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PROACTIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES IN U.S. MIDDLE AND SECONDARY

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APPROVED

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Abstract

Knowledge of classroom management strategies has great importance for middle and secondary teachers. The present research aims to consolidate findings on evidence-based, proactive classroom management strategies for adolescents that can be effectively used by middle and high school teachers of all experience levels. Results suggest that relationship building, antecedent attention, positive verbal feedback, opportunities to respond, proactive discipline, and parental involvement increase engagement and decrease disruptive behavior in middle and secondary classrooms. Veteran, new, and preservice teachers should evaluate and update their classroom management strategies to reflect current, evidence-based practices.

Keywords: adolescent, classroom behavior, classroom management, disruptive behaviors, proactive strategies, secondary education

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Both veteran and novice teachers discuss the difficulty in managing student behaviors in the classroom. Whether it be reinforcing positive behaviors or addressing negative ones, this aspect of classroom management has no one, clear cut answer. Additionally, the array of tasks each teacher takes on leaves little time to spare. Between lesson planning, meetings, and grading, teachers must prioritize. Classroom management requires as much forethought as lesson planning to be successful. However, it is much easier to walk into the classroom without a plan to proactively address misbehaviors than it is to walk in without a lesson plan. Prioritizing classroom management below other tasks perpetuates misbehaviors.

As a first-year teacher, I was consumed by my lesson plans. I was of the mindset that I could effectively handle classroom management issues as they arose as long as I knew how to deliver the instruction. Without a plan, my classroom management became reactive instead of proactive. Research shows that proactive classroom management subdues many potential issues around behavior before they arise (Brinkworth, McIntyre, Juraschek, & Gehlbach, 2018; Collier-Meek, Johnson, Sanetti, & Minami, 2019; Pas, Cash, O'Brennan, Debnam, & Bradshaw, 2015). Reactive strategies lead to punitive management, such as yelling and repetitive seating chart changes (Little & Akin-Little, 2008; Mayer, 1995, as cited in Cook et al., 2018). Simply covering the rules with my students, posting them on the wall, and reminding the class of them for the first few weeks was not enough. As the semester and year progressed, it became more difficult to walk into my classroom without a management plan.

As I began discussing my qualms with other teachers, each had a different opinion. Most would tell me their story, then land on the same piece of advice: "you will figure out your style

eventually, it just takes time." But I began to wonder, how many years of mismanaging my classroom would it take to find my style? And by the time that happened, would I still love teaching? Initial research showed that workload and classroom management issues were key factors in teacher burnout and retention (Aud et al., 2011; Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2004). In an effort to remain on the positive side of that statistic, I dove in. What strategies are effective in maintaining a positive learning environment? How can I implement those strategies in my own classroom? I wanted to formulate an evidence-based classroom management plan.

Rationale

The need for additional research in classroom management is evident for three reasons. First, teachers have identified the need for more resources to successfully manage their classrooms (Christofferson & Sullivan, 2015; Melnick & Meister, 2008; Pace, Boykins, & Davis, 2014; Romano, 2008; Sciuchetti & Yssel, 2019; Stough, Montague, Landmark, & Williams-Diehm, 2015). Second, classroom management is cited as a source of teacher burnout and eventual career changes (Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2014; Aud et al., 2011; Benham Tye & O'Brien, 2002; Emmer & Stough, 2001; Evers et al., 2004). Finally, a poorly managed classroom has negative impacts on student learning and engagement (Emmer & Stough, 2001; Marzano, 2007; Thompson, 2013).

Teachers have self-identified the need for more education on effective classroom management strategies. Participants of a study of preservice teachers consistently asked for more evidence-based classroom management strategies and practices (Sciuchetti & Yssel, 2019). Additionally, preservice teachers often feel unprepared to manage a classroom after completing their licensure program and student teaching (Christofferson & Sullivan, 2015).

Romano (2008) found that 22% of struggles for first year teachers were related to classroom management. Melnick and Meister (2008) surveyed 301 novice teachers (fewer than three years of experience) and 193 experienced teachers and found that novice teachers felt more unprepared to handle the demands of classroom management than their more experienced counterparts.

However, the need for more classroom management education does not lie solely with new teachers. Pace, Boykins, and Davis (2014) found that most of the 26 middle school teachers surveyed felt underprepared or ineffective in their classroom management. A study done with 62 experienced special education teachers found that the majority (83%) of those teachers felt underprepared in the areas of classroom management and behavioral interventions (Stough et al., 2015). The majority of teachers in this study also reported learning the most about classroom management from their experiences rather than formal, preservice coursework (Stough et al., 2015). More must be done to educate teachers of all experience levels in effective strategies for managing a classroom in order to increase engagement and learning.

Second, difficulties with classroom management are cited as a reason for beginning teacher career changes and teacher burnout (Aud et al., 2011; Evers et al., 2004). Aud et al. (2011) found that of all teachers who left the teaching profession after the 2008-2009 school year, those with fewer than three years of experience made up 33% (combined public and private school). Of that, 10% were from public schools and 23% were from private schools. For public schools, this is second only to teachers with more than 20 years of experience (11%),

which was presumed to be retiring teachers. This suggests that new teachers are more likely to stop teaching than teachers from any other level of experience.

Classroom management struggles ranked among the top three reasons teachers left the profession in a study of 114 active and inactive teachers from California (Benham Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Emmer and Stough (2001) established that classroom management plays a strong role in teacher emotions, and that strong, negative emotions can lead to teacher burnout. Evers et al. (2004) found a significant relationship between disruptive classroom behavior and teacher exhaustion. Aloe et al. (2014) suggested that teachers with better classroom management skills were less likely to experience burnout. They found that as classroom management self-efficacy decreases, teachers become more emotionally exhausted and further removed from their classrooms. They defined teacher self-efficacy as "the extent to which a teacher believes that (s)he is able to teach even the most difficult and unmotivated students, and involves many dimensions of teacher practices" (Aloe et al., 2014, p. 105).

Finally, when a classroom is not managed effectively, student learning and engagement are negatively impacted. Emmer and Stough (2001) argued that student learning is a direct result of good classroom management. They stated that the goal of classroom management is on-task behavior so that students can be engaged and learning can occur. Marzano (2007) stated that poorly managed classrooms inhibit learning and often lead to chaos. In other words, in a mismanaged or unmanaged classroom, students are not able to learn.

Additionally, some forms of classroom management have become less and less effective with changes in students and society. Thompson (2013) posited that punishment as a form of classroom management can actually increase misbehavior and turn short-term problems into

long-term problems. Thompson went on to say that punishment does not work because "it does not create a permanent change in your students" (p. 427). Additionally, students in classrooms run with punitive classroom management strategies do not become self-sufficient learners or take ownership of their behavior (Thompson, 2013).

Purpose and Guiding Question

It is important to provide teachers of all experience levels with tools to appropriately and effectively address all levels of classroom management struggles in order to maintain an environment fit for learning. The purpose of this literature review is to explore the realm of classroom management strategies in middle and secondary education with hopes of helping teachers identify the classroom management strategies that will improve their teaching. The research was guided by the following question: What are the evidence-based, proactive classroom management strategies that are effective in middle and secondary classrooms?

Definition of Terms

The following definitions aim to provide clarity and consistency of important terms used in this thesis.

Antecedent attention: Allday and Pakurar (2007) defined antecedent attention as attention given to a student from the teacher prior to class.

Classroom management: Fitzgerald Leahy, Miller, and Schardt (2019) defined classroom management as "a teacher's ability to prompt student cooperation and engagement with class activities" (Emmer & Stough, 2001, as cited in Fitzgerald Leahy et al., 2019, p. 79).

Class-Wide Function-Related Intervention Teams (CW-FIT): "CW-FIT is a classroom management system based on teaching classroom rules/skills and use of a group contingency

plan with differential reinforcement of appropriate behaviors, and minimized social attention to inappropriate behavior" (Kamps et al., 2015, p. 135). Caldarella, Wills, Anderson, and Williams (2019) added to this definition saying that "intervention features include directly teaching classroom expectations and prosocial skills; using an interdependent group contingency with differential reinforcement of desired behavior; and minimizing teacher attention for inappropriate behavior by planned ignoring" (p. 3).

On-task behavior: Swinson and Knight (2007) defined on-task behavior as students following instructions as given by the teacher and completing the task asked of them.

Opportunities to respond: While many have defined opportunities to respond (Ferkis, Belfiore, & Skinner, 1997; Kern & Clemens, 2007; Sprick, Knight, Reinke, & McKale, 2006), the definition used for this thesis is based on Fitzgerald Leahy et al. (2019) who defined opportunities to respond as "an instructional question, statement, or gesture made by the teacher seeking an academic response from students which can be written, verbal, or gestural" (Fitzgerald Leahy et al., 2019, p. 79).

