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An Evaluation of CHAMPS: A Classroom Management Program

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An Evaluation of CHAMPS: A Classroom Management Program

By
Holly J. Minnear

A Dissertation Submitted to the
Gardner-Webb University School of Education
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Education

Gardner-Webb University
2015

Approval Page

This dissertation was submitted by Holly J. Minnear under the direction of the persons listed below. It was submitted to the Gardner-Webb University School of Education and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education at Gardner-Webb University.

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Lastly, I thank God for giving me good health and the strength and patience to persevere through the peaks and valleys of this journey. I pray that I will be continually led to help educators, both current and future, support our children in fulfilling their potential.

Abstract

An Evaluation of CHAMPS: A Classroom Management Program. Minnear, Holly J., 2015: Dissertation, Gardner-Webb University, Classroom Management/CIPP Model/Program Evaluation/Elementary Schools

This dissertation was designed to examine the impact of Conversation, Help, Activity, Movement, Participation, Success (CHAMPS), a classroom management program in elementary schools in a district in North Carolina. The participants included principals and teachers who attended a 2-day training course and implemented the CHAMPS program at their schools.

The researcher used Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, Product (CIPP) model to examine the impact of CHAMPS on classroom management practices and student behavior. Specifically, the researcher utilized the Process and Product components of the CIPP model. The Process Evaluation sought to answer the question, "To what extent was the CHAMPS program implemented as intended?" The Product Evaluation sought to answer the question, "What was the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior and on teachers' classroom management practices?"

The research methodology included the following: an analysis of responses from the CHAMPS Principal Survey developed by the researcher; an analysis of responses from the CHAMPS Teacher Survey developed by the researcher; and an analysis of archival office discipline referral data from before and during the implementation period.

Based on the findings of the program evaluation, the researcher determined the program is operating inconsistently across the elementary schools. A recommendation was made to incorporate further training within the schools, including the use of coaches and self-study professional development based on the individual needs of teachers.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Statement of the Problem

The manner in which teachers organize and manage their classrooms for instruction has a direct impact on students. In fact, Marzano and Marzano (2003) contended, “Teachers’ actions in their classrooms have twice the impact on student achievement as do school policies regarding curriculum, assessment, staff collegiality, and community involvement” (p. 8). A teacher’s ability to organize the classroom and manage behavior of students is critical to a student’s academic success (Oliver & Reschly, 2007; Seeman, 2011). Cameron and Sheppard (2006) contended that teachers need discipline methods that maintain a safe learning environment. Kratochwill (n.d.) asserted that discipline has been a documented priority for teachers for the nearly 40 years that opinion surveys have been in existence. In fact, educators have consistently rated discipline as a major obstacle to effective teaching. However, many teachers do not receive adequate professional development in effective classroom organization and management practices (Oliver & Reschly, 2007; Seeman, 2011).

On the national level, concerns about classroom discipline abound. Public Agenda (2004), a nonprofit, nonpartisan organization, conducted a random sample survey of 725 middle and high school teachers along with 600 parents of middle and high school students regarding discipline in the classroom. It was widely accepted by both parents and teachers that schools need good discipline and behavior policies to be successful. Eighty-nine percent of teachers acknowledged knowing how to deal with student discipline is an integral part of being a good teacher. Thirty percent of teachers reported student discipline as one of the top problems of their school. Thirty-four percent of teachers considered leaving the teaching profession within the last 3 years due to student

behavior in the classroom. In the study, teachers reported disruptive classroom behavior such as talking out and horseplay, rowdiness within the school environment, and lack of respect for teachers as the most serious offenses. Teachers and parents also agreed that disruptive students interrupt instructional time. Seventy-seven percent of teachers reported instruction would be more effective if teachers did not take up time dealing with discipline issues. Forty-three percent of parents believed their child would learn more if the teachers were not distracted by discipline issues.

A 2012 Gallup Poll (Bushaw & Lopez, 2012) of 1,002 adult Americans revealed lack of discipline in the classrooms as the second largest problem facing public schools, following lack of financial support. In a study of public school principals (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012), 23% of public schools reported bullying by students on a daily or weekly basis. Additionally, 17% of public schools reported other incidents of classroom disorder and disrespect for teachers on a weekly basis.

A lack of teacher training in classroom management and organization techniques may also contribute to classroom discipline issues. For example, in a national random survey sample of 725 middle and high school teachers, 85% of the teachers surveyed believed new teachers are unprepared to deal with behavioral issues (Public Agenda, 2004). Additionally, 91% of teachers agreed placing more emphasis on classroom management skills in teacher preparation programs could improve student behavior.

Chelsey and Jordan (2012) conducted research using two formal focus groups. The groups consisted of 30 teachers with 3 or less years of experience and an equal number of experienced mentor teachers. The beginning teachers reported a gap between university coursework covering student management and the real-world experiences teachers faced upon entering the classroom. Both groups noted a lack of knowledge

beginning teachers had concerning research-based strategies on positive classroom management.

Seeman (2011) asserted that much of teacher education curriculum is based on abstract theory. Furthermore, the training education professors receive is too conceptual. He noted, “There is a training gap between giving teachers informed perceptions, and actually helping them with what specifically to do for over 6 hours a day, 180 days a year” (Seeman, 2011, p. 1). He recommended teachers need less training in educational theory and methods and more help with classroom management. Furthermore, training should be given in how to prevent discipline problems as well as how to handle them.

Classroom management in the elementary setting presents unique challenges for a teacher. Carter and Doyle (2006) noted, “Elementary school classrooms are complex, multifaceted, contexts in children’s lives, contexts in which they develop social consciousness, early friendships, interpersonal competence outside the family context, resilience, and a foundation for academic proficiency” (p. 374). Therefore, elementary teachers must attend to two strands of classroom management. The teacher must focus on classroom processes and actions that create and maintain order so learning can occur. Another aspect elementary teachers must recognize is the “social curriculum” of classroom management. This part focuses on “young children’s moral and prosocial development and the teaching of self-management, responsibility, and resilience in contexts related to their conduct in school settings” (Carter & Doyle, 2006, p. 375).

In an interview conducted by the researcher with the Director of Safe and Healthy Schools in the researcher’s district, a concern was expressed regarding inconsistency in discipline and classroom management practices from teacher to teacher and even among principals (R. Murray, personal communication, October 16, 2012). The Director stated,

“We have a student code of conduct, but we don’t follow it a lot of times or we use it however we see fit.” The Director also mentioned many classroom management plans were consequence-based and lacked focus on preventing discipline problems. In 2009, the district received a grant through the Safe School, Healthy Students initiative which is a federal grant-making program designed to prevent violence and drug abuse in youth through supportive school discipline measures, bullying prevention and intervention, and positive behavior interventions and supports (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.). The district chose to pilot the Conversation, Help, Activity, Movement, Participation, Success (CHAMPS) program because of its positive and preventative approach to discipline and classroom management (R. Murray, personal communication, October 16, 2012).

In September 2011, the district offered training to each school’s Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports team. A trainer conducted a 2-day workshop focusing on the CHAMPS proactive and positive approach to classroom management. Teachers were asked to give feedback and suggestions following the workshop. Many teachers commented on the need for the workshop to be available to all staff and administrators. Based on positive responses from participants, coupled with a pilot program in the participants’ schools during the 2011-2012 school year, the district decided to adopt CHAMPS as a system-wide classroom management model. Teachers and administrators not previously trained attended a 2-day professional development seminar offered during the summer and fall of 2012. All K-12 schools began implementation of CHAMPS during the 2012-2013 school year. In addition, teachers were required to include an objective from CHAMPS training as part of their Professional Development Plan.

This study took place in a rural school district located in the foothills of western

North Carolina. The 15 elementary schools in the district participated in the study. All of these schools operated under a school-wide Title I plan. This funding enabled schools to consolidate federal resources to provide services for all students in the school, regardless of parent income.

The researcher was an employee of the school district who taught at the elementary level for 18 years. The researcher attended the pilot training program in 2011 and used the CHAMPS program for 2 years in a first-grade classroom.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to conduct a program evaluation examining the impact of the CHAMPS program on classroom management practices and student behavior at the elementary level. Administration and faculty perceptions of the effectiveness of CHAMPS implementation were assessed through surveys. Current and archival office discipline referral data were also analyzed. Research was conducted using Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, Product (CIPP) model for program evaluation. According to Stufflebeam (2003b), "The CIPP Evaluation Model is a comprehensive framework for guiding formative and summative evaluations of projects, institutions, and systems" (p. 2).

The CIPP model of evaluation was chosen for several reasons. First, the CIPP model has the most staying power of early evaluation models and is focused on program improvement (Fitzpatrick, Sanders, & Worthen, 2011). Second, the CIPP model can be used as a formative assessment. For example, a process study "may identify ways that teachers or other deliverers are implementing a program such as deviating from the intended activities because they are not working or are not feasible" (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011, p. 178). Third, the model is a rational, ordered approach which gives clear focus to

an evaluation. The researcher's goal was to conduct a concise evaluation of the CHAMPS program which can impact future training of administrators and teachers, the future of the program, or training for the manner in which the current program is being implemented.

Research Questions

CIPP forms an acronym for the four components of the program evaluation: context, input, process, and product. Context evaluations explore the deficiencies that existed that indicated a need for the current program. Input evaluations explore why a program was chosen. Process evaluations study how a program is being implemented. Product evaluations examine the impact of the program on the stakeholders (Stufflebeam, 2003a). As the CHAMPS program was mandated by the district, this research study emphasized the process and product components. The following research questions helped guide the formative evaluation of the CHAMPS program.

Process Research Questions:

1. To what extent was the CHAMPS program implemented as intended?
 - a. What were the teachers' perceptions about the various components within the CHAMPS program?
 - b. How were the teachers' questions and concerns addressed during the training and implementation of the CHAMPS program?
 - c. How were the principals' questions and concerns addressed during the training and implementation of the CHAMPS program?
 - d. How was assistance available to teachers during implementation?
 - e. Were principals able to see evidence of teachers using the various components of CHAMPS in their classrooms?

Product Research Questions:

2. What was the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior?
 - a. What was the impact of CHAMPS on office discipline referrals?
 - b. What were the teachers' perceptions as to the effectiveness of the CHAMPS program on student behavior at their school after CHAMPS was implemented?
 - c. What were the principals' perceptions as to the effectiveness of the CHAMPS program on student behavior at their school after CHAMPS was implemented?
3. What was the impact of CHAMPS on teachers' classroom management practices?
 - a. What were the teachers' perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on their classroom management practices?
 - b. What were the principals' perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on teachers' classroom management practices?

Definition of Terms

CHAMPS. “A systematic, prevention-oriented approach that guides teachers in providing universal classroom supports that are likely to promote appropriate behavior and reduce disruptive behavior in the classroom ” (Sprick, 2009, p. 456).

Classroom management. “Actions taken to create and maintain a learning environment conducive to successful instruction” (Brophy, 2006, p. 17).

Contingent praise. “A positive phrase, typically provided by the teacher, when a desired behavior occurs (contingent) to inform students specifically what they did well” (Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesh, Myers, & Sugai, 2008, p. 362).

Evaluation. “The process of determining the merit, worth, or significance of things” (Scriven, 2003, para. 1).

Token economies. “Used when students earn tokens (e.g., points, poker chips, etc.) contingent upon desired behavior that can be cashed in for a back-up reinforcer (e.g. desired items, activities, attention from preferred people etc.)” (Simonsen et al., 2008, p. 362).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In order to fully understand the CHAMPS classroom management program within the broader research context, this chapter examines historical perspectives on classroom management including research from the behavioral, ecological, and process-outcome approaches. Next, the chapter compares two research-proven effective classroom management programs before exploring the components of the CHAMPS program. Lastly, research on program evaluation including a history, theoretical perspective, and models is presented.

Perspectives on Classroom Management

Effective classroom management is “a means for creating and maintaining a learning environment that is optimal given the intended curriculum” (Brophy, 2006, p. 18). In reporting the results of a landmark classroom management study, Evertson and Emmer (1982) reported a major goal for teachers is establishing a climate for learning by promoting the development of high levels of engagement in academic tasks while preventing and responding to disruptive or off-task behaviors. Therefore, management theory and research concentrates on how teachers structure the classroom for learning and respond to and restore order when disruptions occur (Brophy, 2006). Brophy (2006) noted even though there is consensus of the importance of classroom management, there is a paucity of research on the subject. One reason may be classroom management is not considered a discipline by itself; instead, it is intertwined within other subjects and teacher preparation foundation courses. Also, as management activities continually occur during the course of the school day, research observation is a time-intensive and expensive process. Due to the constant activity and unpredictability of the classroom, most classroom management research is conducted inductively where researchers use

interviews or observations. After interviewing teachers and observing classroom interaction and behaviors, researchers analyze the resulting data and formulate principles of effective practice (Brophy, 2006). Much research has been conducted using qualitative methods that produce descriptions of effective managers. In other instances, research studies have used mixed methods that compare the practices of beginning and experienced teachers. Researchers typically use direct indicators such as time spent engaged in lessons versus time spent in transitions or dealing with disruptions and off-task behavior to evaluate effective classroom management. It should be noted that the research methods described above have only recently come into play, as information found in classroom management textbooks during the first two-thirds of the 20th century relied mostly on common sense advice and personal experiences of the authors, because systemic studies of classroom management practices did not yet exist (Brophy, 2006).

Bagley (1907) is a noteworthy example of classroom management advice given to teachers at the turn of the century. Bagley claimed his data had been garnered from observations of successful classroom teachers, other textbooks of classroom management, his own experiences, and psychological principles. He asserted, “valued principles of teaching can be derived only from observation and induction based upon successful school practice” (Bagley, 1907, p. vi). Bagley’s book was divided into two parts: the routine factors of classroom management and judgment factors in classroom management. Brophy (2006) noted much of Bagley’s advice is similar to recommendations found in current classroom management books. Bagley contended that classroom management practices should reflect not just short-term objectives but the larger purpose of schooling, which is preparing students to live as productive citizens in society. He provided advice on creating routines and establishing order in the classroom,

as well as enacting discipline measures when necessary. Bagley condoned corporal punishment as a last resort but warned against its prolonged use. He included the following 15 propositions to effectively administer punishment compiled from a report of interviews with 100 reputedly successful teachers in Rhode Island, published in an annual report by the State Board of Education in 1899.

1. The classroom teacher is responsible for administering punishment for offenses committed in the classroom.
2. Punishment should be administered as soon as possible.
3. Students should be punished in private.
4. Students should not be punished by an angry adult.
5. Acts which are intentional, willful, and premeditated should be punished.
6. Repeated offenses are subject to punishment.
7. Offenses that will most likely not be repeated should not be punished.
8. Not all students need to be punished the same way for the same offense.
9. Students should understand why they are being punished.
10. Punishments can reform a student if he sees their justice.
11. Punishments should be used as a last resort measure.
12. Teachers should not use punishment to “make an example” of a student.
13. Teachers should not use sarcasm, ridicule, or satire as a source of punishment.
14. Parents tend to favor corporal punishment.
15. Teachers should not use tasks as a form of punishment.

After the publication of Bagley’s (1907) book, further research and development of theory and research in classroom management remained stagnant until the 1950s. Brophy (2006) noted the format for authors of classroom management texts was to

dispense classroom management advice from personal experience, backed by citations from authors of similar texts of the era. Empirical studies were limited to surveys of teacher attitudes and noted observations of frequencies of misbehavior (Brophy, 2006).

Much of the classroom research conducted in the 1950s and 1960s concentrated on teacher leadership style (Brophy, 2006). In general, studies found “that authoritative leadership that balanced teacher directiveness with encouragement of student input and self-regulation was preferable to the extremes of either authoritarian or laissez-faire approaches” (Brophy, 2006, p. 25). From this point, classroom management research evolved to include behavioral research, ecological studies, and process-outcome studies that addressed specific traits of managing classrooms and students.

The behavioral approach to classroom management continues to be a dominant theme both in research and teacher preparation courses (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006; Tauber, 2007). Five basic operations are common to classroom management approaches applying behavioral theory: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction, response cost punishment, and punishment involving presentation of subversives (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006). These operations stem from Skinner’s (1957) theory of operant conditioning that claims learning occurs through rewards and punishments for behavior. Behavior modification can be thought of as the consequences a teacher applies to modify or control a student’s behavior (Tauber, 2007). Specifically, a teacher either wants to maintain, increase, or decrease specific behaviors in the classroom (Tauber, 2007).

Positive reinforcement “involves the addition of a reinforcing stimulus following a behavior that makes it more likely the behavior will occur again in the near future” (Cherry, n.d., para. 1). Examples of positive reinforcement in classroom management

include tangible rewards and teacher praise (Brophy; 2006; Landrum & Kauffman, 2006; Tauber, 2007). Landrum and Kauffman (2006) noted the effective use of positive reinforcement has been well-documented across all grade levels in a variety of settings. In particular, research has shown contingent teacher praise improves student academic and social behavior. Contingent praise is a positive statement provided by the teacher to a student upon observation of a desired behavior (Simonsen et al., 2008). Stormont and Reinke (2009) remarked that praise is a cost-free behavior management support that can be easily implemented by teachers in the classroom, has the potential to eliminate many problem behaviors, and can be effective with even the most challenging students. Reinke, Lewis-Palmer, and Merrell (2008) conducted an observational study involving elementary school teachers. Participants were observed daily for a month with observers noting the frequency of teacher praise and reprimands. Occurrences of disruptive student behavior were also recorded during the observations. When baseline data were recorded, all classrooms were observed to have higher rates of classroom disruptions than praise. During the study, teachers were provided with visual performance feedback (a line graph depicting the rate of teacher provided praise and disruptive classroom behaviors observed by researchers). At the end of 1 month, all four classrooms demonstrated higher rates of praise and lower rates of teacher reprimands and student disruptions. However, follow-up data collected 1 month after the end of the study showed a downward trend of teacher praise in three of the four classrooms, although positive changes in student behavior remained. The researchers concluded the use of behavior-specific praise (providing explicit feedback for a desired student behavior) may reduce the need for reprimands and increase positive interactions between the teacher and students. However, Tauber (2007) cautioned that teacher praise can be perceived negatively by students. For example,

praise may be inappropriate when students perceive it as a personal evaluation or do not feel praiseworthy. In this instance, praise can actually lead to distrust of the teacher.

Tauber (2007) admonished teachers to use corrective feedback and encouragement as an alternative form of communication for students who do not feel praiseworthy.

