Research-based Effective Classroom Management Techniques: A Review of the Literature

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RESEARCH-BASED EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A MASTER’S THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY
OF BETHEL UNIVERSITY

BY
ALISON A. STUEBER

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS

AUGUST 2019
RESEARCH-BASED EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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AUGUST 2019

APPROVED

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Acknowledgements

I dedicate this paper to my family who has supported me all my life; my past, current, and future colleagues who have inspired me to become the best teacher I can be; and to my students (past or present) who help remind me of why I want to be a teacher every day.
Abstract

This study examined the impact of Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports-based and evidence-based interventions to improve classroom and behavior management in schools all over the world. Additionally, this study also examined the factors and reasons why teacher burnout occurs in school communities. The studies used focused on the negative and positive outcomes of interventions, strategies and trainings for teachers and how they impacted teachers, students and other educators within a school community. Overall results showed that evidence-based supports and interventions made a positive and effective impact when used in classrooms. Results also highlighted that when teachers built positive and respectful relations with students, received enough support from administration and other educators, and received the correct and enough preparation and training to manage a successful classroom; stress levels reduced, and teacher burnout was reduced.
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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Reason for the Study

Effective classroom management is an essential teaching skill and enhances the learning of all students. There are many components to having an effective classroom system which supports increased academic learning, supports and increases social and emotional growth, and decreases negative behaviors. Classroom management not only allows for increased academic proficiency and decreased negative behaviors; it also establishes an organized and positive classroom environment. Although classroom behavior can be managed productively, this is not always true for most educators or in all schools (American Psychological Association, 2019). According to a survey conducted by the American Psychological Association (APA), chaotic classrooms are a rising issue for educators and schools because an abundance of teachers lack skills and support to effectively implement classroom management strategies and interventions. The survey results noted a significant increase in teacher mental health stress and burn out rates, (Teacher Needs Survey, 2006). It is extremely important to view classroom management strategies with a dual purpose: to prevent unwanted behaviors and as an intervention to promote positive student outcomes.

Classroom management is an on-going process where educators and schools establish and maintain rules, regulations, and consequences for negative behavior while promoting and teaching positive behaviors. Implementing classroom management strategies enhances social behaviors and increases academic engagement and achievement (Emmer & Sabornie, 2015; Everston & Weinstein, 2006).

The purpose of this paper is to explore the research and implementation of Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS) and other related-based classroom strategies and
school-wide behavior management tools. I will research the best approaches, strategies and interventions used for behavioral issues. This study also seeks to determine what behavioral supports best help all students achieve academic emotional and social success. This study will not only address classroom management, but also consider school-wide interventions based on the School-Wide PBIS (SWPBIS) program. The results of the study will provide teachers with quick, efficient, effective and positive solutions to behavioral issues that occur daily.

Considerations featured in this study include ways to build and maintain on-going relationships between educators and students, how to enhance learning and teaching methods, and tools to reduce disruptive behavior. This paper will introduce and support how positive behavior supports (PBS) and School-Wide Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (SWPBIS) implemented into daily routines encourage positive behavior success for both students and educators.

**What is Classroom Management?**

Although classroom management can be perceived in many ways, the main focus of this paper is to find the most effective sources of behavior management for students, teachers, and other educators of this topic. According to the article *Preschool Education and Primary School Pre-service Teachers’ Perceptions about Classroom Management a Metaphorical Analysis*, classroom management is considered a process of organization in which learners are also actively engaged in learning (Zondi, 1997). This article also stated that classroom management can also be an attempt for students, and teachers, to achieve educational and academic goals and serves as a process to maintain and provide the optimal learning environment and educational experience (Celep, 2002; Erdogan et al., 2003). Classroom management can be viewed as on-going organization and preparation throughout the school year. The classroom teacher evaluates the classroom set up and location of key materials and also evaluates the process. This includes
teaching students the routine and how to transition in the classroom. Teachers must understand these terms in order to monitor behavior effectively: witnessing (ability to catch a deviance before it spreads or leads to a more serious role) and overlapping (a teacher’s ability to attend more than one event at the same time). An example is when a teacher addresses behavior situations while also keeping the class in order (Vasa, Stanley, 1984). Stanley Vasa referred to the work by Jacob Kounin in 1970, as a guideline for teachers to follow to find effective ways for classroom management. Kounin noted that for classroom management to be run effectively and smoothly it needs three sub categories: Preparation for the year (rules and routines), Monitor Behaviors (witnessing and overlapping), and In-class Activities (movement, focus, transitions) (Vasa, 1984).

Another important factor in classroom management is to equally implement all sub-categories equally throughout the day or week. The categories suggested include: the creation of rules and routines, addressing the physical environment (movement, focus, and transitions) and monitoring behaviors in and out of the classroom. An environmental review analyzes the physical environment and should be addressed proactively. Teachers plan fully consider class size, lighting options, placement and organization of furniture and materials, acoustic features, and cleanliness of the environment. All of the elements are essential and effective when carried out positively and successfully (International Journal of Instruction, 2014). In addition to Akin’s and Kounin’s beliefs about classroom management, Janice Logan suggests that an effective discipline program involves students learning how to self-discipline. Students must know the behavior standards are in each classroom, and how to adjust their behavior to fit the occasion and environment (Logan, 2013).

**Importance of Classroom Management**
In addition to setting up the physical classroom environment in preparation for a new school year, teachers must consider why classroom management plays an important role in learning success. Schools need to set safe and effective goals and protocols to promote student learning. They also need to continuously implement a strong and successful disciplinary system. A rigorous behavior plan that incorporates many factors to promote and maintain classroom and school-wide behavior management starts at the beginning of the school year. Strategies and interventions that shape behavior should be positively and effectively implemented with fidelity. Effective classroom management allows teachers and educators to teach academics while also positively addressing unexpected behaviors when they arise. According to the No Child Left Behind Act, schools were mandated to use evidence-based interventions to gain the best results for those interventions (Everston, Carolyn M., Weinstein, Carol, S., 2006).

Classroom management shapes the way a class functions and is an essential tool for establishing rules and routines for behavioral and academic success outside of the classroom. When behaviors in the classroom interfere with instructional time teachers take time and energy away from all students. According to Preschool Education and Primary School Pre-service Teachers’ Perceptions about Classroom Management: A Metaphorical Analysis, “a successful classroom should motivate learning, reduce negative behavior, and improve social and behavior challenges that can lead to an effective learning and teaching environment” (Celik, 2009; Erogan et al., 2011). These strategies and interventions can help support individual and group attention to learning and improve their academic achievement (Stratton et. al., 2001). Many schools seek to find the most effective classroom management systems because once established, these systems can increase student success by creating an organized learning environment that enhances and encourages students’ academic skills, as well as advancing social, emotional and
behavioral development. Effective classroom management also emphasizes behavior and academic expectations, promotes active learning, and identifies acceptable behaviors that educators want students to achieve.

**Effectiveness of PBS and PBIS**

Throughout history, many school districts have made the move to discover effective ways to pinpoint and redirect unwanted classroom behaviors. Both Positive Behavior Supports and Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports are frameworks for preventing distracting behaviors while implementing interventions in order to redirect patterns of undesirable behavior. The Positive Behavior Support system includes a process of decision-making and problem-solving, person-centered values, strength-based goals, and evidence-based strategies and interventions (Dunlap & Fox, 2014). These supports focus on reinforcing desirable behaviors when working with students of all ages, rather than punishing the unwanted or negative behaviors. The main focus of PBS is to develop individualized interventions that help prevent the negative behaviors by using an effective educational program that offers positive interventions and supports. These supports are used in the classroom but can be used school-wide as well. PBS suggests observing the environment, circumstances, and purpose for the unwanted behavior can help replace the negative behavior when it occurs. PBS also offers suggestions like a change of environment or a modification of something in the environment can be a simple way to target and prevent those unwanted behaviors.

The Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS) program is very similar to the PBS program. PBIS is defined as an implementation framework designed to enhance academic and social behavior outcomes for all students by emphasizing the use of data to inform regarding
the selection, implementation, and progress monitoring of the evidence-based behavioral practice chosen for a particular behavior. PBIS also is a practice that organizes resources and systems to improve durable implementation fidelity (Sugai and Simonsen, 2012). PBIS is a “problem-solving” approach that 1. Places emphasis on providing a continuum of support for all students, 2. Evaluates the outcomes of behavior interventions and supports, 3. Uses data to guide decision-making that considers how to improve or sustain implementation, and when to identify additional interventions for students (or staff) who require more support for success. The data is also used to provide and monitor supports needed for students or staff to promote success for all (Simonsen & Myers, 2015). This framework consists of a three-tier continuum. Primary Preventions known as the first Tier consists of all staff members of a school and provides support to all students in all settings regardless of grade, academic skill level, or disability. Educators at this Tier One should identify, define and promote positive and safe school-wide expectations and routines for optimal learning. They should also implement strategies to recognize students who follow the rules and expectations, as well as the students who violate those expectations. The data then guides and evaluates supports for all students. Educators should also consider arranging the school and classroom environments to promote behavior that follows expectations and prevents behaviors (Simonsen & Myers, 2015). About 80-90% of students fall under this tier. Tier Two (Secondary Prevention, about 5-10% of student population) addresses specialized groups formed for students with At-Risk Behaviors and can include Title 1 or English Language services. Tier Two services can also be administered in classrooms by increasing the number of prompts used, intensifying instruction (decrease large group by making small groups, targeting specific skills), and enhancing the schedule and intensity of available reinforcements. Tertiary Prevention is the third Tier and consists of
students who have significant chronic behaviors or in a high-risk academic category are considered (1-5% of the student population). These candidates receive intensive and individualized support due to a disability or impairment (Simonsen & Myers, 2015). Students are assigned an individualized team (school psychologist, special education case manager, school counselor, general education teacher, parent, and/or student), who collaborate, evaluate, and meet to plan, conduct, and review the Individualized Education Plan (IEP) for a particular student. The student’s IEP should include an FBA (functional behavioral assessment), which is a systematic process for studying a student’s behavior. The FBA should articulate the “function” or purpose of the behavior by predicting when problem behaviors occur, describe why behaviors occur, and document what consequences (if any) reinforce the behaviors (Simonsen & Myers, 2015).

PBIS and PBS originated around the same time in the 1980s. The University of Oregon responded to a need to improve behavioral interventions for students with behavior disorders (BD). The university found, through research and evaluation, that greater attention should be directed toward behavior prevention and student outcomes, through research-based practices, data-based decision making, school-wide systems, school-wide behavior and social skills instruction, team-based implementation and professional development (Sugai & Siomonsen, 2015). PBS and PBIS strategies encouraged positive behaviors and offered effective learning outcomes in individual classrooms and throughout all learning environments in a school (Vaughn & Bos, 2012).
Classroom Management vs. School-Wide Behavior Management

Many schools face behavior issues not only inside the classrooms but throughout the entire school. If one teacher struggles with behavior issues in the classroom, so do others. Many teachers with classroom and behavior management issues struggle to prevent discipline problems. They address the behaviors directly during instructional time. School-Wide Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (SWPBIS) is a school-wide model that supports the social and behavioral development of students with and without disabilities (George, Cox, Minch, & Sandomierski, 2018) This program is also referred to as PBIS, as previously discussed. Like Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports, SWPBIS is used as a proactive approach to improve the academic and behavioral outcomes by targeting the school’s organizational and social culture (Wienen, Reijnders, Agglen, Bos, Batstra, de Jonge, 2018). Instead of targeting just one classroom, PBIS targets all school behavior by establishing clear expectations for students school-wide. PBIS tenets clearly teach and implement the expectations to all students, provide opportunities for practice, and positively reinforce desired behavior. (Wienen, Reijnders, Agglen, Bos, Batstra, de Jonge, 2018). School-wide behavior management also follows these guidelines: 1. Emphasize student expectations for behavior and learning, 2. Promote active learning and student involvement, 3. Identify important student behaviors for success. Questions to ask or consider include: What behaviors are required to reach the learning goals? What are the student roles for a particular learning activity? How will the teacher prepare students to take on these roles?
Purpose of Interventions and Strategies

On a daily basis, teachers face a tug-of-war between keeping pace with lesson planning and facing constant classroom disruptions, which result in suspensions in and out of school. It is critical that teachers, counselors, and administrators find alternative discipline methods to replace the current practice of referral, suspension, and ultimate expulsion. This literature review is written to find the best interventions and strategies to use in school-wide and classrooms in order to reduce negative behavior and reinforce positive behavior. Studies have shown that positive behavior interventions have been used in classrooms and schools here in the U.S. and worldwide. They involve early childhood, elementary, middle school and high school students and are used to help reduce student behaviors and improve academics and social skills for all students. They are also used to enhance positive behaviors, show how to re-direct negative behaviors, and improve educational outcomes (Springer Science+Business Media New York, 2015). In the past, schools handled discipline in many different ways, without knowing that what works with and individual student might not work for the whole class. Educators also focused school-wide and classroom discipline by signaling out the individual behaviors and acting upon them using punishment-based reprimands including loss of privileges, office referrals, suspensions, and expulsions (Swain-Broadwy, Pinkney & Flannery, 2015). Although these techniques may have worked in the past, many schools today still face the same behavior problems not knowing the most effective ways to manage behavior school-wide and in classrooms. Learning how to introduce, practice, model, implement into daily routines, and reinforce positive behavior strategies and interventions is essential and beneficial for both students and educators. Rewarding students for good behavior instead of punishing them for bad behavior is more effective for changing their behavior and has a better behavior outcome for
every student. Researching and implementing positive behavior supports (PBS) and school-wide positive behavior interventions and supports (SWPBIS) is beneficial to create and maintain positive relationships with students to reduce negative behaviors and create daily positive learning environments.

