpfulness of FBS and PBS at the community college level. Research was lacking regarding the implementation of these supports at the community college level. It was unknown how these methods are being used by community college instructors or if they should be recommended as part of professional development.

Other management and intervention strategies found in the literature specified that specific, individualized, behavioral strategies are not necessary and instead offered a reappraisal of education design. For instance, advocates of Universal Design (UD) incorporated seven principles, from the field of architecture, in guiding the development

of environmental spaces to reach differing learning styles (Burgstahler, 2012; Lombardi & Murray, 2011). UD practices do not include specific classroom strategies but proponents argued if UD principles are followed, the need to make specific, individualized plans will decrease (Lombardi & Murray, 2011; Moon, Utschig, Todd, Bozzorg, 2011). UD advocates stated instructors would have more time to effectively instruct when using UD principles since extensive modifications of classroom strategies for students with disabilities would be unnecessary (Lombardi & Murray, 2011).

Proponents of UD believed training instructors in higher education would be advantageous since those instructors typically do not have broad knowledge of teaching practices or classroom strategies when including students with disabilities (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Lombardi & Murray, 2011; Smith & Buchannan, 2012). In contradiction, Dixon et al. (2014) advocated individualized student attention through differentiated instruction practices because one process or environmental change does not work well for all students. The focus of differentiated instruction is on aligning course content, process, and outcomes while considering an individual learner's strengths, interests, and learning style.

Creating classroom management strategies through differentiated instruction practices ensures individualized learning while also providing access to learning options for all students (Dixon et al., 2014). Differentiated instruction is based on the idea that within the inclusive classroom there will be students who excel and those that lag behind. Addressing individual needs when providing learning options is necessary due to the learning differences students exhibit (Dosch & Zidon, 2014).

Dixon et al. (2014) examined instructors' willingness to incorporate differentiation strategies to meet the needs of various student learners while also examining instructor-efficacy beliefs. Instructors who had more professional development hours learning about differentiation were found to have higher instructor-efficacy regarding their ability to provide differentiated instruction within the classroom (Dixon et al., 2014). Smith and Buchannan (2012) argued that if instructors are focused on differentiating course material for various students, course content may be compromised and instructors are held responsible. In addition, creating individualized strategies as the main method for resolving disability needs is not sustainable for community college instructors (Smith and Buchannan, 2012).

Furthermore, instructors working as part-time employees may influence the quality of education because they are not fully immersed in the life of the college (Rossi, 2009). Part-time instructor appointments have grown five times faster than full-time faculty from 1970 to the present (ASHE Higher Education Report, 2010). Teaching practices also may differ between part-time instructors and full-time faculty especially in regards to presentation of course material. Part-time instructors were found to rely heavily on lecture formats while full-time faculty incorporated more class participation, lab work, and technology (Lei, 2007).

With the understanding that part-time instructors and full-time faculty differ in their instructing practices, it underscored the necessity of this research for two reasons. First, this study was necessary to uncover potential differences relating to instructors'

knowledge of ED classroom strategies. Secondly, this study was necessary to discover the influence of instructor efficacy beliefs for teaching adult students with ED.

Other areas of concern surrounded the fact that community college instructors have not been trained as educators, they are not required to have knowledge of teaching philosophies, and many discover what works through trial and error (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Krentel, 2007; Lombardi & Murray, 2011). I was interested in examining differences in community college instructors' pedagogical knowledge including knowledge of classroom strategies for ED, instructor-efficacy, and the effects of part-time or full-time employment status. The literature was lacking however regarding the relationship between instructor-efficacy and knowledge of classroom management strategies when working with students exhibiting ED at the community college level.

Furthermore, an understanding of instructor full-time or part-time employment status was lacking in regards to the influence on instructor-efficacy and the knowledge of classroom management strategies explicitly when teaching students with ED. Lastly, what has been researched mainly addressed the elementary school and secondary school levels of education and not differences that exist at the community college level. This interplay between employment status, instructor beliefs, and knowledge about class management strategies, specifically regarding ED is an area that had not been researched for instructors at the community college level. These gaps in the literature indicated a need for focus and development in the field as well as an opportunity to add knowledge to the literature base for instructors at the community college level.

Purpose of the Study

The broad purpose of this study was to determine a group of community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies, instructor-efficacy, and impact of employment status, when including adult students affected by ED in their classrooms. This quantitative study fulfilled three specific purposes. One purpose was to analyze whether a statistically significant relationship existed between instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED and instructors' teaching efficacy beliefs. The second purpose was to analyze whether statistically significant relationships existed between part-time and full-time employment on community college instructor-efficacy beliefs while ensuring inclusion of adult students with ED. The third purpose was to analyze whether statistically significant relationships existed between part-time and full-time employment on community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for the inclusion of adult students with ED.

Variables of the Study

Initially this study utilized correlational statistical techniques to measure and describe relationships between variables. When addressing RQ1, correlational statistics were used. RQ2 in this study was addressed by the use of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). RQ3 was addressed by an ANOVA and LSD post hoc test.

The independent variable under investigation included three levels of instructor employment status including part-time, full-time nontenure track, and full-time tenure-track status. The dependent variables included community college instructor-efficacy beliefs and knowledge of classroom management strategies for students with ED. These

latter two variables were acquired through the scores obtained on the Ohio State Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) that measured instructor efficacy beliefs, and the Teaching Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (TSEBD) measure that assessed knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED (Anderson & Hendrickson, 2007).

Guiding/Research Questions

The following research questions were based on an analysis of the current literature within the fields of postsecondary education, emotional disorders, self-efficacy theory, accommodation strategies, and disability law. This section is expanded within Chapter 3 and includes a more detailed discussion regarding the nature of the study.

Research Question (RQ1): What is the relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD test, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale?

- $H_0$1: There is no relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD test, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.
- Ha1: There is a relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.

Research Question (RQ2): What is the effect of community college instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale?

- $H_0$2: There is no effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.
- Ha2: There is an effect between the instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.

Research Question (RQ3): What is the effect of community college instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD?

- $H_0$3: There is no effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD.
- Ha3: There is an effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD.

Theoretical Framework

There has been growing interest, and a confirmation in the field, regarding how instructors' beliefs about their personal teaching ability predict both teaching practices and student learning through examination of instructor-efficacy (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). The theory of self-efficacy is a main focal point of Social Cognitive Theory, developed by Albert Bandura, and is applied in this study as instructor-efficacy. Social Cognitive Theory emphasizes the idea that individuals have influence over what they do through their use of goals, anticipation of outcomes, personal actions, and reflection on their personal efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Instructor-efficacy illuminated this study by reflecting on how beliefs instructors' hold regarding their teaching abilities affect their level of knowledge concerning classroom strategies to manage and engage students with ED. This theory stipulated that instructors who have higher instructor-efficacy will more often revise their modes of instruction, set higher goals for themselves, and work more diligently to acquire knowledge and teaching strategies to achieve the educational goals for all of their students (Dixon et al., 2014).

Self-efficacy has often been used within educational research using the terms of teacher-efficacy or instructor-efficacy. Instructor-efficacy is not an objective measure of effective teaching, but rather a subjective perception of the ability to teach presently and in the future (Dixon et al., 2014). Bandura (2006) pointed out that instructor-efficacy not only refers to instructors' beliefs about their abilities to succeed within specific teaching contexts or content areas but also beliefs of what can be accomplished in the future (Bandura, 2006).

In this sense, instructor-efficacy measures reflect specific domains and not global measures. For instance, a domain focus would examine instructors' beliefs in accomplishing a specific teaching technique. Global measures would ask general questions regarding overarching abilities (Bandura, 2006). Using self-efficacy theory, in the form of instructor-efficacy, in this study was optimal due to the inquiry focus of instructors on domain-specific beliefs, knowledge, and classroom management strategies for students with ED.

Instructor-efficacy also provided a strong foundation for research in this study as a context for understanding relationships between classroom management knowledge and employment status. Bandura (2006) was the first to conceptualize instructor-efficacy as instructors' beliefs regarding their abilities to plan, organize, and accomplish activities required to reach educational goals. Instructor-efficacy is also envisioned as a continually shaped and changing belief system that is dependent upon external factors within the environmental context (Bandura, 1997).

Historically, research has found that instructors' efficacy predicts choice of teaching strategies (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007), emotional exhaustion and burnout (Brown, 2012; Dicke et al., 2014), and instructional quality (Holzberger et al., 2013). This knowledge highlighted the importance of self-efficacy theory when examining relationships between instructors' personal instructor-efficacy, knowledge of classroom management strategies, and employment status. A more detailed application of self-efficacy theory is expanded on in Chapter 2.

This foundational research was paramount for instructors at the community college level as research information is extremely limited specifically for instructing adult students with ED. This research can be viewed to inform basic instruction practices, and continuing instructor education opportunities. Additionally, this research can be viewed as a context for examining relationships between instructor-efficacy beliefs, classroom management strategies for ED, and employment status.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative research method was appropriate for the research questions. This decision was based on a review of methodology in the literature of similar published studies. The strategy for this study's analysis of data was modeled after Alter et al.'s (2013) study analyzing teacher demographics and their perceptions of challenging student behaviors.

Alter et al. (2013) examined 800 surveys completed by compulsory level teachers to measure their perceptions of defined challenging student behaviors. The authors also collected and analyzed teacher demographics such as grade level (elementary, middle school, high school), race, gender, and years of teaching experience. The surveys were completed by instructors via the Internet.

Alter et al. (2013) utilized ANOVA and LSD post-hoc statistical tests. Using these tests the authors evaluated the relationship between student behaviors that instructors found challenging and the level of grade taught (elementary, middle school, high school), years of teaching experience, and race of the instructor. Statistically significant differences in perception ratings were found between the three groups of grade

level, gender, and years spent teaching (Alter et al., 2013). Due to similarities between Alter et al. (2013) and this study, I followed their analysis strategy of using ANOVA and LSD post hoc tests where appropriate.

The first purpose of this research was to uncover information regarding community college instructor-efficacy beliefs and the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students with ED. The second purpose of this research was to measure whether significant statistical differences existed between levels of the independent variable of employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) and the dependent variable of community college instructor ratings on the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The third purpose of this research was to measure whether significant statistical differences existed between the variables of employment status and the variable of scores obtained by instructors on the Teaching Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders test (Anderson & Hendrickson, 2007).

A survey method was appropriate to address the research questions because it was initially necessary to obtain a basic understanding of information regarding community college instructors. By collecting information regarding instructor-efficacy beliefs, knowledge of classroom management strategies for students with ED, and instructor employment status, further observations and recommendations were made possible. Additionally, the rapid turnaround in data collection with the use of a survey method was helpful in this study due to time constraints that instructors were under.

The Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES) was created based on Bandura's theory of self-efficacy and had the benefit of already proven acceptable validity and reliability while assessing instructors' teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). To assess instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED, the Teaching Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (TSEBD) measure was used. The TSEBD assessed instructor knowledge of strategies, classroom and behavioral management, and research in education for ED (Anderson & Hendrickson, 2007). Questions were also asked for information pertaining to part-time, full-time nontenure track, or full-time tenure-track status. Two options to complete the survey were provided. One option was provided during already occurring faculty meetings. The second option was provided through the use of Survey Monkey (SurveyMonkey, 2015). Instructors from two community colleges in the Midwest were invited to participate.

For RQ1, a Pearson correlation coefficient measured the degree of association between community college instructor efficacy beliefs, measured by the OSTES, and classroom management knowledge for ED, measured by the TSEBD. Utilizing the AI-Therapy Statistics (2015) sample size calculator, a sample size of 31 was ascertained for each of the three groups of employment status to address RQ1. The sample size was determined by setting the power level at 80 percent, the alpha level at .05, and the expected correlation co-efficient at .5 for a two tailed test. The aim was to incorporate a sufficient number of participants to keep the alpha level at .05, which is an acceptable low level, and to help ensure the study is not unnecessarily large, or expensive (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). Additionally, setting the alpha level at .05 also meant that there was a

95 percent probability that the results were appropriate (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). The power level set at 80 percent is a good general rule to abide by to reject a false null hypothesis (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013).

The purpose of RQ2 was to examine the effect of part-time, full-time nontenure track, and full-time tenure-track employment on community college instructors' teaching efficacy for students with ED, as measured by scores on the OSTES. It was necessary to conduct a one-way ANOVA to address RQ2. A sample size of 116 was determined through the use of a sample size calculator from Raosoft Inc. (2004). To determine the 116 sample size, the confidence level was set at 90%, and the margin of error at 5%, with a total population of 201 instructors (Raosoft Inc., 2004).

For RQ3, the purpose was to examine the effect of part-time, full-time nontenure track, and full-time-tenure track employment status on instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students with ED, as measured by scores on the TSEBD. A one-way ANOVA was conducted for RQ3. The same sample size of 116 that was determined to address RQ2 will also be utilized to address RQ3. Significant differences were found so a Fisher's LSD was then computed to determine where the differences between the means of the three groups of the independent variable occurred, as suggested by Anderson, Sweeney, & Williams, (2012).

The statistical computer program SPSS (IBM Software, 2015) was utilized. The results are presented in Chapter 4 both verbally and in table format. The findings reported in table format include the examined relationships between three levels of the independent variable (part-time employment status, full-time nontenure employment

status, full-time tenured employment status), and the dependent variable which included the scores obtained on the TSEBD and OSTES measures. Chapter 5 further discusses how the results answered the research questions. Chapter 5 also provides an explanation as to why the results occurred based on the social cognitive theory of self-efficacy as well as the implications of the results for future action and research.

Assumptions of the Study

I assumed that instructor participants would honestly report their employment status, instructor-efficacy beliefs, and knowledge of classroom management strategies pertaining to ED. Confidentiality was assured to instructors that completed a paper and pencil version of the survey. Confidentiality and anonymity of responses was assured to instructors that choose to complete the survey through the use of Survey Monkey (SurveyMonkey, 2015), an Internet survey tool.

Due to the anonymity and confidentiality of responses that Survey Monkey provided, I assumed that respondents were community college instructors as there were no means to check identity or employment status. It was also assumed that since confidentiality was provided and maintained, truthful responses from instructor participants were obtained. Additionally, instructor participants were made aware that they were volunteering information and could withdraw their information from the study at any point without consequences.

Limitations of the Study

This study was partly limited due to the use of self-reporting measurements for data collection. The data gathered were limited to self-reported instructor participants'

perceptions of their teaching effectiveness and professed knowledge of classroom management strategies. Instructor participants may not have a full awareness of all that they do, know or believe, so their report was subject to what they have personally reflected on.

Additionally, since a portion of the survey responses were anonymous, the information obtained may not be equitable in terms of the instructor participant's field of discipline. This means that it is possible that more data from one teaching field was gathered due to a higher number of instructor participants returning the survey from a particular teaching discipline. Lastly, since this study focused exclusively at the community college level of instructing, the generalizability may be limited beyond similar populations of instructors within higher education. The study could be improved by the inclusion of instructors from 4 year university settings.

Scope and Delimitations

The first purpose of this study was to understand the relationship between community college instructor-efficacy beliefs and knowledge of classroom management strategies when working with students diagnosed with ED. The second purpose of this study was to examine whether statistically significant differences existed between part-time and full-time employment status on community college instructor-efficacy beliefs when including adult students affected by ED. The third purpose of this study was to examine whether statistically significant differences existed between part-time and full-time employment on community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for the inclusion of adult students with ED.

To concentrate the purposes, this study was delimited by surveying only community college instructors. Part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track community college instructors were included. Participating community college instructors were located within two established community colleges in the Midwest United States. Instructors were invited to complete either a paper and pencil version of the survey through a regularly occurring faculty meeting, or through the use of Survey Monkey (SurveyMonkey, 2015) an Internet survey tool. Instructors made the choice themselves to complete the pencil and paper form or to use the provided Internet link to Survey Monkey.

Definition of Terms

Differentiated Instruction: A philosophy of teaching that involves varying instructional approaches based on the similarities and differences of students within diverse classroom settings. The approach requires flexibility of the teacher to adjust both curriculum and presentation of information for students rather than expecting students to modify themselves (Dixon et al., 2014).

Emotional Disorders (ED): An umbrella term most often used in educational settings and encompasses a broad range of disorders and difficulties. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual developed by the American Psychiatric Association (2013) cites anxiety disorders, bipolar disorder, conduct disorder, eating disorders, obsessive-compulsive disorder, and schizophrenia as falling under the umbrella term of ED (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). The term used in the past was Emotional Behavioral Disorders (EBD).

Functional Behavior Supports (FBS): Intervention strategies that are devised after a functional behavior assessment, to decrease problematic behaviors and provide replacement behaviors (Christensen et al., 2012).

Instructor-efficacy: A personal judgment made by an instructor, to engage all students, even those that may be difficult or lack motivation, to reach desired learning goals (Bandura, 2006). Instructor-efficacy is related to the effort, resilience, and persistence teachers experience when setbacks occur (Dixon et al., 2014).

Positive Behavior Support (PBS): Interventions designed to target the broader school community, activities, and mission to address communication skill deficits, social skill deficits, and self-management concerns. Functional behavior assessments may be a part of positive behavior plans. The main goal of positive behavior supports is to positively impact social, emotional, and academic functioning for students with disabilities by affecting the school environment (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2014). Also referred to as Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS).