Another behavioral approach, negative reinforcement, may be the least understood behavior modification technique. Many educators mistakenly equate negative reinforcement with punishment (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006; Tauber, 2007). In reality, negative reinforcement is the removal or elimination of an unfavorable or aversive stimulus contingent upon displaying a desired behavior (Tauber, 2007). For example, a teacher may tell students they will have less homework assigned if they complete classwork with a high degree of accuracy. In this case, the unfavorable stimulus is homework and the desired behavior is completing classwork accurately. A different type of negative reinforcement, behavior function, may occur when a student engages in misbehavior to avoid an academic task (McIntosh, Horner, Chard, Dickey, & Braun, 2008). If the teacher responds by removing the task from the student, i.e., sending the student to timeout or the office, negative reinforcement of the student's behavior may occur. In effect, the teacher is removing the aversive stimulus (academic task) by sending the student out of the room. McIntosh et al. (2008) called this process a coercive cycle of behavioral and educational failure. This cycle leads to widening academic deficits, increased problem behavior when presented with aversive academic tasks, and an increased risk for showing problem behavior in other settings.

Extinction is the removal of a reinforcement that results in the decline of a specific behavior (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006). Extinction can be helpful in decreasing minor negative behaviors that have been reinforced over time such as responding to

students who are talking out of turn. In this case, a teacher would practice extinction by ignoring the student when the behavior occurs. However, Landrum and Kauffman (2006) cautioned behavior that is ignored by a teacher may end up being reinforced by the student's classmates. Also, teachers must also be prepared for a temporary increase in behavior, coined *extinction burst* (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006). For a short period of time, the behavior may escalate when the teacher ignores it.

A recent study by Janney, Umbreit, Ferro, Liaupsin, and Lane (2013) examined the effectiveness of extinction. Three at-risk elementary-aged students in general education settings received behavior interventions which included reinforcement and extinction procedures. All three students displayed chronic off-task behavior before the interventions were implemented. The targeted replacement behavior was for students to remain seated and engaged in the assigned work. The function-based intervention included antecedent adjustment (adjusting the environment so that conditions that set occasion for target behavior are eliminated and replacement behavior is more likely to occur), reinforcement (teacher attention and verbal praise when replacement behavior occurred), and extinction (redirection once then ignoring when off-task). After establishing baseline data, observers collected direct observation data for the replacement behaviors during 10 sessions, lasting 10-15 minutes each. All three students exhibited increased levels of on-task behavior. However, when the extinction component was removed from the intervention, the on-task behavior decreased dramatically. When the extinction component was reinstated, on-task behaviors rapidly improved.

Both positive and negative reinforcement have the same goal: to display or increase a desired behavior (Cherry, n.d.; Tauber, 2007). The goal of extinction or punishment, on the other hand, is to decrease the probability of a behavior reoccurring.

However, extinction differs from punishment in that extinction involves extinguishing a behavior previously reinforced. Conversely, punishment occurs when an aversive is added or when something desirable is taken away. One type of punishment frequently applied by teachers, especially in a whole class situation, is response cost (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006). In this type of behavioral operation, reinforcement is removed when undesirable behavior occurs (Webster, n.d.). For example, a teacher may subtract 5 minutes of recess time from the class for off-task behavior. Response cost allows teachers to immediately address misbehavior and avoids the use of aversive punishment. Research has shown whole-class interventions may be more effective than employing individual behavior plans for several students in a classroom (Filcheck, McNeil, Greco, & Bernard, 2004; Tingstrom, Sterling-Turner, & Wilczynski, 2006). The addition of response cost punishment to a token reinforcement program in which students accumulate points or tokens for demonstrating appropriate behaviors may be used to modify student behavior (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006). Research has shown the effectiveness of response cost is related to the reinforcement value of the tokens and the degree to which the student can earn and accumulate tokens (Simonsen et al., 2008). Landrum and Kauffman (2006) cautioned that teachers must use best judgment when using the response cost technique. The program should not allow a student to lose a privilege for a single incident of minor misbehavior. Also, the teacher must ensure there are ample opportunities to earn tokens or other types of reinforcement that will outweigh the loss of reinforcement from response cost measures.

Punishment using aversives is regarded as a last resort measure for dealing with chronic or severe behavior (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006). The goal of applying an aversive is to decrease the occurrence of a behavior. Aversives can be of a physical

nature such as spanking or paddling, designed to inflict physical discomfort, or milder aversives, such as scolding or reprimanding. Romano, Bell, and Norian (2013) defined corporal punishment as “the use of physical force with the intention of causing pain for purposes of correcting or controlling a child’s behavior” (p. 265). A meta-analysis of 88 studies of corporal punishment administered by parents conducted by Gershoff (2002) found corporal punishment was linked to a number of unfavorable behavioral outcomes including increased aggression and antisocial behavior. The only positive outcome associated with the study was immediate compliance. Currently, 19 states still permit corporal punishment (Gunderson National Child Protection Training Center, n.d.). Gershoff (2010) noted there is no peer-reviewed research on the impacts of corporal punishment administered in the school setting. Landrum and Kauffman (2006) concluded there is a growing consensus that physical punishments do not result in long-term positive benefits, do not teach students appropriate behaviors, and may lead to increased negative behaviors. Furthermore, policy debate has mostly centered on personal opinion and anecdotal evidence (Gershoff, 2010).

The use of milder aversives has been shown to be effective and more acceptable in the school setting (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006). In reviewing the research, Simonsen et al. (2008) concluded that an explicit reprimand in which the teacher provides direct, concise, and brief corrective feedback to a student immediately following an act of inappropriate behavior is an effective classroom management technique. This method involves telling the student a particular behavior is unacceptable, telling the student why it is unacceptable, and providing an appropriate alternative behavior. Landrum and Kauffman (2006) suggested that reprimands should be used in conjunction with positive strategies designed to teach students appropriate behavior.

Behavioral research continues to flourish in the 21st century and many modern classroom management models are based on behavioral theories. Landrum and Kauffman (2006) noted much of the current research being employed involves social learning theory. Albert Bandura developed social learning theory. He asserted that individuals are capable of learning through direct experiences or observing the behavior of others. Also, learning may not necessarily lead to a change in behavior. In order for observational learning to be successful, a person must be motivated to imitate the behavior. Behavioral research in the 21st century emphasizes early intervention and prevention, as well as school-wide applications (Landrum & Kauffman, 2006).

An ecological approach to classroom management focuses on classroom settings and activities students participate in, rather than the behaviors of the students themselves (Osher, Bear, Sprague, & Doyle, 2010). When viewed from an ecological perspective, Doyle (2006) maintained classroom management, “is about how order is established and maintained in classroom environments ” (p. 99). Thus, when viewed from the ecological perspective, classroom management is a process of solving the problem of order rather than the problem of disruption or misbehavior of individual students. Doyle viewed the key to classroom management as twofold. The teacher must first understand the configuration of events in the classroom and then be skillful in monitoring and guiding the activities.

Doyle (2006) asserted what constitutes orderliness will differ throughout the school day based on setting and activities as well as individual teachers’ expectations for their students. Classroom ecologists view the classroom as a behavior setting in which the day is divided into activity segments, each of which has its own program of actions that define order (Carter & Doyle, 2006). The teacher’s task “is to gain and maintain

students' cooperation in the programs of action that organize and shape classroom life" (Osher et al., 2010, p. 49). Although teachers play a pivotal role in initiating and sustaining classroom activities, students contribute to classroom order by cooperating and positively engaging in the activities (Doyle, 2006). Thus, to understand classroom order, researchers must examine the contexts of the classroom and how they are enacted by the student and the teacher (Doyle, 2006).

Ecological studies of classroom management evolved from the different configurations of classroom settings such as small group, whole group, or individual instruction and the activities that take place within those settings (Brophy, 2006). This research also extends to the role of the teacher in orchestrating activities within the classroom. Osher et al. (2010) noted that ecological research is usually descriptive and qualitative. Several important findings have emerged from early studies. For example, Kounin and Gump (1958) studied the response of kindergarten children watching their peers being disciplined by the classroom teacher during the first several days of school. They found that a "ripple effect" existed: that is, how a teacher responds to a student's misbehavior impacts the behavior of the students watching. To control the ripple effect, Kounin and Gump found effective teachers gave clear instructions to the misbehaving child and that a high degree of firmness may increase conformance for students who exhibit chronic deviant behavior. However, they cautioned teachers not to equate firmness with roughness or anger. According to Brophy (2006), in later studies, Kounin (1970) made two important changes that have heavily influenced the field of modern classroom management. First, Kounin shifted from the use of observational notes to videotapes. This new method of recording enabled the researcher to replay videos, thus making more accurate coding possible. Secondly, he shifted his studies from solely

involving desists (teacher's actions to stop a misbehavior) to a broad range of teacher actions. From analyzing the many hours of videotape, Kounin concluded that teachers' responses to desists were not an accurate measurement of an effective classroom manager. Instead, Kounin determined the most successful classroom managers prevented many disruptions from occurring in the first place by maintaining the flow of instruction and curtailing minor infractions before they could escalate. Based on the findings of his research, Kounin proposed a set of teacher behaviors that influence the degree of positive behavior and academic engagement in the classroom. These behaviors include

“With-itness”—being aware of what is happening in the classroom.

Overlapping—being able to attend to more than one task at a time.

Signal continuity and momentum—keeping students' attention throughout the activity and sustaining the pace in an appropriate manner.

Group alerting and accountability—using appropriate questioning techniques and maintaining focus.

Challenge and variety in assignments—providing varied assignments at an ideal level of difficulty.

Ecological research has diminished since the 1980s, which is a general reflection of the decline in classroom management itself (Doyle, 2006). Doyle (2006) pointed out several limitations of ecological studies. For example, as most of the foundational studies took place in a White middle-class setting, cultural diversity was not taken into account. Also, the ecological model provides guidance for creating orderly environments but does not take into account the possible cognitive and emotional impact of ecological interventions on individual students. Third, Doyle concluded classroom management extends beyond the classroom walls to encompass the social curriculum including moral

and prosocial development of students.

Process-outcome research, which began in the 1960s, documents the relationship between classroom processes (teacher actions and teacher-student interactions) and outcomes (what students learn and how they behave) (Brophy, 2006; Gettinger & Kohler, 2006). The data derived from this research have provided teachers evidence-based teaching practices that have helped move the field of teaching closer to a science (Gettinger & Kohler, 2006). Researchers often use systematic observation in classrooms and code predetermined specific teacher and classroom interactions. In fact, a by-product of process-outcome research has been the development of formal classroom observation systems.

According to Gettinger and Kohler (2006), Kounin's classroom management research was one of the earliest to link teacher actions with student behavior. Kounin's (1970) seminal work, *Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms*, documented his research of the teaching-learning process in effective versus ineffectively managed classrooms. Kounin found the most effective classroom managers were proactive in preventing discipline problems from occurring. Subsequent process-outcome research replicated and further developed Kounin's findings (Brophy, 2006; Gettinger & Kohler, 2006).

Brophy and Evertson (1976) published results from a major correlational study comparing the behavior of elementary teachers whose students demonstrated consistently higher academic achievement with teachers whose students demonstrated more typical performance. The researchers observed more effective teachers placed emphasis on being in charge of the classroom than less effective teachers. In fact, in addition to supporting Kounin's earlier work, a major finding of the study was that management

variables had the strongest relationships with student learning gains.

According to Marzano and Marzano (2003), four studies conducted at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education in Austin, Texas, marked a milestone in research on classroom management. The first study of 27 elementary school teachers in eight schools, reported by Evertson and Emmer (1982), was descriptive-correlational. Each teacher was observed at least eight times during the first 3 weeks of school by two observers. For the remainder of the year, each teacher was observed every 3 weeks by different observers. Researchers found more effective teachers spent a considerable amount of time during the first several weeks of school explicitly teaching classroom rules and procedures. In contrast, the less effective classroom teachers had no clear procedures and did not take the time to practice classroom routines with the students. Effective teachers monitored their students continuously and attended to misbehavior promptly. The poorer classroom managers were observed attending to clerical duties, left the students unsupervised to obtain materials outside of the classroom, and did not institute routines for moving about the room. As a consequence, students were left without enough information to guide behavior, and chaos often ensued. Finally, less effective teachers did not attend to misbehavior quickly enough, and the consequences of positive and negative behavior were not clear to students. Teachers tended to deliver general criticisms to the class and used reminders and warnings with little follow-through. This study supported Kounin's concept of teacher "with-itness" and the effective manager's role in being proactive in preventing student misbehavior.

A second descriptive study was conducted at the junior high level (Evertson & Emmer, 1982). The study's participants included 26 mathematics teachers and 25 English teachers. The junior high study followed the same methodological procedures as

the elementary school study and produced similar results; that is, effective classroom managers instructed students in rules and procedures, monitored student compliance, developed student accountability for work, communicated information clearly, and organized instruction efficiently. Together, the 2-year-long descriptive studies came to be known as the Classroom Organization Study (COS).

The third and fourth studies conducted through the Research and Development Center examined the impact of classroom management training on teacher behavior based on the findings from the COS and related research. Collectively, this research has come to be known as the Classroom Management Improvement Study (CMIS).

Forty-one elementary school teachers from two school districts participated in the third study (Evertson, Emmer, Sanford, & Clements, 1983). Twenty-three teachers were assigned to the experimental group, and nine teachers were assigned to the control group. Teachers in the experimental group were given a classroom management manual based on results from the COS at a workshop 4 days before school began. The manual focused on planning and organization for the first few weeks of school as well as techniques for managing student behavior. Teachers attended a booster workshop during the fifth week which focused on instructional organization and behavior management. The control group of teachers did not receive the manual until December. Upon receiving the manual, the teachers attended a workshop prior to the Christmas break. Both groups of teachers were observed from August through February with eight visits occurring during the first 8 weeks of school. Teachers in the experimental group used the manual significantly more than the control group of teachers. However, all of the teachers used the manual with some degree of consistency and success. Observers noted significantly less inappropriate behavior and off-task behavior in classes taught by the experimental

group. Teachers in the control group were rated higher in effective management behaviors after receiving the manual and attending the December workshop. However, there was no significant decrease in the amount of inappropriate or off-task student behavior. Researchers speculated mid-year changes may require more intensive intervention in order to be effective. The researchers drew three conclusions from the study. A successful management plan differentiates appropriate student behavior among activities and lessons as well as identifies positive and negative consequences for appropriate and inappropriate student behavior. Secondly, successful management begins the first day with the teacher clearly communicating expectations, using the plan consistently, constantly monitoring students, and providing prompt feedback. The maintenance phase is the third feature of effective classroom management. In this phase, teachers continue to monitor behavior, communicate expectations, and consistently use established procedures throughout the school year.

The fourth study also involved a field experiment but was conducted at the junior high level (Emmer, Sanford, Clements, & Martin, 1982). The experimental group included 18 content area teachers with 2 or fewer years of prior experience who received a training manual in effective management practices based on prior findings from the COS and attended two workshops at the beginning of the year to support the use of the manual. The control group included 20 content area teachers with 2 or fewer years of experience who were not provided with a manual or workshops. Additionally, a subsample included experienced teachers nominated by their principals as experiencing some management problems in the past. Data collection and observations of both groups were conducted in two periods, the first 8 weeks of school and January-February, with special emphasis placed on the first few weeks of school. Observers assessed

implementation of recommended management practices and the effects of use of recommended management practices on student cooperation and task engagement. Teacher interviews provided additional information. Beginning of the year data showed teachers in the treatment group used the recommended management practices significantly more frequently than the control group. In addition, the students of these teachers showed greater on-task and engaged behavior. Due to the attrition of four teachers in the experimental group and five teachers in the control group, middle of the year results were inconclusive. The experienced teachers with prior management problems who had received training showed no evidence effect on management outcomes. In fact, the only evidence of impact was for “first week” practices. In contrast to the main group of teachers reporting improved behavior, the majority of experienced teachers saw little or no improvement in their classes. Researchers suggested that “the areas in which teachers attempted some change during the first part of the year was insufficient to produce an effect on students, and the absence of student behavior gave no support to further attempts to make changes” (Emmer et al., 1982, p. 53). Notwithstanding, the researchers concluded teacher education in effective classroom management practices could help many teachers establish better learning environments in junior and middle school classes.

CHAMPS Program Description

CHAMPS is a classroom management program that many districts have used to help K-8 teachers improve classroom behavior and increase student engagement and motivation (Safe and Civil Schools, n.d.). Sprick (2009), an educational consultant, trainer, and lead consultant for Safe and Civil Schools, is author of *CHAMPS: A Proactive and Positive Approach to Classroom Management*. According to Sprick,

“CHAMPS is a systematic, prevention-oriented approach that guides teachers in providing universal supports that are likely to promote appropriate behavior in the classroom” (p. 456). The book, which forms the basis for the program, is divided into five sections. During the program training, teachers are taught the following five principles:

Structure your classroom.

Teach behavioral expectations to students.

Observe and supervise.

Interact positively with students.

Correct fluently.

Together, the first letter of each of the principles forms the acronym STOIC, which Sprick suggested describes a teacher who shows patience and endurance. Each chapter of CHAMPS focuses on one aspect of classroom management.

The section on structuring the classroom begins by encouraging teachers to have a vision of their ideal classroom. In order to attain the vision, teachers need to structure the classroom to promote and recognize responsible student behavior as well as respond to irresponsible student behavior effectively. Sprick (2009) asserted that teachers can prevent many misbehaviors from occurring by concentrating on condition, implementing pleasant consequences, and eliminating unpleasant consequences. A student’s motivation drives their behavior, and students who repeatedly misbehave are acting out for a reason. For example, a student may not know how to behave responsibly in a classroom environment, he may be ignorant the behavior he is engaged in is inappropriate, he may be experiencing a pleasurable result from the misbehavior, or simply avoiding a self-perceived unpleasant task or assignment (Sprick, 2009). CHAMPS suggests

understanding a student's motivation toward misbehavior allows teachers to employ motivational processes that spur students to do their best academically and display responsible behavior and actions. Sprick asserted effective instruction coupled with positive feedback motivates students to exhibit their best behavior. Teachers are encouraged to maintain and communicate high expectations for students throughout the year. Effective instructional practices are an essential component of behavior management practices. In fact, teachers need to ask themselves if a student's misbehavior might be caused, at least in part, by an instructional problem (Sprick, 2009). The organization of the classroom including routines, procedures, schedules, and physical space greatly influence the behavior and motivation of students (Simonsen et al., 2008). CHAMPS tasks for this section include arranging a daily schedule, creating a productive physical setting, using an attention signal, designing effective beginning and ending routines, managing student assignments, and managing independent work periods (Sprick, 2009). CHAMPS encourages teachers to develop a classroom management plan before the school year begins so they will be prepared to deal with the full range of student behaviors in the classroom (Sprick, 2009). Sprick stated, "an effective management and discipline plan is a framework that supports a variety of rituals, routines, rules, consequences, and motivational techniques you can use to ensure students are academically engaged and emotionally thriving" (p. 107). Although the plan is established before the school year begins, it is continually adapted during the year to meet the changing needs of the class. An important task in developing the plan is determining the level of classroom structure with which the teacher will be comfortable. The rules should serve as the foundation for implementing consequences for the most frequent misbehaviors. The rules should refer to observable behaviors, and teachers must

actively teach the rules using positive and negative examples (Sprick, 2009). During the first week of school, students should be corrected in an instructional manner and infractions of the rules should be viewed as an honest mistake. Teachers must also establish corrective consequences for rule violations. Finally, teachers should communicate with administrative staff to determine when an office referral is necessary.