**Examples of Strategies and Interventions**

Historically, many strategies and interventions have been used to address specific behaviors in schools and classrooms. Many interventions have failed, leading educators and personnel to look for strategies that fulfill positive outcomes and leave a lasting positive impression. Evidence-based interventions include; Practices of acquisition, fluency, maintenance, generalization, and other skill-building exercises; A classroom layout that allows for physical movement and incorporates teacher directed strategies for individual students or for large-group settings that includes a variety of positive responses (yes/no, multiple choice question); Modes of responses (verbal, gestural, response cards, written) are important when establishing acquisition. Fluency with classroom management consists of identifying, describing, and teaching routines that are implemented strategies used to enhance the interventions. Maintenance practice includes collecting and reviewing behavior data for each student to determine whether the established routines and the physical/emotional classroom environment promote appropriate and positive behavior. Practicing generalization of behaviors management skills also includes identifying, describing, teaching, and analyzing the strategies already used in the classroom. Finding additional strategies to use when targeted strategies are unproductive is another tip for teachers to use. Lastly, modifying the arrangement of the classroom to see if behavior changes positively, along with continuing to find research-based strategies or interventions that will work with each student or classroom are other examples of skills and
behavior-building exercises (Simonsen & Myers, 2015). With motivation, effective planning and follow-through, behavior strategies and interventions can be incorporated to achieve success for positive behavior. PBIS strategies can help educators do that for all students.

**Effective Training for Teachers**

Effective behavior management for classrooms and schools is a critical for behavior and academic success. Although educators receive intense training and schooling to become licensed they may not receive enough training in behavior management. Research and surveys suggest that many teachers (general education, special education, specialist teachers) are underprepared and have inadequate skills to manage classrooms. Most teachers feel that their preparation courses did not properly or effectively prepare them for the behaviors that they face every day (Flower, McKenna & Haring, 2017). Whether in a mainstream or special education classroom, multiple behavioral issues occur daily. As a result, teachers feel overwhelmed and underprepared to handle these challenges. Research also suggests that teachers need to have a good understanding of behavioral management approaches to effectively promote academic engagement and achievement in all students (Martinussen, Tannock & Chaban, 2011).

Inadequate general and special education teacher preparation complicates positive and effective inclusion efforts and affects teacher’s abilities to handle disruptive behaviors. Some argue that special education teachers have received more training in specific strategies and behavior interventions than general education or other educators. Regardless of these studies and findings, providing teachers with tools that redirect behavior and empower students with self-control and self-regulation builds and maintains positive relationships between students and teachers. The purpose of this thesis is to provide a comprehensive review of the literature that identifies strategies for effective positive behavior intervention.
Overview and Thesis Questions

This literature review considers past and current research focusing on behaviors of children and students in schools and how to effectively handle those behaviors through the help of positive reinforcement, strategies and interventions based on specific behavior patterns. Finding new and positive ways for educators to reduce challenging behaviors in classrooms by using effective classroom management helps all students become successful, independent, and self-disciplined learners.

The following questions were reviewed: Why is classroom/behavior management important for school and student success? What are the best and most effective strategies and interventions for classroom management? How can educators and schools incorporate PBIS and RTI programs school-wide? Do educators receive enough training in behavior management? Where can they receive more training? How can parents incorporate behavior interventions and strategies successfully at home? This information will help educators, students, and parents teach, guide, scaffold, maintain, and progress with positive with positive behaviors, which in return will minimize behaviors for all students and lead to success and achievement for all students.
Chapter II: Literature Review

Importance of Classroom and Behavior Management Systems in Schools

Classroom and behavioral management strategies are found in school systems worldwide. Akin, Yildirim, and Goodwin (2016), designed a qualitative inquiry for teachers in Turkey. They intended to explore the perceptions of classroom management, problems teachers recently experienced, the causing factors and management practices the teachers chose to use. The participants consisted of fifteen elementary teachers chosen through a variation sampling which allowed a wide range of teachers and grade levels. All participants were female and included four first grade teachers, three second grade teachers, three teaching 3rd grade, and five teaching 4th grade. Total years of experience ranged between three and eighteen and the number of students in each classroom ranged from 20 to 43. All teachers disclosed they participated in a classroom management intervention course during their initial teacher preparation years (Akin et. al., 2016).

The data was gathered through an interview process that included open-ended questions about the study incorporating teacher experience with classroom management, including specific types of classroom management currently used in their classroom. Each 30-45 minute interview was audio-recorded for further review. As a result of these interviews, the participants found that enhancing or changing the physical environment, lesson plans, time management skills, teacher-student relationships, and behavior management skills produced effective connections to other students, teachers, schools, classes, curriculum, and parents. Physical environment examples included seating arrangements and classroom layout, lesson planning included finding effective and motivating activities to incorporate into lessons. Organizing materials and prepping before a lesson were examples of time management skills. Encouraging team spirit and spending time
getting to know students was cited as examples of relationship management skills. Lastly, examples of behavior management included assigned roles to students so that they had a greater chance of staying on task with rewards for good behavior.

The results of the interviews also showed positive and negative reactions towards classroom management approaches. The teachers viewed the classroom management idea as a way to positively assign roles to students that would help them develop a sense of belonging. They thought that establishing rules together, recognizing and respecting student’s needs and interests, and encouraging students to be respectful towards each other was more important than using discipline as a behavior management technique.

Prior to this study, teachers perceived and experienced behavior interventions and management as an orchestra or a game where the teacher coordinated and led the class as one harmonious unit (orchestra) or allowing freedom and happiness with the requirement of following rules at the same time (game). Other teachers perceived classroom management as “music” in terms of allowing the “music” (positive interventions) to create positive feelings in the classroom, viewing management as a tool for self-expression and communication. Some viewed classroom management as a reflection of both teacher and student point of views regarding a specific situation (Akin et al, 2016).

According to this study, sometimes effective classroom management requires the help from implementation of interventions in order to have a successful classroom. Trussell, Lewis and Raynor (2016) examined how universal teacher practices affected the disruptive behavior of general education students. The study examined the combination of functional behavioral assessment-based interventions and targeted classroom supports in the form of universal teacher practices. Participants included three teachers who volunteered from three different classrooms
at a Southwestern U.S. elementary school. These teachers were concerned about their classroom management techniques and wanted to find ways to improve so they volunteered. One student from each classroom was also chosen as a participant based on the Problem Behavior section of the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) rating. Students who participated either received more than five behavior referrals to the office or their teachers nominated these students for the study (Trussell et al., 2016).

Student A was second grader whose problem behavior was talking, blurting out loud, disagreeing with instructors or other students, and physical aggression towards others including throwing things and hitting others. These behaviors were collected from office referrals since he received no special education services. Student B, a third grade was a student with a learning disability. His behaviors consisted of talking out of turn, using a disrespectful tone of voice and yelling when frustrated, physical aggression towards others. The physical aggression involved throwing things and pushing others. Student B received pull out services for reading. Student C was a fourth grade student who did not receive special education services and displayed behaviors like talking with peers and playing with objects during lessons, refused to follow directions, cried and hid from adults and peers to avoid assignments, and often used inappropriate language (Trussell et al., 2016).

This study was consumed with a baseline design to examine the universal and FBA-based interventions throughout two time periods in three classrooms with chosen students. Initial data collection included identification of participants, incorporating the FBA (functional behavior assessment) for the student who received alternative services, assessment and identification of classroom universal norms, and creating effective universal classroom interventions. Examples of universal teacher practices included in this study consisted of
teachers incorporating instructional talk, wait time for student responses, offering prompts to the whole class or individual students, and increasing positive feedback responses. The FBA was created to identify a trend between the behavior, antecedent, and consequent conditions and to find the function of the behavior. The data was used to identify when the target behavior usually occurred. Teacher interviews and observations were conducted in order to identify the problem behavior and collect data through assessments that identified antecedent conditions and consequences related to the target behavior (Trussell et al., 2016).

The categories for the baseline data were calculated by the number of teacher prompts per minute, average seconds of wait time after a verbal prompt, percentage of time the teacher was engaged during instruction time, and percentage of positive vs. negative feedback from the teacher. Pre-intervention data results concluded that the instructional practices were below standards for student A’s teacher, in the areas of prompts, instructional talk, and ratio of positive to negative feedback. The teacher for Student B also received scores below standard form in the same categories. The 3rd pre-intervention teacher received scores below standard form in the areas of wait time, instructional talk, and positive/negative feedback. After all three teachers completed the training and conducted interventions with each of their students they all succeeded in embedding effective interventions into their behavior management routines (Trussell et al., 2016).

The results of the FBA-based interventions tested with all three students consisted of observation data that proved targeted interventions actually decreased the problem behaviors by 50% for all three students combined. Results also showed positive effects for all three students when classroom and individual FBA-based were combined. After the interventions were introduced, two out of the three students showed an immediate decrease in negative behavior.
Universal teaching practices were used to create opportunities for students to learn in an environment that promoted positive teacher attention and reduced problem behaviors for all students. The authors also found that problem behaviors declined when interventions balanced the length of instruction with higher rates of response time, and included positive attention for all students. Although these interventions were effective with attention-seeking students, there was no evidence to indicate the interventions would work for students identified as escape-motivated. This is one limitation that arose in this study (Trussell et al., 2016).

Other limitations included two of the three students’ behaviors that were provoked by needing or wanting attention and therefore that construed the results of the intervention since the intervention failed to help students with escaped-motivated behaviors. This limitation showed the authors that there was a need to promote this study again in more than three classrooms with students who only experienced the escape-mode tension during the school day to compare those results with the attention seeking students’ results. The final limitation of this study was the small sample size, which limited the ability to generalize the data to a larger population. In order to produce accurate results for a larger group, this study would have to be repeated many times (Trussell et al., 2016).

**Exploring Effective Behavior and Classroom Management Interventions and Strategies**

Sanetti, Williamson, Long, and Kratochwill (2018) examined teacher’s implementation, planning, and model for behavior interventions and evaluated the effectiveness of evidence-based interventions. This study found that even though evidence-based classroom management strategies were noted, research showed that many teachers implemented those interventions with little to no fidelity.
The participants were three general education teachers from two different suburban public elementary schools. Two of the teachers taught at one school that serviced over 350 students, preschool through fifth grade. The second school held 551 preschool through fifth grade students. Both school districts practiced School-wide Positive Behavior Interventions and Strategies (SWPBIS). The instruments included tools to develop and evaluate teachers’ CMPs (classroom management plans), and also instruments to measure dependent variables. Classroom management surveys, observations of teacher classroom management behaviors, and a Usage Rating Profile-Intervention Revised (URP-IR) were developed and evaluated behavior management. The dependent variables included implementation fidelity and students’ disruptive behavior data. Implementation fidelity data was collected through observations of implementation adherence and quality of CMPs (Sanetti et al., 2018).

The results of this study concluded that implementation planning of evaluations and the participation model of CMP improved teacher adherence and quality. The adherence and quality for disruptive behavior changes and additional support also improved. Before the teachers attended training for CMP, the effects of implementation planning were measured. The first teacher showed a decrease in planning. The second teacher showed significant variability, and the third teacher showed a decrease in planning but a high variability balance. Following implementation planning, the first and second teachers increased to a moderate level of adherence and the third teacher produced a high level of adherence when implementing interventions in her classroom. According to this study the first and second teachers reached a variable quality of CMP implementation prior to the training; however the third teacher’s quality was found at a low level. After the implementation planning, all the teachers showed a change in
quality and variability which resulted in a high increase in quality and a decrease in variability (Sanetti et al., 2018).

Effective changes were made to the adherence and quality of this study with the participants involved. Both the first and second teachers received participant modeling, and they demonstrated moderate to high levels of adherence as a result. The third teacher did not receive this modeling, therefore could not produce any results for this section. The study showed that both teachers decreased adherence within the first and second month follow-up period, prior to the participant modeling. The third teacher’s adherence could still be considered adequate during the follow-up phase, even though she did not receive the participant modeling (Sanetti et al., 2018).

The results of this study found changes in disruptive behavior of students who participated. As the teacher’s adherence and quality of implementation positively increased, so did the students’ behaviors. Before the implementation training was introduced to teachers, students’ behaviors remained at a high level for the first and second teacher, but at a low rate for the third teacher. After the implementation training, all the teachers’ CMP implementation levels increased, resulting in decreased disruptive behavior for all three teachers. They also showed that effective implementation of interventions needs consistency and that teachers require different levels of support. Results also determined that interventions could be effective for some teachers, even if they were delivered in less time, if they contained intense resource implementation supports. Results showed that teachers need support in a variety of classroom management techniques including baseline knowledge, implementations, and classroom management strategies. Lastly, this study concluded that professionals in education need to know how to effectively deliver implementation intervention supports, have resources readily available,
collect adherence and qualifying data to obtain improved student behavioral outcomes (Sanetti et al., 2018).

Thompson & Webber (2010) implemented an intervention aimed to close the gap between student and teacher preparation of school rules and improve student behavior. The study introduced a data-informed intervention study to help improve school rules and behavior strategies. The participants involved in this study were ten middle school students and their teachers. These students received special education services. This study included a cognitive behavioral intervention known as the Student and Teacher Agreement Realignment Strategy (STARS) (Thompson, 2010). This strategy provided teachers and other educators other forms of effective discipline intended to decrease behavioral office visits, and improve teacher-student relationships while decreasing teacher frustration. This increased instructional time, by eliminating the need to redirect behavior. Data collected from the 10 students evaluated the STARS effectiveness. The students who had Individual Education Plans (IEPs) were placed in an alternative setting but could transition into a less restrictive setting once they achieved 90% appropriate behavior responses for the period of time (Thompson & Webber, 2010).

The STARS intervention procedures incorporated five behavior rules and examples for teachers and educators to use in classrooms and throughout the school. Rules such as: 1. Do your work, 2. Keep your body to self, 3. Consideration of others, 4. Follow directions, and 5. Be on time in assigned areas. Data collection included a “yes or no” response to the five behavior norms as recorded by the teacher. This intervention lasted 36 weeks; the first 18 weeks contained baseline data-collection measures and the next 18 weeks incorporated the intervention (Thompson, 2010).
The study results concluded that all ten students demonstrated appropriate behavior after STARS was introduced. Students also showed more appropriate behavior during the baseline phase than during the intervention phase. Other positive outcomes included increased instructional time, improved student teacher relationships, and reduced student office referrals. Despite the improved results however, this study had limitations. Data was taken from a convenience sample vs. a non-random selection of participants. Finally, the authors stated they didn’t test teacher observations reliably before introducing the intervention and therefore may have lost important data. They stated it was very important to collect follow-up data after an intervention to establish long-term effects. This study’s data was not collected because of the student’s alternative academic setting. The STARS intervention program allowed for reduced instructional time and effort, and provided data to help with easier decision making. This intervention was individualized and compatible with SWPBIS (School-Wide Positive Behavior Intervention and Strategies), also used to monitor and reduce disruptive behavior (Thompson & Webber, 2010) (Rubin & Babbie, 2001; Schochet, 2005).