Self-efficacy: Beliefs regarding the level of confidence an individual has to influence and control their own behavior, accomplish goals, and affect the environment (Bandura, 1977, 2006). Self-efficacy beliefs vary depending on environmental circumstances and the specific target ability (Bandura, 2006). Self-efficacy is often operationalized to consider one's beliefs about their capability versus one's intentions and reflects a particular context to accomplish specific tasks (Klassen & Chiu, 2010).

Universal Design (UD): A framework for educators to create flexible environments for learning so that a variety of learning differences may be accommodated. The goal of Universal Design is to create educational programs that will serve all students without the need to create individualized learning plans (Burgstahler, 2012; Lombardi & Murray, 2011).

Significance/Social Change Implications

As more students with ED attempt further schooling within community college settings, instructor-efficacy beliefs, knowledge of classroom management strategies, and the influence of instructor employment status have become important areas to examine. This is true for two reasons. First, community colleges must abide by the Americans with Disabilities Act and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 to make course adjustments for students with disabilities. Secondly, this research was also an opportunity to create positive social change.

The relational influence between instructors' efficacy beliefs and knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED was uncovered. New knowledge was also obtained regarding the influence of part-time or full-time instructor employment specifically in regards to instructor-efficacy and knowledge of classroom management strategies for adult students with ED. These areas of acquired knowledge served as a preliminary step in creating further positive social change. The knowledge gained from this study is informative for professional development training opportunities for community college instructors and has provided guidance for future research.

Summary

Chapter 1 established that community college instructors are consistently required to create effective and inclusive classrooms that have the potential to engage all adult learners. This challenge and potential is intensified when instructors must create classroom management strategies for students with ED. Limited data existed regarding the relationship between instructor teaching beliefs and knowledge of classroom management strategies for instructors at the community college level of education.

This study employed a quantitative method to broaden knowledge of community college instructors. Initially this study aimed to provide relational data on instructor efficacy and knowledge of classroom management strategies for adult students with ED. Secondly, this study examined relationships between community college instructor employment of part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track status to instructors' ratings of efficacy and knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED. The data gained from this study provides a basis for instructors to enhance their decision making processes while utilizing classroom management strategies for students with ED. Additionally, the information gained from this study informs professional development opportunities and future studies for the community college profession.

Chapter 2 provides a review of the current literature including the historical context of classroom management strategies for ED, aspects of community college instructors, the impact of instructor-efficacy, faculty attitudes and perceptions of disabilities, the research method that was utilized, and further discussion regarding the research questions that were explored. Chapter 3 describes the research design in detail,

specific content information of the survey instruments, and methods of data collection and analysis. Chapter 4 discusses the results of the descriptive statistics and the quantitative analysis is covered. Chapter 5 incorporates a summary of the study including conclusions and recommendations based on the survey results for action and future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter begins by briefly reviewing the history of educational practices and knowledge in the field of emotional disorders (ED) paying close attention to the role of the instructor. This foundation provides a historical context for professional classroom management knowledge to support students with ED within the field of community college education. Exploration of research on self-efficacy and instructor-efficacy as a foundation for present day contextual frameworks community college instructors' work within is also included.

The primary focus of this study was to examine relationships between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students with ED, instructors' efficacy beliefs, and instructors' employment status. Within the literature, there was disagreement over the effectiveness of course management strategies and how knowledge of instruction affects an instructors' sense of instructor-efficacy. Additionally the literature reflected rising concerns surrounding the employment status of community college instructors. These differing perspectives are examined in this chapter to provide an objective review and discussion of the literature.

The Americans with Disabilities Act and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act only outline the legal requirement that postsecondary institutions must ensure students with disabilities are not discriminated against. However, there are no nationwide standards for procedures, guidelines, or classroom management strategies outlining effective teaching practices for the inclusion of students with ED in the community

college classroom (Kelepouris, 2014; Scanlon & Baker, 2012). Additionally, there are no universal policies in force that community colleges must abide by when including students with ED (Kelepouris, 2014; Hindes & Mather, 2007). Community college instructors differ from instructors at compulsory levels of education in regards to legal requirements they must abide by, employment status, and training regarding teaching practices and strategies for the inclusion of students with disability needs (ASHE Higher Education Report, 2010; Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Kelepouris, 2014; Lei, 2007; Wilson, 2013).

At the time of this study, there were numerous recent commentaries and techniques in the literature regarding U.S. elementary school and secondary school instructors' options to incorporate management strategies in their classrooms for students with ED (e.g., Schlein, Taft, Tucker-Blackwell, 2013; Evans, Weiss, Cullinan, 2012; Weigert, 2012). However, there is limited data in the literature on effective classroom management strategies and perceptions of instructors at the community college level for adult students with ED.

Different researchers have disagreed regarding the effectiveness of strategies and how much individualization is feasible for instructors (Christensen et al., 2012; Dixon et al., 2014; Lombardi & Murray, 2011). In addition, knowledge pertaining to the quality of instruction and the level of instructors' teaching efficacy was lacking at the community college level. Quality of community college education was cited as a concern due to instructors differing in regards to legal requirements they must abide by, employment status, and training received when instructing students with disability needs, as compared

to instructors at compulsory levels of education (ASHE Higher Education Report, 2010; Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Kelepouris, 2014; Lei, 2007; Wilson, 2013).

The majority of extent empirical education research has focused on elementary and secondary levels of education (Lombardi & Murray, 2011). There has been a lack of knowledge surrounding community college instructor knowledge and efficacy beliefs when including students with ED (Burgstahler, 2012). Furthermore, commentary in the literature suggested perceptions of strategies experienced by instructors were related to the specific challenges students' with ED present, previous classroom experiences, beliefs about teaching efficacy, and employment status (Brown, 2012; Dicke et al., 2014; Gebbie et al., 2011; Lombardi & Murray, 2011; Rossi, 2009). Lastly, the relational impact of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track), knowledge of strategies, and teaching efficacy when including students with ED was not clearly known.

Further study was necessary due to the Military Community and Family Policy's (2014) finding that there had been a 20% increase of students with ED attempting college courses over the past 30 years. In conjunction with the increase of students on community college campuses with ED, instructors are faced with the difficulty of determining how to simultaneously promote equality and teaching excellence in their area of expertise (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; McLaughlin, 2010). The concern expressed in the literature suggested these difficulties and challenges may ultimately affect instructors' sense of teaching efficacy and knowledge of classroom

strategies for this special needs population (Bandura, 2006; Burgstahler, 2012; Dixon et al., 2014).

This quantitative study was designed to answer three research questions related to gaps in knowledge outlined in the literature. Research Question 1 analyzed the potential significant correlation between instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED and instructors' teaching efficacy beliefs. Research Question 2 evaluated the potential impact of part-time and full-time employment on community college instructor-efficacy beliefs while ensuring inclusion of adult students with ED. Research Question 3 evaluated the potential impact of part-time and full-time employment on community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for the inclusion of adult students with ED.

The literature review in this chapter delves into issues related to the gap in knowledge regarding community college instructors' knowledge of effective classroom management strategies and instructors' teaching-efficacy beliefs when including students with ED in their classrooms. Additionally, the influence of instructor employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor efficacy and knowledge of classroom management strategies are explored. Lastly, an analysis of self-efficacy theory applied to understanding choice of classroom management strategies is included.

Literature Search Methods

A search of the literature was conducted using electronic psychology and education databases including PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, Sage PREMIER, Academic

Search Complete, Education Research Complete, Education from SAGE, and ERIC. Research was concentrated on literature published between 2010 and 2016 but seminal works were also reviewed. A wide range of search terms were utilized including but not limited to, *emotional and behavioral difficulties, teacher-efficacy, higher educational institutions, behavior supports, inclusive education, accommodations, students with disabilities, instructional quality, and disability law*. Many of the searches done were re-run using differing terms for words that could be substituted for another word such as teacher, educator, instructor, or faculty. In addition, several books were reviewed regarding the history of self-efficacy theory and the history of educational practices and beliefs for the field of ED. The primary area of interest for this literature review is the discipline of postsecondary inclusive teaching of students with ED.

History, Present, and Future of Postsecondary Instruction for ED

In order for community college instructors to have knowledge, skills, and confidence to use evidence-based practices to support students with ED, a brief overview of key historic building blocks within the field of ED is warranted. The first documented educative approach for an individual showcasing challenging behavior was done by Jean Itard and the "wild boy of Aveyron" in 1799 (Lane et al., 2011). Approximately 150 years later, educators and psychologists in the U.S. began working together to establish educational interventions for children exhibiting ED although no classification for ED existed. For example, programs in the late 1940's and early 1950's such as Pioneer House and the League School for schizophrenic children centered on training children with challenging behaviors through educational means (Lane et al., 2011). These programs

used psychodynamic theory as the foundational reference when creating educational interventions (Lane et al., 2011).

By 1958, Eli Bower used the term emotional disturbance and published research on identifying students in need of educational services due to emotional and behavioral problems (Nelson & Kauffman, 2009). Bower's definition of ED included inabilities to learn, inability to maintain positive relationships with peers and authority figures, exhibition of inappropriate behaviors in typical situations, a general depressed mood, and development of fears and physical symptoms associated with school (Lane et al., 2011). Present federal legislation uses the definition that Eli Bower developed (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). The definition has not been changed even though it has been criticized for being vague and subjective (Nelson & Kauffman, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

An alternative definition along with the term emotional or behavioral disorder (EBD) was developed by the National Mental Health and Special Education Coalition in the early 1990's. The coalition consisted of approximately 30 professional organizations that were attempting to address the mental health needs of children (National Mental Health and Special Education Coalition, 2010). This definition aimed to clarify disorders that encompass emotions and behavior; however, the federal definition has not changed (National Mental Health and Special Education Coalition, 2010). Presently the U.S. Department of Education (2014) uses the term Emotional Disorder (ED) to encompass the existing definition.

Nelson and Kauffman (2009) believed the reason for keeping Bower's definition was due to the possibility that administrators within special education fear significant increases in qualifying students for special education services. This fear is also hypothesized to be the cause of discrepancies amongst data estimates of individuals with ED. Federal data have shown an unchanged and stable percentage of children with ED for four decades yet professionals estimate the number of children with ED may be three to six times greater (Kelepouris, 2014, Nelson & Kauffman, 2009). Due to the concern over economic factors, a vague definition of ED, and consequently some confusion among professionals, under-identification of individuals appears to be a consistent pattern throughout the history of ED (Lane et al., 2011; Nelson & Kauffman, 2009).

The 1960's brought a change with a focus on behavioral viewpoints within educational interventions that resulted in structured, competency-based approaches (Nelson & Kauffman, 2009). Another early contributor to the behavioristic approach was Albert Bandura, who contributed his views regarding social learning theory and specifically added the element of observational learning (Bandura, 1997). Within the early 1970s a group of higher education professionals joined together to form Teacher Educators for Children with Behavioral Disorders (TECBD) with the purpose of using a federal funded initiative to prepare teachers for instructing students with ED (Lane et al., 2011).

Research in the latter part of the 20th century has expanded knowledge of using behavioral principles to assess instructors' use of praise and disapproval, social interactions between instructors and students, and classroom management strategies

(Nelson & Kaufman, 2009). Controversy has also developed around the full inclusion of students with disabilities in main stream schools and classrooms, including the feasibility of including students with ED in inclusive classrooms (Evans, Weiss, & Cullinan, 2012; Lane et al., 2011). For example, many programs for students with ED in the 1990s had an extreme emphasis on controlling disruptive behavior at the expense of academic instruction (McLaughlin, 2010). Due to this overemphasis, a shift in focus occurred and research into evidence based practices to improve academic abilities for students with ED began (Gage et al., 2010). Critics of full inclusion have cited increased dropout rates for students with ED as being the result of ineffectually placing them in general education settings (Kerr & Nelson, 2010).

The term emotional disorders (ED) is used today as a far-reaching term that includes an array of symptoms and disorders. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act specifies that emotional disorders include conditions that affect educational performance (American Psychological Association, 2014). Areas included pertain to an inability to learn not explained by intellectual or health factors, inability to build peer or teacher relationships, inappropriate feelings or behavior for the environmental context, depressed mood, and tendency to develop school related fears (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Behavioral problems that students with ED may exhibit in the classroom include inappropriate disruptions, social skills deficits, verbal and/or physical aggression, lack of motivation, and negative interactions with peers and instructors (MacSuga-Gage, Siomonsen, Briere, 2012; Reddy et al., 2013; Sutherland, Lewis-Palmer, Stichter, Morgan, 2008).

The National Alliance on Mental Illness (2014) also states that emotional disturbances will affect an individual's physical, social, and cognitive skills. Some characteristics evidenced in the classroom include verbal and/or physical aggression, consistent disruptive behavior, immaturity as seen through poor coping skills, and learning difficulties (National Alliance on Mental Illness, 2014). Common issues that students with ED share include the experience of poor relationships, inappropriate behaviors, depression, learning difficulties not due to intelligence, and development of school related fears (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

The most recent Diagnostic and Statistical Manual developed by the American Psychiatric Association (2013) cites specific emotional disturbances that fall under the umbrella term ED used by education settings. These disorders include anxiety disorders, bipolar disorder, conduct disorder, eating disorders, obsessive-compulsive disorder, and schizophrenia (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Personality disorders and other psychiatric disorders may also be included (Reddy, Weissman, & Hale, 2013; Souma, Rickerson, & Burgstahler, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

Secondary levels of education have found that without instruction strategies, students with ED are likely to experience failure and instructors consequently experience difficulties with classroom management (Evans, Weiss, & Cullinan, 2012). This context focuses the importance for instructors to ensure their students' behavior can be moderated and controlled so effective instruction for all students is possible. Community college instructors must have knowledge of classroom management strategies in addition to the confidence to employ evidence-based practices to support students with ED in the

inclusive college classroom (Lane et al., 2011). The context can also be viewed as affected and effected by instructors' teaching-efficacy beliefs in regards to their instruction abilities (Holzberger et al., 2013). Community college instructors' knowledge and instructor-efficacy for students with ED may also be affected by their employment of part-time, full-time non-tenure, and full-time tenure track status (ASHE Higher Education Report, 2010; Lei, 2007; Thornton, 2011; Wilson, 2013).

At the time of this study the current research emphasis within the 21st century continues to be based on examining and reporting evidence-based instructional practices. The literature base continues to focus on compulsory levels of schooling. Some of the current practices at compulsory schooling levels include the use of Function Based and Positive Behavioral Intervention Supports (PBIS), Universal Design, Differentiated instruction, Response to Intervention (RTI) practices, and use of technology (Daher & Lazarevic, 2014; Gable, Tonelson, Sheth, Wilson, & Park, 2012; Lane et al., 2011; Nelson & Kauffman, 2009). Questions pertinent to research today involve how prepared postsecondary instructors are to support students with ED and how they will acquire any skills necessary while also maintaining knowledge within their field of expertise (Lane et al., 2011).

The 21st Century Community College Instructor

Information gathered by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (2012) showed two-year community colleges employed full time instructors at a rate of 30% while part-time instructors were employed at a rate of 70% during the year of 2012. This contrasts strongly with information gathered on four-year college institutions where

those numbers are nearly reversed. The NCES (2012) reported that four-year colleges employed full time instructors at a rate of 66% while part-time instructors were employed at a rate of 34%. These statistics showcase a drastic difference in the overall employment landscape for the community college instructor.

Rossi (2009) and Thornton (2011) suggested that the reason for increased use of part-time instructors, especially at the community college level, was due to the troubles that the U.S. economy has endured in recent years. The cost to community colleges is much less when employing instructors part-time since they are paid less than full time and tenured instructors (Wilson, 2013). Additionally, job security is much less for part-time instructors so it is arguable that full time instructors not only enjoy better pay but also better working conditions (Nelson, 2011; Rossi, 2009; Wilson, 2013). Questions arose after reviewing these statistics not only about the overall quality of education at two year institutions but also the quality of knowledge instructors have in regards to management strategies for individuals with ED who pose challenging behaviors in the classroom (Holzberger et al., 2013; Lane et al., 2011; Rossi, 2009; Thornton, 2011).

Teaching Practices Based on Employment Status

Variations in instructing techniques have been found based on employment status of full-time or part-time and whether instructors' possess a doctoral degree. For instance, Lei (2007) discovered that part-time instructors place more significance in the classroom on lecture than did full-time instructors. Full-time instructors tended to emphasize class discussion, student participation, Power Point slides, lab work, and distance learning strategies much more often than part-time instructors (Lei, 2007).

Jacoby (2006) suggested that differences in teaching practices may be due to educational degree differences as full-time faculty often have obtained doctoral degrees while part-time faculty have not. This suggestion is supported by only 13-20% of full-time instructors within community colleges have a doctoral degree (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009). Seventy-one percent of instructors in the U.S. at the community college level hold a master's degree (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012)

These statistics are again reversed for instructors at four-year institutions with 58 percent of instructors having obtained doctoral degrees and 26 percent holding master's degrees (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009). Instructors with doctoral degrees tend towards more diversified teaching methods and more often embrace the use of teaching technologies (Lei, 2007). This contrasts strongly with differences between degree completion of community college instructors and four-year instructors and outlines at least one important area of how community college instructors differ from other instructors.