Proactive classroom management: Cook et al. (2018) defined proactive classroom management as a preventative approach to classroom management that aims to increase engagement by reducing inappropriate behavior (Rathvon, 2008, as cited in Cook et al., 2018). It combines instruction and management, and aims to focus on the entire classroom rather than an individual student (Rathvon, 2008, as cited in Cook et al., 2018). Additionally, proactive classroom management encourages engagement in students and shows how misbehaviors inhibit this engagement (Gettinger, 1988, as cited in Cook et al., 2018).

Reactive classroom management: While many have defined reactive classroom management (Mayer, 1995; McIntosh, Filter, Bennett, Ryan, & Sugai, 2010; Morrissey, Bohanon, & Fenning, 2010), the definition used for this thesis is based on Cook et al. (2018) who defined reactive classroom management as punitive measures occurring after a misbehavior. Reactive strategies can include "public reprimands that embarrass or shame a student" (Cook et al., 2018, p. 150).

Self-efficacy for classroom management: Sciuchetti and Yssel (2019) defined self-efficacy for classroom management as "a teacher's perceived capability of creating and maintaining an environment conducive to learning and serving students who exhibit challenging behaviours" (p. 20).

Teacher-student relationships or student-teacher relationships: Brinkworth, McIntyre, Juraschek, and Gehlbach (2018) defined teacher-student relationships as "teachers' and students' aggregated and ongoing perceptions of one another, affect towards each other, and interactions over time; these perceptions are stored in memory and guide future interactions with the other party" (p. 25).

Teacher verbal feedback: Swinson and Knight (2007) defined teacher verbal feedback as a teacher's positive or negative oral responses to student antecedent behavior.

Chapter Summary

Knowledge of classroom management strategies has great importance for all teachers. The need for this research is evident because teachers have asked for more resources to successfully manage their classrooms; classroom management is cited as a source of teacher burnout and eventual career changes; and a poorly managed classroom has negative impacts

on student learning and engagement. Much research has been done on classroom management strategies, but few works have collected and compiled these strategies. The present research aims to consolidate findings on evidence-based, proactive classroom management strategies for adolescents that can be effectively used by teachers of all experience levels. Chapter II will summarize the existing literature about strategies for increasing engagement and decreasing disruptive behavior.
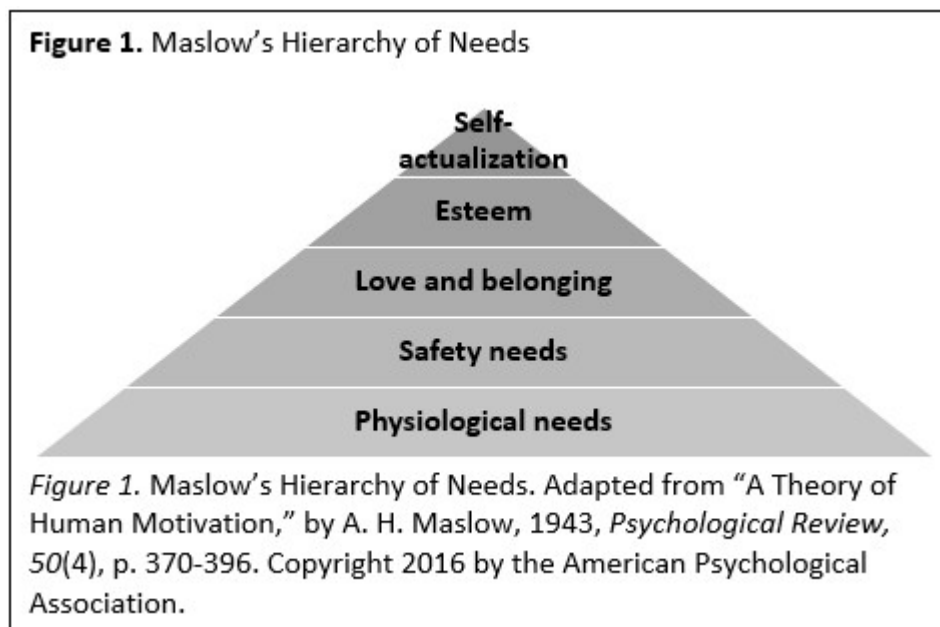
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to find the literature for use in this thesis, ERIC, Google Scholar, and ProQuest were searched for published work from 2000 to 2020. For these online searches, keywords used were adolescent, behavior, classroom behavior, classroom management, proactive strategies, secondary education, and teacher-student relationships. Once proactive strategies were identified, additional research was conducted to find supporting evidence. These searches included phrases such as antecedent attention, opportunity to respond, self-regulated learning, parental involvement, and verbal feedback.

The research was guided by the following question: What are the evidence-based, proactive classroom management strategies that are effective in middle and secondary classrooms? Chapter II first introduces and reviews the literature around why students misbehave. Chapter II then introduces and reviews the literature for the following evidence-based classroom strategies: relationship building; antecedent attention; positive teacher verbal feedback; opportunities to respond; approach to discipline; parental involvement; and other proactive management strategies.

Student Misbehavior and Why Students Misbehave

Student misbehaviors can be attributed to an array of reasoning. When students are disengaged, feel unsafe in the classroom or school, or have unmet needs, teachers see an increase in disruptive behaviors. As shown in Figure 1, humans have a variety of needs. According to Maslow (1943), individuals thrive for homeostasis in their physiological needs. This means that hunger, thirst, and sleep can all drive individuals to seek balance. When this is applied to students, teachers can see misbehaviors in the classroom when students are out of

balance, i.e., hungry, thirsty, or tired. Van Marter Souers and Hall (2019) confirmed this, saying

that every behavior is a result of a need, either emotional, relational, physical, or control. When

it comes to safety needs, Maslow stated that when the world looks "unreliable, or unsafe, or

unpredictable" (p. 377) individuals fear for their safety. Van Marter Souers and Hall added to

this, saying that teachers need "to create an environment where it is safe for students to grow,

to develop, to exist, and to learn" (p. 12). They went on to say that students must feel both

physically and emotionally safe in order to learn. This is especially important for students who

have experienced trauma. When students feel unsafe, have unmet needs, or are disengaged

they may exhibit unpredictable behaviors.

Figure 1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

- Self-actualization
- Esteem
- Love and belonging
- Safety needs
- Physiological needs

Figure 1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. Adapted from "A Theory of Human Motivation," by A. H. Maslow, 1943, *Psychological Review, 50*(4), p. 370-396. Copyright 2016 by the American Psychological Association.

Teachers see many different misbehaviors in the classroom. Sullivan, Johnson, Owens,

and Conway (2014) wanted to determine the nature and extent of unproductive student

behavior, and how teachers manage this behavior. Sullivan et al. (2014) surveyed 1,380

Australian teachers about student behavior. Of the teachers who completed the survey, 51%

taught at the secondary level and 49% taught at the primary level. Teachers rated unproductive

behaviors on a Likert scale of frequency of occurrence. This scale was: not at all, one or two days per week, almost daily/daily, or several times daily.

Sullivan et al. (2014) found three levels of inappropriate student behavior, including low-level disruptive behaviors, disengaged behaviors, and aggressive and antisocial behaviors. Low-level disruptive behaviors and disengaged behaviors occurred on an almost daily/daily basis. The main behaviors exhibited in these categories were talking out of turn, avoiding schoolwork, and disengaging from activities in the classroom. More specifically, two-thirds of teachers reported disengaged behaviors (being late for class, avoiding completion of schoolwork, and disengaging from classroom activities) either almost daily/daily or several times a day. Conversely, aggressive and antisocial behaviors were either found not at all or 1-2 days per week at the most.

Results showed the top three most reported behaviors that occurred several times daily were talking out of turn, avoiding doing schoolwork, and disengaging from classroom activities. In fact, the top 10 most frequently reported behaviors only included behaviors that fell under the low-level disruption category or the disengaged category. The top three least reported behaviors included being extremely violent towards other students or teachers, sexually harassing teachers, and being physically aggressive towards teachers. The top 10 least reported behaviors all fell under the aggressive and antisocial behavior category. Teachers also reported the behavior they found most difficult to manage. The top three were avoiding doing schoolwork (18%), disrupting the flow of a lesson (16.7%), and disengaging from classroom activities (13.9%) (Sullivan et al., 2014).

Finally, Sullivan et al. (2014) indicated the top three classroom management strategies teachers used and found most effective. These were: using a step system involving an escalation of actions if behavior does not change (33.3%); reasoning with a student in the classroom (18.9%); and reasoning with a student outside the classroom (12.3%). Sullivan et al. suggested that teachers use ways to increase student engagement as a tool to respond to inappropriate behavior. They argued that the classroom management strategies most teachers are using respond to the specific behavior rather than the behavior's underlying cause (Sullivan et al., 2014).