Some interventions use other supports like Positive Behavior Support (PBS) or Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS) to assist in distributing effective behavioral interventions. Trussell, Lewis and Raynor (2016) examined how universal teacher practices affected the disruptive behavior of general education students. The study examined the combination of functional behavioral assessment-based interventions and targeted classroom supports in the form of universal teacher practices. Participants included three teachers who volunteered from three different classrooms at a Southwestern U.S. elementary school. These teachers volunteered because they were concerned about their classroom management techniques and wanted to find ways to improve. One student from each classroom was also chosen as a
participant based on the Problem Behavior section of the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) rating. Students who participated either received more than five behavior referrals to the office or their teachers nominated them for the study (Gresham & Elliot, 1990).

Student A was a second grader whose problem behavior was talking, blurting out, disagreeing with instructors or peers, and physical aggression towards others including throwing things and hitting. Behavior data was collected from office referrals since Student A received no special education services. Student B was a third grade student with a learning disability. His behaviors consisted of talking out of turn, using a disrespectful tone of voice, yelling when frustrated, and physical aggression towards others. The physical aggression involved throwing things and pushing others. Student B received pull-out remediation for reading. Student C was a fourth grade student who did not receive special education services and displayed behaviors including talking with peers and playing with objects during lessons, refusing to follow directions, crying and hiding from adults and peers to avoid assignments, and often using inappropriate language (Gresham & Elliot, 1990).

This study was constructed with a baseline design that examined the universal and FBA-based interventions used throughout two time periods in three classrooms with chosen students. Initial data collection included identification of participants, incorporating the FBA (functional behavior assessment) for the student who received alternative services, assessment and identification of classroom universal norms, and creating effective universal classroom interventions. Examples of universal teacher practices included in this study consisted of teachers incorporating instructional talk, wait-time for student responses, offering prompts to the whole class or individual students, and increasing positive feedback responses. The FBA was created to identify a trend between the antecedent, behavior, and consequent conditions and to
find the function of the behavior. The data identified when the target behavior usually occurred. Teacher interviews and observations helped identify the problem behavior with data collected data via assessments that identified antecedent conditions and consequences related to the target behavior (Thompson & Webber, 2010).

The baseline data was calculated based on the number of teacher prompts per minute, average seconds of wait time after a verbal prompt, percentage of time the teacher was engaged during instruction, and percentage of positive vs. negative teacher feedback. Pre-intervention data results concluded that the instructional practices were below standards for student A’s teacher, in the areas of prompts, instructional talk, and ratio of positive to negative feedback. The teacher for Student B also received scores below standards in the same areas. The 3rd pre-intervention teacher received scores below standard form in the areas of wait time, instructional talk, and positive/negative feedback. Following all teacher training and interventions with each of the students they all teachers succeeded in embedding effective interventions into their behavior management routines (Thompson & Webber, 2010).

The results of the FBA-based interventions proved that targeted interventions actually decreased the problem behaviors by 50% for all three students combined. Results also showed positive effects for all three students when classroom and individual FBA-based were combined. After the interventions were introduced, two out of the three students showed an immediate decrease in negative behavior. Universal teaching practices were created opportunities for students to learn in environments that promoted positive teacher attention and reduced problem behaviors for all students (Filter & Horner, 2009; In-gram, Lewis-Palmer, & Sugai, 2005). The authors also found that problem behaviors declined when interventions balanced the length of instruction with grater rates of response time, and included positive attention for all students.
Although these interventions effectively addressed attention-seeking students, there was no evidence to indicate the interventions would work for students identified as escape-motivated.

Teachers in this study used interventions related to PBS in order to help prevent negative student behaviors. Susan M. Bruce et al. studied whether Positive Behavior Supports (PBS) and cognitive behavior strategies prevented unwanted behaviors in deaf-blind young adults. The PBS program offers a scientific and behavioral analytic approach for students facing behavioral problems or students diagnosed with a disability who might struggle with learning and mastering daily academic or behavioral/social skills (Hartshorne & Schmittel, 2016). The PBS method uses proactive strategies and works to understand and improve unacceptable behavior (Lucyshyn, Dunlap, & Freeman, 2015), (Haney et al., 2015). PBS also focuses on the change and improvement of the students’ physical environment, interaction between students and teachers, student behavior reactions, and whether replacement or re-direction of behaviors was effectively taught (Bambara & Kunsch, 2015). Cognitive behavior therapy focused on replacing maladaptive with constructive thinking and behaviors. Previous research proved that cognitive behavior therapy intervention supported a change in student negative or behavioral thoughts, that resulted in increased positive student behaviors. Cognitive behavior therapy also treats anxiety and obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) and teaches students to use positive strategies and coping skills to use whenever they feel symptoms of anxiety arise (Bruce et al., 2018).

Four students diagnosed with CHARGE syndrome participated in this study. CHARGE is an abbreviation for the symptoms common with the disorder including coloboma, heart defects, atresia choanae, growth retardation, genital abnormalities, and ear abnormalities. Individuals diagnosed with this syndrome may be hearing impaired, blind or both. The participants’ ages ranged from 18 to 22 years and three out of four experienced moderate developmental delays.
while the fourth experienced severe development delays. Due to the extremes of this syndrome and compared with deaf/blind students without CHARGE syndrome, most of these individuals experienced higher levels of anxiety and may have portrayed more characteristics related to autism (Davenport & Hefner, 2011) with severe impulsive, aggressive, and compulsive behaviors directed at themselves or others leading to serious challenges or problems (Hartshorne, 2011). Additional characteristic include extreme shifts in behavior, an over-abundance of sensory frustration, communication barriers, and inappropriate behaviors that stem from low self-esteem and high social anxiety. A group of three special education teachers, four teacher assistants, a deaf/blind teacher liaison, and a developmental specialist trained for effectively implementing PBS and cognitive behavior therapy also participated in this study (Bruce et al., 2018).

The authors combined action-research and theory-analysis case studies to create this particular study (Glaser & Strauss, 2010). The primary intervention incorporated PBS and cognitive behavior therapy strategies to support the CHARGE participants. The purpose of the intervention focused on three areas including environmental arrangement and engineering, sensory needs, and adult use of language. Examples of PBS strategies included use of consequences, identifying the main purpose of each behavior, and wait time between the behavior and redirection, or reinforcement. Cognitive behavior therapy examples included the use of social stories, role-playing situations, positive praise and reinforcements, and cognitive restructuring (teaching individuals how to make the best decisions, how to recognize symptoms when they occur, redirecting problem behavior, and teaching calming techniques). The teachers collected data using video observations, teacher and teacher assistant recorded notes, behavior charts, and positive behavior profiles (Bruce et al., 2018).
Results were calculated from the data gathered by the teachers in this study. The data was categorized into eight groups: 1. Provide Structure, 2. Establish and Maintain a Positive Climate, 3. Address Students’ Sensory Needs, 4. Support On-Task Behavior, 5. Support Transitions Between Activities and Environments, 6. Support Mature Behavior, 7. Support Students in Coping with Anxiety, and 8. Adult Language Supports. The authors showed that proactive and reactive strategies need to be separated and individualized based on the situation. They also showed that to effectively instill behavior supports and techniques for student success, the observers and leaders need to know each participant including the students’ triggers, fears, likes/dislikes, way of doing things, communication skills and coping techniques. The main limitation of this study concluded that the student sample size was too small and that three out of the four students were male. Another limitation illustrated that the teachers in charge of implementing the intervention had difficulty identifying whether the behaviors were caused by more by cognitive matter or by the behavior itself (Bruce et al., 2018).

Combining evidence-based and PBIS to create an effective intervention and implement in a classroom is what schools strive for to improve intervention implementation. Regina Oliver, Matthew Lambert, and Alex Mason sought to find an effective management program that improved school climate by considering the classroom management strategies and teacher implementation. The chosen schools implemented a Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support and Interventions (SWPBIS) system. In relevance to this study, the SWPBIS program was used as a tool to promote positive student behaviors while preventing and reducing student problem behaviors classroom and school wide (Carr et al., Lewis & Sugai, 1999).

Twenty elementary teachers and 80 randomly selected K-5 elementary students from two schools participated in the study in a Midwestern state. The twenty teachers split into a treatment
or control group. Treatment group teachers received training and coaching from the SWPBIS program using mastered procedures. Treatment group teachers received training throughout the school year, whereas teachers in the controlled group did not receive training, coaching or feedback. Both groups were observed in the same way as to not form bias. Teachers in this study were also observed and evaluated for the effectiveness of classroom atmosphere and fidelity of classroom management practices. Classroom atmosphere was assessed using the Classroom Atmosphere Rating Scale (CARS) that rated student academic and social success in five categories: 1. Structural Characteristics, 2. Instructional Behaviors, 3. Classroom Management Strategies, 4. Aggregate Personal and Behavioral Characteristics within the classroom (Wehby et al., 1993). Fidelity data was collected in three ways. 1. Direct observation and the use of a model fidelity form rated teacher fidelity 2. Direct observation of teachers using proactive and corrective prompt assessed teacher general/specific/effective praise, as well as blended proactive and corrective teaching and guided self-correction. 3. Implementation of the SWPBIS program. Social validity was also measured through teacher ratings of overall support, ease of intervention implementation including time, and teacher perception of positive intervention effects (Oliver et al., 2017).

Teachers in the treatment group used more positive and praise statements resulting in higher scores on the CARS compared to the teachers in the control group who had higher quality interactions that included gaining student attention, providing consistent praise, and giving appropriate consequences at the right time. Fidelity data included proactive strategies, praise strategies, praise to correlation ratio, student on-task rates, relationship building, physical environment, and behavior compliance. Seventy-eight percent of all teachers met the social
validity benchmark requirements; however, the treatment group received the highest rating (Oliver et al., 2017).

Teacher’s perceptions of interventions play a role in behavior management. Stephen Elliot (2017) conducted a study on the *Acceptability of Behavioral Interventions in Schools*. This study used the Intervention Rating Profile (IRP) made by Joe Witt and Brian Martens. The IRP process was created to show how a teacher’s perception of behavioral interventions aligned with their thinking about the current problem or situation. Intervention factors included appropriateness, general acceptance, risks, implementation time, the negative effects of students on the periphery, and the skills needed to implement the intervention. The participants in this study included a large quantity of student teachers whose job was to implement six classroom interventions. The implementation time of each intervention played a big role in this study and included four sub-categories of the IRP. Those categories included General Acceptability, Time, Other Students, and Skills. All information in this study was concluded in another study made by Montrose Wolf, who believed that validity mixed with interventions was needed in society, especially in schools. He created three levels in order to implement this including social procedures, social appropriateness of procedures, and the social importance of the interventions effectiveness. Wolf also thought of two questions related to this study: “Do the ends justify the means?” and “Do participants, caregivers, and other consumers consider the treatment process acceptable?” These questions were the result in Witt and Martens additional study (Elliot, 2017).

The results illustrated the complexity of the study. The acceptability of the interventions that were positive, reinforcing, and low time-consuming were liked more by the participants than interventions that were negative, punishing, and took longer. These results influenced the study and caused some limitations. The participants in fact, were not licensed teachers or educators,
and the IRP that they used was not an evidence-based assessment that supported the reliability and validity of inferences. Besides the limitations in this study, the researchers found a way to refine their research and as a result changed their original IRP of 20 items to 15 items to improve the reliability without changing the structure or the focus of the study. The author concluded that the acceptability of interventions used really matters. Stephan Elliot also concluded that many professionals today use socially important interventions that include subjective measurement. He noted a continued to find more experimental research that links background information to acceptability to determine the relationships between interventions and their fidelity (Elliot, 2017).

**The Use of Evidence-Based Interventions**

Most teachers and schools choose to implement documented evidence-based interventions. Hoover, Sapere, Lang, Nadeem, Dean, and Vona (2018) studied the implementation and outcomes of evidence-based trauma intervention known as *Cognitive Behavioral Intervention for Trauma in Schools (CBITS)*. The participants included teams of two to six school-based clinicians who received nine-month training for CBITS. Twenty clinicians participated, although only 14 out of 20 (70%) received CBITS training in their school districts. The teams attended a two-day clinical training and participated in clinical consultation calls with a CBITS trainer every two weeks. During these calls, participants received verbal and written feedback. They were required to attend three different follow-up learning sessions for continued training and to receive support from experts. The learning sessions included a review of interventions and skills needed for classroom implementation, and a review of practice and instructional help for advanced clinical topics. The clinical topics included group management techniques, self-care for staff, traumatic incidents/grief, and immigrant/refugee needs. The
clinicians were also trained to administer standardized tests with students before and after the CBITS interventions were implemented (Hoover et al., 2018).

The clinicians screened children chosen from current caseloads, and referred from teachers and office staff, with classroom teacher consent. Parents consented for their child to participate in the study services. Each participant had at least one trauma exposure on the Trauma Exposure Checklist (TEC; Singer, Anglin, Song, & Lunghofer, 1995) and score of 14+ on the Child PTSD Symptoms Scale (CPSS; Foa, Johnson, Feeny, & Treadwell, 2001). Following the screening process, 350 children were eligible to receive screening for CBITS criteria from 20 clinicians within five different provider groups. After the groups of children were chosen, the clinicians met with them individually to be placed into 73 CBITS groups using screening scores as baseline measures. The study results showed that 20 clinicians split the 73 groups with 3.6 groups per clinician. Of the 350 students who were screened, 316 of them completed each intervention successfully (Proctor and Colleagues, 2013; Hoover et al., 2018).

This study described and implemented a successful evidence-based intervention for children with mental health trauma and impairments. The clinicians were trained to model and implement the interventions with children in the CBITS groups. Throughout and following the study, students showed large improvements in managing their PTSD symptoms related to lashing out. Improvements were also shown in the areas of unwanted and negative behaviors. Although many schools and programs focus on trauma-informed approaches through teacher professional development training, offering school-based treatment services for trauma-exposed students proved worthy. This study proved that direct interventions effectively helped students who suffered from trauma based conditions. It also supported recent CBITS interventions performed in other studies which verified that the clinicians in the current study were more likely to use the
same evidence-based interventions based on the high level of positive results and improvement of unwanted behaviors (Hoover et al., 2018).