Community College Instructor Knowledge and Preparation to Teach

Another pertinent distinction between community college instructors and instructors both at compulsory levels of education (K-12) and instructors at four-year college institutions centers on knowledge of teaching philosophies and pedagogy. Although community college instructors spend large amounts of their time teaching and advising, they are least prepared for their central role of instruction (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009). Instructors at the compulsory levels of

education are trained how to teach based on teaching philosophies. Community college instructors specialize in one area of expertise that does not include knowledge of classroom management, teaching skills, or general pedagogical methods (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Lombardi & Murray, 2011).

The current best practice for teaching individuals with disabilities is to have full inclusion of students in general education classrooms. Full inclusion is the norm within college classrooms. This means that instructors must be well trained in the classroom management strategies in order to meet the needs of students with disabilities (Gotshall & Stefanou, 2011).

Kern, Hilt-Panahon, and Sokol (2009) asserted that teaching practices for students with and without disabilities should be varied, effective, and delivered with accuracy within inclusive classrooms. Support for students with intensive needs should occur within a system that offers a continuum of supports that efficiently address the needs of students. One example at secondary levels of education that addresses challenging behaviors of students with ED is done through school wide initiatives focusing on meeting social, behavioral, and emotional needs of students (Kern, Hilt-Panahon, & Sokol, 2009).

Instructors at community colleges do not go through formal instructor training and community colleges typically do not have college wide support systems so the student with ED must work through the office of disability services at the college institution (Kelepouris, 2014). The role of the office of disability services on college campuses serves to ensure that all students have equal access to educational opportunities

(Kelepouris, 2014). In cases with physical disabilities, this is sufficient as there are many documented strategies for instructors when including students with physical disabilities (American Psychological Association, 2014). The knowledge of effective classroom management strategies for community college students with an ED diagnosis is lacking and what is commonly relied on is the verbiage of the Americans with Disabilities Act that refers to providing reasonable accommodations.

The Americans with Disabilities Act and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act are the only two legal documents postsecondary institutions must abide by. The legal requirements listed in each of these documents only ensure students with disabilities are not discriminated against. They do not mandate any universal policies, strategies, or practices for the inclusion of students with ED that the community college must abide by (Hindes & Mather, 2007; Kelepouris, 2014).

For community college instructors, this may become a no win situation for which they have been underprepared. For instance, community college instructors are not required to go through formal training on teaching pedagogy or teaching students with special needs. In addition, when instructors are expected to abide by disability law, there are no clear guidelines or policies regarding classroom strategies for the college level student with ED. Disability service offices on community college campuses are to aid students on a case-by-case basis to acquire reasonable accommodations. This does not provide a broader knowledge of ED or classroom management strategies for instructors (Lombardi et al., 2013).

Trends in Part-Time and Full-Time Nontenure Track Instructors

Over the last 25 years, nontenure track instructor positions have increased while tenure-track positions have greatly decreased. Part-time jobs have increased five times faster than that of either full-time tenured and nontenured positions since the 1970s. The number of full-time nontenure positions did not increase significantly until the early 1990s (ASHE Higher Education Report, 2010). The trend for community colleges to favor part-time and nontenure track instructor positions was due to growth in the student population that was unwilling or unable to meet the tuition costs of four-year institutions.

Community colleges must maintain significantly lower costs than four-year institutions so they cannot easily raise tuition costs to cover decreases in funding and rising instructor salary costs (ASHE Higher Education Report, 2010). Community colleges were faced with the decision to raise tuition or cut costs which in light of the need for community colleges to meet student demand, the choice was to cut costs. Community colleges have cut costs by hiring minimal amounts of instructors for full-time nontenure positions and the majority of instructors for part-time positions (Rossi, 2009; Thornton, 2011).

Another benefit of the increase in part-time instructor positions has been the need for community colleges to maintain flexibility in scheduling. The nature of many part-time instructor contracts includes the understanding that instructors can be hired or released on very short notice which often depends upon student enrollment per semester (ASHE Higher Education Report, 2010). These trends in hiring practices for community colleges will likely continue for the foreseeable future (Rossi, 2009; Thornton, 2011).

This hiring trend has renewed debate over the quality of instruction as part-time instructors may be limited in their campus hours due to working other jobs and without the possibility of tenure, there is concern over how motivated instructors are to the practice of teaching (Lei, 2007; Rossi, 2009; Wilson, 2013).

Self-Efficacy and Instructor-Efficacy

Theoretical Foundation

Self-efficacy theory, specifically Bandura's (2006) concept of instructor-efficacy, provides a strong foundation for research in this study. Self-efficacy theory also provides a context for understanding relationships between teaching motivation, behaviors, and environmental conditions. Bandura (2006) was the first to conceptualize that instructors' efficacy beliefs refer to their abilities to plan, organize, and accomplish activities required to reach educational goals. In other words, instructor-efficacy can be envisioned as how influential instructors believe they are within the context of student learning.

In the context of teaching, instructor-efficacy influences the learning goals instructors have for student learning as well as the amount of persistence given to learning tasks and classroom situations (Shavaran, Rajaeepour, Kazemi, & Zamani, 2012). Instructor-efficacy can also be envisioned as a changing belief system that is dependent upon external factors within the classroom context (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (2006) suggested that instructors' personal expectations for students will be positive when instructors are confident in their abilities, teaching strategies, and relationships with students and peers.

Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) stated that instructors' efficacy judgments pertains to the circular nature of the efficacy process, and which was confirmed by Holzberger et.al (2013). Individuals with greater instructing efficacy tend to maintain higher levels of persistence, leading to mastery, which in turn leads to increases in efficacy (Holzberger et.al, 2013). The reverse circular reaction can also occur with the effect of low efficacy leading to less instructing effort, which culminates in negative teaching outcomes, decreased levels of efficacy and lower levels of instructional quality (Holzberger et.al, 2013; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). In other words, instructors with high instructor-efficacy are more likely to view the classroom as less threatening, use classroom management strategies efficiently, and have fewer classroom management problems which in turn provide positive mastery experiences further increasing efficacy beliefs (Dicke et al., 2014).

Historically, research has also found that instructor-efficacy predicts choice of teaching strategies, emotional exhaustion, and instructional quality (Brown, 2012; Dicke et al., 2014; Holzberger et al., 2013; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). This knowledge highlighted the importance of self-efficacy theory, specifically applied through instructor-efficacy, when examining relationships between instructors' knowledge of effective ED classroom strategies and personal instructor-efficacy while teaching within inclusive college classrooms.

Sources of Efficacy

Bandura (1997) cited four main sources by which individuals derive their sense of efficacy. These sources included mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal

persuasion, and physiological factors. Mastery experiences concern the successful mastery of a subject or task. Having success raises efficacy while failure threatens and cripples efficacy beliefs (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). Vicarious experiences refer to watching or hearing about others undertaking a difficult activity and experiencing a successful outcome. Seeing similar others succeed reinforces beliefs that pertain to accomplishing the same task (Bandura, 1997). Verbal persuasion refers to credible communication and feedback from individuals viewed as being competent. This source can give individuals guidance and/or motivation to make an effort (Bandura, 2006). Physiological reactions include experiences such as fatigue, sweating, and increased heart rate. These reactions may be associated with failure and could affect an individual's efficacy expectations in particular situations (Shavaran et al., 2012).

Studies conducted in schools at compulsory levels of education have found a significant positive relationship between student learning achievement and instructor-efficacy (Chong & Kong, 2012). There are few studies that have examined efficacy of instructors at postsecondary levels (Shavaran et al., 2012). No studies existed regarding instructors' efficacy while including students with ED at the community college level.

Aspects Affecting Instructor-Efficacy

Since the current best practice for teaching individuals with disabilities is to have full inclusion in general education classrooms (Gotshall & Stefanou, 2011), the emotional and behavioral challenges occurring in the classroom regarding students with ED, will affect instructors' sense of instructor-efficacy (Dicke et al, 2014). For instance, when instructors experience classroom disturbances and are unable to control for them, they

also experience emotional exhaustion that is predictive of lower instructor-efficacy (Dicke et. al., 2014). Instructor-efficacy in classroom management refers to instructor beliefs about their abilities to maintain classroom order and correlates with Bandura's (1997) concept that a primary source of efficacy derives from mastery experiences. Instructors who implement better classroom management strategies will likely have more positive classroom experiences with fewer disturbances and view themselves as more efficacious (Dicke et al., 2014).

Holzberger et al. (2013) explored self-efficacy and the relationship to instructional quality. They found that instructors' efficacy was affected by classroom experiences and student achievement and these efficacy beliefs may change due to specific skills. In other words, instructors' teaching quality is not just derived from instructor-efficacy beliefs but may also be an outcome of the educational process.

The stressors instructors commonly must face among students diagnosed with ED may also be a source of burnout. Brown (2012) explored the relationships between burnout and efficacy in instructors and found that depersonalization that includes feeling detached from work and a loss of idealism contributed to lower instructor-efficacy and subsequent burnout. This detachment and reduced sense of personal accomplishment occur more often in instructors that believe their abilities do not match their job requirements. These results are in line with Bandura's (1997) concept that beliefs are heavily based on experiences.

Gebbie et al. (2012) discovered that instructors felt much better able and competent in managing challenging student behaviors after having online interactions

with colleagues. Instructor-efficacy was shown to be a highly malleable construct as instructors' online interactions were positively impacted through building their learning communities to support and collaborate with other instructors in similar situations. The authors found that interventions and strategies suggested within the online learning community were directly responsible for increasing effectiveness of management choices and the comfort levels of instructors to execute newly learned skills. Furthermore, they confirmed that instructors often feel they have not received sufficient training when including students with ED yet instructor-efficacy can be increased through training, practice, and support. The study by Gebbie et al. also affirmed Bandura's (1997) statements regarding sources of efficacy through positive mastery experiences, verbal persuasion, and through observations of colleagues' success.

Instructor Knowledge of Classroom Strategies for ED and Impact on Teaching

A review and understanding of the instructional practices at compulsory levels of education further enlightens the practice of teaching for the community college professional. Services for students with ED have gone through a developmental process. Three broad areas emerged when reviewing the literature pertaining to present teaching practices that focus on the goal to reach academic needs of students with ED. These three areas included application of effective management strategies, using systems-level approaches, and ensuring instructors are prepared to meet the challenges of teaching students with ED.

Effective Classroom Management Strategies

The implementation of effective strategies is based on the current research trend to prepare elementary and secondary instructors to implement intervention strategies and subsequently observe changes in student behaviors (MacSuga-Gage et al., 2012). It is difficult to assure that all instructors are implementing classroom management strategies in the same way so when examining intervention effects, the quality of how the intervention was implemented and how it differs from typical teaching contexts needs further examination (Lane et al., 2011; Nelson & Kauffman, 2009). Present research is expanding the ability to ensure consistency in adherence and quality of implementing intervention strategies, but more research is still necessary (Lane et al., 2011)

Unfortunately, research in the field of ED has not yet expanded enough to examine management strategies with postsecondary instructors (Lane et al., 2012). Present standard practices at compulsory levels of education for students with ED encompass behavior intervention supports, universal course design, and differentiation of instruction. Since there has not been any examination of these interventions at postsecondary levels for students with ED, they represent the available classroom management strategies that community college instructors may also be able to utilize.

Function-Based and Positive Behavior Intervention Supports

Functional Behavioral Assessment (FBA) includes a process of examining challenging student behaviors in the classroom context and then determining an intervention plan to address and teach socially acceptable behaviors (Moreno & Bullock, 2011). Positive outcomes have been demonstrated when FBA has been used with

students, but the practice has not been widely used because schools limit access to school psychologists and behavior specialists (Christenson et al., 2012). Instructors who have been trained to implement FBA and functional based supports within the classroom have experienced success as evidenced by increased classroom management and positive student outcomes (Christenson et al., 2012). When FBA has been used at compulsory education levels, it has often been as a last resort before a student with ED is removed from general education classes. Moreno and Bullock (2011) suggested that a more appropriate use of FBA would be to apply the assessment at the first sign of challenging behaviors versus waiting for continual classroom management issues or school suspensions.

Lane et al. (2012) suggested that FBA should optimally be a part of a school-wide Positive Behavioral Intervention Support (PBIS). The foundational concept of PBIS includes making school environments predictable while also using researched effective strategies in a proactive manner to teach and create clear behavioral expectations (Lane et al, 2012).

The implementation of PBIS includes a multiple systems perspective including the school, classroom, nonclassroom areas, and the student (Moreno & Bullock, 2011). The use of PBIS is a process of problem solving and planning that instructor, and staff utilizes to address the complex behavioral challenges that students with ED may portray. The use of PBIS does not include a curriculum but rather a decision making process that is driven by desired student outcomes, use of evidence based practices, data regularly

collected by the school, and allocation of resources, support, and ongoing program evaluation (Lane et al., 2012).

Ideally the use of FBA would be applied within a PBIS system that addresses the entire school environment versus just an individual classroom (Lane et al., 2012). When implementing PBIS, instructors must explicitly define and teach expectations to students, offer opportunities for students to learn new skills, and reinforce students who meet the expectations (Jeffrey, McCurdy, Ewing, & Polis, 2009). Some common features of PBIS include explicitly defined expectations for behavior in all settings, establishing procedures for teaching and reinforcing behavioral expectations, use of validated behavior management practices, individualized student interventions, and a team based approach using FBA for intervention design and implementation (Lane et al., 2012).

When applying the principles of both PBIS and FBA within a postsecondary institution, questions arise regarding the feasibility for instructors. For instance, part-time instructors may work at more than one institution and have limited time on the community college campus to carry out the intense nature of the designs (Rossi, 2009; Thornton, 2011). Additionally, there are no requirements for either part-time or full-time instructors to have previous schooling and knowledge of diverse pedagogical teaching methods or classroom management strategies (Lombardi & Murray, 2011). Furthermore, within secondary and primary schools, FBA has often been carried out by a professional other than the head instructor (Anderson & Scott, 2009). This means that either outside professionals must be brought in to assist in the process of FBA or instructors must be taught how to accomplish this task on their own. Instructors must also still

simultaneously juggle all of the other demands that the college administration and student needs require.

Although there have been demonstrated positive outcomes when using both PBIS and FBA at secondary and elementary levels of education, critics suggest that the nature of instituting such programs at postsecondary levels is too cumbersome for the college environment (Burgstahler & Corey, 2009). This is due to the belief at the postsecondary level that students should be prepared to learn, have a higher level of autonomy, and self-regulate their behavior to learn (Kelepouris, 2014). A differing perspective that addresses the concern of feasibility, is universal design, which is crafted to promote an environment to address the diversity of all students (Burgstahler & Corey, 2009).

Universal Design

Burgstahler and Corey (2009) also addressed the concept that education settings should be predictable and incorporate direct instructions but the approach using Universal Design (UD) principles further aims to create learning atmospheres that benefit all students and not just those with disabilities. The goal of utilizing UD principles includes full inclusion of all students with the added benefit of reducing or eliminating needs for individualized student adjustments (Burgstahler & Corey, 2009). The principles of UD should be of importance to postsecondary instructors as they must maintain full inclusive classrooms, they may not have the training required to apply FBA or PBIS strategies, nor the time to do so based on their employment status (DO-IT University of Washington, 2012; Lane et al., 2011; Smith & Buchannan, 2012; Wilson, 2013).

UD principles were originally based within the field of architecture and focused on creating physical spaces that could be accessed and used by all individuals. The term has now been applied to the creation of learning atmospheres and incorporates the concept of social inclusion (Burgstahler & Corey, 2009). Typically, postsecondary students are requested to work with staff from a disability resource office on the college campus and are addressed by creating individualized accommodations. Smith and Buchannan (2012) pointed out that this is the sole method for addressing postsecondary students with ED and this practice actually creates barriers in the classroom, is not sustainable, nor does it promote equity among students. Barriers in the classroom are seen through the reinforcement of stereotypical thinking about disabilities based on these current practices and place the source of control with the disability office instead of the student or instructor's teaching practices (Smith & Buchannan, 2012).

Further complicating the situation, it may be common practice for the postsecondary student with ED to choose not to disclose their information with the college disability office and attempt the college experience on their own (Burgstahler, 2012). When the postsecondary student discloses their needs to the disability office, it may not be until mid or late semester (Burgstahler, 2012). This occurrence highlights the necessity for instructors to use UD practices within their classroom so that students with and without disabilities will benefit (DO-IT University of Washington, 2012).

UD strategies that have been found to benefit students when applied in secondary schools incorporate going beyond the typical methods of classroom instruction. Typical instruction requires students to listen for long periods of time and take notes

simultaneously. Instead of this practice, instructors utilizing UD strategies can post class notes on the Web site, include Power Point slides, and record lecture material to post on-line (Burgstahler & Corey, 2009).