Misbehaviors are met with various strategies to manage them, and these strategies are most effective when they address the underlying cause of the behavior, rather than the behavior itself. Hepburn and Beamish (2019) studied 26 secondary school teachers in Queensland, Australia, to determine the classroom management strategies used by these teachers. These teachers taught 11-18-year old students in Grades 7-12. Hepburn and Beamish conducted phone interviews of the 26 teachers and identified four key themes by using thematic analysis. The four themes were: classroom management beliefs and approach; everyday practices; supports and inhibitors; and knowledge and trust of research.

For the theme of classroom management beliefs and approach, behavioral concerns were most commonly related to unengaged students and students showing disrespect. Teachers addressed mutual respect and student-teacher relationships as foundations of good classroom management. Everyday practices of classroom management highlighted establishing routines, creating consistency, setting expectations, and following through with consequences. Teachers also identified inappropriate or irrelevant curriculum as a reason for poor behavior in

the classroom. Hepburn and Beamish (2019) stated that when the level of the work and the level of student capability were not well matched, bad classroom behaviors were exhibited.

A limitation of the study was that the qualitative analysis did not provide set data points for interpretation. The small sample size was stated as a limitation, as was the potential for overrepresentation of teachers confident in classroom management (Hepburn & Beamish, 2019). Student misbehavior can be attributed to unengaged students, inappropriate level of the curriculum, poor relationships, and more. Teachers must use effective, evidence-based classroom management techniques to decrease student misbehavior in the classroom.

Relationship Building

An old adage about education rings true for classroom management: People don't care how much you know until they know how much you care. Building relationships with students is the backbone of teaching and successful, proactive classroom management. Brinkworth et al. (2018) defined teacher-student relationships as "teachers' and students' aggregated and ongoing perceptions of one another, affect towards each other, and interactions over time; these perceptions are stored in memory and guide future interactions with the other party" (p. 25). Marzano (2007) found that "the quality of the relationships teachers have with students is the keystone of effective management and perhaps even the entirety of teaching" (p. 149). Positive teacher-student relationships enhance student engagement in the classroom, thereby lessening disruptive behavior.

Many studies focused on the impacts of teacher-student relationships. Martin and Collie (2019) aimed to determine whether students' engagement depended on the number of positive teacher-student relationships outnumbering the number of negative teacher-student

relationships or vice versa. Participants included 2,079 students in Grades 7-9 from 18

Australian high schools. Students were surveyed with questions that used a Likert scale from 1

(strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Martin and Collie (2019) found that students had greater engagement in school when

they reported a higher number of positive relationships. In addition, when relationships were

more negative (3:2 negative-to-positive), students exhibited lower engagement. However,

student engagement did not further decline with additional negative student-teacher

relationships. Finally, student engagement was higher when relationships were more positive

(2:3 negative-to-positive), and grew with every added positive teacher-student relationship

outnumbering the negative.

Martin and Collie (2019) concluded that the benefits of positive student-teacher

relationships outweighed the setbacks of negative teacher-student relationships. They also

found that students experienced greater academic engagement in terms of participation,

enjoyment, and aspirations for each additional positive teacher-student relationship. Results

also implied that as long as students have positive teacher-student relationships, they are able

to withstand some negative teacher-student relationships before great shifts occur in their

engagement.

Two main practical implications were discussed, one at the school-level and the other at

the class-level. In the school, Martin and Collie (2019) posited the importance of a

predominance of positive teacher-student relationships across school subjects. At the class-

level, they recommended connective instruction, which "compromises interpersonal,

substantive, and pedagogical elements that collectively serve to promote quality relational links

between teacher and student" (Martin & Collie, 2019, p. 873).

In a study with a similar goal, Brinkworth et al. (2018) studied 595 students and 88

teachers from four secondary schools in the northeastern United States to assess teacher-

student relationships. They defined teacher-student relationships as perceptions and effects of

teachers and students towards one another based on interactions over time. They stated that

these interactions and perceptions guide future interactions.

Questionnaires were developed for students and teachers. All responses were based on

five-point Likert scales, which varied in order to best match the question. Students were asked

to select a teacher and complete a questionnaire about their relationship with that teacher.

Students also completed a questionnaire to self-report academic outcomes, behavior, and

motivation. Then, teachers were asked to report their perception of the relationship with

corresponding students. Teachers also rated the quality of the students' class participation and

reported student grades. Brinkworth et al. (2018) found that students put in more effort in class

when they thought they had a positive relationship with their teacher. They also stated that

teachers saw this same relationship, and in extension, found that classes were more effective

when students and teachers had a positive relationship (Brinkworth et al., 2018).

In another study centered on teacher-student relationships, Allen, Pianta, Gregory,

Mikami, and Lun (2011) conducted a randomized controlled trial of the My Teaching Partner-

Secondary (MTP-S) program, focusing on improving teacher-student interactions in the

classroom. The MTP-S program included an initial workshop, a video library with additional

training material, and a year of personalized coaching. Twice a month, participating teachers

would record a lesson and upload it to the MTP-S database. Their coach would comment on segments that demonstrated positive interactions or areas for growth. A follow-up discussion would occur over the phone to determine ways to enhance the interactions. Allen et al. studied 78 secondary teachers and 2,237 students aged 11-18 over the course of two years. They hypothesized that student achievement would increase as teachers increased their ability to create high-quality teacher-student interactions.

Allen et al. (2011) found that when teachers improved their interactions with students, student achievement also improved. This was consistent regardless of the content area of instruction, and suggested the benefit of focusing on teacher-student interactions rather than a sole focus on class content (Allen et al., 2011).

Solheim, Ertesvåg, and Dalhaug Berg (2018) focused on the perspectives of teacher learning with regard to classroom management and classroom interaction. The sample included 81 teachers from 14 Norwegian lower secondary schools (Grades 8-10, aged 13-16). They wanted to know what elements of classroom interaction lower secondary school teachers would report when invited to reflect on a recent learning experience. Each teacher completed a survey answering six questions about a learning experience and how it related to classroom management. Surveys were emailed to teachers to give them sufficient time to reflect and respond. Results showed that when teachers reflected on effective classroom management, they stressed the need to communicate clear expectations to students, and build a foundation of mutual respect and support between teachers and students. Another commonality was a certain level of organization in order to give clear directions and keep students working productively (Solheim et al., 2018).

Other studies sought to determine the impact of behavior engagement on relationships. Keyes (2019) wanted to identify the important factors within the classroom that promote classroom belonging and behavioral engagement in high school students. Racial, ethnic, and academic diversity were key pieces of the research, and this was taken into consideration when selecting the participants to interview. Keyes interviewed 31 10th-grade students from a public high school in Chicago to determine what their ninth-grade teachers did to foster belonging and engagement in the classroom. In total, 19 female and 12 male students participated. They consisted of 11 Latinx students, eight White, five Black, three South Asian, two African, and two students whose racial data was not available. Interviews were semi-structured and lasted 45 minutes each. The students were asked questions related to room arrangement, teaching style, working with classmates, and how they perceived their own belonging and behavioral engagement. They were also asked to identify their favorite and least favorite classes from their ninth-grade year. It was hypothesized that there would be more engagement and belonging in the students' favorite class than least favorite class. In addition to interviews, students took a quantitative survey related to their sense of belonging and behavioral engagement. However, many students were not able to take the quantitative survey due to time constraints.

Results showed two main teacher actions that fostered belonging and engagement. Students felt they belonged and were more engaged first when teachers encouraged relationships with and between students, and second when teachers used practices to encourage student participation. These practices included: incorporating student ideas into class; using an inclusive management style; creating a sense of trust so students wanted to participate; changing seating arrangements and providing group work to allow students to

interact with a variety of their classmates; clear and consistent rules and routines; encouraging class discussion; connecting material to students' lives; and providing step-by-step instructions then confirming understanding by walking around the classroom. Honest feedback was also singled out as a way to increase belonging and engagement.

Finally, Keyes (2019) made the point that classroom management should provide consistency in routines and structure that includes the whole class in order to increase students' feelings of belonging and engagement. Named limitations to the study included the small sample size, and the fact that all students attended the same high school which puts into question the transferability of the results (Keyes, 2019).

Behavior engagement was also the focus of Engels et al. (2016). They aimed to determine links between adolescents' behavior engagement and their relationships with teachers and peers. In Belgium, 1,116 middle and high school students were studied, longitudinally, in three waves over two years. Measures of behavioral engagement, peer status, and teacher-student relationships were made through evaluations done by peers and the students. Engels et al. hypothesized that positive teacher-student relationships would be positively associated with behavior engagement, and that negative teacher-student relationships would be negatively related to behavioral engagement.

Many results were found to both match and clash with this hypothesis. Throughout each wave, positive teacher-student relationships were positively correlated with behavioral engagement, and negative teacher-student relationships were negatively correlated with behavioral engagement. Behavioral engagement was also negatively correlated with popularity. Levels of behavioral engagement were significantly higher as reported by students for wave one

than at waves two and three, which implied that as students got older, their behavioral

engagement decreased. Across all waves, behavioral engagement was reported as higher for

girls than boys. When positive teacher-student relationships were higher, behavioral

engagement was also higher; whereas, higher likeability in peer groups led to lower behavioral

engagement. Over time, both negative teacher-student relationships and likeability led to

decreases in behavioral engagement.