Before implementation of this intervention, teachers often felt they were not adequately trained to positively address disruptive behaviors and often used punishment-based interventions for managing those behaviors (Henington & Skinner, 1998; Marvel et al., 2006). The use of two online behavioral interventions were used in this study to decrease the disruptive behavior occurrences (McHugh, 2016). Anne Lipscomb, Megan Anderson, and Daniel Gadke (2018) created a study using two different types of interventions. Tootling is a class-wide intervention developed by Skinner et al. (2000). During this intervention, students made reports about their peers’ positive social behaviors. If they saw a peer opening a door for someone, giving positive comments, helping someone out, etc. they wrote the positive situation on a card and turned it in to their teacher. The teacher read the “Tootles” (positive messages) to the class to encourage positive feedback and provide reinforcement as a model for all the students to follow. Individual and group goals were set based on the “Tootles” as well. The other intervention in this study, called ClassDojo consisted of a free online/phone app behavior management tool. This program allows teachers to track and manage student’s negative behavior in class and provides immediate feedback. Teachers add points to each student’s account when the students’ are on-task and following directions, or take points away when the students show negative behavior. Data collected for each student is graphed and formed into a pie chart to easily share with anyone else who has a ClassDojo account. This can also be printed out for those who don’t have access to an account (Cihak et al., 2009; Maclean-Blevins and Mulienburg, 2013).

The participants in this study included a group of seven high school students taking post-secondary classes at a university in Southeast United States. They were all male students
represented by African-American, Bi-racial, and Caucasian backgrounds with an age range from 19 to 24. All of the participants participated in a Comprehensive Transition Program (CTP), a full-immersion experience for adults with disabilities at the university. Each was diagnosed with some form of disability consisting of autism spectrum disorder, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, chromosomal abnormalities, obsessive compulsive disorder, and Pierre Robin syndrome. This program offered courses to the students in the areas of life skills, including budgeting and paying for things, social skills, how to fill out applications and interview tips, when applicable, community access, how to deal with relationships, and other self-selected college credit courses (Lipscomb et al., 2018).

Records of disruptive behavior were collected whenever one of the students spoke inappropriately or became off-task and distracted the others. Data was collected in all student courses three times a week. When these behaviors occurred, the course instructors were instructed to continue their teaching and utilize their classroom management routines. The recorded behaviors were used as data for the study. Part of the study consisted of collecting data for ClassDojo performed alone, in which the instructors informed the students of the rules and routines of classes and that they would be rewarded points for appropriate behavior. At the end of each class period, the scores were totaled for students individually and if they met their group goal, an incentive was given to the whole class. Some of the days the instructors used ClassDojo along with the Tootling intervention. They started the class reviewing the rules and routines and told the students to pay close attention to their peers’ appropriate behaviors along with paying attention to the subject being taught. The students were allowed to “Tootle” (write messages about their peers’ positive behaviors) at the end of class. Results were displayed for both the Tootling and ClassDojo interventions for all to see and rewards were given if the class reached
their goal score (Lipscomb et al., 2018; Cihak et al., 2009; Maclean-Blevins and Mulienburg, 2013).

The results of this study supported evidence that both intervention ideas were effective based on baseline data and controlled conditions. For individual participant data, ClassDojo made a positive effect on six of the seven students whereas Tootling and ClassDojo together only affected four out of the seven students. These results affected the overall group scores. The results of this study also proved that ClassDojo without Tootling had a better effect on the students than it did with the combined interventions. Results for the Tootling alone, as stated earlier in this study, showed an effective reduction in unwanted behavior for the whole class for students with or without disabilities, as well as a reduction in individual disruptive behavior. Lastly, the results for the ClassDojo tool demonstrated an increase of positive behavior and proved very effective in reducing disruptive behavior. Researchers also found that there were increases in behavior-specific praises towards the students from teachers within all classrooms involved in that specific study (Lipscomb et al., 2018).

Not only do schools implement evidence-based interventions, they also look for the most cost-effective interventions as well. Kaff, Zabel, and Milham’s (2007) asked a large group of special education teachers to consider using behavior management approaches discovered in a previous study (F.H. Wood, 1991). Wood’s earlier study consisted of collecting data on general educators’ techniques and strategies towards behavior management, especially towards students diagnosed with emotional and behavior disorders. The current study similar to Wood’s earlier study, was extended by adding more participants. The participants added included special education teachers selected from the Kansas State Board of Education Records. These special education teachers were asked similar questions as previous participants and the authors thought
it was important to include special education teachers in this current study. They wanted their views on the intensity and effectiveness of behavior management methods and techniques, since special educators likely had more training and experience than general educators. The current study considered special education teacher’s perceptions of general education teacher’s behavior management approaches in order to discover new and more effective approaches that might be more successful (Kaff et al., 2007).

The authors mailed 400 questionnaires to special education teachers in the state of Kansas; however, they only received 211 completed questionnaires. Although this group was smaller than expected, it was large enough to represent the special education teacher population within the state and perform an effective analysis. The questionnaire consisted of two sections and was developed to acquire communication and behavior management strategies from the special education teachers selected. The categories incorporated in the questionnaire were: (a) demographic information about the teachers including their age, gender, level of education, certification level, and years of experience in general or special education (b) how often they used a representative sample of behavior management, including information about the level of labor intensity required to perform the strategy, its effectiveness, and how likely it was: that the strategy would get used by general educators (Kaff et al., 2007).

The results of the questionnaire indicated that 23% of the teachers taught in an inclusive setting, 44% worked in a resource room, 33% worked in self-contained rooms, and 0.5% worked in an “other” setting. Of the participants, 16% worked in an elementary education setting with Kindergarten through 3rd grade, 27% taught at an intermediate level (grades 4-6), 24% worked at the middle school level, and 30% served high school students. It was noted that 51% taught students with learning disabilities (LD), 27% worked with students diagnosed with EBD
(Emotional Behavior Disorder), 18% taught students with mental impairments, and lastly 3% of
the participants taught students diagnosed in other classification categories. Demographic
information about the participants included age range from 21-62 years, 90% female/10% male,
and 96% were Caucasian. Information considering teachers levels of education showed that 28%
had a BA or BS, 66% had a MA or MS degree, 4% had an EdS, and 2% had an EdD or PhD. The
years taught in general education or special education ranged from 0-28 years in general
education and 0.5-33 years for special education (Kaff et al., 2007).

Results of this study also concluded that special educators often refer to or use cost-
effective and the least intensive behavior approaches focused on positively redirecting behavior,
setting students up for success in the beginning, or rewarding students for good behavior.
Examples of these include effectively establishing classroom rules and routines, informing and
reminding of expectations, modeling appropriate behavior, providing effective feedback to
students, accommodating for students who need accommodations or modifications with
curriculum or assignments, verbally encouraging and praising appropriate behaviors, and using
gestures/signals or proximity control when needed. Indication that elementary teachers primarily
used the five classroom management categories (physical environment, behavior management,
relationship management, time management, and planning lessons/activities) to establish and
maintain effective class and school behavior management also occurred as results of this study
(Kaff et al., 2007). Lastly, researchers suggested that teachers need to receive the knowledge and
skills to teach well from experienced teachers in order to provide the best practices to students
with emotional or behavioral disorders (Cochran-Smith & Lyle, 1999; Lewis, Hudson, Richter,
and Johnson, 2004).
Evidence-based interventions can be used regardless of education level and experience of educators according this next study. Taylor Hicks, Jeffery Shahidullah, John Carlson, and Mohammed Palejwala (2014) conducted a study that consisted of questioning a group of school psychologists regarding the effectiveness of Evidence-Based Interventions (EBIs). EBIs are defined as preventative intervention approaches for behavior management. Questions generated during this study included the determining type of training and education school psychologists received, if they were familiar with or trained in EBIs, how familiar school psychologists were with EBIs, how frequently they used or reported EBI incidents, whether psychologists who received the correct amount of EBI training had more familiarity towards EBIs, finding the most serious barriers of EBI implementation, and how differences in training programs and/or different universities relate to the school psychologists group (Nationally School Psychologists – NCSP) perceptions of EBI implementation barriers (Forman et al., 2013; Hicks et al., 2014).

In the beginning of the study, 404 participants were asked to complete a survey that yielded 392 participants. The 392 participants received and demonstrated knowledge, implementation and training of national academic standards, and attended professional development trainings when renewing their NCSP status. The survey given consisted of 41 questions where the first section asked about each participant’s background and caseload information. The second part of the survey listed each participant’s level of training in a graduate program and training in behavioral EBIs. Some of the questions examples asked about participation in a course on behavioral EBI training, or implementation of EBIs, and whether or not their training in EBI was adequate enough to be included in lessons and routines. Fourteen interventions programs by Promising Practices Network (PPN) were included in the third section of the survey. The PPN focused on evaluation criteria that involved a sample size of more than
30 participants where the results of the study showed substantial effect size for a targeted outcome (Hicks et al., 2014).

Results of the training in Behavioral EBIs indicated that 54% of NCSP participants were required to take a course on behavioral EBI implementation at the university level. Three-fourths of the participants stated that their graduate program training in EBIs was inadequate with no significant difference noted between non-doctoral and doctoral level practitioners. The aim of the study investigated members of the NCSP’s educational training, knowledge, and effective use of behavioral EBIs as well as accompanying the barriers. A high percentage of participants stated that their graduate level of training in EBIs was inadequate; however those that received accredited or approved training were more likely to rate their training as adequate compared to participants who did not (Hicks et al., 2014).

Factors Supporting Behavior Intervention for all Student Populations

Interventions do not only have to be used for students with severe behavior or disabilities, they can also be used for other students like those who are gifted and talented. The authors, Sabanci and Bulut (2018), wanted to gather opinions of teachers related to recognition and behavior management of students in Turkey, Czech Republic, Italy and Germany. Primary school teachers located in these countries were the participants in this study; 77 teachers from Turkey, 71 from Czech Republic, 50 teachers from Italy, and 50 from Germany. This study was a remake of a European project called “Strategies for teachers of talented and gifted children. The authors gathered data through a questionnaire given to the teachers who worked with mainstreamed elementary students, such as the gifted and talented, who showed advanced levels of academic and artistic capabilities (Sabanci et al., 2018; Tortop, 2015).
The first part of the survey offered questions that related to personal information and the demographics of the students in each setting. The categories of questions in the first part of the survey included Age/gender/grade level of students, number of students in individual and group evaluations, choosing appropriate learning and teaching methods, supporting positive behavior, and communicating/collaborating effectively. Some of the methods for teacher’s efforts to change the unwanted behavior included implementing different teaching methods and techniques, arranging an effective learning environment to motivate students, setting rules with the students, effective communication with students, parents and other professionals, and individual and group evaluations. Finally, the categories for the distribution of social practices included doing group activities, respecting individual needs/feelings/preferences, using interactive learning in lessons, and enhancing collaboration with other professionals (Sabanci et al., 2018).

The results showed that the teachers in this study preferred the practices and interventions such as identifying and using multiple teaching methods, identifying student interests, talents and intelligence levels by collaborating and engaging with other professionals/parents, and preparing lessons/activities with student’s interest, talents, and needs in mind. Comparing country to country in this survey’s results, teachers in the Germany and Czech Republic were most involved in practices that involved collaborating with professionals and parents. Teachers in Italy and Turkey were most involved in using different techniques and methods. Ultimately, this study showed that the participating teachers found that stimulating educational activities, effective communication and building relationships/bonding with students were the most important factors in creating and maintaining effective behavior management (Sabanci et al., 2018).
Some interventions focus on behavior management and the aggressive actions students portray, bullying for example. This study introduces an intervention to help maintain and prevent cyber and traditional bullying. Diana Mindrila, Lori Moore, and Pamela Davis (connected a study looking at the relationship between school bullying, cyber-victimizing, and other psychosocial-victimization circumstances. According to this study, cyber-bullying is a form of victimization and can occur through email, cell phone calling or texting, through other technologized/online messages sent from peer to peer when adult access and presence is limited. Cyber bullying is more difficult to identify than bullying that’s done face-to-face. Effective behavior management tool incorporated in this study showed the reduction of both cyber-bullying and traditional face-to-face bullying.

The participants in this study were chosen from the U.S. National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS). The two organizations used a sample of the National Crime Victimization Survey called the School Crime Supplement (SCS, 2011). Out of 5,857 participants, in the 12 to 18 year age range, 498 students (average age of 15 years) who had at least one cyber-bullying incident where they were the victim, were chosen. The survey measured topics such as: the effectiveness of behavior management in school, victims of traditional bullying or cyber-bullying, level of experienced fear, level of learned avoidance, if the students have friends at school, number of documented school fights or possession of a weapon on school grounds (Mindrilla et al., 2019).

Results of the survey indicated that when school had an effective behavior management program in place, traditional and cyber bullying were reduced. Prior research of these findings showed that traditional bullying was precursor to cyber-bullying in most cases. The strongest relationship factor between traditional and cyber-bullying followed by cyber-victimization and
avoidance. It is interesting to note that the cyber-bullying took place online and the avoidance factor was caused by school-related activities that physically occurred on or off school grounds. Other relations included conflicts between cyber-bullying and psychosocial consequences, being fearful and/or having a limited number of friends. Findings of this study concluded that higher levels of experienced avoidance led higher levels of fearful thoughts. This study also concluded students, who are victims of traditional bullying, are also likely to be victims of cyber-bullying and may show more avoidant behaviors than other students. Targeted interventions used in schools focused on cyber and traditional bullying might have a greater impact for sufferers and victims and could eventually lead to improved behavior management, preventing both cyber-bullying and traditional bullying for good (Mindrilla et al., 2019).

The information included in this study is helpful for professionals and practitioners who work with students of all ages who experience this type of bullying. Practitioner should be able to identify students who might be victims of cyber-bullying by observing behaviors these students portray including already being a victim of traditional bullying and displaying avoidance more often than usual (Mindrilla et al., 2019).

This next article also focusses on the aggressive behaviors of students and an after school program implemented in order to prevent aggressive behavior from happening during the day. The main approach for this study was to research, develop, and implement a curriculum and evidence-based behavior management program for elementary students focused on preventing bullying and other problematic student behaviors and improved behavior or classroom management strategies. Staecker, Puett, Afrassiab, Ketcherside, Azim, Wang, Rhodes, and Cox researched how school violence and bullying affected student physical and psychological issues and academic success. The authors aimed to create a community, evidence-based aggression
management after school program for elementary students. The after-school program’s main approach was to correct students’ aggressive behavior and offer tutoring and homework help services to those students whose state scores were below average.