Burgstahler and Corey (2009) listed extensive possibilities to use UD principles within the classroom context. For instance, the authors suggested using blackboards/whiteboards to review new concepts at the beginning of class as this will help the student that may not grasp key concepts that are presented later in the lecture. In addition, the authors emphasized that to include differing learning styles; instructors should incorporate the use of visual aids, hands-on learning opportunities, and technology that can help to re-iterate main ideas. Role-plays, structured exercises, and challenging class discussions can also be used to incorporate differing learning styles and enhance learning (DO-IT University of Washingtion, 2012). In addition, instructors should speak to the class directly and make eye contact while pacing their speech to promote comprehension that can be observed from student facial expressions (DO-IT University of Washington, 2011). Furthermore, since students often need help preparing for exams and mentally organizing class information Burgstahler and Corey (2009) suggested instructors hold optional review sessions before exams, and after major topics and concepts.

Smith and Buchannan (2012) advocated further for the use of UD principles in the classroom by suggesting all course expectations be communicated in multiple ways such as in printed form, electronic form using an on-line format, and verbally in class while using Power Point. Both Burgstahler and Corey (2009) and Smith and Buchannan (2012)

conceded that the use of these UD principles may not eradicate the need for all individualized strategies; however, they asserted that using UD principles is proactive and will greatly limit the need to be retroactive in addressing classroom management concerns.

Differentiated Instruction

Although UD principles may appeal to the postsecondary instructor, critics such as Tomlinson (2014) stated that it is impossible to create an environment that will benefit everyone due to the diversity of students and their learning styles, interests, and abilities. Proponents of differentiated instruction adhere to the foundational belief that students vary as learners and instructors must use different approaches to learning, appeal to a wide range of interests, use various degrees of complexity, and encompass differing support systems (Tomlinson, 2014). For instance, Tomlinson (2014) stated that instructors utilizing differentiated instruction use class time flexibly, use a wide range of instructional strategies, become partners in learning with their students, and do not force students into a pre-shaped model for learning. Instructors that differentiate provide individualized alternatives for students based on the belief that each student's path to learning differs (Dixon et al., 2014).

Willis (2007) proved within her research on brain-based learning that teaching through the use of multiple methods creates increased pathways within the brain. Subsequently, the increased pathways developed within the brain were found to store information in more than one place. Willis concluded that these results emphasized learning had taken place and not just memorization.

Willis's work proved to be seminal for the present differentiated instruction movement and also correlates with Howard Gardner's (1993) theory of nine different intelligences that refer to differing student abilities when learning. Differentiated instruction embraces Gardner's theory and attempts to appeal to each student's intelligence (Willis, 2007). Instructors utilizing differentiated instruction principles must examine curriculum to identify areas to modify and incorporate differentiation. This can be done by selecting concepts that can be taught at varying levels of complexity, and then assessing student abilities individually, to create activities to incorporate those concepts (Willis, 2007).

Tailoring teaching delivery methods is one of the most critical components of differentiated instruction and requires instructors to coordinate many teaching tasks, philosophies, and student observations (Tomlinson, 2014). Additionally, assessment and instruction are simultaneous and ongoing so instructors are consistently evaluating both the student and mode of instruction versus waiting until the end of a chapter unit to discover what students learned (Tomlinson, 2014). The importance of differentiation for the student with ED makes sense as it offers paths to learning that are based on the student's strengths, interests, and learning styles (Dixon et al., 2014).

Tulbure (2011) reviewed differentiated instruction and the result of academic achievement at higher educational levels and discovered that few instructors make the effort to adjust instruction in postsecondary institutions that would adequately respond to the diversity of students. There are no research studies presently that have included a differentiated instruction intervention at postsecondary levels. Additionally, Tulbure

pointed out that there may be negative effects when differentiating instruction. One negative effect of differentiated instruction may be that it is too intensive for postsecondary instructors to carry out into college classrooms. Secondly, the possibility exists that constant adjustment of instruction to student learning preferences may cause difficulty in flexibility for students when in whole class instruction contexts (Tulbure, 2011).

Systems Level Approaches

Response to intervention plans.

The second broad area that emerged when reviewing present compulsory level teaching practices refers to a shift in thinking that encompassed a systems level approach to support academic, behavioral, and social needs of students (Lane et al., 2011; Nelson & Kaufman, 2009). Systems level approaches focus on Response to Intervention (RTI) models that are concerned with high quality classroom instruction, ongoing student assessment, and tiered instruction to address academic, behavioral, and social domains (Gage et al., 2010). The purpose of Response to Intervention (RTI) plans includes the early identification of classroom management strategies for students with learning and behavioral concerns so that plans can be implemented quickly (Margolis, 2012).

Interventions for students identified as having difficulties learning are provided within the context of increasing levels of intensity (Kern & Wehby, 2014). For example, Margolis (2012) found that in the RTI process, student learning achievement is monitored to evaluate individual learning rates and compared to the peer group. This information is then used to determine which students may need intervention.

The multi-tier approach incorporates using increasing intensities of instruction that is matched to the student's needs (Margolis, 2012). Within the first tier, all students are to receive high-quality instruction that has been based on research regarding effective instruction practices. Student progress and learning is measured through curriculum based assessments and students that are not showing acceptable progress are moved to the second tier.

Margolis (2012) stated that tier two involves more intensive instruction in smaller group settings in addition to the instruction the student continues to receive in tier one. Students that continue to perform unsatisfactorily will move on to tier three. Tier three includes a detailed functional behavior assessment and provides an individualized intervention plan directly targeting the deficit in skills the student is experiencing (Kern & Wehby, 2014). At compulsory levels of education, if a student still does not respond well within Tier three, a formal evaluation of special education services will follow (Kern & Wehby, 2014).

Universal Design principles may also be used within systems levels approaches. The reason for considering Universal Design principles within RTI models is due to the promotion of inclusive environments based on flexibility, effective communication, and equality of use (American Psychological Association, 2013). The hope exists that instructors who implement RTI systems approaches along with Universal Design principles will create classroom atmospheres and instructional practices that serve all students within inclusive classrooms (Burgstahler & Cory, 2009).

Critics of RTI again raised the question of how feasible RTI is within the postsecondary classroom. Instructors would need to plan out how they would divide allotted classroom time to divide students into the differing tiers and then instruct each group based on the level of instruction deemed necessary. Critics stated this would be difficult for one instructor to complete on their own so training and support would be necessary to carry out the practice of RTI effectively (Werts, Carpenter, & Fewell, 2014).

Preparation of Instructors to Teach Students With ED

The last emerging area within the field of instruction for students with ED referred to the preparation of instructors to meet challenges through quality professional development opportunities. Training instructors should incorporate using content that is centered on real classroom contexts, is aligned with the goals and needs of instructors, and leads to lasting positive change (Leko & Brownell, 2009). The current focus is on the initial preparation of instructors at elementary and secondary levels of education and their ongoing professional development critical in supporting instructors' in their teaching abilities (Lane et al., 2011). A major part of preparing instructors is ensuring their knowledge of instructional technologies to assist students with and without disabilities (Daher & Lazarevic, 2014). However, this same focus within the research on training and support of instructors at the community college level of education is lacking within the present literature base.

Use of Technology

Many students with ED become frustrated and can feel overwhelmed by the common student tasks of note taking while simultaneously listening to an instructor

(Casey, Williamson, Black, & Casey, 2014). Using assistive technology such as talking word processors and speech recognition software can help these students feel as though they can manage learning the course content. For instance, speech recognition software can decrease potential frustration of typing or writing when used in combination with a word processor (Casey et al., 2014). .

Since students are increasingly becoming digital learners, instructors need to adapt technologies used by students to incorporate online tools within their courses (Daher & Lazarevic, 2014). One way to accomplish this task is through using mobile apps such as Evernote, Pages, or DraftPad that are used to facilitate taking notes and can be used to create guided notes for students (Cumming, 2013). These apps also have the ability to upload notes to an online class website, class storage space often referred to as a Dropbox, or through Bluetooth sharing. Daher and Lazarevic (2014) stated that distinct advantages of using technology in this way can cause increased communication and collaboration in classroom activities, increased user involvement, and enhancement of learning motivation.

Mobile learning was increasingly discussed in the literature and refers to the use of tablets, iPads, and personal digital assistants to enhance learning in students when used alongside evidence-based teaching practices (Cumming, 2013). Research on mobile learning for students with ED is just beginning, but some promising initial research has suggested that self-monitoring in students with ED is enhanced when handheld devices are used (Cumming, 2013). Cumming (2013) postulated that the use of mobile learning technology may also be on the rise due to nonschool environments providing more choice

and access to information, application, and collaboration with others than is possible within the regular classroom. The Family Center on Technology and Disability (2012) found that just having an iPad can improve social interactions of students with ED as it is an admired technology of all students and promotes conversation and interaction. Initial research of students at compulsory levels of schooling using these forms of emerging technology is beginning to show enhanced motivation to learn (Cumming, 2013).

Cumming (2013) reported that using technology such as Audience Response Systems enables instructors to provide active instruction opportunities for students through increased ways to respond. These systems are designed to allow all students to answer the instructor's question through Bluetooth or Internet connections. Results of student answers are tabulated and shown immediately so students and instructors can evaluate the learning process. Cumming (2013) pointed out that if students with ED are actively engaged through the use of technology in the classroom, it is difficult for them to engage in undesirable classroom behaviors.

These uses of technology appear to be a positive way to enhance student learning; however, the array of technological choices and changing quality of these resources can prove daunting for instructors (Daher & Lazarevic, 2014). The use of technology requires that instructors acquire new skills and an increased level of understanding regarding computer software and the Internet. Daher and Lazarevic (2014) also stated that instructors must be able to adapt to technologies students use and gain the skills necessary to incorporate technological tools both in face-to-face classrooms and through the use of online instruction. How prepared community college instructors are to learn

and incorporate ever changing technology possibilities remains a concern (Lombardi & Murray, 2011).

Analysis of Instructor Perceptions Through Self-Efficacy Theory

The goals of the present study developed from practical interest about instructional quality specifically when including students with ED at the community college level. Limited research and data existed encompassing community college instructor knowledge of ED classroom strategies and the influence of instructor-efficacy beliefs while including students affected by ED. Within this context, it was important to understand how instructors perceive their teaching effectiveness.

According to Bandura (1997), the best possible learning environment is based on the ability and efficacy of instructors. Bandura insisted that instructors' beliefs in their instructor-efficacy will affect how they create learning environments and academic activities. Instructors' efficacy beliefs are also important in relation to the decisions instructors make to manage a classroom, organize learning tasks, motivate students, and effectively communicate (Holzberger et al, 2013).

Instructor-efficacy is grounded in Bandura's (1997) social-cognitive theory which states that individuals create expectations, set goals, anticipate events, adjust reactions, and engage in self-reflection. Bandura (1997) argued that efficacy beliefs can increase motivation to do a task but the skill to execute the task must also exist. If instructors have the potential skills and a high sense of efficacy yet choose not to complete a task, it may be due to a lack of necessary resources, institutional support, financial means, or access

to technology; or, to shifts in employment patterns (Akbaba, 2013; Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Burton & Pace, 2009; Chang, Hue-Hsuan, & Song, 2011).

According to Bandura (1997), instructors with higher instructional-efficacy believe that students with difficult behaviors are able to learn through additional effort and appropriate management strategies. Instructors with low instructional-efficacy often believe there is not much that can be done for students who possess a low ambition to learn (Bandura, 1997). Holzberger et al. (2013) found that instructors' efficacy was not only a cause of educational processes but was also a consequence. This means that instructors' efficacy beliefs may be impacted by the reciprocal relationship between students and experiences within the classroom. Since efficacy beliefs may change in response to specific experiences, instructor-efficacy is not only an outcome of instructors' efficacy beliefs but may also impact the development of ongoing instructor-efficacy beliefs. This reciprocal nature of efficacy beliefs highlights the potential for concern pertaining to instructor-efficacy, effects of classroom management, and the specific challenges that students with ED introduce within the inclusive classroom setting.

Instructor-efficacy is also viewed as a flexible and impressionable process. For example Gotshall and Stefanou (2011) found that learned helplessness, which is a perception of having no control, was correlated with low instructor-efficacy. Learned helplessness and low instructor-efficacy co-occur when an instructor does not feel prepared to meet student or classroom challenges. Gotshall and Stefanou (2011) also discovered that instructors who received ongoing training, consultation, and support reported lower levels of learned helplessness and had higher levels of instructor-efficacy

that demonstrated the malleable nature of instructor-efficacy. Thornton, (2011) pointed out that full-time instructors were more often required to participate in ongoing training; however, instructors employed part-time were not required to participate. This difference between employment statuses is important to note in light of Gotshall and Stefanou's (2011) findings that ongoing access to training and consultation positively correlated with higher levels of instructor-efficacy.

These examples surrounding instructor-efficacy provide an important structure for examining the perspective of instructors while engaged in teaching processes. While many studies pertaining to instructor-efficacy have been focused on primary and secondary teachers, the evidence exists that instructors with higher efficacy demonstrate many admirable characteristics pertaining to the instructing effort. Some characteristics of instructors with higher efficacy include being less critical of challenging student behaviors, persistence in guiding students to success, a propensity to experiment with instructional strategies, better planning and organization skills for instruction, and higher levels of self-confidence and job satisfaction (Bandura, 1997; Brown, 2012; Dixon et al., 2014; Holzberger et al., 2013; Sadler, 2013).

These characteristics apply to the success of students in general but they also become important assets when considering challenges and difficulties instructors face when including students affected by ED in their classrooms. Research has demonstrated that superior levels of instructor-efficacy are correlated positively with instructional quality, more advanced levels of job satisfaction, greater levels of student self-efficacy,

and increased student retention (Brown, 2012; Dicke et al., 2014; Holzberger, 2013). All of these characteristics are important to the success of community college professionals.

Design Methodology Within Research Literature

Various research including quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-methods approaches were examined and analyzed for this literature review. The research design chosen for this study developed from the literature review and the specific research questions for this study. One purpose of this research was to collect and examine data pertaining to community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED and their instructor-efficacy. A second purpose of this research was to explore potential relationships between part-time and full-time employment on instructors' teaching-efficacy beliefs while practicing inclusion of students with ED in their classrooms. A third purpose of this research was to evaluate the potential impact of part-time and full-time employment on instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for the inclusion of students affected by ED. These research goals developed as a result of a change in hiring practices with the recent downturn of the U.S. economy (Thornton, 2011) and concerns over postsecondary instruction quality (Holzberger et al., 2013; Lane et al., 2012; Lombardi &Murray, 2011; Rossi, 2009) specifically for the increasing number of students with ED attempting courses within community colleges (Connor, 2012; Military Community and Family Policy, 2014).

This research study was both descriptive and correlational. Descriptive research often involves collecting information through the use of surveys and describes a picture of the way things are (Cresswell, 2009). Correlational research determines whether two

or more variables have a positive, negative or nonexistent relationship (Cresswell, 2009). Cresswell (2009) stated that a commonly used research tool to establish foundational information is a survey.

Alter, Walker, and Landers (2013) conducted a quantitative study in which they analyzed surveys of compulsory level instructors' perceptions of challenging student behaviors and the impact of instructor demographics. Their study established a foundation of pedagogical knowledge pertaining to the description of challenging student behaviors. They also collected descriptive information indicating instructors' ratings of how problematic the challenging behaviors were perceived to be. Alter et al. then examined the relationship between instructors' ratings to demographic variables (gender, grade taught, years spent teaching, and racial background).

As their research showed, describing challenging behaviors so that instructors and researchers are using similar terms is a key underlying process that must be accomplished first before designing effective interventions for behavioral classroom management (Alter et al., 2013). Additionally, the authors stated instructor perceptions of challenging behaviors were impacted by gender, grade taught, years spent teaching, and racial background. Alter et al.'s (2013) use of a survey tool and correlational research provided a necessary foundation of knowledge so that future research could then be aimed to develop instructor trainings to address real context and classroom issues.

Similarly, Klassen and Chiu (2010) used a survey instrument in their research regarding relationships between instructor-efficacy, job satisfaction, years of teaching experience, and specific teacher characteristics. Their survey included demographic

questions, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy's (2001) previously validated short form of the Ohio Teachers' Self-Efficacy Scale (OTSES), a two item job satisfaction scale, and a seven-item source of job stress scale. Kalssen and Chiu's (2010) important new finding was that instructor-efficacy increased with years of teaching experience for early and mid-career instructors but declined for instructors that were in later career stages. The authors were able to show this nonlinear relationship through the information gathered from the survey and correlational methods. Consequently, they were able to make the informed suggestion that future professional development trainings need to be aware that the skills and knowledge of new, midcareer, and experienced teachers needs to be specifically tailored and the use of a one-size-fits-all program would be ineffective (Klassen & Chiu, 2010).

Lastly, Chang et al. (2011) investigated postsecondary faculty instructors' perceptions in regards to their instructor-efficacy and background information (gender, previous training to teach, years of teaching experience, and teaching discipline). The authors distributed the Faculty Teaching Efficacy Questionnaire, which measured six dimensions of teaching efficacy and included questions regarding gender, previous teacher training; years spent teaching, and teaching discipline. Findings indicated that postsecondary instructors had higher levels of instructor-efficacy when designing their course and the lowest levels of instructor-efficacy when employing instructional strategies.

