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SUPPORTING THE WHOLE STUDENT: INTERVENTIONS FOR ACADEMIC, SOCIAL, EMOTIONAL, BEHAVIORAL, AND RELATIONSHIP BUILDING

A MASTER'S THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY

OF BETHEL UNIVERSITY

BY

MADISON HOLM

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SUPPORTING THE WHOLE STUDENT: INTERVENTIONS FOR ACADEMIC, SOCIAL, EMOTIONAL, BEHAVIORAL, AND RELATIONSHIP BUILDING

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Abstract

Students experience a variety of obstacles in and out of school. Interventions are necessary to consider for students at-risk or with disabilities to maintain engagement. Students who fail at the transition to high school are likely to be disengaged sooner and drop out. A lack of executive functioning skills directly impacts social-emotional development, relationships, and academic achievement. The research findings in this literature review provide guidance to teachers as they support at-risk youth gaining a positive self-concept, improving academic performance, building relationships, decreasing reactive behavior and supporting social-emotional growth. Future work in this area will help guide researchers in considering and developing academic interventions that have a powerful impact on the whole child.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

A lack of understanding of the origin of student behavior can result in disengagement, failure, and ultimately dropping out of school. Students walk into school with a variety of skills. When youth have experienced high levels of stress, trauma, or have a lack of positive relationships associated with school there is an increased chance of failure and dropping out (Langenkamp, 2010). In order to support students, it is crucial to implement proactive interventions, positive student-teacher relationship programs, and support at-risk students in the development of self-regulation and independence. Dr. Ross W. Greene (2014, p.9) stated that kids do well if they can, and "Behaviorally challenging kids are challenging because they're lacking skills not to be challenging." When at-risk youth feel that they do not have control due to a skill deficit there is a need to provide scaffolded interventions to meet academic and behavioral needs.

Biolcati et al. (2017) found that recent studies indicated that 10-20% of adolescents experience clinically significant mental health disorders that require timely assessments and intensive interventions. Under the Individuals With Disabilities Act (Section 1414, 2019), all students with disabilities have a right to free and appropriate public education from age 3-21 which allows additional time if students do not graduate within the four years of high school (Schifter, 2011). Schifter (2011) reported that during the 2006-2007 school year the U.S. Department of Education stated that out of 349,442 students with disabilities only 195,687 or 56% of those students graduated on time with

87,360 or 25% of that total dropping out. An increased high school dropout rate makes transitioning to the job market more difficult with a 52% unemployment rate of those who did not graduate high school (Ryan et al., 2008).

Poor academic performance leads to negative outcomes for youth at-risk and those with disabilities. Enhancing the chance of success in school and the community for those at risk begins with a connection. School is the ideal setting for reducing academic and social-emotional barriers encountered by at-risk students and those with disabilities. When youth have emotional self-awareness they do better academically and behaviorally. According to the *Committee for Children* (2016), in the United States students with strong social emotional learning are twice as likely to earn a college degree and 50% more likely to graduate from high school with positive peer relationships. When teachers teach behavior the same way that they teach academics it allows for appropriate and inappropriate behavior to be responded to, which leads to a significant reduction in suspensions or office referrals (Netzel & Eber, 2003).

Theoretical Frameworks

Abraham Maslow developed a theory of human motivation in 1943 that is now a pyramid outlining the hierarchy of human needs with physiological needs as a foundation and self-fulfillment as the goal at the top of the pyramid (McLeod, 2020). When people do not have basic needs met such as food, safety, and security there is an increase of illness or stress (McLeod, 2020). These needs impact individuals in all settings. As youth spend the majority of their day at school teachers have an

opportunity to provide interventions to support the development of self-concept among youth as they acquire the skills necessary to grow.

Maslow formulated a definition of self-actualization which is when individuals realize their personal potential and seek personal growth (McLeod, 2020). When individuals are able to experience a variety of things with a growth mindset they are able to reach self-actualization once their physiological, safety, love, and esteem needs are met. Taking responsibility and being able to identify personal defenses are connected to self-regulation and the ability to exhibit appropriate behavior in and out of school. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is directly related to classroom management in schools. Before an individual's cognitive needs can be met, physiological needs must be fulfilled emotionally and physically in order for students to build relationships and complete academic tasks to the best of their abilities (McLeod, 2020). When teachers are able to build rapport with students a foundation of safety is built which allows students to develop a more positive self-concept.

Supporting student needs at all levels allows for students to have interventions that are explicit, supporting their academic and social-emotional needs. Providing proactive interventions to support students with their initial social, emotional, behavioral, and academic needs will determine how students at-risk and with disabilities will do in school and ultimately their futures. Schools have been transitioning to a behavior and academic whole school approach that makes a direct impact on increasing student achievement with clear school wide expectations and putting their student

needs first. Disengagement has a direct impact on drop out rate. Behavior and academic interventions focused on behavior specific praise of daily behavior and academic progress increase on-task behavior during primary school (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008) which directly impacts self-regulation through social-emotional and academic needs being met.

Definition of Terms

In this thesis several terms will be used throughout. Reading anxiety is defined as a fear or anxiety that stems from academics, specifically anything connected to reading. Self-concept is how someone characterizes and thinks about themselves. Self-regulation is the ability to control your own behavior through self-monitoring. Behavior specific feedback is positive or negative explicit feedback in response to behavior.

Research Questions

A review of literature will seek to answer the questions: What proactive interventions can be implemented to support students with social-emotional and behavioral needs? Can positive relationships with teachers support at-risk students with and without disabilities by increasing their self-regulation skills? The relationship that students have with school has a direct impact on their self-concept and academic achievement. Decisions made by individuals based on their self-concept have a direct impact on whether the student has learned helplessness or mastery-oriented behaviors (Sia & Kaur, 2015). Buy-in or full participation from teachers is necessary to implement effective proactive interventions for both behavior and academic components of school.

This allows students to have the opportunity to increase self-regulation skills and independence while decreasing reactive behavior in an environment that feels safe. This also allows the students to take risks and learn from them while their social-emotional and academic needs are being met (Netzel & Eber, 2003).

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature Search Procedures

Chapter II reviews published literature on self-regulation and proactive support for school-aged children. It will examine the development of behavior, proactive interventions, and how to support the development of self-regulation skills. This information will help determine effective methods to identify at-risk students and proactive strategies to meet their social, emotional, and behavioral needs. The literature used in this thesis was found through the search engines EBSCO, Academic Search Premier, and ERIC with publication dates from 1979 to 2020. These searches were found by using the following key terms: “proactive intervention”, “self-regulation school”, “on-task behavior”, and “restorative behavior secondary”. The geography of where the research was conducted includes the United States, Asia, Australia, India, Africa, and within Europe.