Engels et al. (2016) showed that, besides teachers, peers are equally important for

student behavioral engagement. Contrary to expectations, Engels et al. discovered that when

students were well-liked by peers, those students exhibited lower levels of behavior

engagement during the next wave. The same occurred for students who were seen as popular.

On average, popular students documented less effort, persistence, concentration, and

attention over time.

While the study was broad, there were still limitations. First, the transfer of data to U.S.

adolescents from the Belgium students studied is something to consider. A second limitation is

that the data was taken from peer and student perceptions. Third, the design being cross-

lagged did not allow Engels et al. (2016) to draw conclusions about causation. Lastly, only one

dimension of academic engagement and a small selection of classroom social relationships

were investigated, not including friendships and cliques.

Engels et al. (2016) outlined two main practical implications. First, interventions aimed

at increasing adolescents' engagement should focus on stimulating positive teacher-student

relationships, as this social relationship is found to be positively associated with students'

behavioral engagement. Second, teachers should become aware of the peer group dynamics in

terms of peer status. Engels et al. recommended restoring a positive view of academic

engagement in order to support learning to counter any negative impacts of status among

peers (Engels et al., 2016).

Many students experience traumatic events in their childhood. About 61% of adults

have experienced at least one type of Adverse Childhood Experience (ACE). Adverse Childhood

Experiences are defined by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2020) as

"potentially traumatic events that occur in childhood (0-17 years)" (para. 1) and can include but

are not limited to experiencing abuse or neglect, experiencing or witnessing violence in the

home or community, and growing up in a home with substance misuse. These experiences

negatively impact education (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2020).

Positive teacher-student relationships not only enhance engagement, but make

students feel safe in the classroom. Van Marter Souers and Hall (2019) said "the need to

connect and feel love is crucial to the body's ability to regulate and feel safe" (p. 77).

Relationship building provides students with a safe environment in which to learn. To do this,

Van Marter Souers and Hall add that the classroom must become a predictable and consistent

environment for all students. This can be especially beneficial to students who have

experienced trauma.

Each of these studies showed evidence of relationship building as an effective strategy

to proactively manage middle and secondary classrooms. They revealed that relationship

building led to student engagement and feelings of belonging. When students are engaged,

student misbehaviors are minimized.

Antecedent Attention

Student misbehaviors can be a call for attention (Patterson, 2009). By providing students with antecedent attention, teachers can reduce misbehaviors during class time and increase student engagement. Antecedent attention can include teacher greetings, positive greetings at the door, and a check-in/check-out model. Allday and Pakurar (2007) defined antecedent attention as attention given to a student from the teacher prior to class, and they sought to find the effect of teacher greetings on student on-task behavior during the first 10 minutes of class. They hypothesized that students who received antecedent attention would spend the first 10 minutes of class doing what was asked rather than engaging in off-task behavior.

Three students, one in sixth grade, one in seventh grade, and one in eighth grade, in separate middle schools in South Carolina were studied. These students were identified by their teachers as having trouble staying on task during the first 10 minutes of class. To collect baseline data, teachers were not informed of the intervention technique and carried on with their typical classroom routines. Each student was observed between three and six times to collect baseline information. For the intervention, teachers were asked to greet the target students as they entered the classroom using the student's name and a positive statement. Each student was observed five to six times to collect intervention data.

During the baseline observations, the eighth grader was on task 37% of the time, the seventh grader 52% of the time, and the sixth grader 48% of the time. On average after the intervention the eighth grader was on task 66% of the time, the seventh grader 87% of the time, and the sixth grader 67% of the time.

Allday and Pakurar (2007) postulated that antecedent attention gave students the attention they desired when engaging in off-task behavior without the necessity for students to engage in this behavior. Ultimately, this raised the students' time spent on task in the first 10 minutes of class. Sample size was a limitation of the study, along with the small number of observations which ranged from nine to 11 observations per student (Allday & Pakurar, 2007).

In a later study, Allday, Bush, Ticknor, and Walker (2011) wanted to extend the existing research as to whether or not teacher greetings could increase on-task appropriate behavior at the beginning of class. Specifically, they studied the "effectiveness of teacher greetings on the latency to task engagement" (p. 394) where latency to task was measured in seconds. Participants included three male students in suburban Oklahoma: an eighth grader, a 10th-grader, and an 11th-grader. They were selected via teacher recommendation for their struggle with focusing on tasks at the beginning of class. The study consisted of a baseline observation, and an intervention phase where teachers briefly greeted the target students at the door with a positive statement encouraging the student to be on task.

Results showed that the time for students to engage in the task at the beginning of class decreased for each student. The eighth-grade student began at an average of 114 seconds during baseline, and fell to 29 seconds during the intervention (85 second difference). The 10th-grade student's latency to task engagement went from an average of 179 seconds in the baseline to 44 seconds during the intervention (135 second difference). The 11th-grade student averaged 54 seconds during the baseline, but then fell to 23 seconds during the intervention (31 second difference). Limitations included the all-male student base, the small sample size,

and the lack of social validity data. Allday et al. (2011) suggested that future research should be aimed at determining other effects of teacher greetings (Allday et al., 2011).

Cook et al. (2018) also studied teacher greetings, but, specifying the positive nature of these greetings, labeled them as *positive greetings at the door (PGD)*. First, they wanted to know if PGD would cause an increase in academic engaged time (AET) compared to the control group. Second, they wanted to know if PGD would decrease the levels of disruptive behavior compared to the control group.

Cook et al. (2018) studied 203 middle school students in six language arts and four math classes in two different schools in the Pacific Northwest of the United States. Classes consisted of four sixth grade, three seventh grade, and three eighth grade. Pre and post observation data were collected by behavioral consultants. Observations were made over two, one-hour time blocks in 10 second intervals. Pre observations were made in the fall to collect baseline data. After baseline data was collected, classes were matched in five pairs as intervention and control according to AET and disruptive behavior estimates, and by class subject. Post observations were made in the winter of the same school year, two months after baseline data was collected.

In the intervention group, teachers used three strategies to implement PGD. First, teachers would greet the student using the student's name, a nonverbal cue (e.g., handshake, fist bump), and a positive statement specific to that student. Then, teachers would make pre corrective statements either specific to the student or for the entire class. Pre corrective statements were used to remind students how they could be successful in class that day. Lastly, teachers positively reinforced on-time behavior.

For the baseline, academic engagement averaged 58.75% in the intervention group, and 54.75% in the control group. Post observations showed that academic engagement increased in the intervention group to an average of 79.7%, and made slight increases to 59.54% in the control group. Disruptive behavior in the intervention group decreased from the pre observation of 13.68% to 4.13% in the post observation. In the control group, disruptive behavior also decreased, from 15.13% to 12.53% in the pre and post observations respectively. A small sample size of 10 teachers was noted as a limitation (Cook et al., 2018).

In a small-scale study, Patterson (2009) aimed to reduce out-of-seat behavior of one ninth grade student through use of antecedent attention. Patterson determined the out-of-seat behavior was a result of student desire for adult attention, and hypothesized that giving this student attention before class in the form of one to two minutes of small talk would reduce the number of times the student got out of his seat during class.

During Baseline I, Patterson (2009) did not engage the student in small talk before class and recorded the number of times the student got out of his seat for one week. For Intervention I, which lasted one week, Patterson greeted the student at the door and spoke with him for one to two minutes, then recorded the number of times the student got out of his seat. During Baseline II, Patterson again did not engage the student in small talk before class, instead directing the student to go to his seat and get ready for class if he attempted to engage in conversation with the teacher. Intervention II reintroduced one to two minutes of small talk before class with the target student.

Baseline I found the student out of his seat an average of 5.2 times per class period. Intervention I saw a drop to an average of 1.6 times per class period. Baseline II regressed to an

average of 5.7 times per class period. Finally, in Intervention II, out-of-seat behavior dropped to

an average of 0.5 times per class period. Patterson (2009) confirmed his hypothesis, namely

that the out-of-seat behavior was a call for teacher attention, and that engaging in one to two

minutes of small talk at the beginning of class reduced the number of times the target student

got out of his seat (Patterson, 2009).

Another form of antecedent attention is the check-in/check-out (CICO) model.

According to Simonsen, Myers, and Briere (2011), the CICO model consisted of students

checking in with the teacher at the beginning of class, allowing teachers to encourage

appropriate behavior. At the end of class, students would check out with the teacher to receive

specific praise or error correction. Teachers would award students points for good behavior,

and the check-out was an opportunity for teachers to discuss these points with students.

Simonsen et al. (2011) wanted to know if this CICO behavior intervention would reduce the

level of off-task behavior for target students compared to a control group of target students.