Although instructors reported having lower levels of efficacy for instructional strategies, no significant difference in instructing efficacy beliefs were found between

instructors that had previous training in instruction than those without (Chang et al., 2011). This means that instructor' beliefs about their ability to teach were not increased in those that had undergone previous pedagogical training. Additionally, faculty members teaching within the education discipline (versus science, math, and business) had higher levels of efficacy and females were found to have higher efficacy scores than males regarding classroom management and assessment.

Chang et al. (2011) research findings suggested a baseline understanding of some demographic differences between instructors' efficacy. The knowledge gained from the study aimed to influence future research regarding professional development training programs. Additionally, the finding regarding no difference between efficacy levels between instructors with and without prior teaching training served as a baseline that Holzberger, et.al (2013) researched further.

Holzberger et al. (2013) identified that instructional quality is greatly impacted by previous pedagogical training. With Chang et al. (2011) previous descriptive and correlational study, Holzberger et al., (2013) consequently was able to further explore relationships between instructor-efficacy and instructional quality by also conducting a survey method design. The Holzberger et al.'s findings that instructor-efficacy was additionally impacted by the process of classroom interactions challenged previous assumptions regarding the influence of instructors' efficacy beliefs. This finding further demonstrated that other aspects of instructor competence should be evaluated and influences future research and creation of professional development training.

These examples of studies completed in the literature clearly show a pattern of needing to gather information from the instructor population through a survey method and then engage in an exploration of relationships. The relationships researched, thus far, have mainly examined compulsory level instructors' efficacy in relation to personal qualities, pedagogical knowledge, and background characteristics. There was still a need to explore relationships between postsecondary instructors and their instructor-efficacy, specific knowledge of teaching strategies for the ED student population, and the potential impact of instructor employment status. The findings from the current study similarly serve as a starting point to inform future research and aid instructors and administers in identifying and developing content for effective professional development training of instructors at the community college level.

Summary

This chapter presented an informed analysis of current literature pertaining to postsecondary inclusive teaching of students with ED. This included exploring effective classroom management strategies for the inclusion of students with ED, an examination of how instructor-efficacy may influence strategies chosen, and the potential influence of instructors' employment status. Self-efficacy theory was applied to the understanding of relationships between instructing beliefs, behaviors, and environmental conditions. Lastly, a discussion of similar methodology was reviewed which supported using a quantitative survey design.

The foundational research in this study was significant for instructors at the community college level. It addressed an area of higher education that has not been

sufficiently researched with an instructor population that has endured drastic adjustments due to a changing economy. This research can be viewed as a way to inform teaching practices and provide a context for examining relationships between instructor-efficacy beliefs, knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED, and employment status. Insights from this study provide the community college profession new knowledge and create the potential for positive social change by identifying areas truly needed for instructor professional development training at the community college level.

Chapter 3 addresses the procedures for obtaining access to participants and the measures taken to ensure confidentiality and protection of individuals participating in this study. Information regarding the measures used is addressed, as well as how and when the data were analyzed.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

This research study focused on data pertaining to community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED, instructing efficacy beliefs, and employment of part-time, full-time tenure, or a full-time nontenure status. This study addressed three specific research purposes. The first purpose was to understand whether a significant statistical relationship existed between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED and their instructing efficacy beliefs. The second purpose was to examine whether statistically significant differences existed between part-time and full-time employment on community college instructor-efficacy beliefs while ensuring inclusion of adult students with ED. The third purpose was to examine whether statistically significant differences existed between part-time and full-time employment on community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for the inclusion of adult students with ED.

I selected a descriptive survey design as the most practical method to collect this information, based on my literature review findings on design methodology in Chapter 2. This chapter restates the research questions and hypotheses, and explains the research design of the study, sampling procedure, data type, data collection, and instrumentation. This chapter also describes the strategy for data analysis and ethical considerations related to this research are provided.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: What is the relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD test, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale?

- $H_0$1: There is no relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD test, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.
- Ha1: There is a relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.

RQ2: What is the effect of community college instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale?

- $H_0$2: There is no effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.
- Ha2: There is an effect between the instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.

RQ3: What is the effect of community college instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD?

- $H_0$3: There is no effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD.
- Ha3: There is an effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD.

Research Design and Rationale

The strategy for this study's design was based on Alter et al.'s (2013) analysis of teacher demographics and their perceptions of challenging student behaviors. Alter et al. used a convenience sample of 800 teachers from public school districts in the Southeastern United States. Participants in Alter et al.'s study were limited to classroom teachers of elementary, middle school, and high school levels of compulsory education.

Alter et al. (2013) used a testing measure in which instructors identified the prevalence and knowledge of challenging student behaviors and rated their perception of each behavior using a four-point Likert scale. Additionally, instructors were asked to answer four demographic questions pertaining to level of grade taught (elementary,

middle school, high school), gender, race, and years of experience. Surveys were disseminated though the use of the Internet.

A survey method was also utilized in this study because the survey is an efficient and inexpensive way to gain research information (Rea & Parker, 2014). The survey method was appropriate to address the research questions in this study because it was necessary to gain information from instructors quickly during a semester. Instructors are often busy with grading near the end of a semester so the timing of gathering information mid-semester and the need for data collection to be efficient and inexpensive was paramount. Additionally the survey method enabled a rapid gathering of information regarding instructor-efficacy beliefs, instructor knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED, and instructor employment status. The rapid turnaround in data collection with the use of a survey method (Rea & Parker, 2014) was beneficial in the procedure for this study due to time constraints of instructors. Once the data was obtained, generalizations were then made from the sample to the population and are covered in detail within Chapter 5.

This study utilized a survey questionnaire composed of closed-ended questions. The purpose was to determine a group of community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies, and instructor-efficacy when including adult students affected by ED in their classrooms. This study also explored the association of differences of employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time-tenure) with instructors' knowledge of effective ED classroom management strategies and instructor-efficacy.

A fuller understanding of instructor knowledge and efficacy beliefs surrounding the inclusion of postsecondary students with ED was desired to develop a necessary foundation of information. This information is intended to be used in decisions regarding professional development opportunities and in future research to improve the profession for community college instructors. The use of the survey design was optimal to obtain this information due to the need to access instructors during the typical school year as many are unavailable during summer months. There was also a further time constriction of making the survey available to instructors during the semester versus at the end of a semester when they were increasingly busy with the grading needs for their students.

Two testing instruments were utilized. The Teaching Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (TSEBD; Anderson & Hendrickson, 2007) instrument was used to measure the knowledge instructors have regarding effective instruction and classroom management strategies for students affected by ED. Instructor-efficacy scores were measured by the Ohio State Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (OSTES; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). A four question demographic section was included that asked for level of employment status, highest degree level obtained, teaching situation, and length of time spent teaching.

Methodology

Population and Sampling Procedure

The instructor population from which the participant sample was drawn was located within two community colleges in the MidWestern United States. Since the research questions to be answered required information from community college

instructors, the criterion for eligibility required that participants be currently employed and actively teaching during the Spring 2016 academic semester. Instructors employed as part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenured were encouraged to participate. One of the participating community colleges was in a suburb of a major metropolitan area and the second community college was in a rural area.

Statistics obtained from the Human Resources departments that served the two community colleges showed that there were a total of 201 current instructors actively teaching during the Spring 2016 academic semester. Instructors were excluded if not currently teaching or if only teaching online courses. Since this study was focused on the two year, community college, any instructors that did not fit these criteria were excluded.

To address RQ1 a sample size of 31 was ascertained for each of the three groups of employment status (AI-Therapy Statistics, 2015). The sample size was determined by setting the power level at 80 percent, the alpha level at .05, and the expected correlation co-efficient at .5 for a two tailed test. The aim was to incorporate a sufficient number of participants to keep the alpha level at .05, which is an acceptable low level, and to help ensure the study was not unnecessarily large, or expensive (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). Additionally, setting the alpha level at .05 meant there was a 95 percent probability that the results would be appropriate (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). The power level set at 80 percent was a good general rule to abide by to reject a false null hypothesis (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013).

To address RQ2 and RQ3 a sample size of 116 was determined through the use of a sample size calculator from Raosoft Inc. (2004). There were a total number of 201

active instructors from the two community colleges accessed for this study. To determine the 116 sample size, the confidence level was set at 90%, and the margin of error at 5%.

Approval for conducting this research study was obtained by going through an institutional review board (IRB) that served both community colleges proposed in this study. Additionally, approval for conducting research was also sought by the IRB that serves Walden University. The IRB office serving the community colleges in this study was willing to act as the IRB of record.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Access to participants was initially gained by attending instructor meetings that regularly occurred near the beginning of the semester on each community college campus. Secondly, email was used to invite instructors to participate. Approval from both campuses was obtained to attend the regularly occurring meetings, explain the study to instructors, and have the option for instructors to fill out a paper and pencil survey, and send follow-up email invitations and reminders. An explanation of the importance of this study was emphasized as well as my email address if participants wished to receive further information or results from the study.

During the meeting on each college campus, an explanation of this study and its importance was explained. I then passed out paper and pencil surveys to instructors asking them to return the completed surveys in a secured drop box. This ensured anonymity since I did not know who completed the survey. It was emphasized that no identifying information would be collected and participation was voluntary. Having instructors return completed surveys by using a secured drop box aided instructors in

feeling comfortable in completing the survey as they did not come into contact with me during data collection.

Instructors were also given the alternative choice to access the survey via SurveyMonkey (2015). Approval from the Human Resource Departments for both colleges was obtained to identify a list of instructors to send emailed invitations for this study. This helped to ensure that all current instructors received the invitation to participate as some instructors were not present at the faculty meetings. A printed version of the email invitation for instructors is included in Appendix B. The invitation contained the explanation for this study, my email address, and the Internet link to access the survey online. Having both the option to complete the survey during a regularly scheduled meeting or through the use of Survey Monkey helped to reach a larger percentage of the instructor population.

A follow-up email reminder with link and password was sent 10 days after the initial emailed invitations (Appendix D). Sending a follow-up email encouraged instructors that had not yet responded to complete the survey. The sample size was not initially reached, so the follow-up email reminder was sent a second time three weeks later.

Informed consent was obtained before instructors took the paper and pencil survey option and before instructors were allowed to access the survey online. When instructors were offered the paper and pencil version, a cover page included a statement regarding informed consent. Informed consent was then implied if the instructor

completed and returned the survey. Appendix C contains the cover page regarding informed consent.

When instructors used the Internet link to access the study on SurveyMonkey (2015), a statement regarding informed consent appeared on the first page. The instructor was not able to access the survey instruments until they clicked that they had read the information pertaining to informed consent. Informed consent was then implied if the instructor completed the survey.

Particular demographic information collected included employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, or full-time tenure), degrees obtained, teaching situation, and the number of years/months teaching. The teaching situation question asked participants if they were teaching only at a community college or if they were also employed by a different institution such as a technical college or 4 year university.

Once instructors completed the survey on SurveyMonkey (2015), a final information page was presented. My contact information was reiterated. This debriefing procedure was available in the event that an instructor wished to inquire further about the study or ask for results of the study when available.

Using a survey provided me with a large amount of data at an economical price and within a reasonable amount of time, as recommended by Rea and Parker (2014). I was a part-time instructor during the time of data collection at one of the two colleges surveyed but did not serve as a supervisor for any participating instructors. Participants were ensured anonymity and that the community college identities would be kept confidential when the results were published.

Instrumentation

Two testing measures were utilized within this study. The short form of the Ohio State Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) assessed instructor-efficacy. The Teaching Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (Anderson & Hendrickson, 2007) assessed the knowledge of ED classroom management strategies. Both of these tests were utilized to fit the purpose of the survey design.

The Ohio State Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (OSTES; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) was based on Bandura's original concept of self-efficacy. The creation of the OSTES addressed the need for a valid measure assessing both personal instructor competence and analysis of tasks within the context of instruction (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Construct validity was substantiated through positive correlations between the OSTES and other existing measures including two versions of Rand Items and an adaptation of the Gibson and Dembo Teaching Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Construct validity was first established in the OSTES 12 question short form through positive correlations on the Rand Items assessing personal teaching efficacy. Construct validity also found positive correlations on the Gibson and Dembo Teaching Efficacy Scale assessing personal teaching efficacy.

The OSTES addressed limitations of previously constructed teaching efficacy tests as it contains items assessing three dimensions of efficacy including instructional strategies, student engagement, and classroom management. Reliability for each of the three dimensions included 0.86 for instructional strategies, 0.86 for student engagement, and 0.81 for classroom management (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Permission was

granted to use the OSTES in this study and, a copy of the permission letter can be viewed in Appendix A.

To assess instructors' knowledge of instruction and classroom management strategies for ED, the Teaching Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (TSEBD) measure was used. The TSEBD assessed instructor knowledge of strategies, classroom and behavioral management, research in education, and laws regarding special education for ED (Anderson & Hendrickson, 2007). The TSEBD was field tested and showed a normal distribution of scores with a mean of 59 (SD = .12).

The foundation of the TSEBD was based on a review of the literature regarding ED empirically based instruction and classroom management strategies. Expert feedback from a variety of universities was also attained to assure questions on the TSEBD reflected knowledge of concepts, strategies, and instructional techniques pertaining to the instruction of students with ED. The TSEBD also aligns with the state of Iowa teaching standards (Anderson & Hendrickson, 2007). The authors of the TSEBD granted permission to use the test in this study but permission was not granted to reproduce the test questions for publication. The permission email can be viewed in Appendix A.

On the 20 question short form of the Ohio State Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) the response format ranges from one to nine. An answer of one indicates the instructor believes they cannot do the task at all, three indicates the belief that their influence is very small, five indicates the view of having some influence, seven indicates extensive instructor influence, and nine indicates having a great deal of influence. Woolfolk-Hoy (2014) has provided a release statement,

permission to use the OSTES, and directions for scoring within The Ohio State University's web pages.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) suggested utilizing factor analysis to examine participants' responses to the questions. Three factors of efficacy are moderately correlated within the OSTES. These factors include efficacy in student engagement, instructional practices, and classroom management. Information regarding which questions comprises each subscale score of efficacy is also provided within The Ohio State University's web pages.

The Teaching Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (TSEBD) measure was utilized to assess community college instructor knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED. The TSEBD contains four sections. The first section asks for biographical information such as earned degree, major of study, years spent teaching, and whether any training has been undertaken in the area of special education.

The second section contains 50 multiple choice questions regarding instruction and behavior management. The third section contains a rating scale regarding instructing behaviors and skills. This section is separated into the categories of instruction, behavior management, and individualized support strategies within the classroom. Each category consists of statements that are to be ranked on a scale between 0 and 3. A rank of 0 refers to the strategy as rarely or never being useful. A rank of 1 refers to a strategy that is seldom useful, a rank of 2 refers to a strategy that is frequently useful, and a rank of 3 refers to a strategy that is nearly always useful.

The fourth section contains a list pertaining to five areas of instructor knowledge. Instructors were asked to rank the five areas based on personally perceived importance. A rank of 1 meant the area was the most important area of instructor knowledge and 5 meant the least important area of instructor knowledge.

One additional demographic question was asked at the beginning of the survey regarding the instructor's employment status of part-time, full-time nontenure track, or full-time tenure-track status. Additional biographical information including degrees obtained, and number of years/months teaching, is already included within the TSEBD.

Strategy for Data Analysis

Part of the strategy for this study's analysis of data was based on a similar study that analyzed teacher demographics and teacher perceptions of challenging student behaviors conducted by Alter et al. (2013). The study conducted by Alter et al. (2013) utilized ANOVA with LSD post hoc in their data analysis. These statistical tests were completed to examine whether or not differences of grade level taught (elementary, middle school, high school), years of teaching experience, and race influenced instructors' ratings of challenging student behaviors. The evaluation purposes in this study were similar to that of Alter et al. (2013) and followed the analysis strategy of using ANOVA and LSD post hoc tests where appropriate.

For RQ1, Pearson's correlation coefficient measured the degree of association between community college instructor efficacy beliefs and the knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED. A simple linear regression was also run as an additional analysis to examine the predictive relationship between knowledge and instructor-

efficacy scores. RQ2 pertained to the effect of part-time, full-time nontenure track, and full-time tenure-track employment on community college instructors' teaching efficacy for students with ED. Since the independent variable consisted of three distinct groups and was categorical, a one-way ANOVA was run to assess differences between instructor groups and their scores (dependent variable) obtained on the OSTES.

RQ3 question pertained to the effect of part-time, full-time nontenure track, and full-time tenure-track employment status on instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students with ED. A one-way ANOVA was run to assess differences between instructor groups and their scores obtained on the TSEBD. Significant differences were found between groups after conducting the ANOVA tests for RQ3. A Fisher's LSD was then computed to determine where the differences between the means of the three groups of the independent variable occurred (Anderson, Sweeney, & Williams, 2012).

It was a possibility that these relationships were influenced by instructing experience (Alter et al. 2013). In an attempt to account for this, the number of years instructing was compared between the employment type groups. Significant differences in years of instructing were found between the groups regarding knowledge of classroom management strategies, so a nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used to analyze differences.