Identifying the Cause of Behavior

Behavior stems from past experience and is expressed through either positive or negative outcomes. Dileo et al. (2017) investigate the neurodevelopment of children who have experienced maltreatment and how it may be associated with aggression of both reactive and proactive subtypes. The 20 individuals involved in this study are between ages 6-12 and have a history of protective care compared to a control group from metropolitan Melbourne and Victoria, Australia. Groups were matched based on

age, gender, and socioeconomic status. Child maltreatment is defined by Dileo et al. (2017) as the experience of abuse and/or neglect. Aggression is a common consequence of child maltreatment beginning in infancy and into adulthood. A lack of opportunities to unlearn aggressive behaviors such as healthy socialization. A lack of learning positive behaviors contributes to, “the relationship between children and aggression is explained via Bandura’s social learning theory which proposes that aggression is learned through life experiences (exposure to aggression) and external reinforcement,” (Dileo et al., 2017, p. 656).

Dileo et al. (2017) highlighted the impact of stressful situations compared to an individual's executive functioning abilities. These were measured based on periods of neurodevelopment and age-normed measures utilized wherever possible. All participants in the study were assessed in the areas of cognition, emotion, stress function, and behavior. Two-hour assessments included a caregiver interview. The results of the interviews identified that 18 participants experienced emotional abuse while 15 of the 20 participants experienced multiple maltreatment types (Dileo et al., 2017). Dileo et al. (2017) found a significantly greater affect dysregulation (negative reactions) and cognitive dysfunction (attention, verbal, and nonverbal functioning) in children who have a documented history of maltreatment compared to the control group. Dileo et al. (2017) stated that their study indirectly correlated with the hypothesis that child maltreatment leads to more vulnerabilities that increase clinical risk for aggression. Executive dysfunction is defined in this study as, “the only cognitive deficit

that was found to mediate early adversity and aggression in the absence of necessary development and environmental scaffolding leads to compromised neurodevelopment that might protect maltreated children from the risk of increased aggression" (Dileo et al., 2017, p. 670).

Dielo et al. (2017) acknowledges that there is a lack of research in this area but externalized behaviors were found to correlate with an increased hippocampal size and amygdala hyperactivity in response to threatening stimuli. This research links child maltreatment with executive dysfunction that will impact their overall functioning often leading to special education support in the school setting depending on the extent that their executive functioning is impaired. Without the ability to self-regulate or experience consistent, proactive interventions, children who have experienced neglect or abuse are likely to exhibit disruptive behavior when overstimulated in the school setting which can lead to academic failure.

The nature of school is able to set up the foundation for success. When staff proactively support students behaviorally and academically there is the potential to create a positive relationship with students that are seen as difficult. In this study Rozalski et al. (2009) specifically looked at the relationships among male students that had disruptive and violent behavior in a secure residential treatment center. Students with behaviors were categorized as extreme, ranging from violent outbursts to not engaging in anything or with anyone. The proactive and reactive behavior in response to

student behavior was investigated and was applicable both in a traditional school setting and residential placement.

Intervention strategies cannot be implemented or developed without having a deeper understanding into the relationship between violent behavior and disruptive behavior. Rozalski et al. (2009) conducted their study in the United States, with 55 staff participants and 18 males at the residential treatment center. 9 of the 18 males have an Individualized Education Plan. The center that this study was conducted in operated as a long-term, therapeutic residence and an approved alternative school containing a school, residential unit, and recreation room. All data was collected by 100 hours of observation over an 18-day period. Observations took place in all three settings. Disruptive behavior was defined as problem behavior that violated program rules and established procedures in the center, but the behavior did not include physical contact or threats of aggression; violent behavior was defined as violating program rules and procedures as well as physical contact or the threat of aggression (Rozalski et al., 2009). Both proactive and reactive behavior from staff was monitored throughout the study. Proactive behavior was defined as verbal behavior through modeling or positive consequences and physical behavior such as proximity control before the target behavior took place and reactive behavior was anything responding to target behavior such as verbal warnings, behavioral guidance, or calling for assistance (Rozalski et al., 2009).

Interval recording was done across 15 minute time periods and broken into forty five 20 second intervals conducted by the researcher and two trained observers to collect frequency data (Rozalski et al., 2009). The frequency of each behavior was determined by dividing the frequency by the average number of students or staff present during each 15-minute observation period. This method allowed for researchers and observers to capture general relationships among variables as neither the staff nor students were aware of the behaviors that were being monitored (Rozalski et al., 2009). Once the observation period had ended, the data indicated that students exhibited the highest rates of disruptive behavior in school and the residential unit while the lowest ratings of disruptive behaviors were observed in the recreation room (Rozalski et al., 2009). The highest rates of violent behavior were found in the residential unit and school while the lowest rates of violence were in the recreation room (Rozalski et al., 2009). Staff data showed that they were the most proactive at school and in the residential unit which may be because they expected higher disruptive and violent behavior from students in those settings. The relationship between student disruptive behavior and student violent behavior showed that if behaviors continued as they were documented and staff proactive behavior increased 10 times more than it was, there would be a steady decrease in negative behavior (Rozalski et al., 2009).

Few interventions had been effective in addressing the many factors that influence student problem behavior. Proactive strategies have been found more efficient than reactive strategies, which suggests that there is a continued need to research the

impact of relationships between disruptive and violent behavior to implement effective interventions (Rozalski et al., 2009). When there were not clear expectations or a focal activity ready the observers found there to be an increase in disruptive and violent behaviors. A limitation noted from Rozalski et al. (2009) is that there may have been instability in the observations for the students. The students had just been told that their program was shutting down in several months and a new person was in the room with a notepad watching them. Routine and stability play a big role in the self-concept of students and their ability to build positive relationships with peers, parents, and teachers. Students with emotional, behavioral, or learning difficulties may have an increased risk of having poor relationships with teachers. For further research it would be beneficial to conduct observations for a longer period of time to allow for more comfort from the students and continue to have the same daily routines taking place.

Teaching youth how to self-regulate and demonstrate self-compassion are coping skills that will serve them through school and into adulthood. Ferrari et al. (2018) addressed the increasingly high standards that are accompanied by critical self-evaluation that form a perfectionism-depression link that can have negative effects through a lifetime unless there are interventions implemented such as self-compassion which lessen the negative impact of maladaptive perfectionism (Ferrari et al., 2018). The research team aimed to test the moderating effect of self-compassion on perfectionism-depression link for both adolescents and adult populations.

Study 1 consisted of 574 adolescents, from grades 7 to 10, from five private schools in Australia. All participants completed questionnaires as part of baseline assessment to assess self-oriented perfectionism and socially prescribed perfectionism once approval was granted by ethics committees and the schools participating (Ferrari et al., 2018). All students completed the questionnaires in their classes via online documents and were provided with resources, a free and available counseling phone number, and website for support (Ferrari et al., 2018). Data from the scores indicated that there were significant depression scores between gender and depression with females being two points higher than males (Ferrari et al., 2018). A significant and weak correlation was found due to the large sample size, age, depression, and self-compassion, but no significant difference for self-compassion and maladaptive perfectionism (Ferrari et al., 2018). Correlations between depression, maladaptive perfectionism, and self-compassion scales show strong positive relationships between maladaptive perfectionism and depression while there is a strong negative relationship between self-compassion and depression (Ferrari et al., 2018).