Study participants were comprised of 35 Caucasian students in 3rd to 5th grade, based on state test scores and low attendance. Over half of the 35 students were enrolled in 3rd grade, 17% in fourth grade, and 20% were in fifth grade. Fifty-five percent of the students also received free and reduced lunch (Staecker et al., 2016).

The authors introduced Peaceful Alternatives to Tough Situations (PATTS) an evidence-based program that included nine lessons focused on learning and implementing positive strategies to prevent unwanted or problematic behaviors as well as build bonds and relationships with students (NREPP, 2016). The students participated in role-play and group instruction focused on the practices of non-violent responses in conflicts. They also learned to manage their aggressive behavior in positive and socially acceptable ways (Staecker et al., 2016).

Students were divided into two groups based on whether they showed physical or psychological aggression. Following treatment, the psychological group had high scores in the area of prosocial psychological aggression. For students who showed physical aggression, self-reported scores also improved. Results of this study also indicated that some of the teachers in the after school program were student teachers who might not have taken the program seriously, provided enough structure for running the program effectively, struggled to make sure the students learned and followed the skills implemented in the program, or were experienced in working with students with aggressive behaviors (Staecker et al., 2016).

The authors suggested that improvement would occur if experienced teachers and administrators ran the after school program. They also suggested that the after-school program
require personnel to track all student behaviors. The additional data would help teachers incorporate specific skills into the core curriculum. The small number of participants restricted the generalization of results. The authors pointed out that the lack of a control group limited the study results, and in the future, a modified study should include an additional control group with added recorded behavior and attendance tracking. Another important improvement would be to include perceptions from the teachers and students about program effectiveness (Staecker et al., 2016).

Interventions should not discriminate between students of different culture or background. This next study shows differences in behavior of students with a variety of backgrounds. Christina Peters, John Kranzler, James Algina, Stephen Smith, and Ann Daunic proved in their study bias allegations between racial and ethnic students in public school settings. Recent data on this topic show how teacher expectations differed for minority students. However, the current study focused on how teacher bias contributed to disproportionate representation of students of minority diagnosed with a special education disability or disorder. Caucasian teachers may over-diagnose students of a different culture due to bias or language barriers.

The main purpose of this study was to discover if behavioral differences occurred when teachers completed a behavioral rating scale for each student and if the results varied between race/ethnicity/culture between students. Categories on this rating scale included student gender, race/ethnicity, and Social Economic Status (SES). Controlled variables included teacher gender, race/ethnicity, years of experience, and age, as well as school size, percentage of minority students and percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch (Peters et al., 2014).
A Prevention Research Team (PRT) collected pre-testing data to determine the effectiveness of the cognitive/behavioral intervention included in this study. The team assembled volunteers from 70 schools in the North Central Florida area which resulted in 18 schools with 982 students (4th and 5th graders) who received free-reduced lunch (69%). Of the student make-up included 64% Caucasian, 21% African American, 10% Hispanic, with 0.4% Asian and 4% other/mixed. Females outnumbered males at 51% to 49%. Sixty five teachers were eligible to participate in this study. Percentages for teacher data consisted of 86% Caucasian, 11% African American, 3% Hispanic; 77% women and 23% men. Teachers ages ranged from 23 to 69 with years of teaching experience were between 0-38 years. Other instruments that were used in this study consisted of the Clinical Assessment of Behavior Teacher Form (CAB-T) used to collect data on internal and external behavior and cognitive and academic functioning, and the Teacher Efficacy in Classroom Management and Discipline Scale (TECMD) which assessed teachers’ perception of their classroom management and discipline skills. Lastly the Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM)/ANOVA assessment determined the proportion of variance of teacher ratings for students with behavior levels using a 3-level model (Peters et al., 2014)

The concluding results indicated variances in student behaviors, teacher, and classroom. Differences in behavior ratings determined that gender, race/ethnicity, and family income (SES) impacted results and showed that African American students rated higher in behavior than Caucasian students. Male minority students had a higher behavior rating than female minority students. Differences in Hispanic students vs. Caucasian students (male or female) indicated that Hispanic students (related to ADHD) were rated lower on the behavior scale than Caucasian students in the same school. The data also showed that African Americans rated lower in the areas of social skills and higher in FRL (free/reduced lunch) compared to Caucasian students.
with lower differences between male vs. female students. Teachers and students answers were based on age, years of experience, self-efficacy, race/ethnicity, gender, classroom management and classroom discipline. Most differences occurred between African American and Caucasian students regarding externalizing behaviors. As teacher self-efficacy ratings (classroom management/discipline) increased, the teacher-specific differences between the two student groups decreased. The authors found that teachers with a higher self-efficacy rating regarding behavior management skills had better classroom management skills so therefore their students had fewer behavior problems. The teachers did not view behaviors of African American students as challenging, compared with teachers who rated lower in self-efficacy. This study also determined the Status of why African American students have lower behavior incidents when their teachers have a higher self-efficacy rating vs. the teacher’s with the higher self-efficacy rate viewing the behaviors as less problematic (Peters et al., 2014).

Sometimes interventions aim to close a classroom or behavior management gap that was previously developed. This study aimed to find a behavior management intervention to implement class wide. Anna Long, James Upright, and Faith Miller (2019) incorporated several classroom management data, collected from 22 single studies that included populations ≥50% minority students, into the classrooms within this study. The 22 studies were conducted from 1973 to 2014. Total participants included 838 K-12 students and 46 inclusive classrooms.

This study incorporated sixteen interventions that included diversification inclinations to ensure that educators understood evidence-based practices were most effective for behavior management. The interventions were implemented with individual or groups of students and combined with other simple behavioral strategies. Nine out of those sixteen interventions emphasized positive behavior support strategies (PBIS strategies) from the Tier 1 level of the
PBIS model. The interventions were similar based on the following parameters: single-case studies, kindergarten through twelfth grade participants in U.S. public schools, class ≥50% minority students, and used classroom management strategies aimed to help, prevent, or support task engagement, compliance, and disruptive/aggressive, defiant, inappropriate, or problem behaviors (Long et al., 2019).

Long (2019) sought to highlight that classroom behavior management environments should include positive and structured learning environments. Structured learning environments contain strategies that provide clear expectations and routines, prevent and reduce unwanted or negative behaviors, and encourage academic success. The authors tried to prove that the use of effective evidence-based strategies would reduce disruptive behaviors in classrooms, composed of more than 50% minority students. The study also exposed information about which classroom management strategies improved and prevented the increasing problem behaviors found in today’s diverse classrooms (Long et al., 2019).

The results demonstrated that increased segregation and diversity in schools resulted in increased problematic behaviors for minority students based on discipline decisions and techniques. Long, Upright, and Miller (2019) revealed that data collected suggested an increase and change in the quality of classroom management strategies in the rural, ethnic minority schools. They discovered that interventions based only on behavior showed a higher reliable and effective rating and improved student behaviors. Approaches focused on classroom management and understanding diversity, proved just as effective as interventions based only on improving behavior. The overall results indicated that the most effective classroom management approaches proved to be contingency-based, especially group contingency-based strategies (Long et al., 2019).
Why Burnouts Occur and How to Prevent Them from Happening

As with all professions, people can burnout from a job due to various factors. In education and teaching careers; sometimes interventions are not enough to help control a classroom and therefore leads to teacher burnout. In another study looking at teacher competence, Brandi Frisby, Alan Goodboy, and Marjorie Buckner (2014) surveyed university students regarding their instruction from educators and whether their instructional disagreement impacted the educators themselves. When students are concerned about a grade or course, they either don’t do anything about it or they confront the instructor, which forms an instructional disagreement. This particular study was created to show how the disagreements between students and educators have a mental impact on educators. Three forms of instructional dissent are highlighted in this study; expressive (students vent hoping to receive sympathy or empathy from others), rhetorical (students talk directly to the instructor about a concern in class or concern about a grade), and vengeful (when students are so upset about something and try to get even with the instructor), (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013). All of these dissents proved to impact teacher ability, effectiveness, commitment and burn out rates. Additional indicators of instructional dissent are teacher-student relationships and the time/effort it takes to prepare lessons and conduct other educational work. The authors research showed that preparing lessons and filing paperwork was a main indicator of teacher burnout, the biggest indicator was negative teacher-student interactions and the frustrations that cause emotional exhaustion (Frymier & Houser, 2000). Within this study, the authors also revealed three additional factors that contributed to teacher burnout that included individual factors, organizational factors, and transactional factors (Chang, 2009).
The participants in this study were professors and faculty members from 37 universities in 19 states in the U.S. states. Thirty nine males and seventy two females represented the sample size. The participants were asked to complete a survey that measured each member’s instructional dissent, burnout, and organizational commitment rating level. Teacher satisfaction and teaching efficacy were also measured through the survey. The results were analyzed and reviewed in a data-analysis plan (Frisby et al., 2014).

The results revealed that although teacher’s emotional exhaustion and burnout rates proved to be high due to student’s instructional dissent, results showed that those negative outcomes could lead to a student’s emotional exhaustion and decreased learning or effort as well (Goodboy, 2011; Holmgren & Bolken, 2014). Additionally, the authors showed differences between how instructors viewed student dissent versus how student dissent might affect the instructors’ emotions or burnout rates. Instructors reported that they felt emotionally exhausted, less satisfied, and less efficient in managing classroom behavior due to student disrespectfulness, negative or violent behavior (Friedman, 1995; Hastings &Bham, 2003). These teachers also reported they felt that way because they felt less prepared to effectively deal with student behaviors or classroom management when students engage in expressive dissent. Results related to rhetorical dissent were as follows: instructors stated they felt more success using alternative strategies positively manage students’ disagreements if a student felt comfortable enough to discuss the concern with the instructor. Rhetorical dissent was proven as more positive than the other two examples of dissent listed in this study. Lastly, according to the results, vengeful dissent was proven to be the most negative and compared to someone causing harm to those that harmed them. For this study, the authors found that some instructors felt isolated from the organization (the universities) due to how a situation of vengeful dissent with a student is
handled. Lastly, the authors found that a major factor of teacher burnout was students who communicated negatively or disrespectfully with instructors. Thus, the study suggested that instructors or teachers would benefit from professional development training on ways to handle instructional dissent. Limitations included the small sample size, not measuring face to face threats in each instructional dissent category, and only considering negative student/instructor interactions (Frisby et al., 2014).

Burnout out in teaching can occur from various reasons; this next study looked at burnout rates related to student behaviors. Fahri Sezer (2018) also studied teacher burnout reasons related to the behaviors of problematic students in primary and secondary classrooms located in the country of Turkey. This study’s problematic behaviors to determine whether they were actually related to teacher burnout rates. Sezer’s main concern was whether students’ problematic behaviors were the main cause of teacher burnout and methods for data collection. Teacher burnout is defined as teachers who are physically, emotionally, and mentally challenged while dealing with a multitude of stressors including staff and student relationships, schedules and personal stress levels (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006).

One hundred and eighty-eight participants were included in this study; 112 female and 76 male teachers. The study incorporated a survey for teachers that asked how they perceived their students (Wheldall & Merrett, 1988 and Little, 2005). Teachers also completed the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Three categories in this inventory classified teachers with low, medium, and high burnout rates (Sezer, 2018).

Partial data results based on the Maslach Burnout Inventory linked burnout to a teacher’s perception of classroom control. A negative classroom environment created from negative student behaviors led to teacher burnout in general. The results also indicated that teachers in this
study felt that students in their classroom showed signs of not effectively studying their lessons or notes and often did not have or bring required materials with them to class. Students often complained or showed disrespect to each other or their teacher. Students fought with each other. Teaching abstract concepts to students was challenging as was teaching motivating lessons (Wragg & Dooley, 1996; Maya, 2004; Siyez, 2009; Balay & Saglam, 2008; Cankay, 2011). The study concluded that the highest burnout rates occurred with teachers who felt stressed and challenged in a negative classroom atmosphere, forced to deal with difficult and problematic students. Teachers who experienced burnout felt mentally and physically exhausted and felt that more student discipline caused more stress and burnout (Giallo & Little, 2003; Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Shen et al., 2009; Blankenship, 1988; Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, 1999; Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999; Parkay, Greenwood, Olejnik, & Proller, 1988). It was suggested that when teachers are identified as being near a burnout state, the school should provide counseling or psychological services for teachers. Providing support would enable teachers to be successful and offer positive classroom management practices to increase student success (Sezer, 2018).

This is another study that resulted in student behaviors being an impact on teachers and teacher burnout. Will Evers and Welko Tomic (2002) conducted a study that consisted of insights and opinions from students about why teachers experienced burnouts due to disruptive student behavior combined with the lack of teacher training in behavior management. According to this study, because teachers are valuable instruments to students’ success, it is essential to effectively measure why teachers burn out quickly to address and prevent educational burnout. This study highlighted four areas related to teacher burnout. The Maslach Burnout Inventory, Coping with Disruptive Behavior Scale, and the Perceived Disruptive Behavior Scale were
combined to gather information for the first part of this study. The second and third parts consisted of analyzing student perceptions unrelated to the student’s age. Male and female students had different opinions in their beliefs about teacher burnout due to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Lastly, teacher burnout rates were calculated as a percentage of the teacher’s competence in identification of student disruptive behavior and their coping ability (Evers et al., 2002).

Study participants were selected from a Regional Training Center (RTC) in the Netherlands. Four hundred and eleven students, 159 female and 252 male; along with 73 teachers were selected. Students’ ages ranged from late teens to early twenties. They attended vocational and job training at the RTC. There were also a total of 73 teachers that worked with the students at the RTC. All student participants, completed three different questionnaires: 1. Maslach Burnout Inventory for teacher (Schaufeli & Van Horn, 1995), 2. Coping with Disruptive Behavior Scale (CDBS), was adapted from the Self-efficacy Scale for Classroom Management and Discipline (Emmer & Hickman, 1991), and 3. Perceived Disruptive Behavior Scale, adapted from the Order & Organization and Classroom Environment Scale (Moos and Trickett, 1974). The first questionnaire asked questions about their teacher’s burn out rate. It was divided into three categories consisting of measuring the teacher’s emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. The CDBS scale measured a teachers’ ability to cope and handle disruptive student behavior in their classroom. The third questionnaire asked the students questions about how their teacher’s recorded daily student disruptive observations (Evers et al., 2002).