The second section of the CHAMPS model deals with teaching expectations. Research has consistently shown effective classroom managers articulate clear expectations of behavior to their students (Simonsen et al., 2008). Sprick (2009) suggested teachers can avoid most problems by clearly defining and communicating to students behavioral expectations during each and every major classroom activity and transition. No two teachers have the same set of classroom expectations, procedures, and routines. Therefore, teachers must establish a formal system of specific behavioral expectations for students to follow for classroom activities including teacher-directed instruction, cooperative and independent work, and major transitions. The CHAMPS acronym is as follows:

- C Conversation—The level of conversation permitted.
- H Help—How students can get help from the teacher if needed.
- A Activity—The task, lesson, or objective.
- M Movement—Level of movement permitted.
- P Participation—How students will look and sound to show they are participating.
- S Success—Students following the CHAMPS expectations.

Teachers use the CHAMPS acronym to clarify expectations for each kind of instructional activity and transition that occurs in the classroom during a typical school day. When

defining behavioral expectations, Sprick cautioned teachers to pay close attention to the level of structure the class may need. He maintained it is easier to implement highly structured procedures than to try and implement more structure when students are not meeting behavioral expectations. Sprick suggested using visual displays of CHAMPS information to help communicate the consistency of expectations. Although specific behaviors may be different for each type of classroom activity or transition, the headings (conversation, help, activity, movement, participation, success) remain the same. After establishing behavioral expectations for each type of major classroom activity and transition, teachers must spend time effectively communicating the CHAMPS expectations to the class. Communicating the expectations involves actively teaching and reviewing the specific CHAMPS expectations before the class activity or transition, observing student behavior during the time period, and providing immediate feedback to students about their progress in meeting behavioral expectations.

The third section of the book involves observing student behavior. Sprick (2009) stressed the importance of circulating and scanning the room in order to observe student behavior and interaction. A follow through to observing student behavior is collecting data to determine whether the classroom management plan is working effectively.

Interacting positively with students is the fourth component of the CHAMPS model. The model provides specific suggestions for how to build positive relationships with students. The focus is on providing noncontingent attention to students, which is giving time and attention to students regardless of student behavior or performance. Examples of noncontingent attention include greeting students as they enter the room, showing an interest in student work as well as their personal lives. The benefits of noncontingent attention extend to both students and teachers (Sprick, 2009). Students

who feel valued are more likely to be motivated to engage in appropriate behaviors. Teachers feel more connected to students and provide students with a model of caring social communication. One of the most effective yet difficult tasks for teachers is to provide a high ratio of positive interactions for each student (Sprick, 2009). In fact, observational studies have shown teachers tend to reinforce student misbehavior more than student positive behavior (Sutherland, Wehby, & Copeland, 2000). Another important practice of an effective classroom manager is providing feedback to students. Trussell (2008) found “teachers who provide high rates of specific positive feedback create a climate in which student’s efforts are routinely and consistently recognized and strengthened” (p. 184). Sprick (2009) maintained feedback should be accurate, specific, age-appropriate, and immediate.

The last section of the book deals with correcting students when misbehavior occurs. Sprick (2009) maintained that a certain amount of misbehavior will occur in the classroom regardless of how well teachers organize the classroom and communicate expectations to students. Sprick suggested teachers should treat misbehavior as an opportunity to help students learn. In the CHAMPS approach, an effective correction is one that reduces the future occurrence of the misbehavior, does not disrupt other students from their work, treats students with dignity and respect, does not reduce student motivation to show positive behavior, and does not jeopardize the positive student-teacher relationship.

Effective Classroom Management Programs

Hundreds of classroom management programs have been implemented to prevent and solve discipline issues, but few have undergone internal or third-party review to evaluate their effectiveness (Office of the Surgeon General, 2001). Freiberg and

Lapointe (2006) identified 40 research-based programs whose major focus was the prevention or intervention of discipline problems in school settings. Of those 40 programs, the Classroom Organization and Management Program (COMP) and Responsive Classroom (RC, n.d.) are classroom-based management programs that emphasize prevention with strategies for interventions when necessary.

COMP, established in 1989, utilizes the findings of the COS and CMIS previously described (COMP website, n.d.). COMP is based on four premises: effective classroom management is proactive, not reactive; in effective classrooms, management and instruction are interwoven; students are active participants in the learning environment; and teachers working together synergistically help one another. Before implementing COMP, teachers participate in a 3-day training that models best practices in the program including organizing the classroom, planning and teaching rules and procedures, managing student work and improving student accountability, maintaining good behavior, planning and organizing instruction, instructing and maintaining momentum, and getting the year off to a good start. A follow-up 1 day workshop is provided 6-18 weeks later. COMP is the most highly researched classroom management packaged program (Oliver, Wehby, & Reschly, 2011) and has received validation from the U.S. Department of Education's National Diffusion Network (Educational Programs That Work Website, 1995).

From 1989 through 1994, six experimental observational studies of K-12 teachers were conducted to evaluate the efficacy of COMP in three areas: improvements in student academic skills, improvements in teacher behaviors with regard to classroom management, and improvements in student behaviors (Evertson, 1995). Each study employed similar data collection procedures. Teachers in the trained group participated

in COMP workshops, whereas teachers in the control group were untrained at the beginning of the study but participated in a training workshop after data collection was completed. Observers used narrative records, event coding systems, and observational rating scales to collect data. The first two studies assessed the effects of management skills on first- through sixth-grade students' growth in reading and math achievement. Students were assessed with a diagnostic reading test and a test of basic computational math in early fall and again in late spring of each year. The data collected revealed students in classes of teachers trained in COMP made significantly higher gains on both the reading and math tests than students of teachers in the control group. The remaining four studies were conducted with K-12 teachers. The research revealed teachers participating in COMP training used more effective classroom management practices than teachers in the control group. Furthermore, students of teachers who participated in COMP were observed to be significantly less off-task and exhibited less inappropriate behavior.

Oliver et al. (2011) conducted a systematic review of classroom management literature and a meta-analysis of the effects of classroom management on disruptive student behavior to examine the effects of teachers' universal (whole-class) classroom management practices. Criteria for inclusion in the study were interventions delivered by the classroom teacher to all students in a K-12 classroom setting. The researchers conducted an online database search for relevant studies conducted from 1950-2009 and searched the reference lists of prior meta-analyses on behavior management or reviews of classroom management. As seven of the 12 research studies selected for review were from COMP, the authors sought to answer whether COMP studies produced different outcomes compared to other studies in the sample. However, the data yielded no

statistical difference between COMP and non-COMP studies. The authors noted that given the small number of studies, there was inconclusive evidence as to whether student outcomes were affected by using COMP or other forms of classroom management.

The RC is a classroom-based management program used in the elementary grades that incorporates strategies for social and academic learning throughout the school day (Freiberg & Lapointe, 2006). Seven principles guide the RC approach (RC website, n.d.).

1. Social curriculum is as important as academic work.
2. How children learn is as important as what they learn.
3. Social interaction leads to cognitive growth.
4. Children need social skills such as cooperation, responsibility, assertion, empathy, and self-control to be successful socially as well as academically.
5. Establishing relationships with students is as important as knowing the subject matter one teaches.
6. The involvement of families in their child's education is vital to student success.
7. How adults work together at school is as important as each individual's competence.

The RC approach includes the following classroom practices: morning meetings, rule creation with logical consequences (consequences that follow logically from the misdeed), interactive modeling, positive teacher language, guided discovery learning experiences, student choice in academic activities, classroom organization, working with families, and collaborative problem solving between students and teachers

Using multiple measures, Rimm-Kauffman and Sawyer (2004) explored the ways

in which experience with the RC approach related to teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and teaching priorities. Sixty-nine teachers in kindergarten through third grade at six schools (three intervention, three comparison) in a district with a diverse student body participated in this study. The three intervention schools were beginning school-wide implementation of the RC approach during the first year of the study. The three comparison schools did not participate in the RC approach. All schools were diverse with regard to ethnicity and socioeconomic status. A 41-item measure, The Classroom Practices Measure, was designed specifically for the study to assess teacher implementation of the RC approach. The first 34 items asked teachers to rate the degree to which they used RC practices such as hand signals, classroom rules and consequences, classroom organization, timeout, and problem-solving class meetings. Classroom practices were not described using RC terminology to avoid teacher bias in responding. The last seven items were open-ended questions concerning classroom management and discipline strategies. Teacher perceptions of self-efficacy were also measured using a 19-item questionnaire. Teachers rated themselves in four areas: disciplinary self-efficacy, instructional self-efficacy, efficacy to create a positive school environment, and efficacy to influence decision making. A third measure, a 17-item questionnaire, assessed teacher attitudes toward teaching as a career. Lastly, teachers completed two Q-sorts to assess their priorities about classroom discipline and behavioral management as well as their ranking of classroom practices in order of importance. All of the surveys and questionnaires were completed during the 2001 school year. The findings revealed that teachers at RC schools reported more positive attitudes toward teaching as a career and held teaching practice priorities that were consistent with RC exemplars for classroom discipline and teaching practices. Furthermore, teachers in both groups who reported

using more RC practices perceived themselves as being more efficacious.

An exploratory study conducted by Rimm-Kaufman and Chiu (2007) sought to address the impact of teachers' use of RC practices on student academic and social growth. Participants included 62 teachers and 157 students at six elementary schools. Three of the schools were selected for full school-wide training and implementation of the RC approach. The comparison schools received no RC training. Teachers used several questionnaires to self-report the use of RC practices and provide academic information on students during both years of the study. The findings showed teachers who used more RC practices perceived a closer relationship with their students, reported more prosocial behavior from students, and showed a small gain in reading achievement the second year of the study. However, researchers noted the strongest predictor of student academic performance was their academic or social performance during the previous year (as reported by a different teacher). The study noted two limitations. First, the study's reliance on teacher-reported measures could pose a threat to internal reliability as the RC teachers may have rated students more positively because they viewed themselves as improved as a result of the RC training. Also, the small sample size was reported as a limitation due to low to moderate response rates.

Recently, a 2-year study of the RC approach involved 181 third- and fourth-grade teachers from 24 elementary schools in a single district (Curby, Rimm-Kaufman, & Abry, 2013). Participants were assigned to an intervention or control group. Third-grade teachers in the intervention group received training in the RC approach and were observed during their first year of implementation. Fourth-grade teachers received additional training after the first year of implementation and were observed during their second year of implementation. Specifically, the study focused on whether higher levels

of emotional and organizational support earlier in the year contributed to improved academic instruction later in the year. Teachers were observed on five occasions during the school year using the Classroom Assessment Scoring System designed to measure the quality of teacher interactions with students within three domains: emotional support, classroom organization, and instructional support. In addition, teacher use of RC practices was observed using the Classroom Practices Observational Measure, an instrument that measures RC constructs without the specific terminology, so items could be coded in the control classrooms. Teachers were videotaped five times throughout the school year for a 1-hour period. Three of these observations occurred during math instruction with the remaining two sessions occurring during morning instruction. After analyzing the data, researchers found emotionally supportive classroom climates predicted higher instructional support later in the year. However, the study did not find evidence that greater classroom organization earlier in the year facilitated higher levels of instructional support later in the year. The researchers noted teachers who offered high levels of instructional support simultaneously showed higher levels of classroom management, including classroom organization. The teachers who were trained in the RC approach were observed to use more RC practices and showed higher levels of emotional support. However, the correlation between emotional support earlier in the school year predicting higher instructional support later in the year was evident for both the intervention and control group as well as across both grades.

Program Evaluation

The origins of program evaluation in the United States can be traced back to Horace Mann's empirical reports on Massachusetts's education in the 1840s (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). This period also ushered in the first use of wide-scale assessment of student

data for the purpose of school comparisons by the Boston School Committee. Together, these two efforts were the first endeavors to objectively measure student achievement and assess the quality of a school system. In the late 1800s, Joseph Mayer Rice, a physician who gave up his medical practice to study European and American school systems, carried out the first American scientific study on classroom learning (Bates, 2003). Specifically, he set out to answer two questions: “How much time should be devoted to a school subject” and “What results can be obtained?” Rice studied children’s spelling instruction across 19 American cities and found little differences in results regardless of the amount of time spent on instruction or the teaching method. This evaluation was recognized as the first formal educational program evaluation in the United States.

In the early 20th century, educational testing began to take root as Thorndike and his colleagues began developing standardized tests designed to translate qualitative statements of student achievement into quantitative terms (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). By the mid-1920s, at least half of the United States employed some form of statewide testing including the use of norm-referenced tests designed to measure individual ability levels. However, formal evaluations of schools and curriculum were scarce. One exception of the time was the Eight-Year Study conducted from 1932 to 1940, which sought to measure whether meeting traditional entrance requirements for college entrance made any difference in the academic success of students (Watras, 2006). The study also sought to examine whether freeing secondary schools from traditional requirements would result in innovative programs. Multiple modes of evaluation were used including observations, questionnaires, interviews, and paper and pencil tests. Tyler, research director for the study, had teachers use behavioral objectives to plan curriculum and measure student outcomes. Tyler believed evaluation was determining the extent to which objectives had

been met. He formulated a seven step plan to evaluation.

1. Establish the goals and objectives.
2. Group the goals into categories.
3. Define objectives in behavioral terms.
4. Define situations in which behaviors could be exhibited.
5. Develop measurement and criteria for success.
6. Collect the data.
7. Compare the data to the behavioral objectives.

After comparing the data, modifications could be made to the program, and the evaluation process could be repeated. Fitzpatrick et al. (2011) commented that the Eight-Year Study, “set a new standard for educational evaluation with its sophisticated methodology and its linkage of outcome measures to desired learning outcomes” (p. 41). As a result of Tyler’s work on the Eight-Year Study, he is considered the father of educational evaluation (Hogan, 2007; King, 2003). Tyler’s work led to the popularity of objectives-oriented approaches to evaluation used in the 1960s and 1970s (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). Indeed, some evaluations are still conducted in this manner. In the mid-1960s, the focus of educational evaluation shifted away from student achievements to formal program evaluation with the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 (Kellaghan, Stufflebeam, & Wingate, 2003; King, 2003). This pivotal piece of legislation allocated federal funding for education with the caveat that each grant file an evaluation report showing outcomes from the project. With the proliferation of programs requiring formal evaluation, the field of evaluation emerged as a profession during the 1970s (Hogan, 2007). Professional journals of evaluation began to be published, universities began offering courses in evaluation methodology, and the

scope of evaluation widened beyond measuring behavioral outcomes to considering the information needs of managers and unintended outcomes (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). There was a sharp decline in federal evaluations following the election of Ronald Reagan in 1980, due to cutbacks in federal funding as well as more fiscal decisions and evaluation requirements being moved to the state level (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011; Hogan, 2007). In 1981, the Joint Committee released Standards for Evaluations of Educational Programs, Projects, and Materials (Candoli & Stufflebeam, 2003). Two subsequent editions of the standards have been published emphasizing the notion that development of standards is a continuing activity. These standards provide a framework for defining acceptable program evaluations and providing schools with direction for conducting evaluations. As federal funding for education dissipated, state and local agencies began evaluating programs and the nature and methods of evaluation adapted (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011; King, 2003). Formative evaluations, which examined programs for feedback and improvement during implementation, became more prominent (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). As the funders of evaluation diversified, evaluators began to consider multiple stakeholders and more qualitative methods. According to Fitzpatrick et al., “the decline in federal funding, while dramatic and frightening for evaluation at the time, led to the development of a richer and fuller approach to determining merit and worth” (p. 49).

Contemporary evaluation often emphasized measuring outcomes and using evaluation for purposes of accountability and making decisions about program continuation and expansion (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011; King, 2003). According to Kellaghan et al. (2003), three features differentiate educational evaluation from other types of evaluation. Educational evaluation is influenced by testing and student assessment as well as curriculum and program evaluation, as opposed to other areas of

evaluation which focus on programs. Also, since education is predominantly a social service that affects almost every member of society, public involvement and the concerns of stakeholders hold special significance. Third, teachers play a vital role in educational evaluation as evaluators, evaluation objects, and stakeholders, and must play a role whenever educational evaluation is being considered.

Educational evaluation models have not been developed as a result of educational theories (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). Instead, theories that have informed thinking about science and knowledge have supported the development of educational evaluation models. Three major theories help inform educational program models: reductionism, system theory, and complexity theory.

The reductionism theory states that the whole (or outcome) can be understood and predicted by investigating and understanding the contribution of its constituent parts (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). A cause-effect approach to the evaluation assumes an assumption of linearity in certain program elements. In turn, these elements are anticipated to have a predictable impact on the outcome. An example of a type of program evaluation that uses reductionism is the Logic Model which shows logical flow from beginning to end and from input to outcome. Thus, the reductionist way of thinking proposes once factors contributing to the outcome are known, program success or lack of success can be explained.

In contrast, system theory sees the final product (educational program) as more than simply the sum of its parts (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). The outcome is not explained by just the parts. Instead, the relationships between and among those parts and their context are just as important. System theorists envision an educational program as a social system composed of component parts, with interactions and interrelations among

the parts, all existing with and interacting with the program's environment.

Complexity theory further expands on the premise of system theory. It recognizes the diversity of systems in which uncertainties are expected and allows the evaluator to consider these ambiguities as part of the evaluation (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). Proponents of complexity theory state that evaluators must examine the relationships of participants with each other and with the environment in which they interact and how that environment may affect the participants. The CIPP model is an example of complexity theory. The CIPP model recognizes the need to understand relationships among program elements and requires evaluators to include a variety of stakeholder views when developing the program evaluation. Thus, complexity theory is a useful perspective evaluators can use to avoid an overly simplistic approach to evaluation.

Logic Models are required by many government-funding agencies for program planning, evaluation, and research (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). In fact, the Logic Model is often used in program planning instead of solely as an evaluation approach (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). The Logic Model is an extension of objectives-oriented evaluation, which tends to focus solely on stated program outcomes (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). The influence of system theory can be seen in the Logic Model's strongly linear approach to planning and evaluation (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). There are four basic components to the Logic Model (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011; Frye & Hemmer, 2012).

1. Inputs—Relevant resources available to the program (facilities, equipment, materials).
2. Activities—Set of strategies, innovations, changes planned for the program (curriculum, workshops, and staff training).
3. Outputs—Immediate results of program activities (number of students served,

program products).

4. Outcomes—Short-term, medium-term, and longer range changes intended as result of activities.

Logic Models can be useful during the planning phases of a new program as the model requires planners to define the links between the four components. Frye and Hemmer (2012) warned that the Logic Model may oversimplify the evaluation process and fail to yield important information. Hence, care should be taken to building in feedback loops and to recognizing the possibility of circular interactions between program elements.