Study 2 analyzed self-compassion of adults between the ages of 18 and 72 years old with a sample of 515 adults from the general population that were recruited through word of mouth and snowball sampling (Ferrari et al., 2018). Perfectionism was measured through the combined score of the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale to measure depressive symptoms and the Self-Compassion Scale was used to measure the components of self-compassion (Ferrari et al., 2018). All

forms filled out by adult participants were done via Survey Monkey, an online questionnaire form. Results showed a strong relationship between self-compassion, maladaptive perfectionism, and depression (Ferrari et al., 2018).

The findings from Study 1 and Study 2 indicated that both the adolescent and adult findings supported the initial hypothesis that self-compassion can weaken the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism (Ferrari et al., 2018). According to authors and researchers in this study, this is the first study to show that self-compassion can buffer the effects of maladaptive perfectionism on depression, though it was still unclear if self-compassion was the cause of depression. Adults and adolescents alike are exposed to many situations daily that create pressure or high expectations of them demanding goals to be accomplished by deadlines which if self-regulation skills are not learned and implemented could continue an unhealthy cycle.

Whether it is the inability to seek help or self-regulate, academic achievement is impacted. Baars, Leopold, and Paas (2018) explored the self-regulation process which was defined as the proactive process that students used to acquire academic skills such as setting goals, selecting and deploying strategies, and self-monitoring effectiveness. Self-regulation had a direct impact on problem solving skills and long-term decision making. Baars, Leopold, and Paas (2018) explicitly investigated the monitoring and control process by analyzing the extent students were able to monitor and control their learning process. This information was gathered by having students self-explain their

learning process and analyzing their monitoring judgments and regulation choices (Baars et al., 2018).

Eighty-two Dutch secondary students between 12 and 15 were used as the demographic in experiment one, and sixty Dutch secondary students participated in experiment two of this study. Both sets of participants for experiments one and two were randomly allocated to the self-explanation condition or the control condition. In order to analyze how monitoring judgments influenced regulation choices, students were given a pre- and post-test that consisted of five steps specifically in the subject area of Biology. The five tasks increased in complexity of problem solving and the tasks were cumulative, so they needed to get task 1 correct to move on to task 2, etc. (Baars et al., 2018). Students had access to an instructional video that addressed the Biology concepts needed to solve the problem as well as four videos that showed how to solve the problem in a worked out, step by step method which was followed up by a verbal explanation of how to complete the task.

Students that were in the self-explaining condition had to explain the steps they used to solve the Biology problem directly after watching the video. Prior to explaining they were given an example of how to explain the steps and why each step was taken for both experiments (Baars et al., 2018). This included encouraging students to use their own words after each step was shown. The hypothesis that self-explaining would improve monitoring accuracy was consistent in both experiments one and two. In addition to that hypothesis, experiment two also expected that there would be more

mental effort invested resulting in a positive relationship between progress and monitoring accuracy (Baars et al., 2018). Regulation was measured by asking participants to indicate if they needed additional practice. The measurement gathered showed that students who chose not to restudy for the task scored lower in the area of choice effectiveness while those that studied increased their accuracy and understanding through self-explaining compared to their peers that did not restudy (Baars et al., 2018). Baars, Leopold, and Paas (2018) then went on to identify the impact of the level of self-explanation which indicated a consistent correlation between the level of self-explanation questioning and time spent practicing as you explain your reasoning. To monitor accuracy Baars et al. (2018) investigated bias in self-assessments. The complexity of each task was identified as easy (task 1), medium (task 2), and complex (task 3). The results of this experiment showed a consistent relationship between complexity, monitoring, and regulation choices. It was noted that lower complexity problems were more accurately monitored while higher complexity problems correlated with more regulation choices in both experiments. Baars et al. (2018) noted that self-explaining new and complex problem solving tasks did not improve monitoring accuracy. When there was a low quality of self-explanation, it could have led to invalid cues. Self-explanation did not seem to differ between the conditions which indicated self-explaining as a general activity. This data makes me infer that if you continued to implement the strategies and self-explanation techniques with students that there would be a higher impact overall for students in a variety of subject areas by increasing

their comprehension and confidence in the content area. By implementing the self-explanation and self-regulation skills into the classroom as a pre-intervention strategy, students that are often overlooked will have an equal opportunity to learn the skills to seek help (Biolcati et al., 2018).

Self-Concept

The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines self-concept as "the mental image one has of oneself." Self-concept is a crucial factor in the decisions and self-worth that impacts an individual's life in all areas (Sia & Kaur, 2015). Sia and Kaur (2015) identified the importance of understanding how self-concept impacted helpless and mastery-oriented children. Sia and Kaur (2015) used a random sample of 200 9th grade students from different schools in Asia who were identified as helpless or mastery-oriented based on their scores from a performance measure of learned helplessness. They utilized levels by design that looked at Boys vs. Girls and Helpless vs. Mastery-Oriented. After a performance measure puzzle solving task and children's self-concept assessment were used the results showed that orientation (mastery-oriented vs. helpless)had a significant influence on all dimensions of self-concept while gender only influenced physical attributes and freedom from anxiety (Sia & Kaur, 2015). Whether a student was mastery-oriented or helpless, there was a significant influence on behavioral adjustment including: development of emotional regulation, self- concept, and academic motivation. These behavioral areas in time impact learning, school failure, severe depression, aggressive behavior, peer difficulties

and substance abuse (Sia & Kaur, 2015). The problems that were developed due to stress created a biological vulnerability, negative self-concept, while it is often that children and adults treat physically attractive people more positively (Sia & Kaur, 2015). This created an internalization among individuals that were not in that category leading to an increase in helplessness and a high need for intervention. The mindset among a student's mastery-oriented or helpless mindset can be an obstacle if appropriate interventions are not put into place. Mastery-oriented students have a growth mindset that students that display helplessness need support and instruction to develop intrinsic motivation.

Raufelder, Regner, and Wood (2018) studied the relationship between test anxiety and learned helplessness when receiving positive motivation from teachers during the process. Test anxiety was broken into two components in this study: Emotionality which was positively associated with helplessness in school and worry which has a negative association (Raufelder et al., 2018). Raufelder, Regner, and Wood (2018) defined school helplessness as, “a psychological state when the student believes that they have no control over school-related outcomes while helplessness is characterized by the avoidance of competition, concerns about their individual abilities, negative emotions and lacking strategies and effort to succeed” (p. 54). Students who exhibited and experienced the feeling of helplessness in school often lowered their expectations which resulted in lower performance and an increase in negative attitude that impacted self-esteem and life past secondary school.

Participants in this study were in 9th grade, ages 13-17 in Brandenburg, Germany. There were 845 students participating pulled randomly from 22 secondary schools out of the 123 secondary schools in the state of Brandenburg. All students participating were asked to evaluate their feelings, thoughts, and behavior associated with test anxiety, helplessness at school, and perception of teachers as positive motivators in three questionnaires (Raufelder et al., 2018). In each school all 9th grade students participated and there was an 85% response rate. All data was collected within two consecutive days during two lessons led by two trained research assistants. Teachers did not attend the data collection days and all data that was collected is self-reported to measure the intercorrelations between the latent variables of test anxiety; teachers as positive motivators and helplessness in school (emotion and worry). The data gathered from the 845 students indicated that there were positive associations between teachers as positive motivators, and the impact that emotion and worry have on test anxiety (Raufelder et al., 2018).