The statistical computer program SPSS was utilized and the findings from the Pearson correlation, Linear regression, ANOVA tests, Post hoc test, and Kruskal-Wallis test are reported both verbally and in table form in Chapter 4. Effect size and confidence

intervals are also included. The information presented contains the examined differences of part-time employment status, full-time nontenure employment status, and full-time tenured employment status, on scores obtained by the OSTES and TSEBD measures. An explanation as to why the results may have occurred based on the social cognitive theory of self-efficacy are discussed in Chapter 5, as well as the implications of the results for future practice and research.

Threats to Validity

External validity, specifically the generalizability of results, was limited to community college instructors in the MidWestern United States due to the specific population targeted, and the nature of this survey research design. To minimize sampling bias, the sampling frame was very similar to the overall population of community college instructors by obtaining lists of instructors. The lists I obtained included information pertaining to current instructor employment status from the human resource departments of each college participating in this study. This helped ensure that the sampling frame and the population were similar. Additionally, the nature of relying on volunteer participant instructors to complete the survey measure was a potential threat to external validity. Rea and Parker (2014) conceded that it is extremely difficult to avoid all volunteer bias when conducting survey research. Future studies may aim to replicate this proposed study to further assess the external validity of the findings (Rea & Parker, 2014).

A potential threat to internal validity for this study included possible differences in participant characteristics that may not be attributable to the groups of employment status. Additionally, due to the lengthiness of the survey, some instructor participants did

not complete the measure. Rea and Parker (2014) ascertained that experimental mortality, or participant drop out, becomes a threat to internal validity only when the dropout numbers differ greatly across comparison groups. This possibility was monitored during the data collection process and was not found to be problematic.

Ethical Considerations

Participant rights were protected throughout the stages of this study which incorporated data collection, data analysis, interpretation of results, and writing and publication of the research. According to Rea and Parker (2014), participants have the right to provide information voluntarily, withdraw at any point, understand the purpose of the study, and understand how anonymity and confidentiality will be provided. Additionally, permission of individuals in authority should be gained before gaining access to participants and starting data collection (Creswell, 2009). These guidelines were followed in this study.

The testing instruments and research design methodology used in this study were reviewed by myself, the dissertation committee, the IRB that covered both Midwest community colleges, and the Walden University IRB to ensure that all ethical considerations were estimated and approval to conduct the research was received. Participants were given a consent form prior to taking the paper and pencil survey and/or before accessing the actual survey on Survey Monkey (SurveyMonkey, 2015). My contact information was provided so that participants could reach the researcher if they had any questions or concerns about the study. The anonymous data has been stored on a

laptop at my home. Only I have access to the collected data. Data will be deleted five years after the dissertation is approved.

Summary

This chapter outlined the methodology and research design to examine community college instructors' teaching-efficacy beliefs, knowledge of ED classroom management strategies, and impact of part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure employment status. The sampling method and population were addressed, in addition to the research questions, survey design, instruments to be utilized, data collection, strategy for data analysis, and ethical considerations to protect the rights of participants. The results of the collected data and statistical analysis are presented in detail in Chapter 4. Discussion and recommendations for action and future research are presented in Chapter 5.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the data collection process. The data were first screened for missing responses and accuracy. Descriptive statistics were conducted for the sample through frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. Two survey instruments were used: Teaching Students with Emotional Behavior Disorders (TSEBD) and the Ohio State Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale (OSTES).

The broad purpose of this study was to determine a group of community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies, and instructor-efficacy when including adult students affected by ED in their classrooms. This study also explored the association of differences between employment statuses. This study was specifically designed to examine three main research purposes. The first specific purpose was to analyze whether a statistically significant relationship exist between instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED and instructors' teaching efficacy beliefs. The second specific purpose was to analyze whether statistically significant relationships exist between part-time and full-time employment on community college instructors' instructor-efficacy beliefs while ensuring inclusion of adult students with ED. The third specific purpose was to analyze whether statistically significant relationships exist between part-time and full-time employment and community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for the inclusion of adult students with ED. Statistical analyses included a Pearson correlation and two ANOVAs. Significance for all inferential tests was evaluated at the generally accepted level, $\alpha = .05$.

Pre-Analysis of Data

I initially received 117 community college instructor responses to the survey during the Spring 2016 semester. The data were screened for missing responses and accuracy. Thirteen participants were removed for not answering the TSEBD instrument for knowledge. All remaining participants had scores within the range of possible values for instructor-efficacy and knowledge. The final sample consisted of 104 instructors.

Description of the Sample

Frequencies and Percentages of Demographics

The majority of the participants had Master's degrees (n = 72; 69.2%). The distribution of employment status was approximately equal – part-time (n = 32; 30.8%), full-time nontenure (n = 25; 24.0%), and full-time tenured (n = 47; 45.2%). The sample obtained differs slightly from the ASHE Higher Education Report (2010). The ASHE report stated part-time instructor employment had grown faster than full-time tenured or nontenured employment with the majority of community college faculty consisting of part-time instructors. The sample obtained in this study of community college instructors consisted of approximately equal part-time, full-time tenured, and nontenured community college instructor responses. The distribution for length of time instructing was approximately equal between the different time frames in years. The frequencies and percentages of the demographic characteristics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages of Demographic Characteristics

Demographic	*n*	%
Education		
Bachelors (Arts or Science)	13	12.5
Master's Degree	72	69.2
Ph.D	14	13.5
Non-response	5	4.8
Employee Status		
Part-time (Adjunct)	32	30.8
Full-time nontenure	25	24.0
Full-time tenured (or tenure track)	47	45.2
Current teaching situation		
Community College	56	53.8
Technical College	11	10.6
Community & Technical College	36	34.6
Non-response	1	1.0
Number of years teaching		
1-5	13	12.5
6-10	15	14.4
11-15	16	15.4
16-20	11	10.6
21-25	22	21.2
26-30	10	9.6
31 and over	17	16.3

Note. Due to rounding error, not all percentages may sum to 100.

Frequencies and Percentages for Instructor Knowledge Ranking

Instructors were asked to rank five areas of instructor knowledge related to teaching students with ED on personally perceived importance. A rank of 1 meant the area is the most important area of instructor knowledge and 5 meant the least important area for instructor knowledge. Knowledge of curriculum received the highest frequency of number one rankings (n = 44; 42.3%). Knowledge of education/special education law

received the highest frequency of number five rankings (n = 62; 59.6%). Table 2 presents the frequencies and percentages for the five instructor knowledge items.

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages of Instructor Knowledge Ranking

Instructor Competencies	Rank	*n*	%
Knowledge of Instructional Strategies			
	1	27	26.0
	2	41	39.4
	3	27	26.0
	4	8	7.7
	5	1	1.0
Knowledge of Behavior Management Strategies			
	1	20	19.2
	2	32	30.8
	3	26	25.0
	4	24	23.1
	5	2	1.9
Knowledge of Curriculum			
	1	44	42.3
	2	15	14.4
	3	29	27.9
	4	13	12.5
	5	3	2.9
Knowledge of Theory of Research			
	1	7	6.7
	2	14	13.5
	3	15	14.4
	4	32	30.8
	5	36	34.6
Knowledge of Education/Special Education Law			
	1	6	5.8
	2	2	1.9
	3	7	6.7
	4	27	26.0
	5	62	59.6

Note. Due to rounding error, not all percentages may sum to 100.

Descriptive Statistics of Continuous Variables

Knowledge scores ranged from 14.00 to 40.00, with a mean (*M*) of 28.30 and a standard deviation (*SD*) of 5.77. Self-efficacy scores ranged from 4.75 to 8.78 with *M* = 6.64 and *SD* = 0.83. Instructor competency instruction scores ranged from 0.00 to 3.00, with *M* = 2.12 and *SD* = 0.48. Instructor competency behavior management scores ranged from 0.00 to 3.00, with *M* = 2.14 and *SD* = 0.50. Instructor competency individualized support strategies scores ranged from 0.00 to 2.56, and *M* = 1.73 and *SD* = 0.43. The descriptive statistics of the continuous variables are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Continuous Variables

Continuous Variables	*Min.*	*Max.*	*M*	*SD*
Knowledge scores	14.00	40.00	28.30	5.77
Self-Efficacy scores	4.75	8.78	6.64	0.83
Instructor Competency – Instruction scores	0.00	3.00	2.12	0.48
Instructor Competency – Behavior Management scores	0.00	3.00	2.14	0.50
Instructor Competency – Individual Support Strategies scores	0.00	2.56	1.73	0.43

Reliability

Cronbach's alpha tests of reliability and internal consistency were conducted on instructor-efficacy scores. The Cronbach's alpha calculates the mean correlation between each pair of survey items and the number of items comprising the scale (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2013). I interpreted the alpha values using the guidelines suggested by George and Mallery (2016) with $\alpha > .9$ excellent, $> .8$ good, $> .7$ acceptable, $> .6$ questionable, $>$

.5 poor, and ≤ .5 unacceptable. The reliability alpha value for instructor-efficacy indicated good reliability (α = .80). The Cronbach's alpha reliability statistics are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Statistics for Composite Scores

Scale	*n*	α
Instructor-Efficacy	12	.80

Detailed Analysis

Research Question 1 (RQ1)

RQ1: What is the relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD test, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale?

- H01: There is no relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD test, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.
- Ha1: There is a relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.

To address RQ1, a Pearson correlation was conducted between knowledge of classroom management strategies and instructor-efficacy scores. A Pearson correlation is an appropriate statistical analysis when both variables are measured on a continuous scale (Pagano, 2009). Prior to analysis, the assumptions of linearity, normality, and homoscedasticity were examined.

Assumptions for Pearson correlation and linear regression.

The assumption of linearity was tested with a scatterplot (see Figure 1). The scatterplot between knowledge and instructor-efficacy scores visually showed a positive trend. Normality was assessed with Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) tests for knowledge and instructor-efficacy scores. Results of the KS tests indicated significance for knowledge (p = .002) and instructor-efficacy (p = .040). These results show the assumption was not met; however, Stevens (2009) suggested that distributions with sample sizes greater than 50 observations tend to approximate towards normality, even if the distribution appears to deviate from normality. Additionally, a normal P-P plot was used to examine the normality of the residuals (see Figure 2). The data closely followed the normality trend line and the assumption was met through visual inspection. The assumption of homoscedasticity was also assessed with a scatterplot (see Figure 3), and did not show a distinct pattern. As such, the variance of the residuals can be assumed to be homogenous.

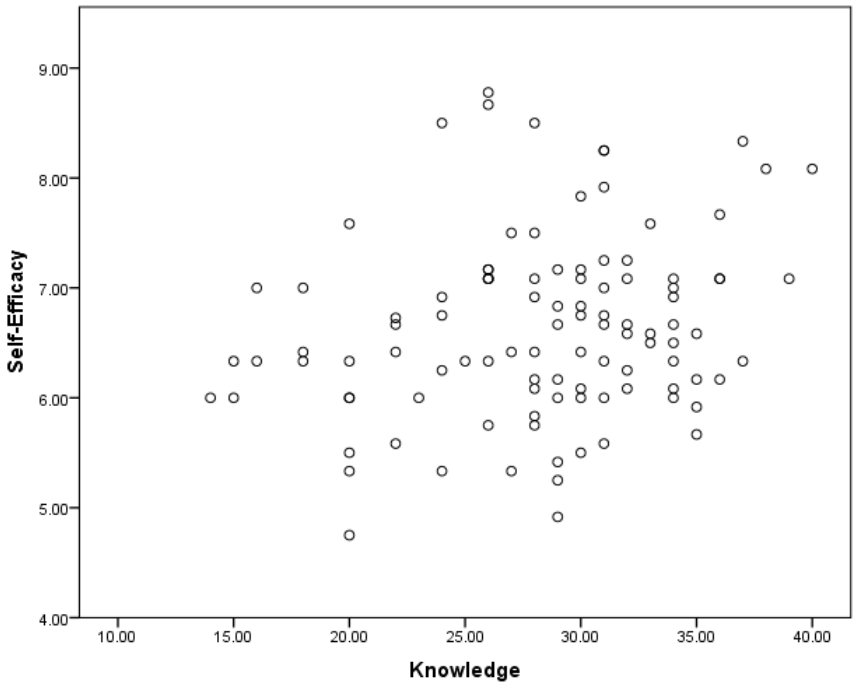

Figure 1. Scatterplot between Knowledge and Instructor-Efficacy scores.

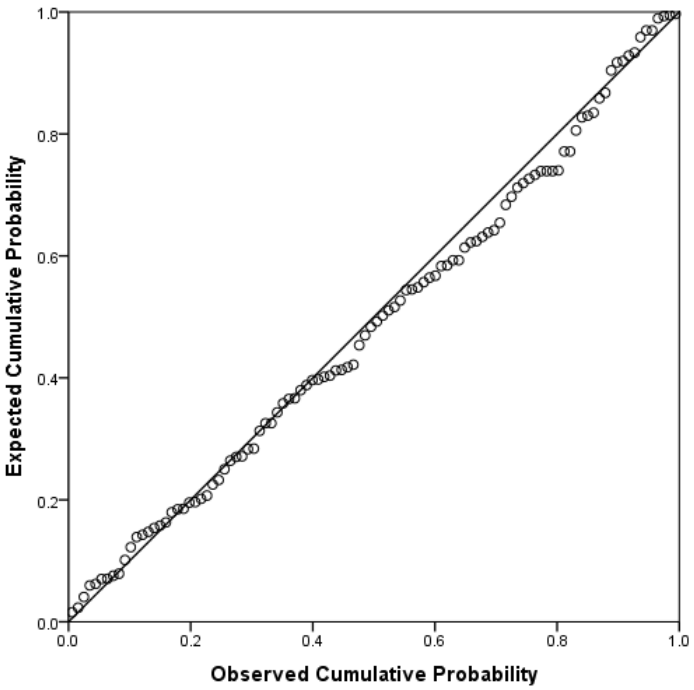

Figure 2. Normal P-P scatterplot to assess normality of residuals for Knowledge and Instructor-Efficacy scores.

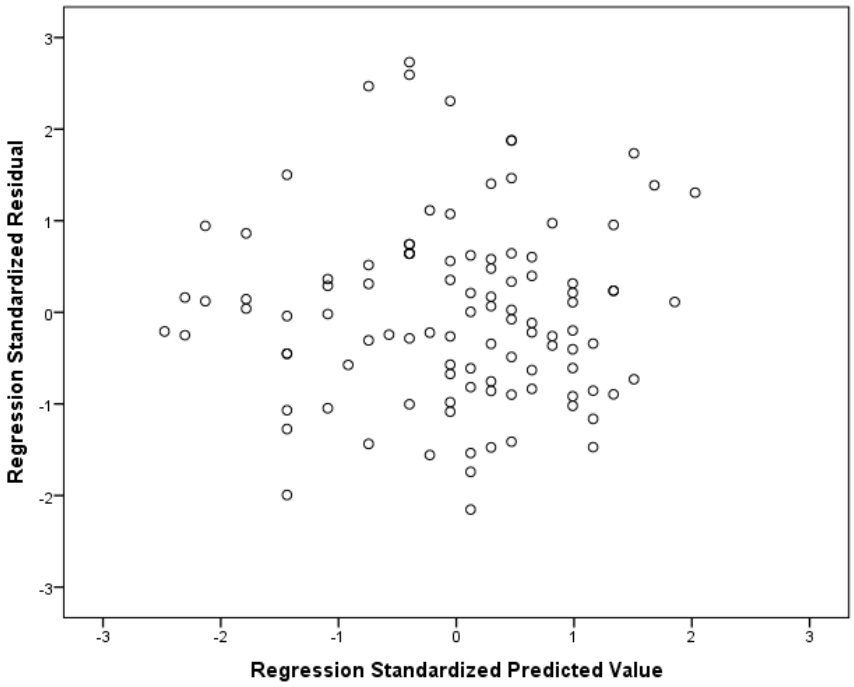

Figure 3. Residuals scatterplot for homoscedasticity for Knowledge and Instructor-Efficacy scores.

Results of correlations.

Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was a statistically significant association $r(104) = .23$, $p = .019$ between knowledge and instructor-efficacy scores. Due to the KS test indicating significance for both scores, a Spearman correlation was conducted as a nonparametric alternative. Results of the Spearman correlation were also significant $r_s(104) = .21$, $p = .034$. Using Cohen's standard (Cohen, 1988), knowledge scores had a weak positive relationship with instructor-efficacy scores. There is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis for research question one ($H_0 1$).

Results of linear regression.

A linear regression was conducted as an additional analysis to examine the predictive relationship between knowledge and instructor-efficacy scores. A linear regression is an appropriate statistical analysis when assessing the relationship between a predictor variable and a continuous criterion variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Results of the linear regression indicated significance $F(1, 102) = 5.65$, $p = .019$, $R^2 = .052$. The coefficient of determination, R^2, suggests that approximately 5.2% of the variance in instructor-efficacy scores can be explained by knowledge scores. With every one unit increase in knowledge scores, instructor-efficacy scores increased by approximately 0.03 units. Table 5 presents the findings of the linear regression.

Table 5

Linear Regression with Knowledge and Instructor-Efficacy

Source	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*
Knowledge	0.03	0.01	.23	2.38	.019

Note. Overall model: $F(1, 102) = 5.65$, $p = .019$, $R^2 = .052$

Research Question 2 (RQ2)

RQ2: What is the effect of community college instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale?