The resulting data showed that when a teacher’s emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores on the questionnaires are high with accompanying low personal
accomplishment scores, teachers eventually experienced some form of burnout. Within this study, it did not seem that these teachers reached a point that they were burnt out in all areas on each questionnaire. The authors highlighted that students’ answers to questions about their teachers' feelings might have led to an explanation of why levels of teacher burnout were low (Bryne, 1991; Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2001; Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2002).

Observations indicated that student participants who were motivated and positive during their vocational lessons gave each teacher low scores and leading to low overall burnout rates. This study highlighted that a teacher’s ability to handle disruptive behavior was similarly related to the three dimensions of teacher burnout. Finally, the study results found that when a person’s sense of personal accomplishment decreased, their emotional exhaustion and depersonalization generally increased. The teachers in this study scored just the opposite. They received higher score in personal accomplishment (due to higher confidence and ability to deal with disruptive behavior of students in this study), and a lower scores in both the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization categories (Evers et. al., 2002).

In some cases, teacher burnout is related to other various factors. For this study, Kivanc Bozkus (2018) related burnout to a teacher’s work environment. Maslach and Jackson defines burnout as a state of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a decrease in personal accomplishment that could result in failure, dissatisfaction, and low energy that can decrease work progress, efficiency, and productivity (Maslach & Jackson, 1981-1986; Maslach, 2003).

According to this study, teacher burnout is closely related to their work environment which is in fact one of the main factors causing teacher burnout if not maintained and handled appropriately (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Other factors related to work environments for teachers are positive whole school environments (Lim & Eo, 2014), organizational support (Ju et al., 2015),
organizational citizenship (Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013), and organizational trust (Van Maele & Van/Houtte, 2015) can either positively or negatively influence burnout rates. Related studies have found that work stress (Yu et al., 2015) and student misbehaviors McCormick & Barnett, 2011) increased the burnout rates for teachers.

For this study, 981 teachers in Turkey were surveyed and out of those 981, 400 responded and 386 were chosen. The size of this large sample was used so that the generalization of the findings would be more significant (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). This study used assessments including The Burnout Measure Short Version (Pines, 2005) and ANOVA test which was used to determine school type differences of how teachers felt about their job.

As a result of this study, the authors found that a lot of the surveyed teachers felt tired and burnt out for various reasons. When a teacher was burnt out mainly from feeling tired of their job, that was a result of being overworked or having too much on their work load (Van Droogenbroeck, Spruyt & Vanroelen, 2014). Kivanc Bozkus, the author of this study, also found that male teachers felt more tired, trapped, worthless and unsuccessful compared to their female colleagues (Bozkus, 2017). Lastly, the author stated that in order to promote a positive and effective work environment in schools, the school needed to provide reduced workloads for all teachers, preventative practices and workshops promoting positive and healthy general and mental health, and provide more support to reduce teacher burnout rates (Bozkus, 2017).

Teacher burnout not only occurs for a set of teachers in a certain department; it can occur to any teacher or educator. Ali Roohani and Khadijah Dayeri (2019) conducted a study based in Iran consisting of why and how burnout occurs for English Language teachers. This study also highlighted language teachers’ challenges and difficulties related to teaching students who
influence the quality of their teaching practices and techniques, as well as feed their burnout. According to the study, the main factor influencing teacher’s burnout was job motivating.

The 115 participants consisted of 35 male and 80 female English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers. The study was split into a quantitative and a qualitative section. The quantitative section focused on identifying the participants’ burnout levels and motivations. The teachers were asked to complete the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach and Jackson, 1986). This inventory, as in other comparable studies, consisted of three subscales related to teacher burnout phases: 1. Emotional Exhaustion, 2. Personal Accomplishment, and 3. Depersonalization (teacher’s impersonal responses to students and interactions with others). Also within the quantitative section, the participants were asked to fill out the Motivation to Teach questionnaire, used to measure a teacher’s motivation for teaching and education, which is an adaptation of the Self-Regulation Questionnaire-Academic (Ryan and Connell, 1989). The qualitative section contained data collected from the participants to determine the leading causes of low motivation and high burnout rates. Fifteen, of 115 teachers, interviewed to isolate primary factors leading to the high burnout rates among the participants. These 15 teachers had the highest or lowest scores on the MTQ and experienced the highest and lowest teaching motivation (Roohani & Dayeri, 2019).

Lack of support, low salary compared to higher wages given to other colleagues, the difference between teacher expectations and the actual requirements and demands of the job, and little effort from students were primary causes of teacher burnout. Other factors that played a big part in teacher burnouts were because some of the teachers felt their workload exceeded their administration expectations. Some teachers felt they could not perform successfully due to too many scheduled classes and not enough prep time. Negative, aggressive and disruptive behavior,
low motivation for student learning and teaching, and lack of autonomy in the classroom were also factors of high teacher burnout rates recorded by the participants in this study. Most of the teachers in this study stated that administrative policy decisions played a huge role in making EFL teachers feel inadequate and took away autonomous, which significantly increased frustration and burnout experiences for these participants (Roohani & Dayeri, 2019).

Authors Ballet, Kelchtermans, and Loughran (2006) stated that when teachers did not experience any form of autonomy during the school year they were more likely going to feel stressed and developed higher burnout rates versus teachers who received autonomy on a regular basis and were able to actively and creatively deal with changes to their environment.

The quantitative data collected specified that some participants preferred autonomous motivation to help students become successful and for personal success. These teachers found joy and pleasure in teaching, learning something new, and in seeking and overcoming personal goals. Comparably, the qualitative data showed that other participants preferred internalized forms of motivation, including excitement and a high interest in teaching, hope to improve social relations, achieving personal goals and helping others reach theirs. Both sections also showed that external motivations for teaching are just as important as internal reasons. Teacher interview results indicated that higher teacher burnout rates were related to low salary and an over scheduled workload (Roohani & Dayeri, 2019).

Lastly, quantitative study results showed that some participants did not respond effectively to stress resulting in low levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and therefore resulted in lower levels of teacher burnout rates, versus what the qualitative study showed. The qualitative measurement displayed job-related and person-related factors as the main causes of burnout in the teaching career for the participants in this study. Overall, both
measurements comparably showed that teachers’ burnout from emotional exhaustion, personal or mental health drawbacks, or other job related factors (Roohani & Dayeri, 2019).

This article shows teacher burnout levels related to job requirements and the school environment they work in. Rasim Erol Demirbatir (2018) stated that the success of teachers and educators depends on job satisfaction, support, happiness, and work environment. The purpose of this study was to consider teacher burnout levels and motivation related to job requirements and teaching through observation and interviews. Forty-two staff members working in the Fine Arts Education department at Uludag University in Turkey participated in this study. According to Frankel, Wallen, and Hyun (2012) this research evaluated variables without manipulating the collection of data. The educators’ health status was also calculated and separated by age and gender to determine whether stress and anxiety contributed to burnout stages for these participants. Energy, motivation levels, and job happiness data were collected and analyzed.

The Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (2005) scale measured teacher burnout levels. This assessment consisted of three subscales including physical fatigue, cognitive weariness, and emotional exhaustion (Bilgel et al., 2012). To measure the vigor (energy) levels of each participant, the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure used three additional subscales including physical strength, emotional energy, and cognitive liveness. This scale measured the participants’ occupational satisfaction levels by using a questionnaire created by the authors. Ten participants were interviewed and asked what makes them satisfied or happy with their job. Responses were collected and a questionnaire was developed and given to all participants in the study (Demirbatir, 2018).

The study results showed that female burnout levels were slightly higher than the male counterparts. The authors also highlighted that the results may not be accurate due to the limited
sample size of twenty-four females and eighteen males. These results showed that although emotional exhaustion levels (related to burnout), were higher in females than males, there was no significant difference in other sub-topics or total burnout scores (Derinbay, 2012). Male participants scored higher in the area of vigor and amount of energy towards teaching including all sub-scales and total score. The authors found that the female participants scored higher on the occupational satisfaction questionnaire; however there wasn’t a significant difference compared with males. Derinbay (2012) stated that the happiness and success of teachers and educators is higher among males in a recent study, which was different from this current study. Lastly, the health statuses recorded for all participants revealed that teachers who go to the doctor frequently less were happier with their job and scored higher in occupational satisfaction, compared to those with higher levels of burnout and more health issues. Additionally, resent research found that educators aged between 21 and 30 years old had higher burnout rates. In the current study, age did not significantly influence data results (Demirbatir, 2018).

According to this study, any educator that works in a school setting can experience burnout. General education and special education teachers were not the only ones who experienced burnout, specialist teachers and other school personnel experienced burnout as well according to Deniz Beste and Cevik Kilic (2018). This particular study focused on burnout levels of music teachers. The personalities of the teachers that participated in the study and how their personalities affected their relationships and teaching techniques within their career were highlighted in the study (Beste, 2017). One’s personality was described as a mixture of psychological characteristics used to show and define emotions, behaviors, abilities, and other cognitive elements combined together to highlight an individual (Mount, Murray, Steve, & Rounds, 2005; Eriksen, 1984).
Two hundred seventy eight music teachers in Turkey participated in this study, 188 female and 90 male. Quantitative and qualitative data was collected using the Maslach Burnout Scale, Personal Information Form, and Adjective Based Personality Test. The ABP test consisted of five sections including the categories: 1. Openness, 2. Conscientiousness, 3. Extroversion, 4. Agreeableness, 5. Neuroticism (Bacanli et al., 2009). Maslach Burnout Inventory was used to determine personal levels of self-burnout, where high scores equaled high levels of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

The authors found that teachers who experienced stress were impatient and anxious about their job. Intolerant teachers were often the ones who experienced higher levels of burnout (Montgomery & Rupp, 2005). This study also pointed out that when teachers were nervous they were under more stress compared to others (Hallam, 2006). Causes of burnout can greatly make a big impact on individuals and their personalities. This particular study focused on music teacher’s personalities. Researchers found that in order to be a better teacher, a teacher has to demonstrate they are organized, persistent, responsible, careful, able to show perseverance, have excellent planning and classroom management skills. In addition they must also be able to effectively handle conflicts and behaviors (Ryans, 1960). According to the study, a music teacher was required to show these characteristics in order to demonstrate their competence. Characteristics for music teachers included being lively and social (Spokane, Luchetta, & Richwine, 2002), being open to teaching all areas and topics, being open to building new relationships, being open to having an interest in the arts and using the imagination (Cevil, 2011). Offering to help and forgive their students and other colleagues, and showing calmness and patience in teaching, lessons and relationships (Rohwer & Henry, 2004) was also noted.
Lastly, this study concluded that participants who described themselves as angry, impatient, pessimistic, nervous, restless, or anxious experienced higher levels of burnout than their co-workers (Beste, 2017). The study suggested that it is very important for music teachers to have a calm and balanced personality, which results in more job satisfaction and reduced experiences of burnout feelings (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002).

Like the last article, this next article looks into the factors of burnout based on a teacher’s temperament, character traits and personality. Sibel Yoleri studied the correlation between participant’s character traits, feelings about teaching and their job, and burnout dimensions. Based on research, teachers have very high levels of stress (Stoeber & Rennert, 2008) due to students with high maintenance behaviors, an overabundance of students, lack of positive collaboration with colleagues and administration while meeting job requirements (Chan, 2003; Coulter & Abney, 2009; Lambert & McCarthy, 2006; Mullins, 1993; Ozbey, 2012). All the stress created in the work place leads to future high burnout levels.

For this study, 130 preschool teachers in Usak, Turkey were surveyed and given questionnaires to fill out rating levels of burnout and how they were calculated. This study used a revised version of the Cloninger’s Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI), created by Cloniger et al. (1993) and prepared by Kose et al. (2009). This tool evaluated four areas of teacher temperament and three dimensions of character traits. The participants completed a version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), which consisted of a 22-item questionnaire that measured the frequency of teacher’s burnout level.

Study assessment results showed a connection between the emotional exhaustion level or burnout the self- directedness levels. The findings revealed that when self-directedness increased the emotional exhaustion levels also increased, creating high levels of emotional burnout. Results
also indicated connections between the personal accomplishment level and harmful avoidance, and better depersonalization and self-directedness. When harmful avoidance increased, personal accomplishment also increased and when self-directedness increased, so did depersonalization. The authors revealed that teacher temperament and character traits were not connected with depersonalization. Researchers were determined to show teacher characterization through their classroom behavior, teacher evaluations and through the relationships they developed with each of their students (Beatty, McCroskey & Valencic, 2001; McCroskey, et al., 2004). As the special educator teacher stress (due to reasons including education programs, students, parents, the school community, or personal issues) increases, students can also suffer from negative outcomes and increase their stress and anxiety also (Sinclair & Ryan, 1987).

**Burnout Rates Compared by Teacher**

This group of preschool teachers compared their burnout levels to having integrated students with special needs in their classroom to those teachers who did not have integrated students. The authors (Umit Sahbaz, Nazife Koyuturk Kocer, 2017) compared a group of preschool teachers to determine their personal burnout levels. Burnout in all professions occurs when job-related stressors, as well as physiological or psychological problems start to occur. According to this study, teaching is at the top of the list of most stressful professions (Turgrul and Celik, 2005) due to over-crowded classrooms or caseloads, negative and severe student behaviors, and lack of support from administration, parents and colleagues (Faber, 2000). Teacher burnout stress not only affects the teacher, but also affects others at work and in their personal life. This stress also greatly impacts their student’s lives and teacher perception. The authors found that the biggest impact of burnout in the teaching profession was primarily related to the negative relationships formed with students (Friedman and Farber, 1992).
This study focused mainly on the burnout levels of preschool teachers but it also assessed and collected data from the participating teachers not in or how many special education students were integrated into their classroom and whether the students highly impacted their burnout levels. One hundred preschool and 85 kindergarten teachers were evaluated to determine levels of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment when special education students were integrated in their classroom. The Maslach and Jackson (1981) Burnout Inventory which contained two sections: 1. Personal information data and 2. Data describing the characteristics and integration practices for students with special needs or behavior problems (Sahbaz et al., 2017).