The results of this study differed from the hypothesis and showed that teachers as a positive motivator for students did not function as a buffer to decrease feelings of test anxiety and helplessness but rather the students' emotionality and helplessness in school were the highest when they reported high motivational support from teachers (Raufelder et al., 2018). This finding indicated that there is a need to examine the differences between learned helplessness and different types of test anxiety. One assumption that can be made based on the findings of Raufelder et al. (2018) was that

the increased motivation from teachers created more pressure for students who experience worry and low self-esteem. Encouraging teachers who acted as motivators did not show that it was effective, but the negative result could be that there was a lack of rapport, respect, and trust between the students and teachers. Creating a climate of trust and vulnerability in the classroom where students feel that they can take risks may decrease student anxiety and helplessness. Students that experience the feeling of helplessness or anxiety within the school setting need interventions within their direct instruction that teach them how to complete the academic demands and the social emotional component of how to change their mindset and take control of their emotions.

Meeting the needs of students in the school setting presents obstacles not only for each individual, but the levels of support available as the severity of behavior presents itself in a variety of ways. According to Biolcati, Palareti, and Mameli (2018) half of all adolescents with psychological or behavioral difficulties actually avoid formal services, thus falling into what they call the “service gap,” or the gap created when those who need services do not receive it. With that in mind, they began a study that investigated the effectiveness of a counseling service as part of a school-based prevention program for help-seeking students to reduce barriers such as cost, transportation, and stigma. Although there is no guarantee that school-based counseling will reach all students that fall within the high-risk index, interventions within the school

setting had the potential to become normalized services embedded within the educational culture (Biolcati et al., 2018).

In general, adolescents choose to seek support from people who are less formal, such as friends and family, due to the stigma of asking for help or expressing their current needs. The study led by Biolcati et al. (2018) analyzed the “Point of View Program” that utilizes an intervention they call “strategies in place.” The intervention was done with 14 middle schools and high schools in Italy with students from the United States, Italy, and other countries. The data collected was from school settings where a psychologist or counselor was in the building one day per week and provided services that ranged from individual counseling for students, teachers, and parents, to classroom-based interventions and a variety of school wide functions. The purpose of the “Point of View Program” was meant to provide early intervention for adolescents at-risk of disease or mental health problems.

This study involved 2,235 students (784 male and 1146 female). The average age of the students involved was 16.28 years, and 12.1% or 270 students were not from Italy. Students were divided into two groups; one that was in the first two years of school-age 14-16, and group two was in the last three years of school, or 17-21 years old. Data was collected at the end of this study through a 20-minute questionnaire that a researcher explained to the students thoroughly before completion. An average of 37% of the students that participated in the study completed the questionnaire. The questionnaire was made up of a 5-point Likert scale (1=totally untrue to 5= totally true). Subcategories

were broken down into Risk-Taking and Self-Harm Inventory for Adolescents (Biolcati et al., 2018). Of the 2,235 students surveyed, 333 (14.9%) indicated that they attended individual counseling at school while seven students did not participate in the survey. The results indicated that there was a greater number of females that were "help-seekers."

The results of this study noted that the help-seekers rated a higher presence of negative behaviors in school and psychological distress while their lower scores were in the area of classroom wellbeing, self-esteem, and family relationships. Biolcati et al. (2018) found that individual counseling does not intercept students at-risk of school failure. The reliance on self-report data limits the range of information available as the bias could have come from responding in a socially desirable manner. Providing the option for students to meet with a counselor in a variety of settings at school, whether it was individual or as a group, decreased negative stigma associated with mental health support. Much like the "Point of View Program", in school counseling increased with a more positive outlook from students while the trust, availability, and normalcy of the mental health support increased. The conclusion that school-based counseling was an ideal setting to help adolescents who are considered at-risk reduced barriers that help-seeking individuals could experience if it was integrated in a continuative and trustworthy prevention program. This is an example of an intervention that could be used in any school setting to identify potentially at-risk students based on behaviors that you see externally and those that are internalized (Biolcati et al., 2018). Although the

conclusion that school based counseling was ideal to support those who often would not seek help independently, the study suggested that the “Point of View Program” or approach had a critical issue seeing that the results did not address and intervene in academics and social emotional needs. The methodical limitations included reliance on self-report data, the influence of teachers on the program, students who did not have a positive relationship with teachers, and not all of the scales used to gather data have been validated by other literature. Biolcati, Palareti, and Mameli (2018) have highlighted the need to create support for students whether they display help-seeking behaviors or have a need for support beginning with trust and positive relationships in school and with the teachers in order to implement proactive interventions.

In the school setting, paraprofessional involvement in self-determination and development of self-concept for students impacted behavioral and academic progress while leading to an increased independence. Lane, Carter, and Sisco (2012) surveyed 223 paraprofessionals from 115 randomly selected public schools who had averaged working in schools for 10.10 years in order to gain information on promoting self-determination among students with high-incidence disabilities in Wisconsin. Paraprofessionals completed surveys based on their experiences and self-determination skills they saw or valued as important as they worked with students in the general education and special education settings (Lane et al., 2012). Decision making, problem solving, self-awareness and advocacy were indicated as significant needs to increase among the students they support.

Paraprofessionals reported that they sometimes taught skills associated with self-determination but choice making and problem solving are the most frequently used (Lane et al., 2012). The relation between ratings of importance and skill instruction found a positive correlation between all self-determination elements meaning that when one skill is developed or implemented into instruction the other skills would be increased and implemented in an easier way (Lane et al., 2012). Paraprofessionals had an important role in the education of students with disabilities which makes it important to have teachers determine how paraprofessionals are involved addressing the instructional domains of self-determination within student support (Lane et al., 2012). This study was a good first step in analyzing the perspective of paraprofessionals when promoting student self-determination skills, but future research should include observation at different grade levels and scaffolding of levels of support to increase student independence.

Motivation. Lincoln and Chazan (1979) drew upon the theoretical framework to determine how intrinsic motivation impacts children with a learning disability. The study focused on students in grades 4-6th. All 31 male children had parental consent completed in order to participate in the findings, experienced a minimum of one year in special education, and met criteria for a middle-class background in the United States.

The results of student and teacher input provided findings that showed that students with learning disabilities had similar physical awareness as their same aged

peers, but self-esteem in the area of intrinsic motivation was significantly different. Students with learning disabilities were extrinsically motivated, focused on teacher feedback, grades, etc. (Lincoln & Chazan, 1979). They noted that as a child matures, they internalize what they experienced, which was an obstacle presented by many students with learning and behavioral difficulties as they age. Due to disability or need, a child with a learning problem would typically experience a delay in receiving positive feedback from teachers, which can add to an increased need for motivational support from teachers (Lincoln & Chazan, 1979). The perception that students had of their teacher's support impacted their individual learning and the continued development of helplessness. The only significant rating in this study was that students with learning disabilities were more reliant upon teacher judgment while students who did not have learning disabilities were capable of making decisions on their own (Lincoln & Chazan, 1979).