- $H_0$2: There is no effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.

- Ha2: There is an effect between the instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.

To address research RQ2, I conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to assess the effect of instructors' employment status on instructor-efficacy scores. An ANOVA is an appropriate statistical analysis to assess for differences on a continuous dependent variable between groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The continuous dependent variable corresponded to instructor-efficacy, as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES). The independent variable corresponded to employment status (part-time, full-time non-tenure, or full-time tenured/ or tenure-track). Prior to analysis, the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were assessed.

Normality assumption.

The dependent variable, instructor-efficacy scores, should be approximately normally distributed. This was assessed using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test. Results of the KS tests showed significance for instructor-efficacy scores (p = .040), indicating that the assumption of normality was not met. However, the ANOVA is a strong analysis for violations of assumptions and Howell (2013) stated that non-normality has an insufficient effect on a Type I error.

Assumption for homogeneity of variance.

The assumption for homogeneity of variance was assessed with a Levene's test for instructor-efficacy scores between the employment groups. Results for Levene's test

did not indicate significance for instructor-efficacy scores (p = .602). The assumption of equal variances was met for instructor-efficacy scores.

Results of ANOVA.

Results of the ANOVA were not statistically significant, $F(2, 101) = 1.71$, p = .187, η^2 = .033, suggesting that there were not significant differences in instructor-efficacy scores by employment status. Due to non-significance of the model, post hoc tests were not conducted on instructor-efficacy scores. Due to the normality assumption not being met for instructor-efficacy scores, a Kruskal-Wallis test was used as a nonparametric alternative to the ANOVA. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test did not indicate significance $\chi^2(2) = 1.89$, p = .389 and further confirmed the findings of the ANOVA. There is not sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis for research question two ($H_0 2$). Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 6. Means and standard deviations for the instructor-efficacy scores are presented in Table 7. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test are presented in Table 8.

Table 6

ANOVA for Instructor-Efficacy Scores by Employment Status

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	η^2
Employment Status	2	2.31	1.16	1.71	.187	.033
Error	101	68.46	0.68			
Total	104	4655.36				

Note. Factors for employment status include part-time, full-time nontenure, full-time tenured (or tenure track).

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for Instructor-Efficacy Scores

Continuous Variables	*M*	*SD*
Instructor-efficacy scores		
Part-time (Adjunct)	6.86	0.91
Full-time nontenure	6.60	0.74
Full-time tenured (or tenure track)	6.51	0.80

Table 8

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Instructor-Efficacy Scores by Employment Status

	Mean Ranks			$\chi^2(2)$	*p*
	Part-time (adjunct)	Full-time nontenure	Full-time tenured (or tenure-track)		
Instructor-efficacy scores	58.56	50.42	49.48	1.89	.389

Research Question 3 (RQ3)

RQ3: What is the effect of community college instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD?

- $H_0$3: There is no effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD.

- Ha3: There is an effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD.

To address RQ3, I conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to assess the effect of instructors' employment status on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED. The continuous dependent variable corresponded to knowledge, as measured by the TSEBD. The independent variable corresponded to employment status – part-time, full-time nontenure, full-time tenured (or tenure-track). Prior to analysis, the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were assessed.

Normality assumption.

The dependent variable, knowledge scores, should be approximately normally distributed. This was assessed using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test. Results of the KS tests showed significance for knowledge scores ($p < .001$), indicating that the assumption of normality was not met. However, the ANOVA is a strong analysis for violations of assumptions and non-normality has an insufficient effect on a Type I error (Howell, 2013).

Assumption for homogeneity of variance.

The assumption for homogeneity of variance was assessed with a Levene's test for knowledge scores between the employment groups. Results for Levene's test did not

indicate significance for knowledge scores (p = .059). The assumption of equal variances was met for knowledge scores.

Results of ANOVA.

Results of the ANOVA were statistically significant, $F(2, 101) = 3.32$, $p = .040$, $\eta^2 = .062$, suggesting that there were significant differences in knowledge scores by employment status. Due to the significant differences, post hoc tests were conducted on knowledge scores through LSD comparisons. Part-time (adjunct) instructors had significantly higher knowledge scores than instructors with full-time nontenure and full-time tenure (or tenure track). Due to the normality assumption not being met for knowledge scores, a Kruskal-Wallis test was used as a nonparametric alternative to the ANOVA. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test did not indicate significance $\chi^2(2) = 3.96$, $p = .138$ and contradicted the findings of the ANOVA. Due to significance of the ANOVA model, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis for research question three ($H_0 3$). Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 9. Means and standard deviations for the knowledge scores are presented in Table 10. Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test are presented in Table 11.

Table 9

ANOVA for Knowledge Scores by Employment Status

Source	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	η^2
Employment Status	2	211.74	105.87	3.32	.040	.062
Error	101	3218.02	31.86			
Total	104					

Note. Factors for employment status include part-time, full-time nontenure, full-time tenured/ tenure-track).

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Knowledge Scores

Continuous Variables	*M*	*SD*
Knowledge scores		
Part-time (Adjunct)	30.44	4.45
Full-time nontenure	27.28	6.77
Full-time tenured (or tenure-track)	27.38	5.72

Table 11

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Knowledge Scores by Employment Status

	Mean Ranks			$\chi^2(2)$	*p*
	Part-time (adjunct)	Full-time nontenure	Full-time tenured (or tenure-track)		
Knowledge scores	61.30	49.02	48.36	3.96	.138

Additional analysis.

An additional analysis was conducted to examine whether significant differences existed in number of years instructing between employment groups. Due to number of years instructing being an ordinal level variable – 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, 21-25 years, 26-30 years, 31 + years, a nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used to analyze possible differences. A Kruskal-Wallis test is appropriate when analyzing for differences in an ordinal level variable between groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test were not significant, $\chi^2(2) = 1.40$, $p = .496$, suggesting that there were not significant differences in years of instructing between the employment

groups. Due to nonsignificance, further multiple linear regression analyses were not conducted. Table 12 presents the findings of the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Table 12

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Number of Years Instructing by Employment Status

Source	$\chi^2(2)$	*p*
Employment Status	1.40	.496

Summary

Chapter 4 presented the findings of the data collection process. A pre-analysis data screen was conducted to examine for missing responses and accurate scores. Descriptive statistics were conducted for the demographic traits, instructing characteristics, and continuous level variables. The detailed analysis was then presented by research question and corresponding hypotheses.

Results of the Pearson correlation for RQ1 indicated a statistically significant positive association between knowledge and instructor-efficacy of instructors. In addition, a linear regression indicated that a significant predictive relationship exists between knowledge and instructor-efficacy of instructors. Therefore, the null hypothesis for research question one was rejected.

Results of the ANOVA for RQ2 indicated that there were not statistically significant differences in instructor-efficacy between the employment groups. The null hypothesis for research question two was not rejected. Results of the ANOVA for RQ3 indicated that there were statistically significant differences in instructor knowledge

between the three employment groups. The null hypothesis for research question three was rejected.

Chapter 5 includes a detailed discussion of these findings. Additionally, connections are made back to the literature and theoretical framework of instructor-efficacy that informs this study. Lastly, Chapter 5 provides conclusions and recommendations based on the survey results for community college instructors and future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

This chapter interprets the results presented in Chapter 4 about U.S. community college instructors' knowledge of emotional disorder (ED)-related instructional strategies. A summary of this study is included to review the purpose, research problem, methodology, and research questions. An interpretation of the findings is presented and includes a discussion of how the results relate to the present literature and the theoretical framework of instructor-efficacy. It also presents recommendations for practice within the community college profession, including this study's implications for social change. This chapter concludes with recommendations for further research.

Summary of the Study

This study was designed to examine community college instructors' teaching instructor-efficacy, knowledge of classroom strategies for ED, and level of instructor employment status. It had three specific research purposes:

- to analyze whether a statistically significant relationship existed between instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for ED and instructors' teaching efficacy beliefs,
- to analyze whether statistically significant relationships existed between part-time and full-time employment on community college instructor-efficacy beliefs while ensuring inclusion of adult students with ED, and

- to analyze whether statistically significant relationships existed between part-time and full-time employment on community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for the inclusion of adult students with ED.

These purposes resulted from a review of the literature and discovery of the following. During this review, I made seven key findings:

1. There are competing views of best educational practices for ED at compulsory schooling levels and a lack of information specifically for the community college level.
2. Community college instructors typically do not need a broader knowledge of classroom management practices, teaching skills, or general pedagogical methods as conditions for employment (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Lombardi & Murray, 2011).
3. Since the number of students with disabilities attending community colleges has tripled in the past three decades instructors will encounter students with ED in the classroom whether they have been officially notified by the college disability services office or not (Connor, 2012).
4. Instructor-efficacy has been found to influence teaching behaviors and how instructors choose strategies (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Margolis, 2012).
5. Training programs offered for community college instructors regarding classroom strategies for the student population with ED may be limited or nonexistent (Lombardi & Murray, 2011).

6. U.S. federal laws mandate the provision of reasonable accommodations for students with disabilities; however, these federal laws do not explicitly state what types of classroom management strategies are necessary for adult students with ED (Kelepouris, 2014).
7. Teaching practices have been found to differ between part-time instructors and full-time faculty in regards to presentation of course material (Lei, 2007).

This study specifically explored current community college instructors' teaching efficacy beliefs, knowledge of ED classroom strategies, and level of employment status (part-time, full-time nontenured, and full-time tenured). Two survey instruments were utilized: Teaching Students with Emotional Behavior Disorders (TSEBD) and the Ohio State Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale (OSTES). Quantitative data were collected and a descriptive understanding of instructor-efficacy, knowledge of classroom strategies for ED, and level of employment status was obtained. I crafted this study to generate a descriptive understanding to inform community college teaching practices and offer insights and suggestions for professional development specifically for instructor training.

Instructor Demographics

The study sample was drawn from a population of 201 community college instructors at two community colleges in the MidWestern United States. Responses were collected during the Spring 2016 semester. Initially, 117 responses were obtained but 13 were removed for not completing the TSEBD instrument for knowledge. All remaining instructor participant responses had scores within the range of possible values for

instructor-efficacy and knowledge. The final sample therefore consisted of 104 U.S. community college instructors.

I used descriptive statistics for the sample, including frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations; the following information emerged. First, a balanced mix of instructors responded: 32 part-time instructors, 24 full-time nontenured instructors, and 47 full-time tenured instructors. Seventy-two out of the 104 instructor sample had Master's degrees, 14 had obtained PhD degrees, 13 had obtained BA degrees, and five did not disclose their degree status.

The distribution for numbers of years instructing was approximately equal between the different time frames in years. The time frames for instructing and total responses included:

- 1-5 year time frame totaled 13 responses.
- 6-10 year time frame totaled 15 responses.
- 11-15 year time frame totaled 16 responses.
- 16-20 year time frame totaled 11 responses.
- 21-25 year time frame totaled 22 responses.
- 26-30 year time frame totaled 10 responses.
- 31 and over time frame totaled 17 responses.

The sample obtained differed slightly from the national statistics in the ASHE Higher Education Report (2010). The ASHE report stated that part-time instructor employment had grown faster than full-time tenured or nontenured employment causing the majority of community college faculty to consist of part-time instructors. The sample

obtained in this study of community college instructors consisted of approximately equal part-time, full-time tenured, and nontenured community college instructor responses.

Interpretation of Findings

Research Question 1 (RQ1)

RQ1: What is the relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD test, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale?

- H01: There is no relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD test, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.
- Ha1: There is a relationship between community college instructors' knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD, and instructor-efficacy scores measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.

This study identified a positive relationship between community college instructors' scores on knowledge of ED classroom management strategies and instructor-efficacy scores. The null hypothesis was rejected. Data presented in Chapter 4 indicated a statistically significant association between knowledge of ED classroom strategies and instructor-efficacy scores. A simple linear regression showed as instructors scored higher on knowledge of ED classroom strategies, they also scored higher in instructor-efficacy.

The reverse was also true. As some instructors scored lower on knowledge of ED classroom strategies, they also scored lower in instructor-efficacy. Dicke et al. (2014) and Holzberger et al. (2013) supported this circular nature of the efficacy process.

The literature presented in Chapter 2 also implied that self-efficacy theory, developed by Albert Bandura, would explain the positive relationship found between knowledge of ED classroom strategies and instructor-efficacy. For instance, the literature highlighted how instructors with high instructor-efficacy are more likely to use classroom management strategies efficiently, and have fewer classroom management problems which in turn positively affects instructional quality (Dicke et al., 2014; Holzberger et al., 2013). A good instructing experience provides positive mastery experiences that can increase efficacy beliefs (Brown, 2012; Dicke et al., 2014; Holzberger et al., 2013). The positive relationship between instructors' scores of ED classroom knowledge and instructor-efficacy from this study further supports this aspect of self-efficacy theory.

Within the TSEBD measure that was used to assess instructor knowledge of ED, an instructor knowledge ranking scale was included. Instructors were asked to rank five areas of instructor knowledge on personally perceived importance. A rank of 1 meant the area was perceived as the most important area of instructor knowledge and 5 meant the least important area for instructor knowledge. The five items to be ranked by instructors included knowledge of instructional strategies, behavior management, curriculum, theory and research, and special education and special education laws.

Knowledge of curriculum received the highest frequency of number one rankings (n = 44, 42.3%). Knowledge of special education and special education laws received the

highest frequency of number five rankings (n = 62, 59.6%). The data from this ranking question showed that the majority of instructors' opinions placed the least amount of importance on knowledge of special education and special education laws. This means that the majority of instructors from this sample did not place as high of a priority on knowing classroom strategies for students with ED than they did on other aspects of instruction.

The ranking data is important because the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 documented a relationship between classroom knowledge, and instructor-efficacy. According to Bandura (2006) instructors' efficacy beliefs relate to their abilities to plan, organize, and accomplish activities required to reach educational goals. Instructor-efficacy can be affected by both positive and negative classroom experiences (Holzberger et al., 2013). Since students affected by ED bring potential challenges to the classroom setting, it is important this study discovered that instructors rated knowledge of special education so low. The implication of devaluing special education in this case has the potential to negatively affect instructor-efficacy based on classroom experiences.

Since the current best practice for teaching individuals with disabilities is to have full inclusion in general education classrooms (Gotshall & Stefanou, 2011) knowledge of how to handle the emotional and behavioral challenges occurring in the classroom will influence instructors' sense of instructor-efficacy. Due to the practice of not requiring community college instructors to have training in classroom strategies for students with ED (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Lombardi & Murray, 2011) and this study's finding of a positive relationship between ED knowledge and

instructor-efficacy scores, a need for specific training of ED classroom strategies for instructors was discovered.

These findings, resulting from interpretation of the data from RQ1, suggest a need for professional development training opportunities for community college instructors. Specifically, a need exists for training instructors regarding classroom strategies for students affected by ED. Training opportunities would help in supporting high instructor-efficacy. Providing professional development opportunities for community college instructors to further their knowledge, specifically of classroom strategies for students affected by ED, also enables positive social change in the field.

Research Question 2 (RQ2)

RQ2: What is the effect of community college instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale?

- $H_0$2: There is no effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.
- Ha2: There is an effect between the instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on instructor-efficacy scores as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to assess the effect of instructors' employment status on instructor-efficacy scores. The dependent variable corresponded to instructor-efficacy, as measured by the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy

Scale (OSTES). The independent variable corresponded to employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, full-time tenured or tenure track). Results of the ANOVA were not statistically significant. These results showed no significant differences in instructor-efficacy scores across the differing levels of employment status.

According to self-efficacy theory instructor-efficacy is affected by how influential instructors believe they are within the context of student learning (Bandura, 2006). Motivation and environmental conditions have proven to have significant effects on instructor-efficacy (Holzberger et al., 2013). Since no significant differences in instructor-efficacy scores across levels of employment status were found in this study, self-efficacy theory would suggest that employment status is not a motivational or environmental condition that influences instructors' beliefs about their ability to teach.

Research Question 3 (RQ3)

RQ3: What is the effect of community college instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD?

- $H_0$3: There is no effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD.
- Ha3: There is an effect of instructors' employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenure-track) on the knowledge of classroom

management strategies for students affected by ED, as measured by the TSEBD.

To address RQ3, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to assess the effect of instructors' employment status on the knowledge of classroom management strategies for students affected by ED. The dependent variable corresponded to knowledge, as measured by the TSEBD. The independent variable corresponded to employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, full-time tenured or tenure-track).

Results of the ANOVA were statistically significant. These results showed significant differences in knowledge scores by employment status. Due to the significant differences, post hoc tests were conducted on knowledge scores through LSD comparisons. The analysis showed that part-time instructors had significantly higher knowledge scores regarding ED than instructors with full-time nontenure and full-time tenure employment status. This finding suggests that part-time instructors are more educated regarding classroom management strategies for ED than full-time instructors.

These results differed from what would be expected based on the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. Specifically, a debate presented from the literature in Chapter 2 focused on the quality of instruction. For example, it was discussed that a common practice of community colleges is to hire part-time instructors as they can pay them less, and can hire or release them on short notice. This hiring practice was suggested by Wilson (2013) to put part-time instructors at marked disadvantages compared to full-time instructors. For example, part-time instructors are often limited in their campus hours due to working other jobs and without the possibility of tenure, concern was presented in the

literature over how motivated instructors are to the practice of teaching (Lei, 2007; Rossi, 2009; Wilson, 2013).