Results of this study indicated that for teachers who had integrated special needs students in the classroom, emotional exhaustion levels were higher than for teachers who did not have integrated special education students. Depersonalization levels for teachers who taught integrated students were high compared to those who did not. In addition the teachers also reported lower levels of personal accomplishment (Buyukozturk, 2012). All these factors led to high teacher burnout levels for the participants (Umit Sahbaz, Nazife Koyuturk Kocer, 2017).

Teachers working in the Special Education field seem to have the most burnout rates according to this next study. The main purpose of this study was to observe, interview and survey a group of special education teachers to determine what causes high teacher burnout. According to the authors (Nuri, Demiok, Direkt, 2017) a career as a special educator is more difficult compared with a general educator teacher, considering factors such as gender, experience level, longer working hours, extreme and sometimes severe trauma and student behaviors, and the large number of students on the teacher’s caseload.
The study included 46 special education teachers from seven different special education schools and 24 special education teachers working within a special education mainstream classroom in 21 different primary schools in Turkey. Personal information (age, gender, educational level, professional seniority, daily work hours, and number of students on caseload) was collected from each participant at the beginning of this study. The participants filled out the “Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale”, created by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfok Hoy (1998), to collect information on teacher’s self-efficacy perceptions. This scale included three sub-scales (student engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies, and efficacy in classroom management) to determine self-efficacy (Nuri et al., 2017).

This study also had participants fill out the Maslach Burnout Scale questionnaire, which calculated three sub-divisions of burnout including emotional burnout, depersonalization, and personal success. Within this questionnaire, a high burnout score meant that participants scored high in the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization categories, but had lower scores in the personal achievement category. Low burnout data revealed just the opposite with lower scores in the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization categories, with higher scores in personal success (Nuri et al., 2017).

Results of this study indicated that participants rated themselves more sufficient within the self and student engagement efficacy categories versus the education strategies and classroom management categories based on the testing results. According to the authors, gender played a large role. Regarding self-efficacy, female participants rated themselves higher than males in the area of student engagement. In the education strategies and efficacy in the classroom categories, no differences were noted among genders. Other factors that influenced these results included that gender differences impacted self-efficacy according to Woolfolk-Woolfok Hoy
and Minner (2002). On the contrary, other studies showed that teacher gender differences did not influence self-efficacy. Lastly, the results showed that overall, the special education participant’s emotional burnout, depersonalization, and personal success levels received a high rating level of teacher burnout. School climate, a teacher’s resilience, and management of student behavior were known factors that influenced burnout for these participants as well. Through research and observations, the authors found that more training for developing meaningful student self-efficacy, updated resources that provided increased knowledge and skills, and additional personal psychological supports when needed would benefit these participants and teachers or educators worldwide (Nuri et al., 2017).

**Factors Supporting Teacher Preparation**

To ensure teachers are using the right interventions they also have to be trained correctly to use various interventions. This study looked at the effectiveness of critical indicators related to effective teaching and how interventions were implemented. Christine Espin and Mitchell Yell (1994) managed a study that helped special education student teachers identify behaviors based on critical indicators of students’ behaviors. The teachers in this study were observed by a form called the Pupil Observation Procedure (POP). This data evaluated student teacher effectiveness and was created as a tool to observe individual student and teacher behaviors and focus on the behaviors that occurred while teaching.

Participants in this study included nine female and one male student special education teacher, specializing in students with Emotional and Behavior Disorders (EBD). Teacher experience ranged from 0-18 years. Another group of participants consisted of eight people, called raters, chosen to represent the diversity and training in various education areas. Four of the eight raters were associated with a University; three were doctoral students and the fourth was
the coordinator that was in charge of the EBD training program for the study. The other four raters chosen from a public school system included two special education teachers, one 4th grade teacher and one principal. All participants completed the POP teacher observation form (Espin et al., 1994).

The Pupil Observation Procedure form gathered information about the student teachers’ performances before and after the student teaching experience. The POP is a modified version of a similar model created by Deno and Mirkin (1977) which focused on observing the student teachers instead of student behaviors. The raters evaluated the student teachers in the following categories: 1. Instruction, 2. Behavior management, 3. Classroom Atmosphere, 4. Student Engagement, and 5. General Teacher Effectiveness. (Espin et al., 1994).

Interestingly, these results ranged from a low effectiveness rating of five for all categories to a high of 25, a rating of excellence. Individual teacher scores ranged from a low of 7.75 to a high of 19.13. While the results showed relationships between the variables and teacher effectiveness ratings they don’t indicate how to differentiate effective teachers and ineffective teachers. The teachers were rated on their ability to control unwanted behaviors using a direct scale from least to most effective. The results showed that the four teachers who placed in the most effective category presented higher rates of academic success, incorporated the most positive responses, provided little to no behavioral prompts, and had students with lower ratings in off-task and problematic behaviors. The four teachers rated in the moderately effective category reported ratings for student off-task and problematic behaviors however the levels of behavioral prompts and negative responses from the teachers were above average and the academic response was below average. Lastly, the two teachers placed in the least effective group received the highest ratings in the off-task and problematic behaviors category and had
low ratings for both positive and negative teacher responses. The academic success ratings and the number of prompts given for this group also fell in the average range. The concluding showed that the amount of time the student teachers spent redirecting student behavior during instruction time was a significant piece used to identify teaching effectiveness (Espin et al., 1994).

Not only do schools and teachers have to take burnout levels and why they occur into consideration; teachers also should take part in understanding why the cause of burnout and seek ways in the prevention of burnout factors. Keith Herman and Wendy Reinke (2017) conducted a study aimed to find how teacher stress, burnout, coping skills, and self-efficacy were linked and related to student outcomes (including disruptive behavior and academic achievement). The authors also focused on the effects and benefits of Positive Behavior Intervention and Supports (PBIS) and other strategies to figure out if they were helpful for teachers who participated in this study. Low levels of positive behavior support led to a higher level of emotional exhaustion for the teachers (Reinke et al., 2013). Teachers who experienced high levels of burnout also experienced lower levels of lower quality teaching and had a hard time with impaired relationships (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

The participants in this study included 121 general education teachers with 1,817 students ranging in age from kindergarten to 4th grade from nine elementary schools within Midwestern U.S. (Herman and Reinke). According to the authors, all nine schools had implemented PBIS to strengthen uniformity within the behavior support programs already in place at the school.

All participants provided participation consent. Teachers provided information about students in their class who consented to the study and surveys regarding individual levels of self-burnout, stress, self-efficacy, and coping skill levels (Herman & Reinke). Students were assessed
using the *Woodcock-Johnson III Test of Achievement* (WJ-III ACH; Mather & Woodcock, 2001). The WJ-III is a standardized test that measures a student’s reading and math achievement.

Teachers who participated completed the Maslach Burnout Inventory which was used to measure personal burnout levels by asking questions in three categories: 1. Emotional Exhaustion, 2. Depersonalization, and 3. Lack of Personal Accomplishment (MBI, Maslach et al., 1996).

An analysis of the responses showed that within the Stress/Low Coping category (calculated from the teacher questionnaire), some of the teacher’s scores were higher in stress/burnout rates and lower in effective coping skills/self-efficacy. Other teacher’s scores showed higher levels of stress with moderate levels of coping and burnout or high stress and coping and low burnout rates (results of LPA) Nylund et al., 2005). Additional results indicated that the high level results averaged from all participants showed that teaching is a stressful career and teachers reported average- to- high levels of physical and mental health problems and below level job satisfaction compared with other occupations (Eaton et al., 1990; Johnson et al., 2005).

The researchers noted that teachers may benefit from extra support or trainings in classroom management before they consider leaving teaching for good (Ingersoll, 2001; Reinke et al., 2013).

Professional Development opportunities for teachers are critical to correctly and effectively implement behavioral interventions. With this premise in mind, Flower, McKenna, and Haring conducted a study that examined behavior management training programs for general and special education teachers. Previous research revealed that effective classroom and behavior management plays an important and critical role in the implementation of any intervention or behavior programs, no matter teachers’ experience or skill level (Flower, McKenna, Muething, Bryant, & Bryant, 2014). However, most teachers in their early teaching years have felt they
don’t have the skills they need to manage a classroom and also have felt past preparation has failed them and they do not feel adequately prepared to manage student behaviors (Mitchell & Arnold, 2004; Beran, 2005). With poor classroom management, teachers reported that effective student learning was reduced and stress was increased as a result of unwanted student behaviors and reduced levels of job satisfaction. This, in turn, resulted in higher levels or teacher turnover (Brunsting, Sreckovic, & Lane, 2014; Oliver & Reschly, 2010).

Two-hundred fifteen program coordinators in this Southwestern state were contacted to participate in this study and completed an online survey. Seventy-four of the 215 program coordinators responded. The participant sample included thirty-one alternative general education programs, 18 alternative special education programs, 16 college/university general education programs, and 9 college/university special education programs. Additionally, the participants provided their name, title, and types of courses and programs offered at the college/university level. The participants also completed a 72-item checklist that related to preparation in classroom and behavior management. Those 72-items included universal strategies, increase of appropriate behavior, reductive strategies, and behavioral assessment. Teachers learned strategies for encouraging appropriate behavior such as positive praise and token reinforcement, and strategies for behavior assessment included a functional behavioral assessment, functional analysis, and direct observation methods (Flower et al., 2017).

Research demonstrated that teachers who were poorly trained were most likely to use unsuccessful management skills in their classroom (Milham, 2007). On the opposing side however, teachers who set clear and manageable expectations for behavior and classroom management found increases in student achievement (Brophy, 1986; Kane et al., 2010). The analysis also indicated that teachers preferred to use a universal management strategy more than
a specific skill strategy to improve or decrease behaviors. About half of the participant population stated that they were offered behavioral strategy and assessment training within their college/university special education program. Research also pointed out that although special education teacher certification programs offered coursework and experiences related real classroom settings, they did not always offer the most effective strategies for both general and special education teachers, which led to teachers not feeling prepared to teach, manage and prevent unwanted behaviors (Conroy et al., 2008; McKenna et al., 2015; Kaff et al., 2007).

With this premise in mind, Viviana Langher, Andrea Caputo, and Maria Elisabetta Ricci defined teacher burnout as a general concern in education fields, especially for special education teachers due to the very emotionally and demanding workload. The research team wanted to find correct and beneficial supports to reduce burnout. The investigators discovered high teacher turnover due to stress and lack of support from administration and colleagues. Additional sources of stress included not having or being offered enough supplies and materials to teach effectively, too great of demand for paperwork completion in a short amount of time, lack of support from administration and school districts, too many students on the caseload to effectively meet all student needs, poor or lack of parent communication, and lack of collaboration time with colleagues. Additionally, the authors found that in Italy, there was not enough thought put into the organization and structure to include students with disabilities according to the National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT, 2014).

Two hundred, seventy-six special education teachers participated in this study. These educators worked in elementary or secondary schools in Rome, Italy. The 276 educators were grouped by age and included 30-44 year olds and 45-62 year olds. The authors used The perceived Collaboration and Support for Inclusive Teaching Scale (CSIT) and the Maslach
Burnout Inventory, Educators Survey (MBI-ES) to collect data using the emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment scores (Langher et al., 2017).

The results indicated that while some teachers received some support from administration, it was perceived as negative based on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores and led to higher burnout rates, versus positive support for personal accomplishments which led to decreased burnout rates and feelings of acceptance by administration and other colleagues. Positive support contributed to teacher’s feelings of job success, to reduce emotional exhaustion and improve personal accomplishment was beneficial to reducing burnout rates for participants. While researchers sought to find support systems to reduce burnout in special education teachers, they discovered that the support given to teachers was negatively connected with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization levels (Duli, 2015). Lack of support for most of these teachers was one main cause for burnout in their career (Hakanen et al., 2006, Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2003; Leung & Lee, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Talmor et al., 2005). Being a female teacher also led to higher burnout rates compared with male teachers (Lau, Yuen, & Chan, 2005; Timms, Graham, & Caltabiano, 2006). Participants stated that working at the secondary school level (middle and high school) gave them increased feelings of depersonalization and less professional commitment, motivation and overall personal and career happiness. They stated that without any support, their stress levels increased and motivation and depersonalization decreased, causing burnout (Langher et al., 2017).
Chapter III: Application of the Research

Summary

This paper’s main purpose was to find effective and positive ways to improve the preparation and implementation for effective and successful positive and effective behavior and classroom management interventions. This paper also focused on the importance of supporting teachers and other educators to reduce and prevent stress and other factors that can cause teacher burnout. As I started researching for this paper, I started to find the answers to my guiding questions. Why is classroom/behavior management important for school and student success? According to Celik (2009), classroom management is infused to help shape the way a class functions and is used as an essential tool for establishing rules and routines for behavioral and academic success outside of the classroom. Celik (2009) and Erogan (2011) also stated that successful classrooms should include behavior and classroom management that engages and motivates student learning, takes part in reducing negative and unwanted behavior, and improve social and behavior challenges for both students and educators to promote effective teaching and learning circumstances. Additional authors, Everston, Carolyn M., Weinstein, Carol, S., 2006, explained effective classroom management allows teachers and educators to teach academics while also positively addressing unexpected behaviors when they arise and thought strategies and interventions should be positively and effectively implemented with fidelity and should only be used if they are evidence-based; according to The No Child Left Behind Act. Lastly, Akin et al (2016) explained in his study that some teachers viewed classroom and behavior management as a reflection of teacher and student point of views regarding specific and individual situations. What are the best and most effective strategies and interventions for classroom management? Throughout this paper, many researchers studied a various about of evidence-based
interventions. Thompson and Webber (2010) introduced a data-informed intervention to help improve school rules and behavior strategies. Hoover, Sapere, Lang, Nadeem, Dean, and Vona (2018) described and implemented an evidence-based intervention known as *Cognitive Behavioral Intervention for Trauma in Schools* (CBITS) for children with mental health trauma and impairments. Improvements were also shown in the areas of unwanted and negative behaviors. Other studies included interventions that were created to improve student behavior by involving the students themselves with distributing and gaining positive behavior themselves. Researchers found that there were increases in behavior within all classrooms involved in that specific study (Lipscomb et al., 2018). Taylor Hicks, Jeffery Shahidullah, John Carlson, and Mohammed Palejwala (2014) conducted a study that consisted of questioning a group of school psychologists regarding the effectiveness of Evidence-Based Interventions (EBIs). EBIs are defined as preventative intervention approaches for behavior management.