Although the ratings indicated that students with learning disabilities were more significant in regard to their dependence on teacher judgement and feedback, the student individual feedback of those with disabilities did not differ significantly from those without disabilities in the areas of self-perception (Lincoln & Chazan, 1979). Both categories of students had similar interest and drive in the areas of challenge and curiosity in the academic setting (Lincoln & Chazan, 1979). This study proved that among elementary school students, the importance of teacher intervention and support continues to decrease the feeling of helplessness among students with disabilities.

Personal goals are an important factor that explain motivational orientation and behavior patterns of students at school. Núñez et al. (2011) examined the topic of motivation in students with learning difficulties in Spain. In Spain they did not consistently use the response to intervention model because there is no clear definition of learning difficulties but there is a diagnostic process. A general education teacher recommended the student for evaluation then a psycho-pedagogical team addressed the magnitude of the learning delay to determine if it is due to academic performance or intellectual ability. If the student is 2 or more years below peers academically then a tutor is provided to determine if there is an existing learning condition, modifications to general learning, and ruling out other disabilities (Núñez et al., 2011). A sample of 259 students, ages 8-15, from a variety of schools in northern Spain completed assessment scales in the area of academic goals, self-concept, and general attributions to determine if their goals were associated with learning, performance, or social-reinforcement (Núñez et al., 2011). Students completed assessments in the area of academics, self-concept dimensions, and their perception of why their academic success and failures occurred. The research team created four subgroups of goal profiles with the goal of determining the impact of multiple goals present among students with learning difficulties (Núñez et al., 2011). Group 1 contained 47 students with a motivational profile showing a dominance of social-reinforcement seeking and performance approach and low labels of learning goals meaning that they were motivated by peers and doing well. Group 2 consisted of 36 students that had low goals connected to low motivation

which indicated no clear source where motivation steps for academics, performance, or social situation (Núñez et al., 2011). Group 3 was composed of 106 students with high scores in the multiple goal profile, while Group 4 consisted of 68 students that had an interest in improving as they learn and a low level of interest in social-reinforcement (Núñez et al., 2011).

The hypothesis was supported with empirical evidence that there were consistent combinations of diverse types of goals or motivational orientation while students with learning difficulties were found to behave like students without learning difficulties in regard to motivational profiles (Núñez et al., 2011). Students with a variety of goals that became complex and difficult to manage resulted in behaviors that were not helpful in the learning process. Results showed that self-concept was higher in the group with multiple goals in all areas and the opposite was observed from students in the low motivational profile, due to the lack of belief that their success was a result of their effort or choices, and that their failure was because they do not have the capacity to complete the tasks asked of them (Núñez et al., 2011). The analysis of goals and relevant implications for students with learning difficulties provided a way to understand the dynamics of behavior as it changed in different environments (Núñez et al., 2011). This investigation was a strong first step to identify if students could have a diverse motivational foundation, but future research should have a smaller age range, emphasize the breakdown of types of motivation, and exhibit resilience throughout a school year.

Intervention: Whole Student Support

"Rather than reprimanding students, teachers can create environments where little to no reprimands are necessary as replacement behaviors are taught," (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015, p. 77). Research repeatedly suggests that students who are at-risk or are diagnosed with Emotional Behavior Disorders have a decreased graduation rate unless there are intensive interventions in place. Laura Schifter (2011) explored the high school graduation experience of students with disabilities by using data from the National Longitudinal Transition Study-2 from 2001, 2003, 2002, 2007 and analyzed how long it took for students with disabilities to graduate.

Measures included disability category, time predictor of years in high school, a follow-up interview to determine if individuals graduated and whether it was with a typical diploma or not (Schifter, 2011). Students who did not graduate or make it through 9th grade were categorized as 0 in an 8-column data analysis. The greatest number of the sample of 8,020 students graduated after 4 years in high school but the decrease in graduation rate and seemingly motivation occurred once students reached year 5 of attempting to complete high school (Schifter, 2011). 40.85% of the initial group of students with an emotional disability did not graduate high school within 8 years compared to the 43.6% of students with autism that did not graduate. Previous studies had limitations in how they estimated high school graduation for students with disabilities but this study created a comprehensive understanding to determine how long it took for students with disabilities to graduate (Schifter, 2011). The number of

students with disabilities that do not graduate need interventions to support their mental, social and emotional needs in order to reach academic goals.

Effective interventions to increase on-task behavior when given academic demands are needed to increase student success. Hawkins and Axelrod (2008) researched the impact that functional behavior assessments had on the increase of on-task behavior. Functional behavior assessments analyzed the relationships between individual characteristics and variables that triggered and maintained behavior by identifying the function, antecedent, and consequence which provided opportunities for effective interventions (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008). When students are at risk socially, emotionally, or academically they exhibit behaviors to escape the undesired task or situation.

This study consisted of a sample size of four students who were diagnosed with disabilities, engaged in high rates of off-task behavior, and were referred to a residential program due to significant behavioral problems in an urban Midwestern city (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008). It was believed that all students had the ability to complete the homework they were assigned but to generate a hypothesis of the function of behavior there were interviews, record reviews, and direct observations used (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008). On-task behavior was the primary dependent variable for this analysis whether the students were actively or passively attending to work. Observations were conducted by teachers who were trained by the researchers on how to collect behavioral observation data (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008).

Baseline data was collected as each student was exposed to three conditions during homework time: contingent break alone, contingent break with access to preferred activities, and contingent breaks to edibles, if they could display on task behavior for a 10-minute period (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008). Based on the mean percentages of intervals on-task three of the four participants displayed the lowest levels of on-task behavior to earn a break alone when the other student had the highest level of on-task behavior to receive a snack (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008). Data showed that over a longer period of time when breaks and structure were being implemented, there was an increase in on-task behavior to earn a snack break. For the three students who preferred the break alone, there was a significant increase in on-task behavior compared to the baseline data which aligned with the functional hypothesis that off-task student behavior during homework was maintained by escape from the task which was reinforcing the students' negative behavior (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008).

Results showed that contingencies were used to maintain problem behavior and increase appropriate behavior. There would need to be a more powerful contingency to increase the duration of positive behaviors (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008). Hawkins and Axelrod (2008) reported that it was surprising that all four participants had higher levels of on-task behavior during the break alone versus the break with an activity. Interventions based on a functional hypothesis were likely to be the most effective for reducing problematic behavior were evidence-based teaching strategies for students at risk with Emotional and Behavior Disorders and without.

Scaffolding academic and behavior support. Scaffolding versus routine support is a very important thing to differentiate in order to create independent learners and decrease learned helplessness. Athanases and de Oliveira (2014) studied the impact of two specific teachers at a California high school that had a mission to prepare urban, low income and mostly Latina/o students for academics and college readiness as many of them were English learners. The guiding questions for this study were based on the theoretical framework of scaffolding, for whom, for what, and how it is done (Athanases & de Oliveira, 2014). Forty-eight students were part of this study within the two classrooms that were being observed. All students were an average of 3 to 4 years behind grade level academically.