They studied 42 middle school students Grades 5-8 at one school in the northeastern United

States over a six-week period. The school was selected based on its success in implementing

Tier 1 of school-wide positive behavior support (SWPBS) system. The administration wanted

assistance in developing a Tier 2 approach for students whose behavior was not responsive to

the Tier 1 approach of SWPBS.

Teachers nominated students for the study based on the student receiving two or more

office discipline referrals (ODRs) within the last month for disruptive behavior. Of these 42

students, 27 were randomly assigned to the treatment group, and 15 were randomly assigned

to the control group. Five students in the treatment group and two students in the control

group were on individualized education programs. Students in the control group received counseling sessions, per the school's typical intervention to disruptive behavior. The intervention group engaged in a CICO model.

To begin the study, teachers completed a pre intervention FACTS survey for 38 of the 42 students (the last four surveys were incomplete and were not used in analysis). Structured direct observations were used to measure data during the study. Based on teacher FACTS surveys, behaviors were exhibited due to multiple functions. Because of this, the following data is not mutually exclusive. Simonsen et al. (2011) gathered from FACTS surveys that students engaged in disruptive behavior to gain attention from their peers (92.1%), escape or avoid tasks (55.3%), gain attention from adults (42.1%), and escape or avoid attention (21.1%).

Structured direct observations (SDOs) found that students in the intervention group engaged in more off-task behavior than those students in the control group before the intervention took place. During the intervention, both groups improved, but the intervention group engaged in less off-task behavior than the control group. Simonsen et al. (2011) identified the small sample sizes, pre intervention differences, and inconsistency in tracking students' daily point totals as limitations (Simonsen, Myers, & Briere, 2011).

The above studies show that providing students with antecedent attention can increase academic engagement; decrease latency to task engagement; and decrease off-task, disruptive, and out of seat behaviors.

Positive Teacher Verbal Feedback

Teacher verbal feedback is positively correlated with students' behavior and engagement in the classroom. Swinson and Knight (2007) defined teacher verbal feedback as a

teacher's positive or negative oral responses to student antecedent behavior. In their study, Swinson and Knight (2007) aimed to determine the impact of positive and negative teacher verbal feedback on eighth grade British students. More precisely, they wanted to find variation in the quality and quantity of feedback towards students with behavior problems versus that of the rest of the class. Observations were made over a one-week time period and covered 20 teachers instructing a total of 303 students. Of those 303 students, 24 were designated as target students for their challenging behavior.

Swinson and Knight (2007) had three goals. First, analyze target student behavior to determine whether or not their behavior truly was different from the rest of the class. Second, analyze the teachers' verbal feedback. Third, analyze the impact of both positive and negative verbal feedback of the teacher on the target students. They used The Pupil Behavior Schedule (Jolly & McNamara, 1992, as cited in Swinson & Knight, 2007) to make these observations.

By comparing on-task behavior rates of target students and the remainder of the class, results showed significant differences. Target students spent more time off-task engaging in behavior disruptive to the whole class. Swinson and Knight (2007) also found that in classes where on-task levels were high overall, target students spent more time on-task. Conversely, in classes where on-task behavior rates were lower, target students also spent less time on-task.

Teacher verbal feedback was initially found to be more negative than positive. During observations, 14% of feedback was positive and academic in nature, and 6.9% was positive and related to social behavior. On the other hand, 5.3% was negative and academic in nature, and 72.9% was negative and addressed social behavior. When looking at overall feedback, target students received a disproportionately higher rate of teacher feedback.

For the target students, results showed that individual praise had a positive impact on students' on-task behavior; whereas, individual criticism had a negative impact on students' on-task behavior. For the whole class, no significant relationship between positive feedback and on-task behavior, or negative feedback and on-task behavior was found. Swinson and Knight (2007) recognized the non-random sample as a limitation to this study, and noted the high rates of negative teacher feedback as uncommon (Swinson & Knight, 2007).

While the previous study looked at the impact of verbal feedback, Pas, Cash, O'Brennan, Debnam, and Bradshaw (2015) aimed to identify specific high school student behavior profiles and determine whether these student behavior profiles were significantly related to teachers' use of positive and negative classroom management strategies.

Pas et al. (2015) found that students met teacher expectations consistently in the classrooms where teachers frequently gave students opportunities to respond. Consistent behavior was also found in classrooms where teachers gave students positive recognition for their behavior, limited the number of disapproving statements, and used fewer reactive strategies for behavior management. On the other hand, reactive strategies were used nearly three times as much by teachers whose classrooms were classified as noncompliant. Pas et al. encouraged widening the lens when interpreting student behavior because oftentimes overall classroom behavior and the teacher's management style can impact an individual student's behavior (Pas et al., 2015).

A specific strategy for teacher verbal feedback is behavior-specific praise. Collier-Meek, Johnson, Sanetti, and Minami (2019) evaluated the relative contributions of teachers' implementation of 14 best practice classroom management strategies on class-wide academic

engagement. The goal was to identify critical components of classroom management that could help with teacher implementation while achieving the same positive student outcomes. It evaluated the relationship between elementary school teachers' implementation of specific classroom management components and class-wide academic engagement. Specifically, Collier-Meek et al. wanted to know to what extent teachers implemented classroom management components; and if there was a relationship between classroom management components and class-wide academic engagement.

Participants consisted of 10 teachers and 177 students. Of those, 40% were kindergarten classrooms, 20% were second grade classrooms, 20% were third grade classrooms, and 20% were fourth grade classrooms. Findings suggested that two classroom management components were related to improvements in academic engagement, namely references to schedules or routines, and behavior-specific praise; whereas, error corrections were related to decreases in academic engagement.

A named limitation in the study was the homogeneity of the teachers, as it included only female Caucasian elementary school teachers from one northeastern state in the United States. Additionally, as it applies to this thesis, the study was conducted at the elementary level rather than the middle or secondary school level. However, findings are still noteworthy for further research (Collier-Meek et al., 2019). In summary, when teachers positively reinforce behaviors using verbal feedback, students' academic engagement increases, as does their behavior. On the other hand, negative verbal feedback has a negative effect on student behavior.

Opportunities to Respond

Teachers can engage their students throughout learning activities by actively soliciting responses, thereby reducing disruptive behaviors. Fitzgerald Leahy et al. (2019) defined opportunities to respond as "an instructional question, statement, or gesture made by the teacher seeking an academic response from students which can be written, verbal, or gestural" (p. 79).

Fitzgerald Leahy et al. (2019) completed a quantitative synthesis of 12 studies focused on teacher-directed opportunities to respond (TD-OTRs) and the association between TD-OTRs and student behavioral outcomes. Fitzgerald Leahy et al. defined TD-OTR as an antecedent classroom management strategy where student response is elicited by teacher behavior. They wanted to know whether increasing TD-OTRs impacted student behavioral outcomes. Additionally, they wanted to know if there were differences in student response model, grade level, and quality study ratings. They hypothesized that increasing TD-OTRs would be associated with improvements in student behavior and that increasing TD-OTRs via unison response modes would demonstrate the greatest behavioral improvements. They also believed that increasing TD-OTRs in primary as opposed to secondary level settings would be associated with greater improvements on student behavioral outcomes.

Overall, Fitzgerald Leahy et al. (2019) found that increasing TD-OTRs was consistently associated with a greater than average effect on student behavioral outcomes, though the increase for secondary level students had smaller effects. Practical implications stated that TD-OTRS are both a socially acceptable and effective classroom management strategy for decreasing disruptive behaviors and increasing academic engagement

A major limitation of the study was the small numbers of middle and high school participants. Two of 12 studies were conducted at the middle school level (Grades 6-8), and two were conducted at the high school level (Grades 9-12). This meant that only 14 out of the 78 participants were in middle or high school (6-12) at the time the original studies were conducted. Of those students, 12 out of 14 had disabilities, and 5 of 14 were learning in a general education setting, with the alternative being a special education setting. As this thesis does not specifically address students with disabilities, the limitation lies in the transferability of the results to this thesis (Fitzgerald Leahy et al., 2019).

As previously noted, Pas et al. (2015) aimed to identify specific high school student behavior profiles and determine whether these student behavior profiles were significantly related to teachers' use of positive and negative classroom management strategies. They found that students met teacher expectations consistently in the classrooms where teachers frequently gave students opportunities to respond. (Pas et al., 2015). Research shows that providing students with opportunities to respond increases academic performance and decreases disruptive behaviors.

Approach to Discipline

Discipline is a necessary piece of classroom management when students do not respond to the proactive strategies. However, teachers must use discipline carefully. Research shows that "reactive, punitive discipline can damage teacher-student relationships, result in lost instructional time, and perpetuate student problem behavior" (Little & Akin-Little, 2008; Mayer, 1995, as cited in Cook et al., 2018, p. 150). Reactive strategies become the go to when teachers do not have a proactive classroom management plan in order. Cook et al. (2018) defined

reactive classroom management as punitive measures occurring after a misbehavior. Building in a discipline plan as part of a proactive strategy can mitigate the negative impacts punitive measures bring to individual students and the classroom environment.