The CIPP model developed by Daniel Stufflebeam in the late 1960s was initially used as a framework to help improve achievement and accountability in United States school programs (Stufflebeam, 2003a). Over time, the model has been further developed, is now popular worldwide, and is used in health, military, and business fields. The CIPP model of evaluation is designed with a focus on program improvement rather than proving some aspect of the program (Frye & Hemmer, 2012; Stufflebeam, 2003a). Unlike the Logic Model, the CIPP model is not hindered by linear relationships (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). Evaluators are free to explore the program in terms of its complex and often nonlinear relationships. The four sets of evaluation studies (context, input, process, and product) complement each other and allow evaluators to address the planning, implementation, and summative assessment of a program. CIPP evaluations are formative when the goal is to collect and report information for the purpose of improving the program (Stufflebeam, 2003a). They are summative when the goal of the evaluation is to gather data and information on a completed program and focus on accountability. According to Frye and Hemmer (2012), the first three components of the model are

suitable for formative evaluation studies, while the product element is useful in a summative study. Context studies are typically conducted when a program is in the planning stages or when an established program is undergoing change. Types of data collected during a context analysis include interviews, surveys, demographic data analysis, and records analysis. An Input Evaluation studies the potential approaches to meeting the identified educational need, including feasibility and cost-effectiveness. Input studies may involve literature reviews, visiting prototypical programs, and consulting experts. Process evaluation studies assess a program's implementation and allow the evaluator to understand the program's outcomes. Process studies may be conducted during the implementation process to collect data and possibly revise the program. They may also be conducted at the conclusion of a program to help the evaluator understand how the program worked. Evaluators may use observation, document review, or participant interviews to glean information for a process study. The Product evaluation study may be thought of as an expansive summative evaluation that seeks to "identify and assess the program outcomes, including both positive and negative outcomes, intended and unintended outcomes, and short-term and long-term outcomes" (Frye & Hemmer, 2012, p. 297). Product studies may also assess impact, effectiveness, sustainability, and transportability of programs. Sometimes Product evaluation studies are conducted during a program for accountability purposes and considering alternatives if the program is not meeting its objectives. Frye and Hemmer (2012) contended that program outcomes are best interpreted with findings from the Process evaluation as a process issue may cause a poor or unintended outcome. Evaluators may choose stakeholder's judgments of the program, assessment of achievement of program objectives, group interviews, surveys, and participant reports when compiling data for a

Process evaluation.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This study focused on a rural school district in western North Carolina, specifically the 15 elementary schools. In response to a perceived need by administrators and teachers for a consistent, positive-based classroom management program, the district chose the CHAMPS classroom management and organization program. At the beginning of the 2011 school year, the district began implementation of CHAMPS with a pilot group of teachers. A representative from Safe and Civil Schools, the publisher of the CHAMPS program, conducted a 2-day training session. During the next 2 years, all prekindergarten through fifth-grade teachers and principals were mandated by the district to attend the training and implement the CHAMPS program in their school. Principals and teachers from different schools came together at a central location for the trainings.

Participants

All 303 elementary teachers and 15 elementary principals in the district who participated in the CHAMPS training sessions were invited to participate in the survey. The table below provides demographic information including student population and teacher experience.

Table 1

School Demographic Information 2013-2014

School	Student Population	Teacher Population	Teach. Exp. 0-3 Years	Teach. Exp. 4-10 Years	Teach. Exp. 10+ Years
A	328	19	7%	44%	48%
B	572	29	8%	29%	63%
C	294	16	16%	36%	48%
D	442	25	3%	18%	79%
E	443	25	12%	33%	55%
F	370	20	10%	23%	68%
G	268	15	0%	26%	74%
H	400	22	0%	39%	61%
I	404	23	13%	43%	43%
J	425	21	11%	25%	64%
K	459	24	10%	19%	71%
L	432	22	7%	32%	61%
M	350	19	8%	31%	62%
N	205	15	20%	40%	40%
O	207	19	32%	32%	37%

The school size of most of the elementary schools is relatively small compared to the state average of 497 students per school (Education First NC School Report Cards, 2013). Also, a majority of teachers at most schools have 10-plus years of experience,

which reflects the state trend of 49% of teachers having 10-plus years of experience (Education First NC Report Cards, 2013).

Research Design

This study employed Stufflebeam's (2003a) CIPP framework to conduct an evaluation of the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior and classroom management practices. According to Fitzpatrick et al. (2011), the CIPP model is a decision-oriented approach to evaluation that is used widely in the United States and around the world for evaluating educational programs. The CIPP model involves the input of various stakeholders and evaluates the impact of the program on the stakeholders. Frye and Hemmer (2012) maintained the CIPP model is not hampered by the constraints of linear relationships that control the Logic Model. On the contrary, "an evaluator who understands an educational program in terms of its elements' complex, dynamic and often nonlinear relationships will find the CIPP model a powerful approach to evaluation" (Frye & Hemmer, 2012, p. 296).

The CIPP model includes four components: context, input, process, and product evaluations (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011; Frye & Hemmer, 2012; Stufflebeam, 2003a). Context evaluations are usually conducted during the planning stages of a program. The context evaluation addresses the need for the program as well as the goals and intended outcomes of the project. Input evaluations build on the context evaluation by focusing on how to bring about the needed changes. The evaluator considers different strategies to best meet the needs of the program. The Process evaluation occurs during implementation. Evaluators are concerned with whether the program is being implemented as intended, what barriers may have impeded implementation, and what changes have been made to the program during implementation. Product evaluations

involve assessing short-term, long-term, intended, and unintended outcomes. During a formative evaluation, a Product evaluation informs decisions for continuing, modifying, or ending the program based on assessment of the outcomes and side effects of the program. Summative product evaluations may compare outcomes and results to competitive programs as well as determine whether a program should be continued or expanded (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011; Frye & Hemmer, 2012; Stufflebeam, 2003a).

The CIPP model was chosen for the CHAMPS program evaluation based on its practical approach to program evaluation with a goal toward improvement. The researcher will share the results of the evaluation with the district. As the CHAMPS program was mandated by the district, this research study limited the components to the Process and Product evaluations. The following research questions were the focus of the study.

Process Research Questions:

1. To what extent was the CHAMPS program implemented as intended?
 - a. What were the teachers' perceptions about the various components within the CHAMPS program?
 - b. How were the teachers' questions and concerns addressed during the training and implementation of the CHAMPS program?
 - c. How were the principals' questions and concerns addressed during the training and implementation of the CHAMPS program?
 - d. How was assistance available to teachers during implementation?
 - e. Were principals able to see evidence of teachers using the various components of CHAMPS in their classrooms?

The researcher designed two surveys to conduct the Process evaluation: the

CHAMPS Principal Survey (see Appendix A) and CHAMPS Teacher Survey (see Appendix B). The Principal Survey elicited information from principals concerning follow-up training and assistance offered during implementation and principal perceptions of teacher use of CHAMPS strategies. The CHAMPS Teacher Survey elicited teacher input concerning their use of the various components within the CHAMPS model and their opportunity for follow-up training and assistance during the implementation phase.

Product Research Questions:

2. What was the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior?
 - a. What was the impact of CHAMPS on office discipline referrals?
 - b. What were the teachers' perceptions as to the effectiveness of the CHAMPS program on student behavior at their school after CHAMPS was implemented?
 - c. What were the principals' perceptions as to the effectiveness of the CHAMPS program on student behavior at their school after CHAMPS was implemented?
3. What was the impact of CHAMPS on teachers' classroom management practices?
 - a. What were the teachers' perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on their classroom management practices?
 - b. What were the principals' perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on teachers' classroom management practices?

The CHAMPS Principal Survey and the CHAMPS Teacher Survey were also used to conduct the Product Evaluation. The CHAMPS Principal Survey prompted

principals to evaluate the impact of CHAMPS on teacher classroom strategies and student behavior at their school. The CHAMPS Teacher Survey also elicited information about the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior and teacher classroom management strategies. Additionally, the researcher used archival office discipline referral data to further explore the impact CHAMPS had on student behavior.

Instruments, Procedure, and Data Collection

The researcher collected archival office discipline referral data for each school from the district's central office. Data from each school year from 2008 through 2014 were analyzed. The researcher employed descriptive statistics to determine the impact CHAMPS made on office discipline referrals.

According to Creswell (2009), a survey design offers a quantitative portrayal of trends, attitudes, and opinions of a population by collecting data on a sample of that population. After analyzing the sample results, the researcher formed generalizations about the population. Two separate surveys were used to evaluate the CHAMPS program. The CHAMPS Teacher Survey gathered data on teacher perceptions of the use of CHAMPS in the classroom as well as the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior, establishing positive student relationships, and classroom management strategies. The CHAMPS Principal Survey elicited data of principal perceptions of teacher use of CHAMPS methods and student behavior as a result of CHAMPS. Both surveys were administered electronically to all eligible principals and teachers in the district. The following steps were taken during the survey process.

1. The researcher contacted principals by email to elicit cooperation and participation for the CHAMPS evaluation. The email advised them a survey would be sent the next day. The researcher asked principals to contact

teachers by email or in person, perhaps at a faculty meeting, to elicit cooperation and participation for the CHAMPS evaluation.

2. The next day, an email was sent to elementary principals explaining the study and asking for their voluntary participation. A debriefing statement and informed consent information were included at the beginning of the email (see Appendix C). A link to the survey was sent within the email and participants were given 10 days to respond. The same day, the researcher sent an introductory email to teachers informing them a survey would be sent the next day.
3. The following day, an email was sent to elementary teachers explaining the study once again and asking for their voluntary participation. A debriefing statement and informed consent information were included at the beginning of the email (see Appendix D). A link to the survey was sent within the email and participants were given 10 days to respond.
4. Three days after principals received the survey, a reminder email was sent.
5. Seven days after principals received the survey, a reminder email was sent. The researcher also asked principals to send a reminder notice to teachers via email.
6. Three days after teachers received the survey, a reminder email was sent.
7. Seven days after teachers received the survey, a reminder email was sent.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were employed to summarize and describe the data from the CHAMPS Principal and Teacher Surveys. Nominal information including years of experience, the year the respondent received CHAMPS training, and highest level of

education was tabulated in a table format. Responses from each survey were reported by percentages. The data were tabulated in summary tables to display the frequency distribution of responses. The mean was reported for each response in the surveys. Cross tabulation provided data on how principals answered identical survey questions compared to teacher responses. The optional comments following each survey question provided by the principals and teachers were summarized, categorized, and discussed by theme.

Office discipline referral data from 2008-2009, 2009-2010, and 2010-2011, 3 years prior to the implementation of CHAMPS, were collected as well as 3 years of implementation data collected in 2011-2012, 2012-2013, and 2013-2014. The data were categorized by levels of offense according to the district's Student Code of Conduct. The data were tabulated in graphs to display the frequency distribution of responses.

Limitations

Several limitations affected the ability to generalize the results of the CHAMPS program evaluation to other settings. The school setting was rural, and most of the schools had a predominantly White population. Also, the district was classified as a low-wealth county by the state as a result of poor property-tax bases. The data gathered through surveys were a limitation, as the researcher relied on principals and teachers to self-report. Additionally, individual teacher personalities and teaching styles may have affected implementation of the CHAMPS program. Furthermore, teacher relationships with students (positive or negative) may have affected their perception of the CHAMPS program.

Delimitations

Although CHAMPS training was conducted at the elementary, middle, and high

school levels, research was conducted at the elementary level. Also, due to time constraints, the researcher did not have the opportunity to conduct observations of teachers and students to validate the responses of principals and teachers.

Chapter 4: Results

Classroom management is one of the most difficult issues faced by novice and experienced teachers alike (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006). In a study of elementary school teachers responding to classroom management issues, Martin, Linfoot, and Stephenson (1999) reported the greater the teacher's concern about misbehavior in the classroom, the less confident he/she felt about managing student behavior. Allday (2011) asserted that teachers who lack confidence may overreact to a situation and use reactive measures such as reprimands to deal with misbehavior. Allday noted that as reprimands usually have a short-term effect in reducing misbehavior, teachers need to develop a management system that is responsive and proactive to student needs. In an effort to develop less reactive and punitive discipline responses, a western North Carolina school district sought a classroom management model that provided a consistent, proactive approach to discipline and classroom order (R. Murray, personal communication, October 12, 2012). The school system chose to implement the CHAMPS classroom management program district-wide at the elementary and middle school level. This program evaluation focused on the impact of CHAMPS in the elementary setting. The purpose of the study was to evaluate the CHAMPS classroom management approach to determine principal and teacher perceptions of the effectiveness of the program as well as analyze archival office discipline referral data pre and post CHAMPS implementation.

In order to answer the research questions of the study, quantitative methods were utilized including collecting survey data from principals and teachers as well as archival office discipline referral data. Stufflebeam's CIPP program evaluation model was used to analyze the CHAMPS program. As the CHAMPS program was mandated by the district, the researcher utilized the Process and Product components to evaluate the

CHAMPS program. The Process component studied how CHAMPS was implemented in elementary classrooms. The Product component examined the impact of the program on some of the stakeholders, namely the principals and teachers. The research questions were organized as follows:

Process Research Questions:

1. To what extent was the CHAMPS program implemented as intended?
 - a. What were the teachers' perceptions about the various components within the CHAMPS program?
 - b. How were the teachers' questions and concerns addressed during the training and implementation of the CHAMPS program?
 - c. How were the principals' questions and concerns addressed during the training and implementation of the CHAMPS program?
 - d. How was assistance available to teachers during implementation?
 - e. Were principals able to see evidence of teachers using the various components of CHAMPS in their classrooms?

Product Research Questions:

2. What was the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior?
 - a. What was the impact of CHAMPS on office discipline referrals?
 - b. What were the teachers' perceptions as to the effectiveness of the CHAMPS program on student behavior at their school after CHAMPS was implemented?
 - c. What were the principals' perceptions as to the effectiveness of the CHAMPS program on student behavior at their school after CHAMPS was implemented?

3. What was the impact of CHAMPS on teachers' classroom management practices?
 - a. What were the teachers' perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on their classroom management practices?
 - b. What were the principals' perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on teachers' classroom management practices?

This chapter presents three major sections of the results. The findings from the CHAMPS Principal Survey, CHAMPS Teacher Survey, and archival office discipline referral data are presented. The data collected were used for determining the impact of the CHAMPS program of classroom management in the elementary setting of the school district.

CHAMPS Principal Survey Data

Of the 15 elementary principals invited to participate, 12 responded and completed the CHAMPS Principal Survey which produced a response rate of 80%. The researcher first contacted principals by email to elicit cooperation and participation in completing the survey. The following day, the survey was sent via email. The survey consisted of 15 questions (see Appendix A). The first three questions gathered demographic information. The remainder of the survey was a Likert scale which focused on eliciting responses concerning principal perceptions of the CHAMPS program implementation and impact of CHAMPS on student behavior. Each survey question allowed for an optional comment if the principal wanted to elaborate on the response. Survey responses were expressed descriptively in the form of frequency and percentages.

Table 2

Demographic Information of Principal Respondents

School	Years of Principal Experience at School	Year of CHAMPS Training
A	1	2011
B	1	2012
C	4+	2012
D	2	2012
E	1	2013
F	2	2012
G	3	2011
I	1	2012
J	1	2011
K	2	2012
L	2	2011
O	2	2011

The responses related to principal demographics were reviewed and are noted in Table 2. Most of the principals were relatively new to their school. During the reporting period, the district employed three superintendents, which may have impacted principal turnover and movement between schools. In fact, 83% of the principals had been at their school for 2 or less years. Only two principals had 3 or more years of experience at their school. Five principals completed the CHAMPS training in the pilot year of

implementation, 2011-2012. However, only one principal remained at the same school from the time of the training. Six of the principals participated in the training in 2012. Three of these principals remained at the same school from the time of this training. The remaining principal completed training in 2013, which is also the first year the principal was assigned to the school.

Table 3

CHAMPS Principal Survey Responses- Training/Implementation Concerns

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5. Follow-up training after completing CHAMPS training has been helpful.	0 (0%)	2 (17%)	3 (25%)	7 (58%)	0 (0%)
6. My questions/ concerns about implementation of CHAMPS have been addressed.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (25%)	9 (75%)	0 (0%)
7. The teachers at my school received help when needed in implementing CHAMPS from trained personnel.	0 (0%)	2 (17%)	1 (8%)	8 (67%)	1 (8%)

Three questions on the CHAMPS Principal Survey focused on principal perceptions of the quality of follow-up training and assistance provided during the implementation phase. These responses were reviewed and noted in Table 3. A majority of principals agreed that follow-up training was helpful. However, one principal commented that no follow-up training had been provided at the school. The majority of principals also agreed their concerns had been addressed and the teachers at their school

received help from trained personnel during the implementation process.

Questions 8-12 asked principals to rate the frequency with which they observed teachers using various aspects of the CHAMPS program. These responses were reviewed and noted in Table 4. All of the principals reported that teachers used the CHAMPS program to develop classroom management programs. A majority of principals observed that teachers used CHAMPS to determine the level of structure in the classroom and developed and displayed rules “almost always” or “often.” Half of the principals reported that teachers used CHAMPS “almost always” or “often” to establish corrective consequences. All of the principals reported that teachers used CHAMPS to create an organizational plan to some degree. The strongest area of this component was teacher use of an “attention signal.” The weakest area of this component was using CHAMPS to establish “beginning/ending routines.” Principals did not observe widespread use of teachers using the CHAMPS acronym for instructional activities and transitions. In fact, the highest ranking for both components was “sometimes.” Principals also reported infrequent use of the CHAMPS tools to monitor and adjust behavior plans. Half of the principals reported the “misbehavior recording sheet” being used “sometimes.” The least frequently used tool observed by principals was the “ratio of interactions form.” One principal commented, “I would like more professional development for my staff in this area.” A majority of principals observed teachers used components of the CHAMPS program to motivate students. Five principals observed teachers “providing a variety of positive feedback” and “providing a high ratio of positive interactions” “almost always” or “often.”