Data was collected by a third-party observer through video-recorded observations of classroom instruction, interviews with teachers, staff, students, parents, teacher surveys, documents, and lesson plans (Athanases & de Oliveira, 2014). One teacher was an 11th grade English teacher, and the other was a 12th grade History teacher. Classroom observation data was collected and scored using the "Classroom Assessment Scoring System" which assesses a range of instructional dimensions and analyzes scaffolding through several lenses (Athanases & de Oliveira, 2014). The English teacher's instruction and scaffolding had a high score for interaction with students as they greeted them, broke down tasks, and supported questions but there was a lower mean score in the area of participant structure and assistance as the routines and recall questions dominated the class time resulting in students having less time to problem

solve and collaborate with peers (Athanases & de Oliveira, 2014). Although the collaboration between students was lower, the routine support of the class had a positive impact on students based on the observation that researchers state that some students did not have a clear understanding of the task but were used to the routine that the teacher had in place which helped them keep up at a slower pace (Athanases & de Oliveira, 2014). The 12th grade History teacher had a different approach to scaffolding that had a strong focus on leveled questioning. When a student would respond with one word, the History teacher would ask follow-up questions to support the students processing and working towards a complete answer. Part of the instruction for the History teacher was that there was designated group work time with specific roles for each group member to support engagement and collaboration while deepening their learning process through interactional scaffolding strategies to move learning forward (Athanases & de Oliveira, 2014).

Results from this study showed that there were benefits to both routine scaffolding and interactional scaffolding. The limitations of this study include a lack of data on how many students were English learners and the academic progress that students made. The study was geared toward the impact of scaffolding and indicated that routine supports were beneficial if they were scaffolded back over time to increase independence for students (Athanases & de Oliveira, 2014). Future research should include a higher number of teachers and classes participating over a long period of time

to find a direct correlation between teacher instruction with scaffolding and routine support as well as the impact on student achievement.

The effectiveness of a flipped classroom could provide optimal opportunities for students to engage and problem solve during the school day while completing the learning tasks at home. Zheng, Bhagat, Zehn and Zhang (2020) completed a meta-analysis which synthesized findings of 95 studies with 15,386 participants from countries such as North America, Asia, and Africa. The purpose of completing synthesized research was to evaluate the effectiveness of the flipped classroom approach and examine whether moderator variables influenced the effectiveness of flipped classrooms on learning achievement (Zheng et al., 2020). Data was gathered from the Web of Science, Scopus, and Eric search engines published between 2013-2019.

Learning motivation that researchers were working to assess was defined as an established pattern of pursuing goals, beliefs, and emotions (Zheng et al., 2020). The most frequently selected learning areas were social science, natural science, engineering, and technical science. All studies were conducted between 9-24 weeks. The size effect on learning achievement showed that the flipped classroom approach had a medium effect on student learning achievement and student learning motivation (Zheng et al., 2020). It was found that junior and senior high schools had the largest effect size compared to higher education and primary school when implementing flipped classrooms (Zheng et al., 2020). Both pre-class and interactions during class time were

the types of communication analyzed. It was found that watching teacher instruction videos created the largest effect size followed by reading materials and using online discussion as a tool (Zheng et al., 2020). Overall, the 95 studies indicated that a flipped classroom approach does have a positive effect on student learning and achievement through motivation (Zheng et al., 2020).

Zheng et al. (2020) found that small sample sizes below 50 and interventions implemented to support students through the process created better results. The study of flipped classrooms being effective was efficient for general education classrooms but students who had a difficult time completing work, remembering what was expected, or experienced any type of turmoil when at home could result in them coming to school unprepared and higher levels of disengaged behaviors over time (Zheng et al., 2020). This study did not provide or support proactive interventions to support students at-risk but future research could contain a smaller sample size and scaffolding expectations for flipped classrooms with “at home” tasks such as coming to school the next day with a response to a certain topic. By implementing language that is supportive of the social emotional components that students experience, there is potential for at-risk students to participate and have success with a modified flipped classroom model.

Mediating language learning through teacher-student interactions and scaffolding transformed the experience for students in the classroom. When teachers of any subject, especially core content areas, are teaching it is important to keep in mind that language must contain more information because we cannot assume that students

have the foundation of knowledge to support their understanding. Gibbons (2003) researched the factors in classroom discourse that aided or constrained language development. Research was conducted with a sample size of 60 9-and-10-year-olds in their fifth year of schooling in the same Australian school. Ninety-two percent of the students in this study were from language backgrounds other than English. Gibbons (2003) noted that it was important to remember that children who appeared fluent in English in contexts such as play or conversation still have difficulty understanding and using the language associated with academic learning in school.

Data was collected from 11 lessons 45-50 minutes long each and included audio recordings and transcriptions of interactions, student work, notes, and interviews with teachers and students (Gibbons, 2003). The broad analysis indicated how the overall unit was organized and developed, then there was a more detailed analysis that focused on the sociocultural approaches to learning and the functional linguistics used to support students (Gibbons, 2003). Gibbons (2003) focused on a sequence of lessons which was necessary to avoid inaccurate observations and allowed her to observe how a teacher handled all stages of learning. Teachers that participated in the study met with Gibbons (2003) before the observations and lessons began to discuss what they would be teaching to give Gibbons an idea of the language students would be likely to use. Observations all took place in science class. The first stage was students conducting an experiment, then in groups they would share their experience through teacher guided reporting. This allowed a measure of student verbal communication skills in relation to

academic language used in the experiment (Gibbons, 2003). Students were found to have little difficulty in talking about what they were doing in the face-to-face setting of the experiment but it was observed to be more of a challenge for them to reconstruct what they had completed when sharing with others verbally (Gibbons, 2003). Teachers were able to mediate language by mode shifting through recasting, signaling to learners how to rephrase their language, indicating a need to rephrase for better understanding, and putting the information in a new context to support personal knowledge of students (Gibbons, 2003). Multimodal text such as pictures, newspaper articles, or magazines were used to support familiar language with technical terms which provided repetition for students to gain a deeper understanding of what they were learning as they needed time to process and make corrections.

Results showed that teacher scaffolding was contingent on the meaning that students were trying to construct which allowed students to increase their risk taking in an academic setting as they problem solved. The relationship between teacher talk in the area of science and language was a significant factor in the teachers' scaffolding that supported dialogue. As conversation progressed, students were able to master the structure of generalizing information without support while they were also using a structure where they were more comfortable asking for clarification (Gibbons, 2003). Overall, Gibbons (2003) provided clear evidence much like Athanases and de Oliveira's (2014) research that continuing to ask follow up questions to support student language development, processing, and learning through scaffolding as an effective support to

create independent learners. This study consisted of qualitative data and did not have quantitative data to support the findings. Findings were based on observation and growth in language used by students in the science classroom over the course of the observations. Work completion and overall engagement would be important to expand on to further investigations while mediating language learning through teacher-student interactions.

Reading Interventions

While direct instruction from teachers has a positive impact on student success, when connected with multi-tiered intervention systems anxiety levels and learned helplessness may still get in the way of continued independence. Gencer and Demirgunes (2019) examined the reading anxiety levels of secondary school students correlated with gender, grade level, socioeconomic level, and reading frequency. The total number of participants of the study were 598 secondary students 5-8th grade. “Reading, both socially and emotionally, is one of the important skills that provide the development of the individual,” (Gencer & Demirgunes, 2019, p. 91). It was necessary to have a foundation of reading skills to develop comprehension and support not only academics, but the skills each individual would need as they transition into adulthood.