Roache and Lewis (2011) wanted to know what impact different discipline styles had on students. They examined responses of 1,975 Australian students in Grades 7-10 to a questionnaire where students were asked to comment on teacher behavior. Results showed that students felt more annoyed and distracted from their work when their teacher used an aggressive approach to discipline. An aggressive approach was defined as yelling or sarcasm. On the other hand, when teachers used discussion, recognition of good behavior, or hinting, students felt less distracted from their work and less annoyed with the teacher. Discussion was defined as sharing the impact of misbehavior on classmates.

Roache and Lewis (2011) also found that when students perceived teachers as using aggressive discipline strategies, they were less interested in their schoolwork and felt less connected to the school. When teachers used discussion and hinting as forms of discipline, students felt a greater connectedness to the school. Overall, aggressive strategies showed negative effects. These discipline strategies may have increased the levels of bad behavior, and did not encourage students to act responsibly (Roache & Lewis, 2011).

Further, Gregory and Ripski (2008) looked at the impact of the teacher's approach to discipline on classroom behavior. They focused on students who have received disciplinary referrals in the past and discussed different approaches to earning student cooperation, namely traditional, behavioral, and relational approaches, but centered on the relational approach. The relational approach concentrates on earning student trust and therefore being seen as a

legitimate authority figure. Gregory and Ripski (2008) defined a relational approach to discipline as "a teacher's emphasis on connection and personal relationships with students, which the teacher views as a means to student cooperation" (p. 342).

Gregory and Ripski (2008) wanted to know if a relational approach to discipline was associated with students' impressions of teachers as trustworthy in their use of authority, and whether trust in teachers mediated the association between the relational approach to discipline and student behavior. They hypothesized that teachers who use relationship building as key to classroom management would be seen by students as trustworthy when using their authority. Further, this perception would explain why students act cooperatively rather than defiantly with teachers who use this relational approach to discipline.

Gregory and Ripski (2008) studied 32 high school students who had received office referrals related to defiance of teacher authority. They then selected 32 teachers based on two criteria. First, the teachers who had most recently referred the 32 students to the office were asked to participate in the study. Second, each student was asked to nominate a teacher with whom they had the best relationship. In the end, 14 teachers were selected because they had referred students (referring teachers), and 18 teachers were selected based on student nominations (nominated teachers). Teachers were interviewed and completed a survey on student behavior in order to determine whether or not they used the relational approach to discipline. Students completed a survey on their trust in teacher authority and rated their own behavior.

Gregory and Ripski (2008) found that 17 (53%) of the teachers used the relational approach to discipline whereas 15 (47%) teachers did not. Of the 17 teachers found to use the

relational approach, 15 (88%) were nominated teachers and two (12%) were referring teachers. From both the teacher and student surveys, higher cooperation was associated with lower defiance. Additionally, teachers found to use the relational approach had students who exhibited lower defiant behaviors. This was explained by the students' trust in teacher authority. From the student surveys, it was also found that students identified as cooperative in the classes of teachers who used the relational approach.

A limitation was that causation of cooperation cannot be discerned as student trust in teacher authority. However, the correlation within the findings suggested a strong relationship between teachers use of the relational approach and student cooperation. Another limitation was that teacher behavior was not observed, but rather deduced from teacher interviews and student surveys (Gregory & Ripski, 2008).

In a later study, Gregory, Cornell, and Fan (2011) aimed to investigate whether the authoritative parenting framework can be applied to schoolwide conditions and used to identify high schools with low rates of disciplinary problems. They defined authoritative parenting as both "highly demanding and highly responsive" (Gregory et al., 2011, p. 907). This framework enforces rules with consistency and would be transferable to the classroom setting. Specific interest was in whether disproportionately high suspension rates for Black students would be lower in authoritative schools. Initially, school climate surveys were collected from 289 schools in the state of Virginia, which equated to 5,035 ninth grade students completing the school climate survey. Then, a further survey was conducted with 25 ninth grade students in 199 of the original 289 schools.

Gregory et al. (2011) found the characterization of high school climate supported their model of authoritative structure and support. There were consistent relationships between schoolwide suspension rates and one measure of structure, based on the degree to which students perceived their teachers as having high academic expectations, and the measure of supportiveness, as reflected in student perceptions of teachers as caring and respectful. The schools with the highest suspension rates were those perceived by ninth graders as low in structure and support. The significant interaction term suggested that schools need to consider the combination of structure and support, which is consistent with the application of parenting theory to schools. Schools in which the students experienced neither a strong sense of support by teachers nor high expectations of academic achievement appeared to be most vulnerable. An important limitation was that this study examined correlational relationships between measures of school climate and suspension that cannot establish the existence or direction of causal effects (Gregory et al., 2011).

In a 2007 study, Zuckerman revealed various discipline strategies that were both effective and ineffective. Zuckerman (2007) wanted to determine effective classroom management strategies that were easy to use for all teachers, including student teachers. She looked at strategies aimed at both preventing management problems and managing those that arise.

As part of a methods course, 141 student teachers seeking licensure in New York for 7-12 science were asked to write an account of a classroom management experience. This account was to include a description of the experience, an analysis of the classroom management strategy(ies) used, and the implications for teaching. Of those 141 accounts, 123

specifically addressed a discipline problem within the classroom. These were then further narrowed to the 68 accounts where the student teacher successfully solved the discipline problem. In the end, 68 accounts were analyzed and interpreted for this study.

The 68 accounts yielded 18 successful classroom discipline strategies. They were grouped into three main categories with some overlap of accounts falling into multiple categories: prevention, managing common discipline problems, and managing chronically disruptive children. Under prevention, the strategies included: lesson planning, preparation, and execution (nine accounts); classroom rules (seven accounts); classroom routines (five accounts); classroom norms (five accounts); and seating (re)arrangements (one account). For managing common discipline problems, the following strategies were noted: reactive verbal (17 accounts); reactive nonverbal (six accounts); changing pace (six accounts); interest boosting (five accounts); redirecting off-task behavior (five accounts); cues (three accounts); nonpunitive time out (two accounts); and reactive sequence of nonverbal to verbal (one account). Finally, strategies for managing chronically disruptive children included: conferring with the student (four accounts); changing a seat (two accounts); relationship building (one account); breaking the discouragement cycle (one account); and record keeping (one account).

Zuckerman (2007) concluded with three main recommendations. First, alternative plans for lessons were helpful in mitigating free time for students, which typically increased disruptive behavior. Second, reactive strategies to classroom management were successful when used in a predetermined sequence, beginning with the least punitive and ending with a more intrusive strategy. Finally, conferring in private with disruptive students allowed teachers to integrate a plan of action with the problem student and end on a positive note of

encouragement. A noted limitation was the assumption that each account was a true and accurate description of the event (Zuckerman, 2007). Each of these studies show that punitive and reactive discipline strategies worsen misbehaviors and have negative overall impacts on the classroom. When teachers have a defined and structured discipline strategy as a part of a proactive classroom management system, students feel more respected when discipline is used.

Parental Involvement

When parents are more involved in their student's education, the student behaves and performs better in school. Smith, Reinke, Herman, and Huang (2019) studied the impact of family-school engagement on various factors in elementary and middle school. The study was made up of two separate trials, the first being of elementary schools and the second of middle schools. The middle school trial consisted of 102 teachers and 1,405 students in Grades 6-8.

Overall, family-school engagement was higher in elementary school than in middle school. Smith et al. (2019) found that when middle school students displayed higher levels of disruptive behavior, family-school engagement was lower. Conversely, when family-school engagement was higher, students displayed lower levels of disruptive behavior. An association between disruptive student behavior and lower levels of parent engagement was also found.

Increased family-school engagement led to lower levels of concentration problems at the end of the school year. Parent-teacher relationships were higher in elementary school than middle school, with an increased ability to get in contact with the parents. Findings were based on teacher-reported data, which could be a limiting factor of the research (Smith et al., 2019).

In another study, Hill and Tyson (2009) performed a meta-analytic assessment of parental involvement strategies that promote achievement in middle school. Overall, they found that when parents are involved, middle school students have greater academic success. Interestingly, parental help with homework had negative effects on academic achievement (Hill & Tyson, 2009). Overall, increased parental involvement has positive implications for student achievement and classroom behavior.

Other Proactive Management Strategies

Four additional studies showed promising results for proactive management strategies. Namely, use of Class-Wide Function-Related Intervention Teams; the Good Behavior Game; managing transitions; and an active supervision, precorrection, and explicit timing procedure.

Wills, Caldarella, Mason, Lappin, and Anderson (2019) studied the impacts of Class-Wide Function-Related Intervention Teams in Middle School (CW-FIT MS). They defined CW-FIT as a system of classroom management to reinforce appropriate behaviors and reduce the frequency of inappropriate behaviors. They state that "intervention features include (a) directly teaching classroom expectations and prosocial skills, (b) using an interdependent group contingency with differential reinforcement of desired behavior, and (c) minimizing teacher attention for inappropriate behavior by planned ignoring" (p. 3).