The sample of part-time instructors in this study did not exemplify the concerns outlined in the literature. These results are thought provoking and warrant further research as to why. Self-efficacy theory would suggest that part-time instructors have a greater opportunity for diversified mastery experiences. Mastery experiences were described by Bandura (2006) as successfully obtaining knowledge to master a subject or task. Since having mastery experiences constitutes a source of efficacy (Bandura, 2006) it can be reasoned that part-time instructors have greater potential for mastery experiences pertaining to knowledge of ED since they are often employed by more than one community college.

What this study sample was able to confirm was the existence of differing levels in knowledge for ED classroom management strategies between part-time and full-time instructors. Part-time instructors did not have perfect scores on the TSEBD measure that assessed for ED knowledge but their scores showed significantly higher levels of knowledge for ED than both full-time nontenured and full-time tenured instructors. This finding can help to direct thinking regarding professional development opportunities.

This knowledge suggests a need to fully equip all instructors with more substantial knowledge of ED classroom strategies and management techniques. Based on this study's finding, training opportunities need to be tailored to specifically address knowledge gaps between part-time and full-time instructors. This means community colleges first need to assess knowledge instructors have and then develop differing

professional development training options pertaining to ED that include specific classroom management strategies.

Lastly, this study not only found a positive relationship between knowledge of classroom strategies for ED and instructor-efficacy but also an overall instructor perception that devalued knowledge of special education which includes knowledge of ED. Taken together, these findings suggest an opportunity to positively increase instructor-efficacy by providing educational professional development pertaining to ED classroom strategies while also emphasizing the value of ED knowledge. This conclusion is also supported by Holtzberger et.al's (2013) findings that instructors with greater instructor-efficacy maintained higher levels of persistence and mastery. Additionally, it could be stated that without providing professional development opportunities pertaining to the of knowledge of ED, instructors would be in jeopardy of establishing lower instructor-efficacy judgements culminating in lower levels of instructional quality (Holzberger et. al, 2013; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

Limitations

A limitation of this study centered on utilizing two community colleges located within the Midwestern United States. To have greater generalizability of results, future studies would be advised to include community colleges located in varying areas across the United States. Having a more diverse population of community college participation would provide greater generalizability of results.

A second limitation of this study centered on the final sample size obtained. Although the desired sample size was initially reached, 13 responses were incomplete

and were thrown out. This left 104 surveys that made up the final sample size for this study when 116 surveys were desired. Missing data is a common complication of any study. While conducting data analyses detailed in Chapter 4 the researcher addressed this limitation by assessing normality, homogeneity of variance, and by conducting ANOVA tests. The sample size was large enough so achievement of adequate power was not a concern.

Implications for Positive Social Change

Within the field of community college instruction, there is a need to prepare instructors to meet the challenges that students affected by ED present in the classroom (Kelepouris, 2014). One characteristic of instructors that this study showed was a common devaluing of special education knowledge. This finding highlights a need to not only prepare instructors with knowledge of classroom strategies for ED but also to educate instructors on the value of this knowledge for their instructor-efficacy.

Without utilizing teaching strategies, students with ED are likely to experience failure in the inclusive college classroom and instructors will experience problematic classroom management (Evans, Weiss, & Cullinan, 2012). Additionally, as reviewed in Chapter 2, having decreased knowledge of classroom management strategies when dealing with challenging emotional and behavioral disruptions can negatively affect instructing- efficacy which in turn negatively affects instructional quality (Dicke et al., 2014; Holzberger et al., 2013).

Preparation and training of instructors should incorporate professional development opportunities that are centered on real classroom contexts, and are aligned

with the goals and needs of instructors (Leko & Brownell, 2009). Since part-time instructors and full-time instructors evidenced differing knowledge levels of ED strategies and classroom management, professional development training needs to be tailored to the specific needs of instructors. By creating professional development opportunities for instructors that incorporate training options for differing educational needs pertaining to ED, positive social change will follow for the community college instructor profession.

To expand on this need for professional development, specifically pertaining to ED knowledge for instructors, it is important to further emphasize the findings from this study and how they relate to the real world community college instructor experience. For instance, the data gained from this study identified a relationship between the beliefs instructors have about their teaching abilities (instructor-efficacy) and their knowledge of best practices for students affected by ED. As stated in Chapter 2, community college instructors are not required to have knowledge of teaching practices for employment (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Lombardi & Murray, 2011). This is concerning since this study found a relationship between instructor-efficacy and knowledge of ED. Based on self-efficacy theory, not only would instructor confidence increase with knowledge of ED strategies but also instructional quality as instructors would be able to choose appropriate strategies in differing situations (Holzberger et al., 2013). This evidences the need to provide quality professional development opportunities to expand instructor knowledge of best ED strategies to create positive social change for the profession of community college instructors.

Additionally, data gained from this study identified that part-time instructors were found to have higher levels of knowledge concerning classroom strategies for students affected by ED. This implies that full-time instructors were less knowledgeable regarding classroom strategies for ED than part-time instructors. This information signifies the need for professional development opportunities that are relevant for both part-time and full-time instructors. Various instructional content needs to be offered regarding ED, classroom strategies, and classroom management to effectually produce positive social change.

Since instructors at the community college level commonly have knowledge and expertise in one specific area of content versus a broader knowledge of classroom management practices, or teaching skills (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Lombardi & Murray, 2011), training in specific classroom strategies for ED would enable positive social change. Furthermore, considering that community college instructors are required to provide equity in education so that all students have access to effective instruction (Kelepouris, 2014), providing professional development pertaining to ED is necessary to produce positive social change.

It is intended that the data from this study will contribute to positive social change for the community college profession by informing and encouraging quality professional development training specifically regarding the value of ED classroom knowledge. Additionally, teaching and learning should be a part of a campus culture. Some of the knowledge gained by instructors already employed should be capitalized on to increase the quality of instruction.

Recommendations for Action

There are two recommendations for future action based on the findings of this study. First, this study found a need for professional development training specifically regarding classroom strategies for ED. Based on the findings from this study, there may already be some part-time instructors that have a broad knowledge base of ED classroom strategies that could be tapped into when planning specific training for all instructors. Since instructor-efficacy can be affected by instructing experiences (Brown, 2012; Dicke et al., 2014; Holzberger et al., 2013), and it is likely that instructors will encounter adult students affected by ED (Connor, 2012), there is need to fully equip all instructors with classroom strategies for students affected with ED.

Second, although the need exists at the community college level to educate instructors regarding ED strategies, the field has not expanded enough to examine management strategies that would be the most effective for postsecondary adult students (Lane et al., 2012). Since there has not been any examination of the interventions discussed in Chapter 2 at postsecondary levels for students with ED, they represent the available classroom management strategies that community college instructors may be educated about.

Recommendations for Further Research

The finding that the sample in this study showed part-time instructors as more knowledgeable regarding ED than full-time instructors does create a need for further research to achieve a definitive answer as to why. Future research would also benefit from a larger sample taken from diverse areas. By broadening and increasing the amount

of community college participation the generalizability of results would be expanded. Additional research would also benefit from a qualitative design in which instructor experiences, training, opinions, and perspectives could be further investigated.

It is expected that the data from this study will incite future research specifically pertaining to why instructors responded in the way that they did. Conducting a qualitative research design would be beneficial for two reasons. First it would help in uncovering the reasons behind instructors' responses and secondly it would provide a context for instructors' perceptions of ED strategies.

There is also a need for future research to specifically address the classroom management strategies for ED at the community college level. Lane et al. (2012) highlighted the fact that much has been focused on students at compulsory levels of education but no true exploration of classroom strategies for ED has taken place at the community college level. At the time of this study, community college instructors should be educated regarding the available knowledge of classroom strategies for those affected by ED. The need still exists to examine specific strategies that work best for community college classrooms and adult students with ED. Future research should endeavor to fill these gaps in knowledge that still exist.

Conclusion

The overall purposes of this study involved the examination of instructor-efficacy and knowledge of ED classroom strategies held by community college instructors and to distinguish differences between instructors based on employment status. Responses to RQ1 indicated a statistically significant association between knowledge and instructor-

efficacy scores. This meant that the data showed a positive relationship between instructor knowledge of classroom strategies for individuals with ED and instructors' beliefs about their instructing abilities. As knowledge scores increased, instructor-efficacy scores also increased.

Responses to the RQ2 indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in instructor-efficacy scores based on employment status. Since no significant differences in instructor-efficacy scores across levels of employment status were found in this study, self-efficacy theory would suggest that employment status is not a motivational or environmental condition that influences instructors' beliefs about their ability to teach. Responses to RQ3 showed that, contrary to the concerns and information presented in Chapter 2 by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2009), Holzberger et al. (2013), Lane et al. (2012), and Wilson (2013), part-time instructors did not prove less knowledgeable regarding educational philosophies and classroom strategies for students with ED. Instead, part-time instructors were found to be more knowledgeable especially for ED classroom strategies than both full-time nontenured, and full-time tenured instructors.

The Americans with Disabilities Act and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act state only that discrimination must not occur against students with disabilities within the community college setting, they do not provide details on universal learning strategies or effective practices (Kelepouris, 2014). It is also important to note that community college instructors are not required to have higher degrees that incorporate knowledge in teaching practices, classroom management, or strategies for including students with needs due to

ED (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2009; Lombardi & Murray, 2011). This practice should create concern especially for students affected by ED as they are more likely to experience failure in the inclusive college classroom and instructors will experience problematic classroom management (Evans, Weiss, & Cullinan, 2012).

A major conclusion from this study concerns that a broader knowledge of classroom management strategies pertaining to ED would better equip the community college instructor and help instructors retain a higher sense of instructor-efficacy. Professional development opportunities are needed specifically regarding classroom strategies for instructors when encountering students affected with ED.

An additional conclusion concerned the need for professional development opportunities to be tailored to the specific needs of the instructor population. Since this study found that part-time instructors had a wider knowledge base for ED, professional development opportunities that are relevant for both part-time and full-time instructors is required. Various instructional content needs to be offered regarding ED, classroom strategies, and classroom management.

Even though students may or may not have met official eligibility for obtaining accommodation services through the college disability service office (Kelepouris, 2014) it is still likely that community college instructors' will encounter students affected by ED due to the increase of students with disabilities attempting college courses (Connor, 2012). Results of the current study suggest that it would be beneficial for the community college profession to provide instructor training opportunities that address the knowledge gaps pertaining to ED that instructors' have. Professional training is not only necessary to

fully abide by legal requirements but to also provide instructors the opportunity to enhance their instructor-efficacy which in turn will have a positive effect on instructional quality.

By increasing instructor-efficacy, specifically regarding situations when instructors are working with individuals affected by ED, instructors will be more likely to choose better classroom strategies (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Margolis, 2012), have fewer classroom management problems, and instructional quality will improve (Dicke et al., 2014; Holzberger et al., 2013). These positive outcomes for instructors enable positive social change within the community college profession.

Results suggest that the relationship between knowledge of classroom strategies and instructor-efficacy will be positively affected when instructors and community college administrators pay attention to this professional development need. Additionally, results suggest community colleges should be informed that their part-time work force may have knowledge and abilities that could be tapped into as an asset. Part-time instructors have been labeled within the literature as not having as highly coveted knowledge and teaching practices as full-time instructors. The results of this study did not find that to be true regarding knowledge of ED.

Limitations remain in that the knowledge of effectual classroom strategies that exist presently have been obtained from studies based on compulsory levels of education. This knowledge serves only as a starting point for community college instructors to gain knowledge about. Further research, specifically regarding instruction at the community college level, continues to be warranted.

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Appendix A: Permission From Test Developers

Permission to use the Ohio Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (OSTES)

College of Education Phone 614-292-3774
29 West Woodruff Avenue www.coe.ohio-state.edu/ahoy FAX 614-292-7900
Columbus, Ohio 43210-1177 Hoy.17@osu.edu
Anita Woolfolk Hoy, Ph.D. Professor
Psychological Studies in Education

You have my permission to use the *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale* in your research. A copy the scoring instructions can be found at:
http://u.osu.edu/hoy.17/research/instruments/
Best wishes in your work,
Anita Woolfolk Hoy, Ph.D.
Professor Emeritus

Permission to use Teaching Students with Emotional Behavioral Disorders (TSEBD)

HI Andrea -

I'm so glad that our research has proven useful for you! I continue to find that specific teacher competencies are among the most valuable tools I use and recommend to others. Here are the original Word documents for the TSEBD. Sorry, I did not find the answer key right away, but I will copy it off and send it along too, ASAP. Congratulations on making it this far and good luck on your dissertation!

Best - Lori

Appendix B: Study Invitation Letter

Dear Colleague,

Currently I am in the process of conducting research for my doctoral dissertation in Psychology at Walden University. I am interested in knowing about your teaching strategies and techniques in the classroom especially when encountering students affected by Emotional Disorders. This research is unique as it addresses an area of higher education that has been insufficiently researched with an instructor population that has seen dramatic changes in employment opportunities. Most literature to date has centered on instructors at compulsory levels of education. Your input can provide a voice that will provide necessary insights regarding classroom strategies utilized at the community college level that may influence the creation of meaningful professional development opportunities.

I am asking for your participation either by completing the paper and pencil version attached or by going to the following Survey Monkey web link _____. This survey is completely anonymous and voluntary. No identifying information is requested. I am requesting surveys be completed over the next three weeks and returned by March 1st, 2016.

Please don't hesitate to contact me if you have any questions. You may reach me at _____ or andrea.haglin@waldenu.edu. My contact information is also provided on the consent form attached to the survey.

I thank you in advance and greatly appreciate your participation in this dissertation study!

Warm regards,

Andrea Haglin
Psychology Instructor

Appendix C: Cover Letter and Consent Form

You are invited to participate in a dissertation survey research study regarding your beliefs and teaching strategies when including students affected by Emotional Disorders (ED) at _____ Community College. You were chosen for this study as you are actively teaching during the Spring 2016 academic semester. Please read through this letter and feel free to ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be part of the study.

This study is being conducted by Andrea Haglin who is a doctoral student at Walden University. Andrea Haglin is also an instructor at the community college listed above.

Background Information:
The purpose of this dissertation study is to examine relationships between knowledge of ED, teaching beliefs, and employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, and full-time tenured) at the community college level. Most literature to date is based on compulsory levels of schooling. This study is unique as it addresses an area of higher education that has been insufficiently researched with an instructor population that has undergone dramatic changes in employment status due to a troubled economy.

Procedures:
If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to take approximately 25 minutes to complete an anonymous survey. The survey will ask your employment status (part-time, full-time nontenure, or full time tenure), your teaching beliefs, and knowledge of teaching strategies for students with ED. Completed paper surveys may be returned in the secure drop-box provided in the Ridgewater faculty mail room.

Voluntary and Anonymous Nature of the Study:
Your participation in this study is both voluntary and anonymous. Your decision of whether to participate or not will be respected. If you begin the survey and wish to stop you may do so. Since the survey is anonymous, completing the survey will indicate consent. You may want to keep this consent form.

Risks/Benefits of Participation:
Risks: There is a possibility that you may feel coerced to participate as the researcher is also an instructor at the community college. All data collected is confidential as no identifying information is requested. If preferred, data may be collected through Survey Monkey, an Internet survey research tool. Due to the anonymous nature of the study there is no known risk to participants.

Benefits: You may benefit from seeing how insights from this study add to the knowledge base of community college level instruction and aid administrators in identifying areas truly of worth to support instructors' in their professional development.

Compensation:
There is no compensation for participating in this study other than knowing you have helped a colleague.

Confidentiality:
Any information that you provide will be completely anonymous. There will be no identifying information obtained. The research gathered will not be used for any other purpose outside this dissertation project.

Researcher Contact Information and Questions:
The researcher's name is Andrea Haglin. If you have any concerns or questions pertaining to this study, you may contact the researcher via phone at _____ or andrea.haglin@waldenu.edu. If you wish to privately discuss your rights as a participant in this study you may contact _____. She is the Director of Institutional Effectiveness for Research at _____ College. Her phone number is _____.

Thank you in advance for your time,
Andrea Haglin

Appendix D: Follow-up Reminder Email

Dear Colleague,

Recently you received an invitation to participate in survey research pertaining to your beliefs about teaching and strategies you utilize for students affected with Emotional Disorders. The research is being conducted as part of a dissertation study I am conducting to obtain my doctoral degree through Walden University. Since the majority of research done in this area to date has inefficiently incorporated community college instructors, it is important to gain your perspective and voice. The information collected via the anonymous survey will contribute to the knowledge base and may also influence future professional development options impacting community colleges and their faculty.

If you have already completed the survey, I greatly appreciate your participation. If you have not yet completed the survey, this is a hopeful reminder to complete the survey via this web link _____ by_____,2016.

Even though your participation is voluntary, your personal knowledge and perspectives are highly valued. All information provided by you is completely anonymous as no identifying information will be collected.

Thank you for your time and participation in this dissertation study,

Andrea Haglin
Walden University doctoral student
Instructor at _____ community college