Anxiety was described as a feeling of helplessness and fear that can occur at any stage of life which impacts attention, self-esteem, learning, and more (Gencer & Demirgunes, 2019). To collect data all students completed a Reading Anxiety Scale and Personal Information Form that was used to determine their socioeconomic levels.

According to the results about reading anxiety, gender was identified as having no impact. There was a significant difference in anxiety levels at .05 level according to the lower socioeconomic level variable placing the results at a .72 standard deviation which is higher than middle and upper socioeconomic levels (Gencer & Demirgunes, 2019). Results also show that there was no significant difference in reading anxiety based on current grade level.

"As the socioeconomic level decreases, the level of reading anxiety increases and also the level of reading anxiety decreases as socioeconomic level increases," (Gencer & Demirgunes, 2019, p. 94). The negative relationship between reading anxiety and socioeconomic level was a need that presented an overwhelming obstacle for all ages of students. When they experience anxiety or feeling of failure or helplessness which means there was a higher chance that they will fall into the at-risk category and will not have the trust to gain the skills necessary to be a "help-seeker" (Biolcati et al., 2018).

Teachers' attitudes have a significant impact on student achievement and are the cause of many student behaviors at school. Tsovili (2004) created a study that aimed to investigate the role that anxiety played in the lives of adolescents with dyslexia and a special emphasis on the role of the teacher. This study was conducted in Greece and participants included two groups of 68 Greek adolescents, ages 13 years and 5 months to 16 years and 5 months, one group with dyslexia and the control group did not have dyslexia (Tsovili, 2004). Participants with dyslexia were selected at random from those diagnosed by the Out-Patient Centre of Athens and the Dyslexia Center in Athens, while

the control group was pulled from schools in the same geographic area as well as similar sex, age and parental socio-economic status (Tsovili, 2004). Language teachers were the chosen teacher participants because they have not had any special training in relation to dyslexia and are responsible for teaching Greek literature, grammar, reading and writing (Tsovili, 2004). Students spent the majority of their classes with language teachers rather than other teachers.

Tsovili (2004) set up the procedure so all questionnaires for students in both groups were read out loud and administered by the researcher to avoid false answers due to reading problems and allow privacy within their responses. All teacher questionnaires were completed by the language teachers at the school they were working at to ensure that they recently had a student interaction to support the accuracy of their information (Tsovili, 2004). Tsovili (2004) determined that students with dyslexia in the highest and lowest 5th percentile for reading anxiety participated in structured interviews that were individually conducted in the home of each student. Both state and trait anxiety were measured by all participants. State anxiety was defined as the intensity of anxiety that an individual experience gives them, and trait anxiety was defined as a tendency to perceive stressful situations as threatening or dangerous (Tsovili, 2004). All adolescents were instructed to respond to how they felt while reading and immediately after they have read a grade level text which revealed that both students with and without dyslexia were classified on both the state and trait anxiety measures as very high. Language teachers of students with dyslexia reported that they

supported democratic principles of students sharing their opinions in their class more than language teachers of students without dyslexia. Tsovili (2004) noted that both differences for teachers were significant at a very low level ($p<.05$), especially if another researcher chose to implement additional testing for language teachers. Irritability shown in the language teacher subscale indicated that teachers were more patient with high anxiety students than low anxiety students (Tsovili, 2004). This could be because teachers were able to prepare when they knew what to expect and high anxiety was easier to see and identify than low anxiety.

Students with dyslexia reported higher levels of reading anxiety compared to students without dyslexia and eleven (16%) of those with dyslexia scored in the high or very high category compared to zero in the control group (Tsovili, 2004). Anxiety associated with reading caused difficulty determining an individual's view of the world and their ability to complete certain tasks. The ability that a student may have to report how they were feeling and the negative implications of their anxiety at school was considered a version of trait anxiety in this study. Only thirteen students with dyslexia (19%) were noted to have the ability to communicate their negative emotions while twenty-four (35%) of the students in the control group without dyslexia were able to communicate the emotional impact of anxiety (Tsovili, 2004). This finding caused Tsovili (2004) to caution the results because the data was close for students with and without dyslexia while trait anxiety of students with dyslexia are significantly correlated with reading anxiety which was the best predictor of reading anxiety.

Tsovili's (2004) hypothesis that negative attitudes of language teachers towards students with dyslexia was not confirmed yet the interviews of students that had dyslexia and high levels of reading anxiety did seem to be related to learned helplessness. Students were unsure of their feelings towards reading or why they felt that way, remaining unaware that how they cope with the problem is connected with the outcome and emotion-focused defense mechanisms (Tsovili, 2004). Students that had positive coping skills and low anxiety were able to identify that they had difficulties in school but needed to increase their efforts to meet their future goals (Tsovili, 2004). The highest reading anxiety group mentioned that language teachers did not consistently recognize their effort which had a direct effect on their individual self-esteem and willingness to take risks which highlights the importance of teachers providing emotional support as well as academic instruction (Tsovili, 2004). Until students have an increased awareness of how their mindset has a direct impact in coping with adversity, the lack of social-emotional skills will remain a cause of behavior similar to learned helplessness while lack of self-regulation results in a continuation of negative outcomes in the school environment.

Klassen (2010) studied the self-efficacy for self-regulated learning of 146 adolescents from two different schools in 8th and 9th grade, with and without learning disabilities in Western Canada. Seventy three of the 146 participants were diagnosed with a learning disability and receive special education support. There were no significant differences in the schools or demographics of where the participants lived.

Data was collected over a three-week period by the author with assistance from the resource room teachers for students with learning disabilities. The areas that were assessed included student belief of their capabilities, reading skills via Woodcock-Johnson III and reading self-efficacy (Klassen, 2010).

Results of this data showed that the mean scores for students without learning disabilities were significantly higher for each variable measured but reading self-efficacy and reading scores were not significant according to sex (Klassen, 2010). Early adolescents with learning disabilities reported low levels of self-regulatory efficacy which was confirmed to be associated with academic achievement and reading scores were significantly correlated with reading self-efficacy in each group (Klassen, 2010). Reading scores were found to be the strongest predictor of English grades for all students, while it was shown that girls with and without learning disabilities showed higher levels of confidence and the ability to regulate and monitor their learning (Klassen, 2010). Better readers tended to do better in literacy-oriented classes, but self-efficacy and self-regulation made up a big part of what contributed to grades. By teaching students regulatory skills and working on building confidence with the mindset of what they can accomplish, there may be an increase in academic achievement.

Effects of multi-tier academic and behavior instruction included improving behavior in academic settings and social settings. Algozzine et al. (2012) created a study that aimed to find proven methods to improve literacy skills, school climate, and problem behaviors. The sample consisted of seven elementary schools in North Carolina.