This study was conducted in one eighth grade classroom and two seventh grade classrooms across three separate middle schools. All three teachers selected a class period to study based on student disruptive behavior. Teachers also identified two to three target students based on their off-task behavior. Wills et al. (2019) investigated how CW-FIT MS impacted students' on-task behavior at the classroom level, and how CW-FIT MS impacted the

on-task behavior of individual students nominated by their teacher based on off-task and disruptive behavior. Baseline I included five observations, Intervention I included six to seven observations, Baseline II included five to six observations, and Intervention II included five observations.

In regards to the impact of CW-FIT MS on students' on-task behavior at the classroom level, on-task behavior increased in two of the three classes. When classes reverted to a pre intervention state for the Baseline II observations, all three classes had a drop in on-task behavior. After the intervention was reintroduced during Intervention II, all three classes saw higher rates of on-task behavior. As for the CW-FIT MS impact on the on-task behavior of the six target students, all six students increased their on-task behavior from Baseline I to Intervention I. Despite variations in result between the three classrooms, the average improvement was greater than 20%. Additionally, the target students all improved their on-task behavior with averages ranging from 13% to 42%. Finally, results suggested that CW-FIT MS can improve on-task behavior for middle school students (Wills et al., 2019).

Kleinman and Saigh (2011) researched the impact of the Good Behavior Game in a New York City high school. While the Good Behavior Game has been widely studied in elementary schools, little was known about the effect of the Game in high school. Kleinman and Saigh worked with the principal of a Harlem high school and selected a particularly disruptive ninth grade history class of 26 students.

To play the Good Behavior Game, target behaviors were identified by the teacher and written out as classroom expectations. In this case, the three target behaviors were verbal disruption (talking), physical disruption (aggression), and leaving one's seat. It was explained to

students that they would have an opportunity to compete for prizes (students had completed a questionnaire to determine desirable prizes). The class was split into two equal teams and at the beginning of each class the expectations were read aloud. Each time a student did not follow an expectation or exhibited one of the target behaviors, a check would be placed on the board under the corresponding team while the teacher explained the error to the student. At the end of each day and each week, the team with the fewest check marks would receive a prize.

This study was conducted over a six-week observational period in which Kleinman and Saigh (2011) tracked the target behaviors from the back of the classroom. Each week corresponded with a different phase of the game. Week 1 was the adaptation period where the observers simply collected data but the game was not played. Week 2 was Baseline I where the class was divided into two teams; classroom expectations were developed, posted, and read aloud at the beginning of each class period; and data was collected, but again, the game was not played. Week 3 was Intervention I where the game was explained to students and played. Week 4 was Baseline II where students remained seated with their teams but the game was not played; and classroom expectations were still read aloud each day. Week 5 was Intervention II where the game was reintroduced and played, but the class was divided into two different teams. Week 6 was Follow-Up and took place approximately three weeks after week 5 to determine continual implementation and effects.

Results from Baseline I to Intervention I, showed reductions of 58% in talking, 25% in leaving one's seat, and 17% in aggression. From Intervention I to Baseline II, not playing the Game resulted in increases of 43% in leaving one's seat, 42% in talking, and 7% in aggression.

From Baseline II to Intervention II target behaviors again decreased 58% in talking, 44% in leaving one's seat, and 9% in aggression. The Follow-Up showed that the Game was still being played, and relative to Baseline I, there were overall reductions of 90% in talking, 29% in leaving one's seat, and 19% in aggression. Results indicated reductions in the target behaviors when the Good Behavior Game was played, and increases in target behaviors when the game was taken away. A limitation of this study was its small sample size (Kleinman & Saigh, 2011).

Another proactive management strategy is managing transitions. Codding and Smyth (2008) studied the impacts of providing performance feedback to teachers on teacher transitions and academic engagement. They aimed to decrease time spent on transitions in order to increase the amount of time allowed for teachers to deliver instruction. They studied three female biology teachers in a northeastern United States high school who taught between 16-24 ninth grade students in the observed classes. Codding and Smyth filmed each class period using video equipment. Following the video recordings, observers used a recording packet to mark down seconds spent transitioning and total duration of the lesson. Observers also documented teacher time spent in instruction and student on-task behavior in 15 second intervals.

A pre intervention phase was used for four days to assimilate the students to the video equipment. Baseline data was then collected. An initial feedback meeting was held with each teacher individually where they were shown the gathered information and given initial feedback. Throughout the intervention, teachers and investigators had a daily morning meeting. During this meeting, teachers were shown the data from each class, received praise

for effectively used strategies from the investigator, and received one or two suggestions to further reduce transition time.

The baseline for teachers showed averages of 15.2, 11.9, and 10.2 minutes spent transitioning during a 39-minute class period. After the intervention and feedback, overall transition time decreased 7.6 minutes, 5.5, and 3.8 minutes respectively. Academic engagement also increased for each teacher (7.5%, 10.6%, and 3.2% respectively). Correlation analysis suggested that as transition time decreased, academic engaged time increased.

Positive results were found, but the research still had limitations. While student engagement rates increased to as much as 74%, this may still be below desired levels. Other research and classroom management tools could further increase this number. Codding and Smyth (2008) were unsure as to whether providing classroom management feedback rather than feedback on transitions would have been just as effective in minimizing transition time. Finally, they did not explore the generalization of these findings to other classrooms (Codding & Smyth, 2008). This research suggests that managing transitions effectively removes the opportunity for students to exhibit undesired behaviors, thus providing more time for learning.

Finally, Haydon and Kroeger (2016) sought to find the impact of active supervision, precorrection, and explicit timing procedure on student problem behavior. They used a 10-week ABCBC model. Baseline I (A) was a two-week period where teachers used their normal methods to address problem behaviors. Intervention I (B) lasted three weeks and teachers used active supervision and precorrection. Intervention II (C) was one week long and the teachers used active supervision, precorrection, and explicit timing. Teachers then returned to phase (B) for two weeks in Intervention III, followed by a reintroduction of phase (C) for two weeks in

Intervention IV. Two observers were in the classroom and recorded problem behavior in 20-second intervals for 12 minutes.

Haydon and Kroeger (2016) studied two class periods of ninth grade students in an urban, midwestern United States high school housing Grades 9-10. The block schedule consisted of 200-minute classes and each class was in a large room with 60 students who were 100% Black non-Hispanic. The teachers, who co-taught a history class and an English class, had 21 (lead teacher) and 13 (co-teacher) years of experience. They also had a student teacher. All three teachers were trained on active supervision, precorrection, and the explicit timing procedure before the study began. Throughout the study, the lead teacher performed the active supervision and explicit timing procedures. The co-teacher and the student teacher were responsible for precorrection.

During Baseline I, results showed that the average occurrence of problem behavior was 18.83. During the Intervention I (B), average occurrence dropped to 3.0. Results were stable throughout Intervention II (C), Intervention III (B), and Intervention IV (C). Haydon and Kroeger (2016) listed three limitations to the study. First, the study was completed in one classroom with the same three teachers. Second, the teachers sought out assistance for the classroom challenges they experienced. This could have increased treatment adherence data. Finally, teachers' preference led to the removal of a full withdrawal of the intervention (Baseline II), which did not allow Haydon and Kroeger to prove internal validity (Haydon & Kroeger, 2016). CW-FIT, the Good Behavior Game, managing transitions, and active supervision are all effective strategies for proactive classroom management.

CHAPTER III: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Classroom management should not be thought of as a one-size-fits-all approach. Rather, teachers of all experience levels must widen their toolbox to proactively address classroom management in a way that meets the needs of the array of students in every class. Disruptive behaviors are often a sign of an underlying matter. When the curriculum is not at the appropriate level, when students are disengaged, feel unsafe in the classroom or school, or have unmet needs, teachers see an increase in disruptive behaviors (Hepburn & Beamish, 2019; Maslow, 1943; Van Marter Souers & Hall, 2019). Student misbehavior can be categorized as low-level disruptive behavior, disengaged behavior, and aggressive and antisocial behavior (Sullivan et al., 2014).

To address student misbehaviors, teachers should take a proactive approach. Building relationships with students is the backbone of teaching and successful, proactive classroom management. Positive teacher-student relationships enhance student engagement in the classroom, thereby lessening disruptive behavior (Allen et al., 2011; Engels et al., 2016; Martin & Collie, 2019). Teachers promote classroom belonging and behavior engagement through relationships with and between students and by encouraging student participation (Keyes, 2019). Teachers should remember throughout the relationship building process that students who have experienced trauma need a predictable and consistent environment to be successful (Van Marter Souers & Hall, 2019).