Table 4

CHAMPS Principal Survey Responses- Observation of Teachers Behaviors

Question	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
8. Please indicate the frequency you have observed teachers using the following components of the CHAMPS program for developing a classroom management plan for their classroom.					
Determining level of structure	0 (0%)	7 (58%)	5 (42%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Developing and displaying rules	2 (17%)	6 (50%)	4 (33%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Establish corrective consequences for violations	1 (8%)	5 (42%)	6 (50%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
9. Please indicate the frequency you have observed teachers using the following components of the CHAMPS program for developing an organization plan in their classrooms.					
Attention signal	1 (8%)	6 (50%)	5 (42%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Creating physical space	1 (8%)	4 (44%)	6 (50%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)
Beginning/ending routines	1 (8%)	3 (25%)	8 (67%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Managing student assignments	1 (8%)	5 (42%)	5 (42%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)
Independent work periods	0 (0%)	6 (50%)	6 (50%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
10. Please rate the frequency you have observed teachers using the CHAMPS acronym to clarify expectations in their classrooms.					
For instructional activities	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	6 (50%)	2 (17%)	2 (17%)
For transitions	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	7 (58%)	3 (25%)	1 (8%)
11. Please rate the frequency you have observed teachers using each of the CHAMPS tools to monitor and adjust the classroom management/behavior plan in their classrooms.					
Daily rating scale	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	7 (58%)	2 (17%)	3 (25%)
Ratio of interactions form	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (42%)	4 (33%)	3 (25%)

(continued)

Question	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Misbehavior recording sheet	0 (0%)	2 (17%)	6 (50%)	2 (17%)	2 (17%)
On-task behavior observation sheet	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	6 (50%)	3 (25%)	2 (17%)
12. Please rate the frequency you have observed teachers using the CHAMPS program to motivate students in the following areas.					
Provide students with noncontingent attention	0 (0%)	4 (33%)	6 (50%)	2 (17%)	0 (0%)
Provide a variety of positive feedback	3 (25%)	2 (17%)	6 (50%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)
Provide intermittent celebrations	1 (8%)	3 (25%)	7 (58%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)
Provide a high ratio of positive interactions	2 (17%)	3 (25%)	6 (50%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)

Two questions on the CHAMPS Principal Survey concentrated on principal perceptions of improvement in teacher classroom management practices and establishing positive relationships with students. These responses were reviewed and noted in Table 5. Ninety-two percent of principals perceived CHAMPS to be helpful in improving teacher classroom management strategies. Eighty-three percent of principals saw evidence the CHAMPS program helped teachers establish positive relationships with students.

Table 5

CHAMPS Principal Survey Responses- Perceptions of Teacher Improvement

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4. CHAMPS has been helpful in improving the classroom management strategies of teachers at my school.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	10 (83%)	1 (8%)
13. I see evidence the CHAMPS program has helped teachers establish a positive relationship with their students.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (17%)	10 (83%)	0 (0%)

The last two questions on the CHAMPS Principal Survey focused on principal perceptions of student behavior following implementation of the CHAMPS program. These responses were reviewed and noted in Table 6. Fifty-eight percent of principals agreed CHAMPS had improved student behavior at their school and had been an emphasis at the school since implementation. One principal commented that the matrix and strategies were used daily.

Table 6

CHAMPS Principal Survey Responses- Perceptions of Student Behavior

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Behavior at our school has improved since implementing the CHAMPS program.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (42%)	7 (58%)	0 (0%)
The CHAMPS program has been a major emphasis in our school since implementation.	0 (0%)	2 (17%)	4 (33%)	7 (58%)	0 (0%)

CHAMPS Teacher Survey Data

Three hundred and three elementary school teachers were sent the CHAMPS Teacher Survey (see Appendix B) via email, which resulted in a response rate of 54% (166 teachers). The survey consisted of 17 questions. The first four questions gathered demographic information. The remainder of the survey was a Likert scale which focused on eliciting responses concerning teacher perceptions of the CHAMPS program implementation and the perceived impact of CHAMPS on student behavior. Survey responses were expressed descriptively in the form of frequency and percentages.

Table 7

CHAMPS Teacher Survey Responses- School Demographics

School	Number of Participants	Percentage of Teachers Represented in School	Percentage of Teachers Represented in Survey
A	16	84%	10%
B	15	52%	9%
C	13	81%	8%
D	19	76%	12%
E	7	28%	4%
F	6	30%	4%
G	10	60%	5%
H	6	27%	4%
I	12	52%	7%
J	14	67%	8%
K	9	38%	5%
L	9	41%	5%
M	13	68%	8%
N	6	55%	4%
O	11	92%	7%

Table 7 summarized school demographic information. The data reveal the number of participants by school, the percentage of teachers who responded to the survey in each school, and the percentage of teachers represented in the survey at each school. Ten of the 15 schools had at least 50% participation. School O had the highest participation rate of 92%. School H had the lowest participation rate of 27%. School D, with 19 participants, had the most teachers responding from any one school.

Table 8

CHAMPS Teacher Survey Responses—Teaching Experience/Highest Degree

School	Years of Experience			Highest Degree	
	0-5	6-10	11+	Bachelor's	Master's or Above
A	4	2	10	10	6
B	2	3	10	7	8
C	1	4	8	8	5
D	2	3	14	8	11
E	0	3	4	2	5
F	0	2	4	3	3
G	1	5	3	9	0
H	0	3	3	3	3
I	2	3	7	6	6
J	3	1	10	7	7
K	2	1	6	5	4
L	0	1	8	5	4
M	3	4	6	9	4
N	2	0	4	3	3
O	4	4	3	6	5

The data represented in Table 8 include teachers' years of experience and highest degree awarded. The data were categorized by school. An overwhelming majority of participants were veteran teachers. Sixty-one percent of teachers had 11 or more years of experience. Twenty-four percent of teachers had between six and 10 years of experience. Additionally, 55% of teachers held Bachelor's degrees.

Table 9

CHAMPS Teacher Survey Responses- Year of CHAMPS Training

School	2011	2012	2013
A	3	10	3
B	3	9	3
C	1	11	1
D	3	16	0
E	1	5	1
F	0	6	0
G	1	7	1
H	1	3	2
I	2	8	2
J	3	6	5
K	3	4	2
L	0	8	1
M	0	11	2
N	0	6	0
O	3	7	1

Table 9 reported what year the teachers received CHAMPS training by school. In the 2011-2012 school year, the district was involved in a pilot project with CHAMPS. During this time, only teachers of each school's Positive Behavior Support Team were trained and asked to implement the program in their classrooms. Fifteen percent of teachers received CHAMPS training in 2011, the pilot year of implementation. The next school year, 2012-2013, the district began full implementation of the CHAMPS program. Seventy percent of teachers attended CHAMPS training in 2012. The remaining 15%

received training in 2013. These teachers were new to the district or had not been able to attend a training session in 2012.

Question 5 asked teachers to consider the degree to which classroom management was a concern in their teaching career prior to their implementation of CHAMPS. The results are summarized in Table 10.

Table 10

CHAMPS Teacher Survey Responses—Management Concerns Pre-CHAMPS

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5. Classroom management has been a concern in my teaching career prior to my implementation of CHAMPS.	16 (10%)	44 (27%)	39 (24%)	55 (33%)	11 (7%)

Forty percent of teachers agreed that classroom management was a concern before implementation of CHAMPS. One teacher commented, “It has always been a problem.” Another teacher responded, “There is always room for improvement.” Twenty-four percent of teachers neither agreed nor disagreed classroom management was a prior concern. One teacher noted, “It is a focus, but it is not a concern (as in a worry or stressor) for me.” Thirty-seven percent of teachers disagreed that classroom management was a concern prior to CHAMPS. One teacher commented that classroom management was a concern only in the first year of teaching. Another teacher responded, “I am very able to control a classroom.”

Table 11

CHAMPS Teacher Survey Responses- Training/Implementation Concerns

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7. Follow-up training after completing the initial CHAMPS training has been helpful in implementing CHAMPS.	5 (3%)	25 (15%)	83 (50%)	50 (30%)	2 (1%)
8. My questions/ concerns about implementation of CHAMPS have been addressed.	2 (1%)	9 (5%)	72 (44%)	79 (48%)	3 (2%)
9. I received help when needed in implementing CHAMPS from outside personnel.	3 (2%)	22 (13%)	81 (49%)	57 (35%)	2 (1%)

Questions 7, 8, and 9 focused on teachers' concerns during the training and implementation phase of CHAMPS. These responses were reviewed and noted in Table 11. Fifty percent of teachers responded "Neither Agree or Disagree" when asked if follow-up training had been helpful when implementing CHAMPS in the classroom. Thirty-one percent of teachers agreed follow-up training had been helpful. Sixteen teachers commented no follow-up training had been provided. Of these teachers, 10 teachers responded "neither agree or disagree," five teachers responded "disagree," and one teacher indicated "strongly disagree" on the survey. In addition, a teacher commented that the behavioral specialist was helpful.

Fifty percent of teachers agreed that their questions and concerns about implementation of CHAMPS had been addressed, while 44% indicated "neither agree or

disagree” to this question. One teacher, who responded “neither agree or disagree” remarked, “Our book is very easy to follow and implement.” Another teacher, who indicated “agree” to the question stated, “There is a strong support system with CHAMPS.” However, a teacher who responded “strongly disagree” commented, “I have asked many times for creative consequences for disruptive behavior. It would have been beneficial for a group of teachers and the principal to set up school rules and not just classroom rules.”

Forty-nine percent of teachers responded “neither agree or disagree” when asked if they received help when needed from outside personnel during implementation of CHAMPS. Four of these teachers commented they had not asked or did not need help. Thirty- six percent of teachers indicated they had received help from outside personnel.

Table 12

CHAMPS Teacher Survey Responses—Usage of CHAMPS

Question	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
10. Please rate the frequency that you used the CHAMPS program for developing a management plan in your classroom.					
Determining level of structure	13 (8%)	65 (39%)	57 (35%)	25 (15%)	5 (3%)
Developing and displaying rules	42 (25%)	67 (41%)	41 (25%)	12 (7%)	3 (2%)
Establish corrective consequences for violations	31 (19%)	64 (39%)	43 (26%)	23 (14%)	4 (2%)
11. Please indicate the frequency that you used each of the components of the CHAMPS program for developing an organization plan.					
Attention signal	44 (27%)	63 (38%)	35 (21%)	14 (8%)	9 (5%)
Creating physical space	22 (13%)	66 (40%)	52 (32%)	19 (12%)	6 (4%)
Beginning/ending routines	40 (24%)	69 (42%)	35 (21%)	18 (11%)	3 (2%)
Managing student assignments	23 (14%)	57 (35%)	54 (33%)	22 (13%)	9 (5%)
Independent work periods	27 (16%)	67 (41%)	45 (27%)	17 (10%)	9 (5%)
12. Please rate the frequency that you used each component of the CHAMPS acronym to clarify expectations for instructional activities and transitions in your classroom.					
Conversation	33 (20%)	56 (34%)	40 (24%)	20 (12%)	16(10%)
Help	22 (13%)	55 (33%)	51 (31%)	19 (12%)	18(11%)
Activity	22 (13%)	57 (35%)	51 (31%)	18 (11%)	17(10%)
Movement	26 (16%)	63 (39%)	42 (25%)	18 (11%)	16(10%)
Participation	28 (17%)	60 (36%)	43 (26%)	18 (11%)	16(10%)
Success	27 (16%)	60 (36%)	44 (27%)	17 (10%)	17(10%)

(continued)

Question	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
13. Please rate the frequency that you used each of the CHAMPS tools to monitor and adjust the classroom management/behavior plan in your classroom.					
Daily rating scale	8 (5%)	24 (15%)	39 (24%)	45 (27%)	49 (30%)
Ratio of interactions form	3 (2%)	24 (15%)	32 (19%)	49 (30%)	57 (35%)
Misbehavior recording sheet	9 (5%)	28 (17%)	37 (22%)	48 (29%)	43 (26%)
On-task behavior observation sheet	7 (4%)	19 (12%)	43 (26%)	51 (31%)	45 (27%)
14. Please rate the frequency you used the CHAMPS program to interact positively with students.					
Build positive relationships	55 (33%)	68 (41%)	28 (17%)	8 (5%)	6 (4%)
Provide positive feedback	57 (35%)	68 (41%)	25 (15%)	10 (6%)	5 (3%)
Provide intermittent celebrations	33 (20%)	61 (37%)	47 (28%)	19 (12%)	5 (3%)
Provide a ratio of Positive interactions	37 (22%)	53 (32%)	46 (28%)	16 (10%)	13 (8%)

Several questions on the Likert survey asked teachers to self-report their frequency of use for different components of the CHAMPS program. These responses were reviewed and noted in Table 12.

A majority of teachers indicated they “almost always” or “often” used the components for developing a classroom management plan. Six teachers commented they used the strategies CHAMPS suggested for developing a classroom management plan before the program was implemented. The majority of teachers also responded “almost always” or “often” to the frequency of use in developing an organizational plan for the classroom. Five of the teachers commented that they had used the techniques CHAMPS

suggested for developing an organization plan prior to implementation of CHAMPS.

A majority of teachers responded that they “almost always” or “often” used the CHAMPS acronym for clarifying expectations for instructional activities and transitions in the classroom. Two teachers who responded with “rarely” and “never” to this question remarked that they made up their own acronyms. Another teacher commented that she had forgotten about this component. One classroom teacher who responded “rarely” remarked, “My classroom practices were already working very well and efficiently.”

An overwhelming majority of teachers responded they “rarely” or “never” used CHAMPS tools to monitor and adjust the classroom management plan. Three teachers commented that they did not have the forms or did not use this component in the classroom. One teacher elaborated, “There is no time when teaching first grade. Those things are time away from children. I use name clips to rate behavior both positive and negative, and it is recorded in their agendas.” Another teacher mentioned using her own tools and ClassDojo, classroom management software, to supplement CHAMPS.

A majority of teachers stated they “almost always” or “often” used the CHAMPS program to interact positively with students. Eight teachers commented they had implemented the same type of strategies before the CHAMPS program was implemented. One teacher remarked, “I honestly sort of forgot to try this strategy until midyear of this school year. But once we were reminded I made a poster and it has helped me to focus more on the positive.”

Several questions probed teachers’ perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on improving classroom management skills, improvement in student behavior, and the emphasis put upon the program. These responses were reviewed and noted in Table 13.

Table 13

CHAMPS Teacher Survey Responses— Effects of CHAMPS Implementation

Question	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6. CHAMPS has been helpful in improving my classroom management skills.	3 (2%)	13 (8%)	38 (23%)	100 (60%)	11 (7%)
15. I have seen an improvement in classroom behavior as a result of CHAMPS training and implementation (consider all of the classes you have taught since completing your training).	6 (4%)	10 (6%)	68 (41%)	75 (45%)	6 (4%)
16. Behavior at our school has improved since implementing the CHAMPS program.	6 (4%)	23 (14%)	74 (45%)	58 (35%)	4 (2%)
17. The CHAMPS program has been a major emphasis at our school since implementation.	10 (6%)	31 (19%)	74 (45%)	47 (28%)	3 (2%)

Sixty-seven percent of teachers agreed CHAMPS had been helpful in improving their classroom management skills. Approximately another quarter of the teachers neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement, with the remainder disagreeing. Four teachers commented favorably to this question. Specifically, they mentioned getting ideas about behavior ladders, ways to increase student participation, using specific routines and procedures, and learning to put the responsibility of behavior on the student. One teacher commented that she had implemented several of the CHAMPS techniques

with little success. Another teacher commented that she did not always use the strategies but she had tried some of them.

Forty-nine percent of teachers agreed that they had seen an improvement in classroom behavior as a result of CHAMPS training and implementation. Forty-one percent of teachers neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement, with the remainder disagreeing. One teacher commented that she had not previously had an issue with classroom management before, while another teacher commented that the procedure charts and voice levels had helped.

Forty-five percent of teachers neither agreed nor disagreed that behavior had improved at their school since the implementation of CHAMPS. Thirty-seven percent of teachers agreed behavior had improved, while 18% disagreed behavior had improved. Two teachers commented that CHAMPS was not implemented school wide. In fact, one teacher commented, "I feel CHAMPS would have a great impact if the whole school was involved."

Forty-five percent of teachers neither agreed nor disagreed that the CHAMPS program had been a major emphasis at their school since implementation. Thirty percent of teachers agreed CHAMPS was a major emphasis, while 25% of teachers disagreed that the program was a major emphasis at their school. Two teachers commented that the program was implemented inconsistently across the school.

Office Discipline Referral Data

Discipline referral data were collected during the summer of 2014. Data consisted of office referrals for misbehavior reported by teachers, bus drivers, and administrators. Data were retrieved from the 2009-2010 school year through the 2013-2014 school year. Implementation of CHAMPS began in the school system during the

2011-2012 school year. Student behavior data were collected from the school district's student information system. However, data were not uniformly available from all schools due to inconsistencies in data reporting from each school.

The school district reported each incident as a numerical code. The researcher chose to group the incidents into two categories as noted in Table 14. To further simplify reporting the data, the researcher coded behaviors that affect an orderly environment with a "1" and behaviors that are harmful/illegal with a "2."

Table 14

Discipline Categories of Office Discipline Referrals

Behaviors That Affect an Orderly Environment

Disorderly Conduct
 Honor Code Violation (Academic Misconduct, i.e. forgery, cheating, plagiarism)
 Inappropriate Language/Disrespect
 Insubordination
 Falsification of Information (making false statements, written or oral)
 Inappropriate Items on School Property (i.e., eating/drinking inappropriate areas, bringing prohibited items such as toys/electronic games to school)
 Disruptive Behavior
 Disrespect of Faculty/Staff
 Other School Defined Offense (specific to school)
 Behaviors That Are Harmful/Illegal
 Assault on School Personnel/No Injury
 Possession of Weapon
 Communicating Threats
 Fighting
 Aggressive Behavior
 False Fire Alarm
 Theft
 Harassment-Sexual
 Property Damage
 Possession of Tobacco
 Assault on Non-Student
 Bullying
 Violent Assault Not Resulting in Serious Injury
 Leaving Class without Permission
 Assault on Student without Weapon
 Misuse of School Technology
 Assault-Other
 Assault on Student

The following figures provide office discipline referral data from each school that were reported from the 2008-2009 to 2013-2014 school years.

The population of School A decreased from 393 students during the 2008-2009 school year to 328 students for the 2013-2014 school year (see Appendix E). There was

a marked increase in the number of Category 1 offenses in 2011-2012. Of the 74 reported offenses, the majority were reported as “Other School Defined Offense.” In 2008-2009, 2009-2010, and 2013-2014, the majority of offenses were coded “Disruptive Behavior.” Level 2 offenses ranged from one incident in 2012-2013 to 22 incidents in 2009-2010, with no discernible pattern. The majority of these offenses were coded “Aggressive Behavior.”

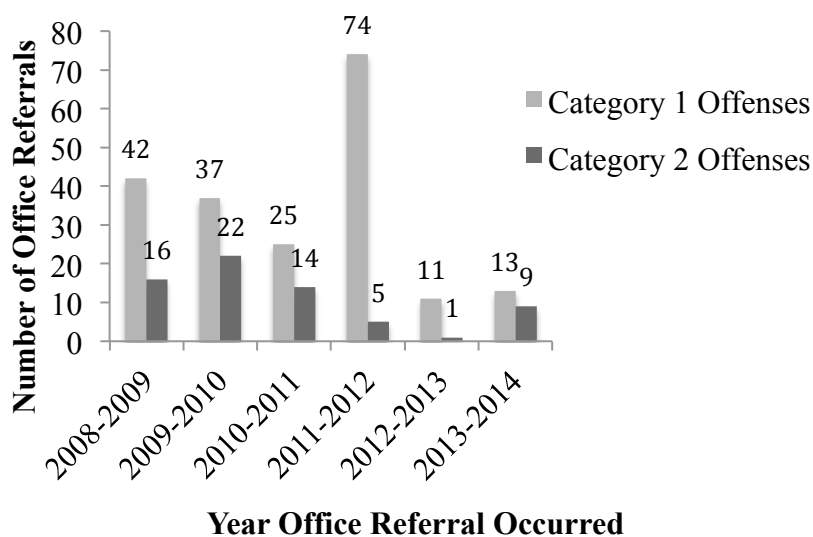


Figure 1. Number of Office Referrals from School A—2008/2014.