How can educators and schools incorporate PBIS and RTI programs school-wide? Sanetti, Williamson, Long, and Kratochwill’s (2018) study included schools that already had the Schoolwide Positive Behavior Intervention program (SWPBIS) incorporated into their curriculum, as well as classroom management plans (CMPs) which were used to track and collect behavior data of each student. Thompson and Webber (2010) introduced the Student and Teacher Agreement Realignment Strategy (STARS) intervention to help improve school rules and behavior strategies. Other interventions that incorporated PBIS included a combination of functional behavioral assessment-based interventions and targeted classroom supports in the form of universal teacher practices (Trussell et al., 2016). Additionally, Susan M. Bruce and five other authors studied whether Positive Behavior Supports (PBS) and cognitive behavior strategies prevented unwanted behaviors in young adults who were deaf and blind. Lastly,
Regina Oliver, Matthew Lambert, and Alex Mason sought to find an effective management program that improved school climate by considering the classroom management strategies and teacher implementation. The chosen schools implemented a Schoolwide Positive Behavior Support and Interventions (SWPBIS) system. In relevance to this study, the SWPBIS program was used as a tool to promote positive student behaviors while preventing and reducing student problem behaviors classroom and school wide (Carr et al., Lewis & Sugai, 1999).

Are educators trained enough in behavior management, where can they receive more training? I found a few studies that were related to this question. Through research and observations, the authors found that more training for developing meaningful student self-efficacy, updated resources that provided increased knowledge and skills, and additional personal psychological supports when needed would benefit these participants and teachers or educators worldwide (Nuri et al., 2017). Herman and Reinke (2017) indicated that teachers may benefit from extra support or trainings in classroom management before they consider leaving teaching for good (Ingersoll, 2001; Reinke et al., 2013). Flower, McKenna, and Haring conducted a study that examined behavior management training programs for general and special education teachers. Within their study they concluded that most teachers in their early teaching years have felt they don’t have the skills they need to manage a classroom and also have felt that their preparation in the past has failed them and they do not feel adequately prepared to manage student behaviors (Mitchell & Arnold, 2004; Beran, 2005). With poor classroom management, teachers reported that effective student learning was reduced and stress was increased through unwanted student behaviors and lower levels of job satisfaction. This in turn resulted in higher levels or teacher turnover (Brunsting, Sreckovic, &Lane, 2014; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). Lastly, a study conducted by Viviana Langher, Andrea Caputo, and Maria Elisabetta Ricci concluded that while
some teachers received some support from administration, it was perceived as negative based on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores and led to higher burnout rates, versus positive support for personal accomplishments which led to decreased burnout rates and feelings of acceptance by administration and other colleagues. Positive support contributed to teacher’s feelings of job success, to reduce emotional exhaustion and improve personal accomplishment was beneficial to reducing burnout rates for participants. While researchers sought to find support systems to reduce burnout in special education teachers, they discovered that the support given to teachers was negatively connected with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization levels (Duli, 2015). Lack of support for most of these teachers was one main cause for burnout in their career (Hakanen et al., 2006, Jennett, Harris, & Mesibov, 2003; Leung & Lee, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Talmor et al., 2005).

How can interventions and strategies of behavior management be incorporated successfully at home? Within all the articles I read, I did not find a study that specifically focused on the content of this question; however with the studies I did learn about, a lot of the interventions could be delivered and practiced in an environment outside of a school if implemented correctly and positively.

**Professional Application**

At the time I was thinking about what to write my thesis on, I can remember feeling the pressure and stress of trying to manage classroom and behavior challenges positively and effectively in my own classroom. I can also remember how it felt to feel that I wasn’t being supported or prepared enough for effectively teaching young minds to reach their own personal and life success. I came across the effective behavior and classroom management topic because of these thoughts and because I wanted to gain more insight into finding more effective strategies
and interventions for behaviors and experiment with implementing them for improving my own behavior and classroom management skills.

As I researched, I found similar articles related to the importance of fidelity, why teacher burnout occurs and how to prevent it, how to find effective interventions to implement for teaching and student learning success. After reading each article I gained a broader perspective on why using evidence-based interventions are more effective and the importance of using interventions based on PBS or SWPBIS programs to positively implement to ensure the greatest success.

I believe the most important findings of this study are combining evidence-based interventions with Positive Behavior Intervention and Supports for classroom and school-wide behavior success, researching and finding the most effective interventions based on individual students or a class as a whole; and making sure schools give enough support and preparation for teachers in order to implement and maintain the most positive and effective interventions possible to promote school-wide success for all students and educators.

A lot of the studies I reviewed for this paper were based all over the world. Most of the articles were based in Turkey and the United States and the participants ranged from preschool teachers to college professors. I noticed similarities and differences between each article regarding what location the studies were conducted and who the participants were. The similarities included making the main goal of finding effective evidence-based interventions in order to improve teacher classroom and behavior management skills and combining the evidence-based researched interventions with Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports in order to gain improvement for implementing the most effective, positive, and long lasting behavior and classroom management achievement for the greatest student and educator success.
Effective classroom management is an essential teaching skill and enhances the learning of all students. Classroom management not only allows for increased academic proficiency and decreased negative behaviors; it also establishes an organized and positive classroom environment. Although classroom behavior can be managed productively, this isn’t always true for most educators or in all schools (American Psychological Association, 2019). Classroom management is defined as an on-going process where educators and schools establish and maintain rules, regulations, and consequences for negative behavior while promoting and teaching positive behaviors. Implementing classroom management strategies enhances social behaviors and increases academic engagement and achievement (Emmer & Sabornie, 2015; Everston & Weinstein, 2006).

The purpose of this paper was to explore the research and implementation of Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS) and other related-based classroom strategies and school-wide behavior management tools. This study also found what behavioral supports were the most effective to help all students to achieve academic emotional and social success. This review addressed classroom and school-wide management and interventions through the use of School-Wide PBIS (SWPBIS) program. The focus of this paper was to find the most effective sources of behavior management for students, teachers, and other educators.

This thesis defined classroom and behavior management, gave examples of strategies and showed how to effectively implement those strategies. The findings showed how classroom management can be an attempt for students, and teachers, to achieve educational and academic goals and serves as a process to maintain and provide the optimal learning environment and educational experience (Celep, 2002; Erdogan et al., 2003). This paper aimed to portray classroom management as the way a class functions and is an essential tool for establishing rules
and routines for behavioral and academic success outside of the classroom. According to
*Preschool Education and Primary School Pre-service Teachers’ Perceptions about Classroom Management: A Metaphorical Analysis*, “a successful classroom should motivate learning, reduce negative behavior, and improve social and behavior challenges that can lead to an effective learning and teaching environment” (Celik, 2009; Erogan et al., 2011). These strategies and interventions can help support individual and group attention to learning and improve their academic achievement (Stratton et. al., 2001).

Importance of using PBS and PBIS programs and models was also highlighted in this study. PBIS is defined as a practice that organizes resources and systems to improve durable implementation fidelity (Sugai and Simonsen, 2012). PBIS is a “problem-solving” approach that 1. Places emphasis on providing a continuum of support for all students, 2. Evaluates the outcomes of behavior interventions and supports, and 3. Uses data to guide decision-making that considers how to improve or sustain implementation, and when to identify additional interventions for students (or staff) who require more support for success. The data also provides and monitors supports needed for students or staff to promote success for all (Simonsen & Myers, 2015).

Research summaries also highlighted the benefits, demonstrations, and importance of evidence-based interventions and strategies. Interventions and strategies are used to enhance positive behaviors, show how to re-direct negative behaviors, and improve educational outcomes (Springer Science+Business Media New York, 2015). The lack of effective programming finds that most educators focus school-wide and classroom discipline by singling out individual behaviors and responding with punishment-based reprimands including loss of privileges, office referrals, suspensions, and expulsions (Swain-Broadwy, Pinkney & Flannery, 2015).
Lastly, this study focused on the importance of professional development for teachers and by highlighting the need for effective training and preparation. Effective behavior management for classrooms and schools is a critical tool for behavior and academic success. Most teachers feel that their preparation courses did not properly or effectively prepare them for the behaviors that they face every day (Flower, McKenna & Haring, 2017). Research also suggested that teachers need to have a good understanding of behavioral management approaches to effectively promote academic engagement and achievement in all students (Martinussen, Tannock & Chaban, 2011).

The research findings underscore the need for quick, efficient, effective and positive solutions to behavioral issues that occur daily. Considerations featured in this study include ways to build and maintain on-going relationships between educators and students, how to enhance learning and teaching methods, and tools to reduce disruptive behavior. This paper introduced and supported how positive behavior supports (PBS) and School-Wide Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (SWPBIS) implemented into daily routines encouraged positive behavior success for both students and educators. According to the No Child Left Behind Act, schools were mandated to use (evidence-based) interventions to gain the best results (Everston, Carolyn M., Weinstein, Carol, S., 2006).

**Limitations of the Research**

Limitations occurred all throughout the various studies included in this paper. Although this study appeared effective, some limitations occurred. The study noted that it was unclear whether the implementation planning would improve a teacher’s implementation method, or whether additional implementation was needed during the consultation phase. Another limitation was related to the sequence of events. Initial Consultation phase preceded the implementation
planning stage, which then preceded the participant modeling stage. This addressed concerns regarding whether participant modeling improved a teacher’s implementation intervention stage or if it needed to be linked with implementation planning to produce a full effect. This study also concluded that teachers needed support in a variety of classroom management techniques including baseline knowledge, implementations, and classroom management strategies. The third limitation of this study noted that the participants were teachers who volunteered and may not represent all teachers who require classroom management support. Teachers chosen for this study may have been more motivated to participate than teachers who did not volunteer. Volunteering may have resulted in different scores. Additional limitations were due to data collection. The SWPBIS program data was not collected from all schools. It couldn’t be determined that implementing a program would have helped teachers along the CMP implementation intervention planning study (Sanetti et al., 2018).

Similar limitations that arose, (Thompson & Webber, 2010), included students’ behaviors that were provoked by needing or wanting attention and therefore that construed the results of the intervention since the intervention failed to help students with escaped-motivated behaviors (Carr & Durand, 1985; Haring & Kennedy, 1990; Iwata, 1987; Mace & Belfiore, 1990; Repp, Felce, & Barton, 1998; Weeks & Gaylord-Ross, 1981). Elliot (2017) noted a continued need for finding more experimental research that links background information to acceptability to determine the relationships between interventions and their fidelity).

Some limitations also included the following: The authors of the study did not use a randomized controlled trial that compared the CBITS intervention to similar interventions assessed in the past. There was a limited collaboration and caregiver response at the end of the study, and clinician self-reports about fidelity rather than an objective assessment completed by
experienced evaluators (Stein, Jaycox, et al., 2003). The authors of this study recommended that future studies should examine the same or similar strategies to promote effective behavior and mental health interventions. The authors also suggested that future studies showed that the barriers used were unique to school-based trauma services and interventions. This current intervention and study was successfully implemented trauma-based interventions to address the needs of students diagnosed with mental-health impairments (Hoover et al., 2018).

Limited generalization of population size of participants, difficulties gathering a subgroup large enough to include all race/ethnicity groups, and limited number of teachers from different backgrounds and cultures were examples of limitations included in this paper also. Some of the authors of a particular study concluded that further research would be needed using a variety of age groups using students from different cultures from different areas of the country. Additional research is needed to compare teacher ratings of student behavior and Caucasian teachers’ data to non-Caucasian teachers’ reading behavior management (Peters et al., 2014).

One of the studies proved that it is possible to use critical indicators to identify and track teacher effectiveness. When developing and evaluating effective teacher education training programs, it is essential to consider teacher competence, aptitudes, and experiences teacher evaluation (Espin et al., 1994). Lastly, the main limitations in this paper throughout all of the studies read were a small sample size and sample sizes only being gathered from one area which made it hard to determine the results that represented all participants in the United States and the world.

**Implications for Future Research**

I feel that in order to improve research on improving classroom and behavior management, researchers have to find journal articles related to interventions that are evidence-
based and have a large group of participants in order to find effective and successful interventions and strategies to use in classrooms. Throughout my research I also found that unsuccessful classroom management occurs in all parts of the world, so while researching this topic, researchers should be open to accepting information from journal articles from various places including different countries. At this time, I do not have any more questions.

Research that would need to be done would be to make sure that a study’s sample size and the population size related to the general population of the location of the study would be needed to be researched further for accurate results. Additionally, knowing baseline knowledge, what effective interventions were and why they are important should be further addressed in future studies. At this time, I did not find any new questions that arose.

**Conclusion (Again not sure if I need to Bold this for a label)**

This paper was written to inform readers about the importance of finding the best and most effective intervention options that can help improve classroom and behavior management. In the beginning as I was thinking about the guiding questions on this topic I came across these: Why is classroom/behavior management important for school and student success? What are the best and most effective strategies and interventions for classroom management? How can educators and schools incorporate PBIS and RTI programs school-wide? Are educators trained enough in behavior management, where can they receive more training? How can interventions and strategies of behavior management be incorporated successfully at home?

I feel that these questions were answered with the variety and similarities of researched studies I found for this paper. All the studies focused on finding and improving interventions or other ways to improve classroom and behavior management skills. A couple of the studies
focused on PBIS systems and interventions as well as surveying actual teachers and how they felt regarding their teacher preparation and burnout rate statuses.

Overall, this paper delivered many effective ways and tips in finding and implementing the most effective interventions in order to improve teaching and give support to all teachers worldwide. At the time I was thinking about what to write my thesis on, I can remember feeling the pressure and stress of trying to manage classroom and behavior challenges positively and effectively in my own classroom. I can also remember how it felt to feel that I wasn’t being supported or prepared enough for effectively teaching young minds to reach their own personal and life success. I came across the effective behavior and classroom management topic because of these thoughts and because I wanted to gain more insight into finding more effective strategies and interventions for behaviors and experiment with implementing them for improving my own behavior and classroom management skills.

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teachers in order to implement and maintain the most positive and effective interventions possible to promote school-wide success for all students and educators.

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