By providing students with antecedent attention, teachers can reduce misbehaviors during class time and increase student engagement. Antecedent attention is an effective way to decrease latency to task behavior and increase student time spent on-task in the first 10

minutes of class (Allday et al., 2011; Allday & Pakurar, 2007). Similarly, positive greetings at the door increase academic engagement and decrease student out-of-seat behavior (Cook et al., 2018; Patterson, 2009).

Teacher verbal feedback and opportunities to respond are positively correlated with students' behavior and engagement in the classroom. Individual student praise positively impacts on-task behavior, whereas individual criticism negatively impacts on-task behavior (Swinson & Knight, 2007). Students act more consistently when they receive positive recognition for their behavior and fewer disapproving statements (Pas et al., 2015). Additionally, providing students with opportunities to respond increases academic engagement and decreases disruptive behaviors (Fitzgerald Leahy et al., 2019; Pas et al., 2015).

When it comes to discipline, building in a discipline plan as part of a proactive strategy can mitigate the negative impacts punitive measures bring to individual students and the classroom environment. Yelling and sarcasm leave students feeling more distracted from their work, less interested in school, and further removed from the school environment. These aggressive strategies increase bad behavior and do not encourage students to act responsibly (Roache & Lewis, 2011; Thompson, 2013). On the other hand, hinting, discussion, and recognition of good behavior lead to a greater sense of connectedness to the school and students feel less distracted from their work (Roache & Lewis, 2011). Similarly, a relational approach to discipline leads to fewer defiant behaviors in students and more cooperation (Gregory & Ripski, 2008). In schools with lower suspension rates, students feel supported by teachers and feel that teachers have high academic expectations of them (Gregory et al., 2011). In summary, a discipline strategy as a piece of a proactively managed classroom creates student

belonging, student responsibility, and deeper teacher-student relationships compared to reactive, aggressive discipline (Gregory & Ripski, 2008; Roache & Lewis, 2011; Zuckerman, 2007).

Involving parents in the classroom is also a piece of the proactive classroom management plan. When parents are more engaged in their students' educations, students show lower levels of disruptive behavior in the classroom, have fewer concentration problems at the end of the school year, and are more successful academically (Hill & Tyson, 2009; Smith et al., 2019).

Finally, four additional strategies show promising results for proactive classroom management. Class-Wide Function-Related Intervention Teams can increase student on-task behavior at the middle school level (Wills et al., 2019); the Good Behavior Game can reduce target behaviors (Kleinman & Saigh, 2011); when teachers more effectively manage their transitions, student academic engagement increases (Codding & Smyth, 2008); and active supervision, precorrection, and explicit timing procedure can decrease problem behavior (Haydon & Kroeger, 2016). All of these strategies can be added to the teacher toolbox for a proactively managed classroom that meets the needs of the array of students in every class.

Professional Application

Teachers across the country are experiencing burnout and leaving the profession due to concerns around classroom management (Aloe et al., 2014; Aud et al., 2011; Benham Tye & O'Brien, 2002; Emmer & Stough, 2001; Evers et al., 2004). Research shows that reactive, punitive measures create a further divide between teachers and students, do not change student misbehaviors, and have a negative impact on student learning and engagement (Cook

et al., 2018; Emmer & Stough, 2001; Marzano, 2007; Thompson, 2013). It is vital that teachers continually update their classroom management strategies to match current, evidence-based, proactive management strategies. By doing so, teachers can find the joy in teaching once more, and students will have higher rates of academic success.

Based on this research, I have outlined five goals to help guide my own classroom management plan: build relationships with each student; build relationships with parents; create a safe environment; create engaging curriculum; and create a proactive discipline plan. First, I will work to build relationships with each student. By getting to know my students, student enjoyment, participation, and academic engagement should increase, and disruptive behaviors should decrease (Engels et al., 2016; Martin & Collie, 2019). Antecedent attention through use of positive greetings at the door will be an area of focus as I build relationships. I will work to greet every student as they walk into class using their name and a personalized statement (Allday & Pakurar, 2007; Allday et al., 2011; Cook et al., 2018). Second, I will build relationships with parents. As soon as I receive my class lists, I will begin calling parents to introduce myself, welcome their student to my class, and look for ways to get parents involved throughout the school year (Hill & Tyson, 2009; Smith et al., 2019). Third, I will create a safe environment for my students. Not only will greeting each student as they enter my classroom help build relationships, but it will also help students feel safe and welcome in their environment (Van Marter Souers & Hall, 2019). Using more positive than negative verbal feedback will also help my classroom become a safe environment (Pas et al., 2015). Building the relationships between students will also create a sense of community in the classroom (Engels et al., 2016; Keyes, 2019). Fourth, I will create engaging curriculum. I will do this by connecting

the material to my students' lives, and providing students with opportunities to respond and opportunities for class discussion (Keyes, 2019). Finally, I will create a proactive discipline plan using a relational approach (Gregory & Ripski, 2008). Creating a predetermined sequence, starting at the least punitive and gradually moving to a more intrusive strategy, will help me focus on addressing the underlying cause of student misbehavior rather than addressing the behavior itself (Sullivan et al., 2014; Zuckerman, 2007).

For other teachers struggling with classroom management, research suggests first determining the underlying cause of misbehaviors (Maslow, 1943; Sullivan et al., 2014; Van Marter Souers & Hall, 2019). Does the student have an unmet need? Do they feel safe in school? Are they disengaged in class content? Once the cause is determined proactive strategies can be put in place to address misbehaviors. In general, the largest body of research for proactive classroom management focused on building positive relationships with students (Allen et al., 2011; Brinkworth et al., 2018; Engels et al., 2016; Keyes, 2019; Martin & Collie, 2019; Marzano, 2007; Solheim et al., 2018). Antecedent attention has had great success in increasing students' on-task behavior at the beginning of class (Allday & Pakurar, 2007; Allday et al., 2011). Using positive feedback is another way to increase on-task behavior (Swinson & Knight, 2007). Teachers can work to increase student engagement by providing students with more opportunities to respond (Fitzgerald Leahy et al., 2019). Lastly, Van Marter Souers and Hall (2019) said that students must feel physically and emotionally safe in order to learn. Creating an environment where students feel safe helps students engage in the learning (Maslow, 1943; Van Marter Souers & Hall, 2019).

Limitations of the Research and Implications for Future Research

This research was limited primarily in regards to the small sample sizes of many of the studies. To try to best understand how these classroom management strategies affect middle and secondary teachers in the United States, international studies were limited. However, because studies about U.S. middle and secondary education were limited, a total of eight studies which took place in either Australia, Belgium, England, or Norway were included (Engels et al., 2016; Hepburn & Beamish, 2019; Martin & Collie, 2019; Peel, 2020; Roache & Lewis, 2011; Solheim et al., 2018; Sullivan et al., 2014; Swinson & Knight, 2007).

Little research was found on parental impact on classroom management, especially at the secondary level. Future research could look into the implications of parental involvement in middle school and high school. Specifically, how parental involvement impacts student behavior in the classroom, student engagement, and teacher-student relationships. Additional research could dive deeper into parental impact on classroom management for students who have experienced trauma.

A lack of research in the area of self-regulated learning for adolescents in middle and secondary classrooms was found. Self-regulated learning as a proactive classroom management strategy encourages students to engage in the learning, thereby reducing disruptive behavior in the classroom. Schloemer and Brenan (2006) defined self-regulated learning as students taking an active role in their education through participation, self-defined learning goals, and progress monitoring. Research on self-regulated learning in elementary and university classrooms showed that self-regulated learning gave students the opportunity to take ownership of their education and effectively engaged students in the learning process (Peel, 2020; Schloemer &

Brenan, 2006). More research should be conducted on the impacts of self-regulated learning for adolescents in middle and secondary classrooms.

In addition, practical information is limited. Specific, research-based activities that engage students thus improving classroom management would be helpful for all middle and secondary classroom teachers, and this research was limited. Future research should hone in on specific activities for the various content areas aimed at improving classroom management through engagement.

Research for this paper did not focus on or discuss in detail race, gender, socioeconomic differences, language, special education, or adverse childhood experiences. Where students fall in and between each of these classes could have a different impact on the effectiveness of the various strategies listed above. It would be interesting to further explore the effectiveness of classroom management strategies for each class and determine which strategies can be used universally.

Conclusion

The purpose of this literature review was to explore the realm of classroom management strategies in middle and secondary education with hopes of helping classroom teachers identify the classroom management strategies that will improve their teaching. The guiding question was: What are the evidence-based, proactive classroom management strategies that are effective in middle and secondary classrooms? Research showed that through the use of relationship building, antecedent attention, positive teacher verbal feedback, opportunities to respond, proactive discipline, and parental involvement, teachers can increase their students' academic engagement and decrease misbehaviors.

Teachers struggling with classroom management should work to determine the underlying cause of misbehaviors. Once the cause is determined proactive strategies can be put in place to address misbehaviors. Knowledge and use of evidence-based, proactive classroom management strategies is vital to the success of a classroom. All teachers should pursue more knowledge on best practices as new research continues to support additional classroom management strategies.

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