The population of School B increased from 521 students in 2008-2009 to 572 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). This school has the largest population of students in the district and houses self-contained classrooms for students with various exceptionalities. Level 1 offenses increased during the 3 years of CHAMPS implementation. The majority of Level 1 offenses for all 6 years were coded “Disruptive Behavior.” Level 2 offenses spiked to 62 incidents in 2010-2011 and 50 Level 2 incidents in 2013-2014. The majority of Level 2 offenses for all 6 years were coded “Aggressive Behavior.”

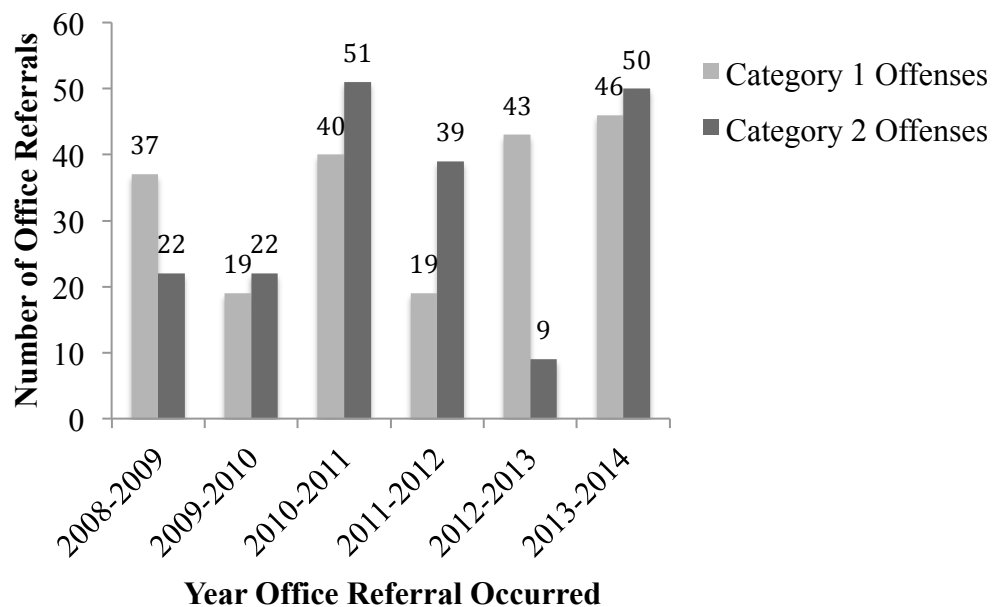


Figure 2. Number of Office Referrals from School B—2008/2014.

The student population of School C decreased from 382 students in 2008-2009 to 294 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). Level 1 Offenses spiked in 2010-2011, with all offenses being coded “Other School Defined Offense.” There was no trend in decrease of Level 1 offenses during CHAMPS implementation. The majority of Level 1 Offenses were coded “Disruptive Behavior” or “Other School Defined Offense” during the 6 years shown on the graph. Level 2 offenses were consistently low during this 6-year period.

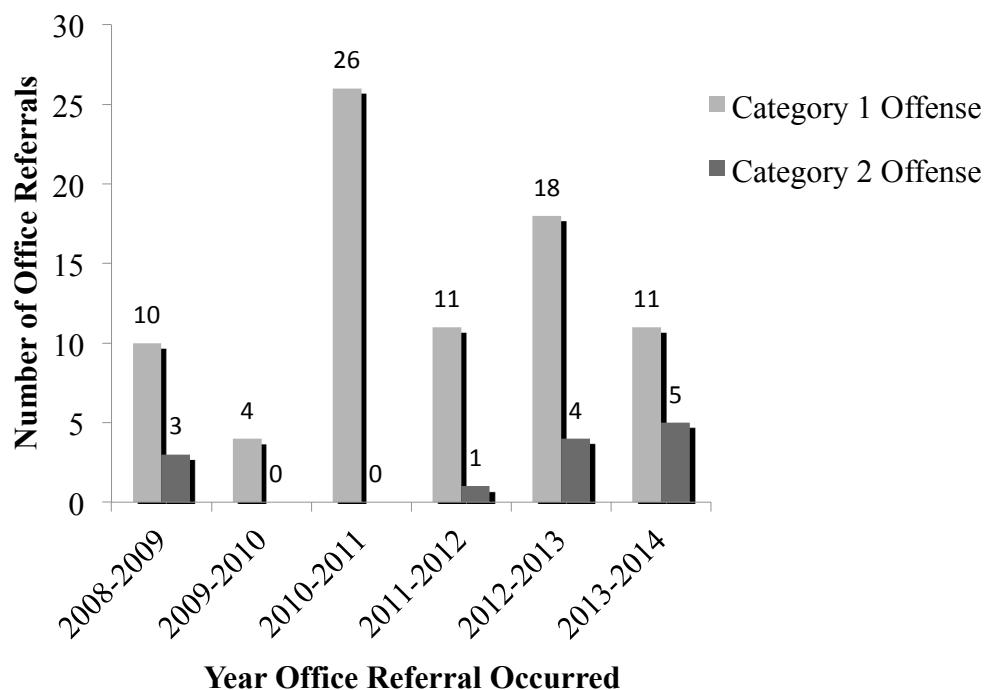


Figure 3. Number of Office Referrals from School C—2008/2014.

The population of School D decreased from 611 students in 2008-2009 to 442 students in 2013-2014. School D did not report discipline data for the 2008-2009 and 2009-2010 school year. Level 1 offenses decreased from 2010 to 2012, with a significant decrease in the 2012-2013 school year. However, the Level 1 offenses almost doubled the next year. During this period, the majority of Level 1 offenses were labeled “Inappropriate Language/Disrespect” or “Disruptive Behavior.” In 2013-2014, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Disruptive Behavior.” No pattern was noted for Level 2 offenses for the 4 years of reported data. The majority of Level 2 offenses for all 4 reported years were coded “Aggressive Behavior.”

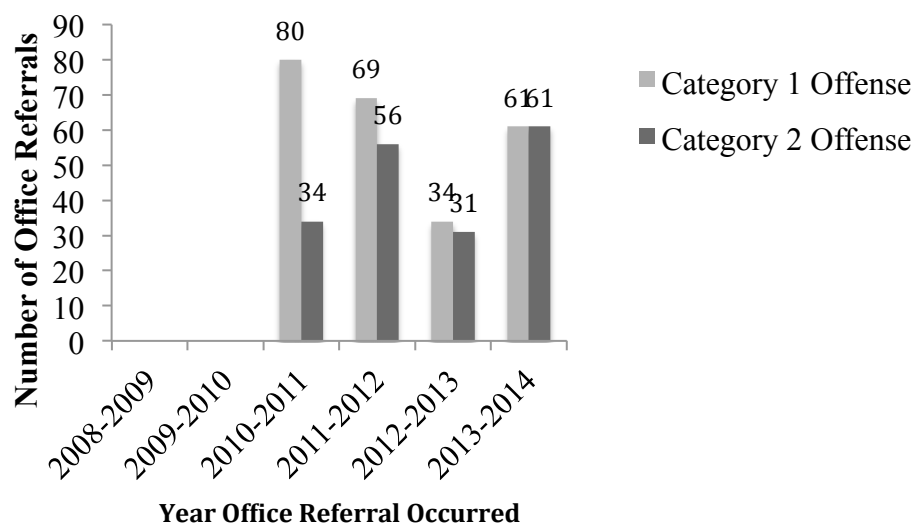


Figure 4. Number of Office Referrals from School D—2008/2014. Data were not reported for 2009-2010.

The population of School E remained consistent during the 6-year reporting period with an average number of 426 students (see Appendix E). No data were reported for the 2009-2010 school year. The majority of Level 1 offenses, with the exception of 2008-2009 and 2011-2012, were coded “Disruptive Behavior.” In 2008-2009 and 2011-2012, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Other School Defined Offense.” The majority of Level 2 offenses for all of the reporting years were coded “Aggressive Behavior.”

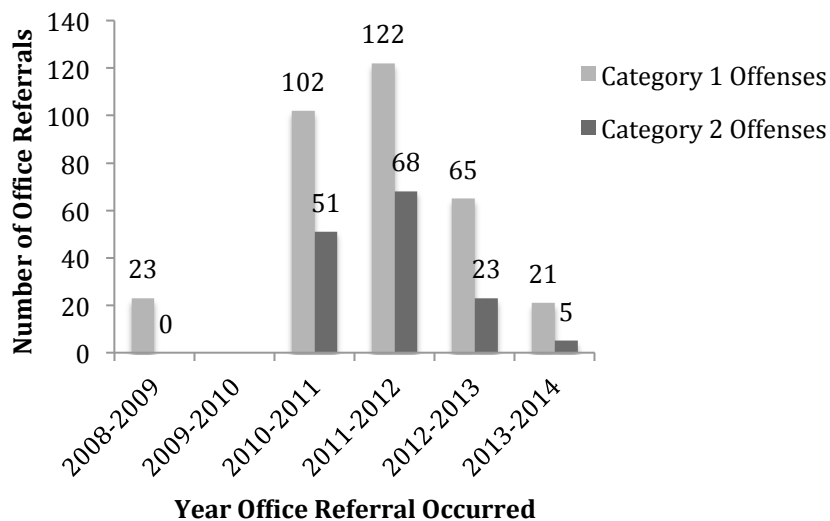


Figure 5. Number of Office Referrals from School E—2008/2014.

The student population of School F decreased from 418 students in 2008-2009 to 370 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). A sharp spike in the number of Level 1 offenses was noted for 2012-2013. The majority of Level 1 offenses for each year with the exception of 2009-2010 were coded “Inappropriate Language/Disrespect” or “Disruptive Behavior.” In 2009-2010, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Inappropriate Items on School Property.” The majority of Level 2 offenses for each school year were coded “Aggressive Behavior.”

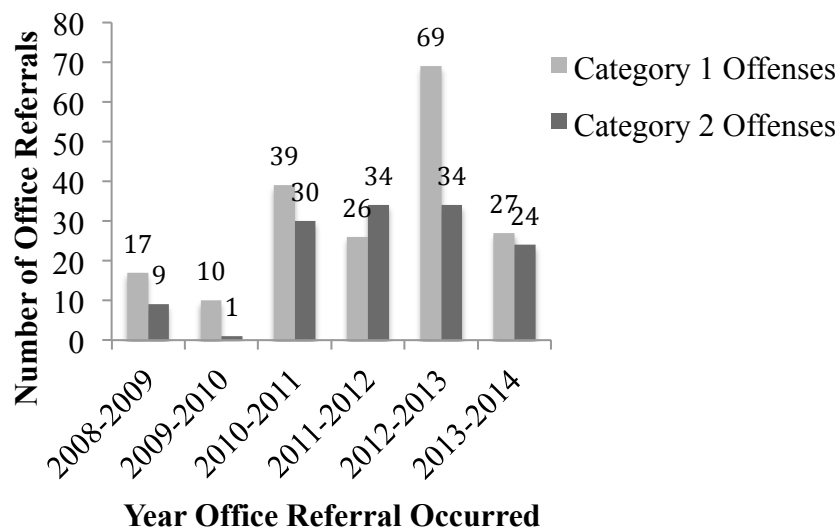


Figure 6. Number of Office Referrals from School F—2008/2014.

The student population of School G decreased from 308 students in 2008-2009 to 268 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). The majority of Level 1 offenses for 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 were coded as “Disruptive Behavior.” The majority of Level 1 offenses in 2012-2013 were coded “Inappropriate Language/Disrespect.” Level 2 offenses exhibited a sharp decline following the 2010-2011 school year. The majority of Level 2 offenses for each reported year were coded as “Aggressive Behavior.”

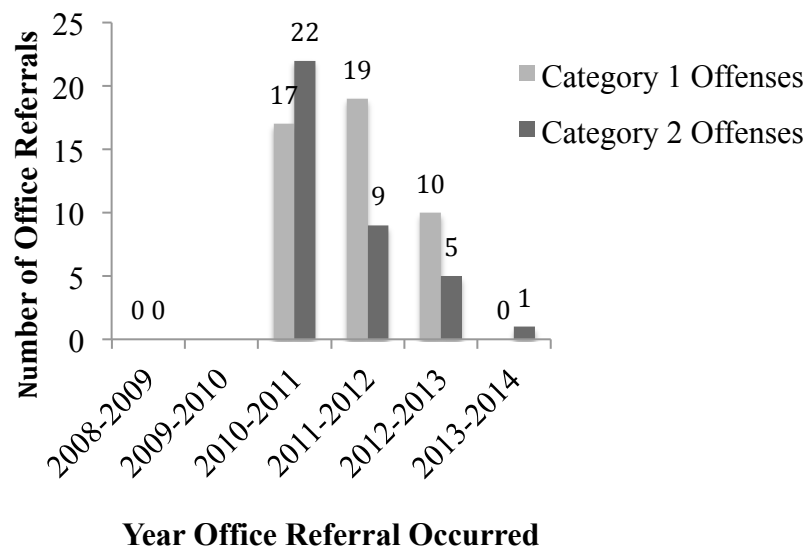


Figure 7. Number of Office Referrals from School G—2008/2014. No data were reported during the 2009-2010 school year.

The population of School H decreased from 506 students in 2008-2009 to 400 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). No data were reported for 2013-2014. A sharp increase in the number of Level 1 offenses was noted for 2011-2012. The majority of Level 1 offenses for all reported years were coded “Disruptive Behavior.” Level 2 offenses increased from 2009-2012 through 2012-2013. The majority of Level 2 offenses for all reported years were coded “Aggressive Behavior.”

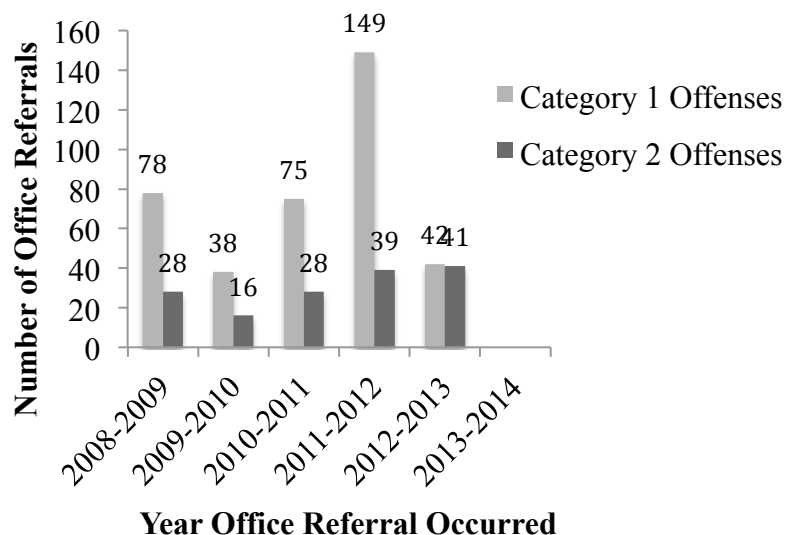


Figure 8. Number of Office Referrals from School H—2008/2014. No data were reported during the 2013-2014 school year.

The population of School I decreased from 508 students in 2008-2009 to 404 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). Level 1 offenses displayed a substantial decrease during 2012-2013 and 2013-2014, as compared to previous years. The majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Disruptive Behavior,” with the exception of the 2012-2013 and 2013-2014, which were coded “Insubordination.” Level 2 offenses indicated a significant decrease the last 3 reporting years compared to the previous 3 years. The majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Aggressive Behavior,” with the exception of 2011-2012, which were coded “Theft.”

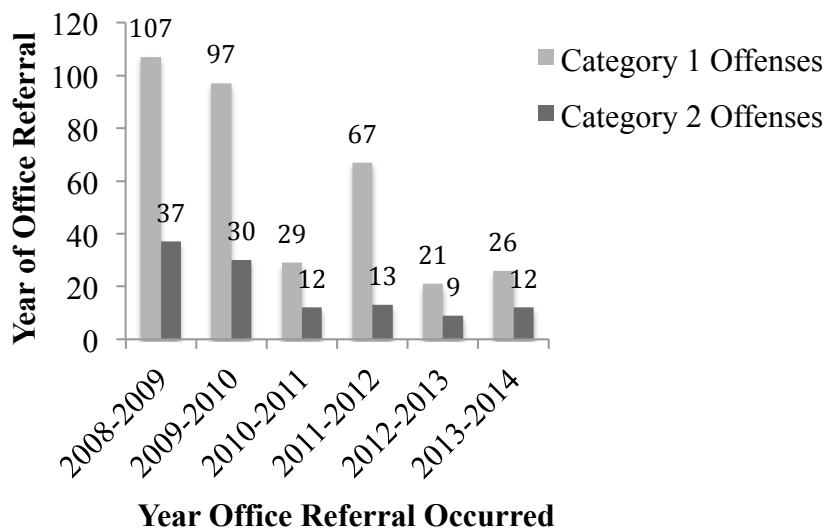


Figure 9. Number of Office Referrals from School I—2008/2014.

The population of School J decreased from 510 students in 2008-2009 to 425 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). After spiking in 2008-2009 and 2009-2010, Level 1 offenses dropped sharply for the last 3 reporting years. The majority of Level 1 offenses in 2008-2009 and 2009-2010 were coded “Disruptive Behavior.” The majority of Level 1 offenses in 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 were coded “Other School Defined Offense.” The majority of Level 1 offenses in 2012-2013 were coded “Disrespect of Faculty/Staff” and “Honor Code Violation” in 2013-2014. The number of Level 2 offenses greatly increased during the last 3 reporting years, when compared to the first 3 years. The majority of Level 2 offenses from 2008-2009 through 2010-2011 were coded “Fighting,” “Theft,” or “Bullying.” The majority of Level 2 offenses from 2011-2012 through 2013-2014 were coded “Communicating Threats” or “Aggressive Behavior.”

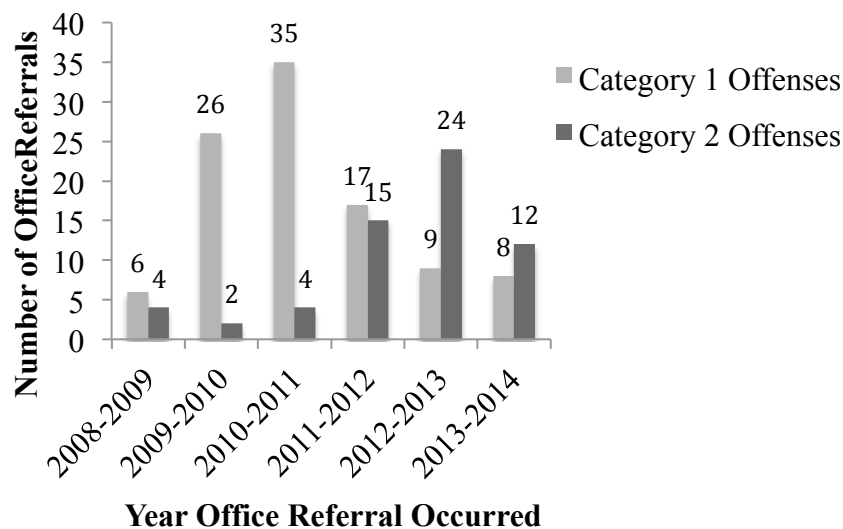


Figure 10. Number of Office Referrals from School J—2008/2014.

The population of School K increased from 431 students in 2008-2009 to 459 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). The majority of Level 1 and Level 2 offenses remained fairly steady during the 6-year reporting period with the exception of a sharp spike in Level 1 offenses in 2013-2014. The majority of Level 1 offenses, with the exception of 2009-2010, were coded “Disruptive Behavior.” In 2009-2010, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Inappropriate Language/Disrespect.” With the exception of 2008-2009 and 2010-2011, the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Aggressive Behavior.” In 2008-2009, the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Bullying.” In 2009-2010, the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Theft.”

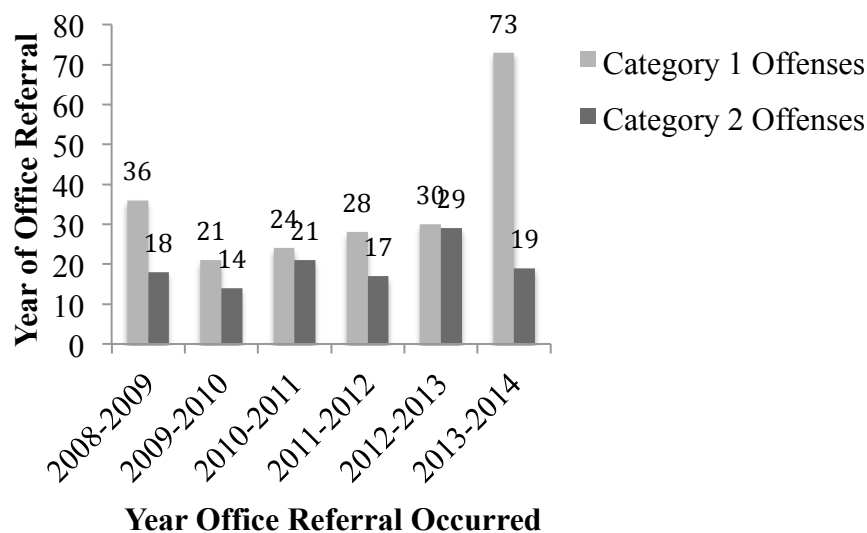


Figure 11. Number of Office Referrals from School K—2008/2014.

The population of School L decreased from 507 students in 2008-2009 to 432 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). No discernible pattern was noted for Level 1 offenses during the 6-year period. Level 2 offenses increased from 2011-2012 through 2013-2014. With the exception of 2010-2011, the majority of Level 1 offenses reported each year were “Disruptive Behavior.” In 2010-2011, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Inappropriate Language/Disrespect.” During 2008-2009, 2012-2013, and 2013-2014, the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Aggressive Behavior.” During 2010-2011 and 2011-2012, the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Theft. In 2009-2010 the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Bullying.”

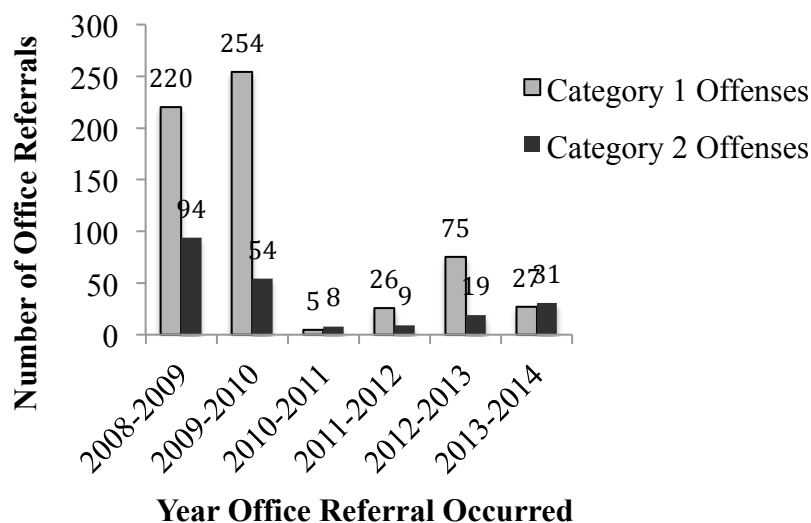


Figure 12. Number of Office Referrals from School L—2008/2014.

The population of School M decreased from 420 students in 2008-2009 to 350 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). Level 1 and Level 2 offenses decreased from the 2011-2012 school year through the 2013-2014 school year. The majority of Level 1 offenses in 2008-2009 were coded “Other School Defined Offense.” In 2009-2010, Level 1 offenses were evenly divided, with two offenses each of “Inappropriate Language/Disrespect,” “Disruptive Behavior,” and “Disrespect of Faculty/Staff.” The remaining offense was coded “Other School Defined Offense.” During 2010-2011 and 2011-2012, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Disrespect of Faculty/Staff.” In 2012-2013, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Disruptive Behavior.” In 2013-2014, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Insubordination.” The majority of Level 2 offenses in 2008-2009 and 2010-2011 were coded “Fighting.” The majority of Level 2 offenses in 2009-2010, 2011-2012, 2012-2013, and 2013-2014 were coded “Bullying,” “Assault on Student,” “Theft,” and “Aggressive Behavior,” respectively.

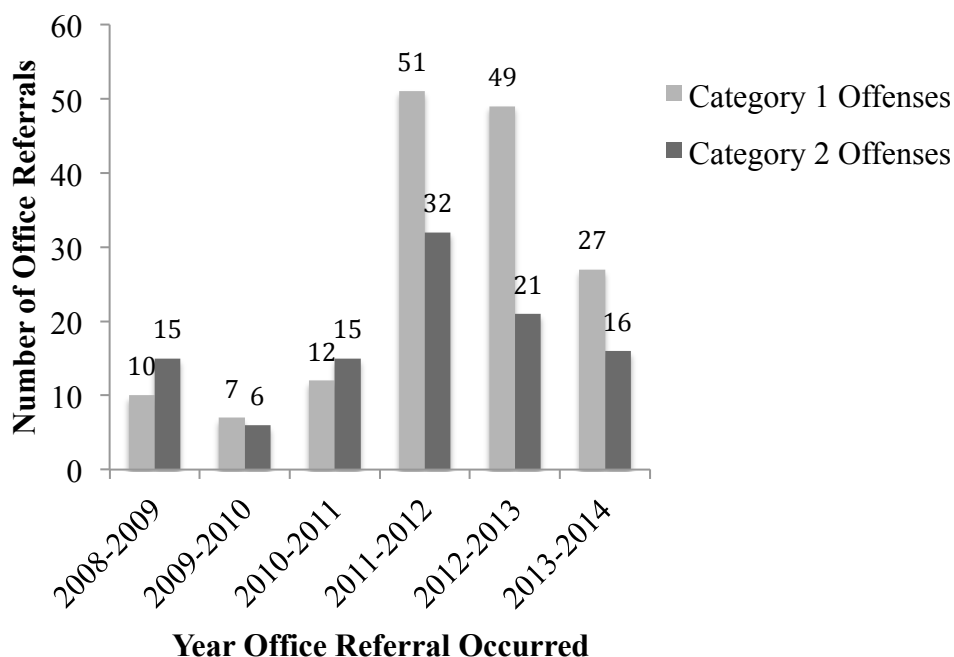


Figure 13. Number of Office Referrals from School M—2008/2014.

The population of School N decreased from 246 students in 2008-2009 to 205 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). The majority of Level 1 offenses, with the exception of 2013-2014, were coded “Disruptive Behavior.” In 2013-2014, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Disruptive Behavior” or “Insubordination.” Level 1 offenses decreased from 2011-2012 through 2013-2014. Level 2 offenses in 2008-2009 and 2009-2010 were coded “Bullying.” Of the 4 Level 2 offenses reported in 2010-2011, the offenses were coded “Bullying,” “Fighting,” “Possession of Weapon,” and “Assault on School Personnel/No Injury.” All three Level 2 offenses in 2011-2012 were coded “Fighting.” In 2013-2014, the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Aggressive Behavior.”

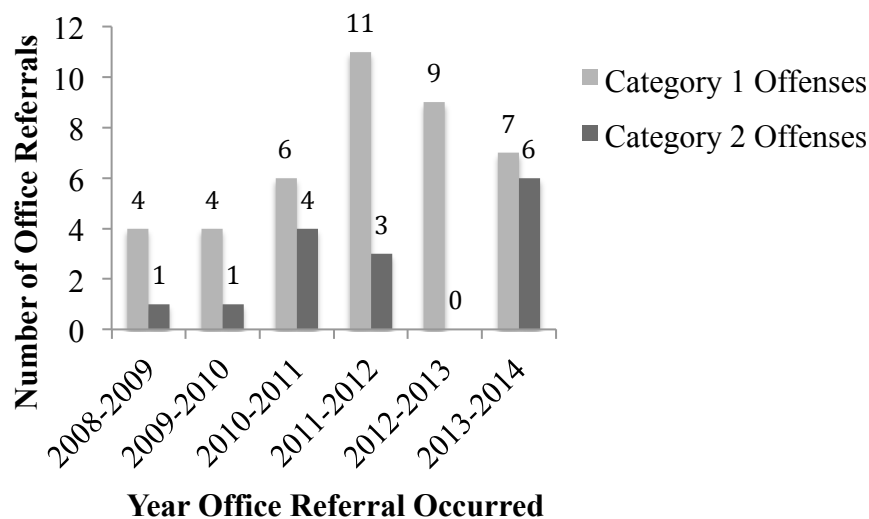


Figure 14. Number of Office Referrals from School N—2008/2014.

The population of School O decreased from 229 students in 2008-2009 to 207 students in 2013-2014 (see Appendix E). The majority of Level 1 offenses, with the exception of 2012-2013, were coded “Aggressive Behavior.” In 2012-2013, the majority of Level 1 offenses were coded “Other School Defined Offense.” The majority of Level 2 offenses for 2008-2009, 2011-2012, and 2013-2014 were coded “Aggressive Behavior.” In 2009-2010 and 2012-2013, the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Fighting.” In 2010-2011, the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “Assault on Student.”

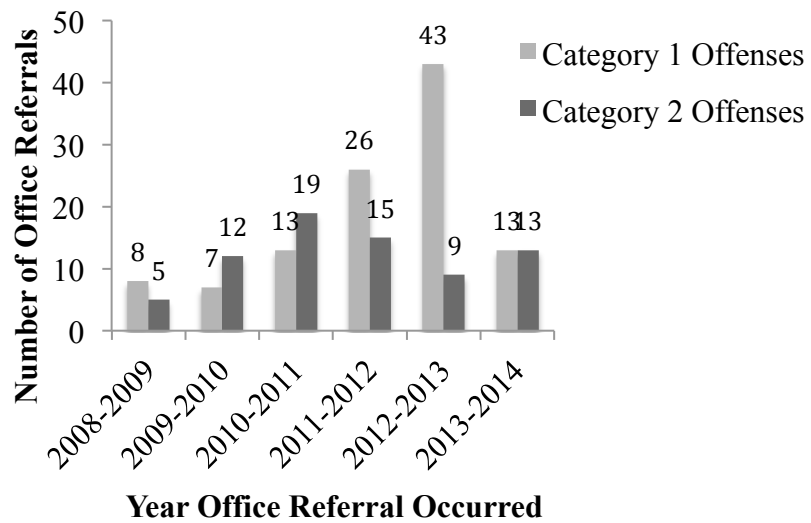


Figure 15. Number of Office Referrals from School O—2008/2014.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to conduct an evaluation of a classroom management program, CHAMPS, implemented by a rural western North Carolina school district over a 3-year period from 2011 to 2014. CHAMPS was intended to offer teachers a proactive, instructional approach to behavior management and classroom organization.

Results

This chapter is organized to examine the results pertaining to each of the research questions in the study. The researcher utilized the Process and Product components of Stufflebeam's CIPP program evaluation model to analyze the CHAMPS program. The Process component explored how CHAMPS was implemented in the school. The Product component examined the impact on principals, teachers, and office discipline referrals. Each research question is presented, followed by a discussion of the findings and other findings linked to relevant research. Following the research findings, the implications, limitations, and recommendations for further research and program implementation are discussed.

Research Question 1: Process. To what extent was the CHAMPS program implemented? (a) What were the teachers' perceptions about the various components within the CHAMPS program? (b) Were principals able to see evidence of teachers using the various components of CHAMPS in their classrooms? (c) How were teachers' questions and concerns addressed during the training and implementation of the CHAMPS program? (d) How was assistance available to teachers during implementation? (e) How were principals' questions and concerns addressed during the training and implementation of the CHAMPS program?

The Process research questions were answered with responses from the CHAMPS Principal Survey and the CHAMPS Teacher Survey. The Principal Survey elicited information from principals concerning follow-up training and assistance offered during implementation and principal perceptions of teacher use of CHAMPS strategies as well as the frequency they observed teachers using various components of the CHAMPS program. The teacher survey elicited teacher input concerning their use of the various components within the CHAMPS model and their opportunity for follow-up training and assistance during the implementation phase.

A comparison of data made between principals' perceptions of teachers' use of CHAMPS strategies and teachers reporting their frequency of use revealed several similarities. Principals and teachers both reported CHAMPS was useful in the development of a classroom management plan. A majority of teachers reported using the CHAMPS acronym "often" to clarify expectations for instructional activities and transitions. However, the majority of principals observed teachers using the CHAMPS acronym "sometimes." One reason for this discrepancy may be the amount of time principals spent in teachers' classrooms as well as the fact that the current North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Process (McRel, 2012) does not specifically address classroom management processes. Thus, principals may not directly focus on this aspect of teacher performance as they observe and evaluate teachers. A majority of principals reported seeing teachers use CHAMPS tools for monitoring classroom behavior "sometimes." However, the majority of teachers reported they "rarely" or "never" used these tools. A principal who reported teachers "never" using any of the tools commented she would like to see more staff development in this area. Teachers who commented on this section of the survey remarked they did not have the forms; there was no time to use the forms; or

they modified their own tools to use with CHAMPS. Principals who reported teachers using CHAMPS tools for monitoring student behavior may actually have observed teachers using their own tools for this aspect of classroom management. Research has shown implementation components are often adjusted to meet the needs of the organization (Domitrovich & Greenberg, 2000). A majority of principals reported that they observed teachers using the components of the CHAMPS program to interact positively with students “sometimes.” However, the majority of teachers reported themselves using these components “often.” Again, principal responses may have been affected by the amount of time they observed teachers interacting with students within the confines of the classroom. Principal turnover may also have affected perceptions, as most principals had not been assigned to their schools during the entire implementation period.

The researcher compared the data of principals and teachers at the same school reporting follow-up training and help with implementing CHAMPS. The majority of principals agreed follow-up training had been helpful. However, the majority of teachers reported “neither disagree or agree” when asked if follow-up training had been helpful. Several of these teachers made comments to the fact that there was no follow-up training provided. Both principals and teachers agreed their questions and concerns about CHAMPS had been addressed. The majority of principals participating in the survey agreed their teachers received help when needed from trained personnel when implementing CHAMPS. On the contrary, the majority of teachers responded “neither agree or disagree” when asked if they received help. Several teachers commented they did not need or had not asked for help. A reason for this difference of opinion may be the large degree of principal turnover during implementation of the program which could

have impacted principal perceptions of how much help and follow-up training was provided to teachers.

Research Question 2: Product. What was the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior? (a) What were the teachers' perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior in their classrooms? (b) What were the teachers' perceptions as to the effectiveness of the CHAMPS program on student behavior at their school after the CHAMPS program was implemented? (c) What were the principals' perceptions as to the effectiveness of the CHAMPS program on student behavior at their school after the CHAMPS program was implemented? (d) What was the impact of CHAMPS on office discipline referrals?

Research Question 3: Product. What was the impact of CHAMPS on teachers' classroom management practices? (a) What were the teachers' perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on their classroom management practices? (b) What were the principals' perceptions about the impact of CHAMPS on teachers' classroom management practices?

The Product research questions were answered with responses from the CHAMPS Principal Survey and the CHAMPS Teacher Survey. The Teacher Survey elicited information about the impact of CHAMPS on student behavior and teacher classroom management strategies. The Principal Survey also prompted principals to evaluate the impact of CHAMPS on teacher classroom strategies and student behavior at their school. Additionally, the researcher used archival office discipline referral data to further explore the impact CHAMPS had on student behavior.

Teacher perceptions of improvement of student behavior in their classroom as a result of implementation of CHAMPS were answered by analyzing Question 15 of the

Teacher Survey. Teacher perceptions of improvement in their classroom management skills were answered by analyzing Question 6. As a group, teachers responded favorably to improved student behavior in their classroom after CHAMPS was implemented. Almost half of the participant responses were coded “Agree” or “Strongly Agree” when asked if they had seen an improvement in classroom behavior as a result of CHAMPS training and implementation. When the data were broken down by years of experience, the majority of both groups of teachers who had between 0 and 5 years of experience and the teachers who had between 6 and 10 years of experience agreed classroom behavior had improved. Teachers with 11 or more years of experience were equally divided between being neutral and agreeing classroom behavior had improved since CHAMPS was implemented in the classroom. Teachers also responded favorably to improved classroom management strategies. The majority of all three groups of teachers agreed their classroom management strategies had improved. The majority of principals also agreed teacher classroom management strategies had improved during the implementation process.

These findings can be interpreted as a positive impact of the program. Classroom management is noted as one of the most difficult tasks of the novice teacher (Greenburg, Putnam, & Walsh, 2013; Jones, 2006; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). However, in-service classroom management training has been shown to positively affect the development of skills that promote positive student behavior and higher achievement (Dicke, Elling, Schmeck, & Leutner, 2015; Jones, 2006).

To determine the impact CHAMPS had on student behavior at the school level, questions 14 and 15 on the CHAMPS Principal Survey as well as questions 16 and 17 on the CHAMPS Teacher Survey were analyzed. These questions asked participants to rate

their perceptions of student behavior improvement school wide as well as the emphasis placed on CHAMPS at their school. In most instances, both the principal and teachers from the same school reported “neither agree or disagree” or “agree” when rating their perceptions of the effectiveness and emphasis of the CHAMPS program at their school. However, one school’s principal answered “Agree” to questions 14 and 15, whereas the majority of the school’s teachers answered “neither agree or disagree” to the same questions. Also, some of the teachers from this school commented there were no school-wide implementation measures and not enough participation from all of the teachers. Additionally, the school’s principal commented there was a need for follow-up training. The principal of another school agreed student behavior had improved but disagreed CHAMPS was emphasized. Likewise, the majority of the participating teachers disagreed CHAMPS was emphasized. However, these teachers also disagreed that student behavior had improved.

The researcher analyzed archival office discipline referral data to further investigate the impact CHAMPS had on student behavior at each elementary school. Office discipline referrals have been used in identifying improvements in school-wide systems and staff training needs as well as evaluating the behavioral climate of schools and individual student behavior (Irvin, Tobin, Sprague, Sugai, & Vincent, 2004; Sugai, Sprague, Horner, & Walker, 2000). A major advantage of office discipline referrals is they are readily available and frequently used by most schools to document student misbehavior. An analysis of office discipline referrals did not show significant trends during the 6 years of reported data. With the exception of two schools (see Table 2), none of the schools’ principals were assigned to the schools during all 3 years of CHAMPS implementation, including the pilot year, 2011-2012. One of the two schools with a

stable principal exhibited a decreased trend in Level 1 and Level 2 during the 3 years of implementation (see Figure 7). The other school with a stable principal exhibited no discernible trend of Level 1 offenses and a slight increase of Level 2 offenses (see Figure 3). When examined as a whole, the majority of Level 1 offenses in all schools were overwhelmingly coded “disruptive behavior” and the majority of Level 2 offenses were coded “aggressive behavior.” The researcher was not able to discern any trends in the district as a whole, as several schools were missing one or more years of data (see Figures, 4, 5, and 7). Several researchers have noted the limitations of analyzing office discipline referrals. To begin with, each school may define and apply referral procedures in a different manner. Wright and Dusek (1998) cautioned, “disciplinary reports can reflect teacher bias in recording student behaviors, differing levels of teacher tolerance of disruptive student behaviors, and the absence of independent, objective verification of disruptive student behaviors” (p. 138). Another possible limitation is the relationship between teachers and administration may affect disciplinary reporting procedures (Sugai et al., 2000). Teachers may be intimidated by administration or think principals will think less of their classroom management capabilities for sending students to the office with office discipline referrals. Smith and Hains (2012) documented evidence of administrator disciplinary philosophies which impacted the disciplinary culture of a school. As a result, writing and submitting office discipline referrals may be more acceptable in some schools than others, based on unofficial policy. Also, office discipline referral data may be underreported, discipline incidents may be coded incorrectly, or clerical errors may occur during the coding process in which data are transferred into a database (Wright & Dusek, 1998). The absence of trends among the schools may be due to any of these limitations, especially as there was a high degree of

principal turnover during the implementation period.

Implications

Prior to this program evaluation, the implementation of the classroom management program CHAMPS had not been evaluated in the district. This study was designed to evaluate the impact of CHAMPS employing Stufflebeam's CIPP Program Evaluation Model. As the district mandated the program, the researcher utilized the Process and Product components of the CIPP model to investigate the impact of CHAMPS. The Process component of this study examined the extent to which the CHAMPS program was implemented within each elementary school in the district. The Product component of the evaluation examined the impact on student behavior during implementation.

Freiberg and Lapointe (2006) claimed hundreds of classroom management programs have been implemented in classrooms around the country. However, there is a paucity of research to validate their effectiveness and sustainability. Herman (2013) noted that although the CHAMPS program has been in existence for over a decade and implemented in many states with thousands of teachers, an independent study exploring teacher and student outcomes has not been done. This program evaluation of CHAMPS will add to the knowledge base of the CHAMPS program specifically and classroom management research in general.

Based on the data, there appears to be a discrepancy in principal and teacher perceptions of follow-up training and help provided from trained personnel during implementation. The majority of principals agreed that follow-up training was helpful and the teachers at their school received help from trained personnel during implementation. However, the majority of teachers responded "neither agree or

disagree” when asked if follow-up training was helpful and if they received assistance during implementation. Several teachers commented there was no follow-up training provided. Research clearly demonstrates the need for sustained implementation support (Durlak & DuPre, 2008; Forman, Olin, Hoagwood, Crowe, & Saka, 2009). As a majority of teachers responded neutrally to this question and several commented no follow-up training had been provided, most likely more implementation support is needed for the program to be sustained in the future.

The data from both surveys also revealed a discrepancy concerning the emphasis placed on CHAMPS at the various schools. As previously noted, principal turnover may have impacted the implementation of CHAMPS. Research directly points to the need for principal leadership and support for new programs to be successful at the school level (Domitrovich & Greenberg, 2000; Joyce & Showers, 2002). In a study of developers’ views of school-based interventions, leadership style and behaviors of the principal, positive attitudes and beliefs about the intervention, and knowledge about the intervention program were identified as facilitators of program implementation (Forman et al., 2009). On the other hand, lack of administrative support and principal turnover were noted as major obstacles to sustainability of programs.

Limitations

This study was designed to evaluate a classroom management program used at the elementary level in a rural school district in western North Carolina. The study was relatively small in scope, limited to the 15 elementary schools in the district, and should not be generalized to other school districts. Another limitation of the study is the results are limited to the self-reported perceptions of principals and teachers and not all principals and teachers participated in the surveys. Twelve of the 15 principals

participated in the CHAMPS Principal Survey. Responses from the elementary schools ranged from a low of 27% at one of the schools to a high of 92% at another school. Additionally, multiple variables such as teacher personality and temperament of the students could have affected the results of the survey. Also, as the CHAMPS program was mandated by the district; principals and teachers had no input on the decision-making process. Therefore, their survey responses may reflect ambivalence toward a program handed down by administration. It should also be noted that the researcher was employed by the school district during the implementation period and participated in the pilot study during the 2011-2012 school year. Fitzpatrick et al. (2011) remarked when stakeholders are involved in the evaluation process there is a potential for bias. Another limitation of the study concerns the large turnover of principals. Research has suggested principals must be in place at least 5 years to affect change at their school (Seashore-Louis, Leithwood, Walstrom, & Anderson, 2010). As a majority of the principals have been at their schools for 2 or less years (see Table 2), they have not had the opportunity to fully promote the program. Also, teachers who experience regular principal turnover may not become fully invested in the change process as they anticipate another principal taking over the school with a different agenda in the near future.

Recommendations

Recommendations for future research. This study was based on quantitative data including principal and teacher surveys as well as an analysis of archival office discipline referral data. Self-reporting by participants is largely subjective, and Durlak and DuPre (2008) noted observational data are much more objective and may be more useful for implementation analyses. A more in-depth study involving researchers observing teachers in the classroom may yield a greater understanding of the extent to

which CHAMPS is being implemented. A follow-up study involving qualitative data such as in depth interviews and focus groups could also yield valuable information about the implementation process.

The CHAMPS program was mandated by the district at the K-8 level. However, this study was conducted at the elementary level (K-5). A program evaluation at the middle school level (6-8) may yield additional information on the impact of the program such as teacher and principal attitudes towards the program as well as the degree to which teachers are implementing the various components of CHAMPS. It would be interesting to compare responses between elementary and middle school teachers as well as principals.

Recommendations for the CHAMPS program. Several factors can influence a school's success in implementing a new program. Research has shown interventions conducted with higher fidelity produce more favorable outcomes for students (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). However, teachers face many challenges in the classroom that can negatively influence the implementation process (Fixsen, Naoom, Blase, Friedman, & Wallace, 2005). For example, new practices learned during training can be difficult to translate in the classroom due to limited resources; challenges associated with the diverse learning needs of students; and resistance to change from administrators, parents, or students.

Several practices can facilitate further implementation success with the CHAMPS program with regard to fidelity of implementation and sustainability. Research supports the use of follow-up training and coaching to support teachers in their endeavor to successfully implement components of the program. In fact, research consistently demonstrates one-shot in-service training is not as effective as professional training

paired with follow-up support such as coaching in the classroom setting (Joyce & Showers, 2002; Noell et al., 2005). Teachers have been shown to be more successful during the implementation period, report greater self-efficacy, and are able to sustain newly learned practices over time when provided with the additional intervention support (Denton & Hasbrouck, 2009; Fixsen et al., 2005; Forman et al., 2009; Joyce & Showers, 2002; Stormont, Reinke, Newcomer, Marchese, & Lewis, 2015).

In recent literature concerning evidence-based classroom management programs, coaching has been explored as an effective follow-up activity for helping teachers implement new practices with fidelity (Hershfeldt, Pell, Sechrest, Pas, & Bradshaw, 2012; Reinke, Stormont, Herman, & Newcomer, 2014). In one study, coaches were involved with observing and providing feedback to teachers, modeling the desired classroom management strategies and processes, and delivering professional development sessions (Herschfeldt et al., 2012). In essence, the job of the coach was to help teachers develop the skills needed to sustain the new program. The study also found support is needed from principals to enable the coaches to establish a trusting relationship with teachers. Also, coaches faced a significant challenge dealing with teachers who were reluctant to implement changes in the classroom, especially experienced teachers. However, these same teachers could move the implementation forward school-wide if the coach was successful in convincing teachers to buy in to the program.

Another study highlighted the type and amount of coaching activities provided to teachers implementing the Incredible Years Teacher Classroom Management program (Reinke et al., 2014). Coaches in this study helped teachers plan specific steps in the implementation process, provided performance feedback, emotional support, and encouragement and reviewed information from workshops. The study documented

teachers who received more performance feedback from coaches displayed significantly higher use of proactive management strategies in the classroom. One interesting finding from this study was teachers who started out with a higher level of implementation and received less coaching tapered off their implementation efforts over time. This finding suggests coaches need to continue to monitor implementation over time and offer maintenance support to teachers. Behavioral specialists and instructional coaches already employed by the school district could potentially be used to help teachers implement and sustain the CHAMPS program over time. Developers of the program may need to provide technical support and intensive professional development to the coaches themselves as they seek to support teacher efforts in the classroom.

Another form of staff development that could be used to deliver job embedded training to teachers is self-study. Teachers could use videos that provide models of specific classroom management strategies in action, coupled with training literature explaining the specific strategy, at a time convenient for them. Coaches could also be involved in this process by recommending which videos teachers should view, observing teachers using the strategy, and providing follow-up meetings to discuss progress. Participants involved in a study of this method indicated positive results; and the authors remarked that this method “demonstrates a positive training effect for a relatively simple, flexible and very time efficient method for strengthening teachers’ behavior management skills” (Slider, Noell, & Williams, 2006, p. 225).

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Appendix A
CHAMPS Principal Survey

CHAMPS Principal Survey

1) Name of School _____

Please check the following as it applies to you.

2) How many years have you been a principal at your current school (as of the end of this school year)?

_____ 1 year _____ 2 years _____ 3 years _____ 4 or more years

3) What year did you receive the 2-day CHAMPS training?

_____ 2011 _____ 2012 _____ 2013 _____ I have not received CHAMPS training

4) CHAMPS has been helpful in improving the classroom management strategies of teachers at my school.

_____ Strongly Agree

_____ Agree

_____ Neither Agree or Disagree

_____ Disagree

_____ Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional)

5) Follow-up training after completing the initial CHAMPS training has been helpful.

_____ Strongly Agree

_____ Agree

_____ Neither Agree or Disagree

_____ Disagree

_____ Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional)

6) My questions/concerns about implementation of CHAMPS have been addressed.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither Agree or Disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional)

7) The teachers at my school received help when needed in implementing CHAMPS from trained personnel.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither Agree or Disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional)

8) Please indicate the frequency you have observed teachers using the following components of the CHAMPS program for developing a classroom management plan for their classroom.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Determining level of structure					
Developing and displaying classroom rules					
Establish corrective consequences for violations					

Comment (Optional) _____

9) Please indicate the frequency you have observed teachers using the following components of the CHAMPS program for developing an organization plan in their classrooms.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Attention Signal					
Creating Physical Space					
Beginning/Ending Routines					
Managing Student Assignments					
Independent Work Periods					

Comment (Optional) _____

10) Please rate the frequency you have observed teachers using the CHAMPS acronym to clarify expectations in their classrooms.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
For Instructional Activities					
For Transitions					

Comment (Optional)

11) Please rate the frequency you have observed teachers using each of the CHAMPS tools to monitor and adjust the classroom management/behavior plan in their classrooms.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Daily Rating Scale					
Ratio of Interactions Rating Form					
Misbehavior Recording Sheet					
On-task Behavior Observation Sheet					

Comment (Optional) _____

12) Please rate the frequency you have observed teachers using the CHAMPS program to motivate students in the following areas.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Provide students with noncontingent attention					
Provide a variety of positive feedback					
Provide intermittent celebrations					
Provide a high ratio of positive interactions					

Comment (Optional) _____

13) I see evidence the CHAMPS program has helped teachers establish a positive relationship with their students.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither Agree or Disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional)

14) Behavior at our school has improved since implementing the CHAMPS program.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither Agree or Disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional)

15) The CHAMPS program has been a major emphasis in our school since implementation.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither Agree or Disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional)

Appendix B
CHAMPS Teacher Survey

CHAMPS Teacher Survey

1) Name of School _____

Please check the following as it applies to you.

2) How many years of teaching experience do you have as of the end of this school year (including all of the schools where you have taught)?

___ 0-5 Years ___ 6-10 Years ___ 11+ Years

3) What is your highest level of education?

___ Bachelor's Degree ___ Master's Degree or Above

4) What year did you receive the 2-day CHAMPS training?

___ 2011 ___ 2012 ___ 2013 ___ I have not received the 2 day training

5) Classroom management had been a concern in my teaching career prior to my implementation of CHAMPS.

- ___ Strongly Agree
 ___ Agree
 ___ Neither Agree or Disagree
 ___ Disagree
 ___ Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional) _____

6) CHAMPS has been helpful in improving my classroom management skills.

- ___ Strongly Agree
 ___ Agree
 ___ Neither Agree or Disagree
 ___ Disagree
 ___ Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional) _____

7) Follow-up training after completing the initial CHAMPS training has been helpful in implementing CHAMPS.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither Agree or Disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional) _____

8) My questions/concerns about implementation of CHAMPS have been addressed.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither Agree or Disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional) _____

9) I received help when needed in implementing CHAMPS from trained outside personnel.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither Agree or Disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional) _____

10) Please rate the frequency that you used the CHAMPS program for developing a management plan in your classroom.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Determining					

level of structure					
Developing and displaying class rules					
Establishing corrective consequences for rule violations					

Comment (Optional) _____

11) Please rate the frequency that you used each of the components of the CHAMPS program for developing an organization plan.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Attention signal					
Creating physical space					
Beginning/Ending Routines					
Managing Student Assignments					
Independent Work Periods					

Comment (Optional) _____

12) Please rate the frequency that you used each component of the CJAMPS acronym to clarify expectations for instructional activities and transitions in your classroom.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Coversation					
Help					

Activity					
Movement					
Participation					
Success					

Comment (Optional) _____

13) Please rate the frequency that you used each of the CHAMPS tools (daily rating scale, ratio of interactions rating form, misbehavior recording sheet, on-task behavior observation sheet) to monitor and adjust the classroom management/behavior plan in your classroom.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Daily Rating Scale					
Ratio of Interactions Rating Form					
Misbehavior Recording Sheet					
On-task Behavior Observation Sheet					

Comment (Optional) _____

14) Please rate the frequency you used the CHAMPS program to interact positively with students.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Build positive relationships with students					
Provide positive					

feedback					
Provide intermittent celebrations					
Provide a high ratio of positive interactions					

Comment (Optional) _____

15) I have seen an improvement in classroom behavior as a result of CHAMPS training and implementation (consider all of the classes you have taught since completing your training).

_____ Strongly Agree

_____ Agree

_____ Neither Agree or Disagree

_____ Disagree

_____ Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional) _____

16) Behavior at our school has improved since implementing the CHAMPS program.

_____ Strongly Agree

_____ Agree

_____ Neither Agree or Disagree

_____ Disagree

_____ Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional) _____

17) The CHAMPS program has been a major emphasis at our school since implementation.

_____ Strongly Agree

_____ Agree

_____ Neither Agree or Disagree

_____ Disagree

_____ Strongly Disagree

Comment (Optional) _____

Appendix C

Principal Debriefing Statement/Implied Consent

Principal Debriefing Statement/Implied Consent

Dear Principal,

My name is Holly Minnear, and I am a doctoral candidate at Gardner-Webb University. I am currently finishing the requirements for my degree by completing a dissertation researching the implementation of CHAMPS and its effects on teachers' perceptions of student behavior and classroom management strategies. I have chosen to focus my research at the elementary level, and you have been selected to participate as a principal.

As a research participant, you are being asked to complete an online survey. All information collected will be completely anonymous and only the researcher will review and have access to the responses. There are no risks or discomfort involved in this study to the participants. No compensation will be provided for participants. Your participation is completely voluntary. By taking this survey, you are giving permission to use your responses as part of my dissertation research. If you have any questions, you may contact me by email at hminnear@xxxx.com or by phone at (xxx) xxx-xxxx.

Appendix D

Teacher Debriefing Statement/Implied Consent

Teacher Debriefing Statement/Implied Consent

Dear Teacher,

My name is Holly Minnear, and I am a doctoral candidate at Gardner-Webb University. I am currently finishing the requirements for my degree by completing a dissertation researching the implementation of CHAMPS and its effects on teachers' perceptions of student behavior and classroom management strategies. I have chosen to focus my research at the elementary level, and you have been selected to participate as a teacher.

As a research participant, you are being asked to complete an online survey. All information collected will be completely anonymous and only the researcher will review and have access to the responses. There are no risks or discomfort involved in this study for participants. No compensation will be provided for participants. Your participation is completely voluntary. By taking this survey, you are giving permission to use your responses as part of my dissertation research. If you have any questions, you may contact me by email at hminnear@xxxx.com or by phone at (xxx) xxx-xxxx.

Appendix E

School Population Statistics from 2008 to 2014

School Population Statistics from 2008 to 2014

School	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
A	393	398	392	390	357	328
B	521	563	568	575	561	572
C	382	371	320	320	298	294
D	611	576	537	496	469	442
E	447	419	420	403	427	443
F	418	390	368	374	390	370
G	308	309	297	296	279	268
H	506	526	472	410	376	400
I	508	501	458	447	402	404
J	510	408	421	428	426	425
K	431	432	425	446	426	459
L	507	471	431	439	438	432
M	420	397	394	387	347	350
N	246	235	222	215	199	205
O	229	235	210	229	217	207