This study was conducted over the course of three years. The first year two schools were randomly selected as controls and four schools implemented the interventions. Year two they added a new control school and implemented the interventions in six schools; then by year three, all seven schools were implementing the intervention (Algozzine et al., 2012). Ethnic distribution differed across all schools but the percentages of first-grade students, the total number of exceptional children, and the number of children receiving free or reduced-price lunch were comparable (Algozzine et al., 2012). Thirty-six percent of the students in the schools that are participating in this project demonstrated scores below their grade level and were identified as the most at-risk for academic problems within their district (Algozzine et al., 2012).

The initial level of intervention was focused on school-level workshops to support teachers in their understanding of intervention and provide high-quality implementation of evidence based practices (Algozzine et al., 2012). All staff had a unified set of classroom expectations focusing on positive behavior support and a system in place to support staff progress by offering individual mentoring, refresher workshops, engagement checks in all classrooms and teachers teaching behavior to all students (Algozzine et al., 2012). To support academic instruction there was a three-tier approach. Tier 1 of the reading intervention was the Open Court Reading curriculum supported by local facilitators and consultants including a peer coach to build fluency (Algozzine et al., 2012). Tier 2 reading intervention was a program called Practice Court that included 110 lessons covering decoding skills addressed in first grade. This program

was used as a strategic intervention for kindergarten and first grade and as an intensive intervention for second grade students during independent work time within the classroom. If second grade students were struggling, they would participate in Reading Mastery Classic II which addressed skills needed to bring students to a third-grade level (Algozzine et al., 2012). Tier 3 intervention was the Reading Mastery Classic I curriculum for kindergarten and first grade which was more intense and longer. All mastery programs were in place as a special education curriculum in the schools involved in this study for grades K-2.

Tier 1 of behavior intervention instruction was a total school intervention that implemented evidence-based interventions for students. Tier 2 interventions addressed social problems through pull-out individual interventions and small group social skills (Algozzine et al., 2012). Tier 3 interventions included functional behavior assessments, individualized positive behavior support plans and wraparound services for individualized support (Algozzine et al., 2012). Algozzine et al. (2012) documented that the levels of primary reading instruction were done at acceptable levels based on observation both prearranged and random. There were 57 interventionists implementing the primary program while 67 interventionists implemented the Practice Court program in their classrooms, who were all observed and given fidelity checklists which were calculated by an interventionist that was not included in the fidelity data (Algozzine et al., 2012). The fidelity data suggested that out of 5, the secondary intervention program had a mean of 4.55 and the primary had a mean of 4.9 which

suggests that there were very high levels of implementation (Algozzine et al., 2012). Observations from different time periods over the course of the year showed that there was a significant positive difference in teacher reinforcement, correction, total rule violations, and teacher use of appropriate voice tone in treatment and control classrooms (Algozzine et al., 2012). The treatment schools provided staff with professional development before implementing the behavior intervention tier system, during implementation, and as part of activities used to promote continued intervention which supported the continuity of the behavior interventions to result in a decrease in office referrals (Algozzine et al., 2012). Teachers regularly completed self-assessments related to key behavior interventions that they were implementing which provided regular opportunities for support and to review the key aspects of the primary interventions to be implemented.

The dependent variables in this study include the "Dynamic Indicators of Basic Literacy Skills" which was used to assess growth in key reading skills through fluency measures which reflect the essential reading domains and student development of phonological awareness, alphabet understanding, fluency with code that provided data for individual student progress and program implementation across all schools (Algozzine et al., 2012). School climate was measured across all schools participating in the study and the results indicated that there were improvements in school climate resulting from systematic behavior instruction and a higher percentage increase for the treatment schools (Algozzine et al., 2012). After seven months of the behavior

interventions being implemented there was a significant decrease in office referrals in the treatment school compared to the control similar to the reading intervention results which indicate statistically significant improvements in performance in both treatment and control groups, but the scores were significantly different (Algozzine et al., 2012).

Improvements to this included assessing staff buy-in before the school-wide intervention began to ensure the same level of participation for the project as there was a high level of continued support for staff and students as well as effort from staff needed for it to have a positive impact (Algozzine et al., 2012). The research Algozzine et al. (2012) conducted supports the conclusion that successful implementation efforts designed to achieve beneficial outcomes for consumers require a long-term multilevel approach. It is difficult for teachers to focus on instruction and all students when disruptive behavior interferes. When students are reacting in a disruptive manner as academic tasks are presented, it is likely they do not have the academic skills or mindset to be vulnerable and take that risk. Differentiating curriculum through scaffolding to address behavioral, social, and emotional needs as well as academics is pertinent to supporting diverse learners.

Positive Reinforcement

Swinson and Knight (2007), noticed that there was a body of evidence that linked teacher verbal feedback to pupil behavior, so they created a study observing a secondary school in a northern English city to determine the quality and quantity of teacher verbal feedback directed towards the class as a whole and to the designated pupils as on-task

behavior was being monitored. Twenty-four students were identified by tutors as having challenging behavior and became the focus group of the study while the rest of their classmates were considered the control group (Swinson & Knight, 2007). Observations were conducted with 10 second intervals and judged as on-task or off-task within twenty 8th grade classes over the course of one week and covered a variety of curriculum subjects and there was an average of 1-4 focus students in each class observed (Swinson & Knight, 2007). A record was kept of teacher feedback in terms of it being positive or negative, if it was directed towards an individual or the whole class, and if it was in regard to academic or social behavior. Observers were trained alongside an educational psychologist until the inter-observer agreement reached over 90% (Swinson & Knight, 2007).

Results from this study showed that proportions of off-task behavior from the focus and control group were very similar with the exception of “shouting out”, which occurred three times more in the focus group (Swinson & Knight, 2007). During structured lessons the focus group labeled as difficult or disruptive had an average or high on task rate. When lessons were not structured or there was more unstructured time, students from the focus group engaged in lower on-task behavior similar to the rest of the class (Swinson & Knight, 2007). Proportions of teacher feedback indicated that they provided a high amount of positive feedback to the focus group in regard to academics but a significantly high amount of negative feedback in regard to their social behavior and almost no positive feedback about their positive behavior (Swinson &

Knight, 2007). Correlations between positive or negative feedback and on or off-task behavior were not strong or significant but there was a stronger influence that individual praise had on students exhibiting negative social behaviors and their ability to focus on making positive choices. Whole group feedback did not appear to have an impact on individual behavior from the focus group. Future studies should continue to focus on types of feedback and additional reactions of students to positive or negative feedback. We saw a positive correlation between individual behavior specific praise and on-task behavior. When students are seen as having a negative reputation, they are often apt to receive more attention or negative feedback more often so the challenge is to support teachers having an open mind when students come to them with labels.

Providing feedback and explicit timing of instruction supports student need for structure. Haydon and Kroeger (2015) research how active supervision, precorrection, and explicit timing decrease student problem behavior, reduce transition time, and support interventions in the high school setting. Positive classroom management practices with an emphasis on positive reinforcement have been found to have a positive impact on behavior while teacher reprimands increase disruptive behavior (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015). Active supervision is defined as scanning the environment to look for both appropriate and inappropriate behavior, engaging with all students, providing frequent positive comments, arriving at the classroom on time, and physically escorting students throughout the entire transition while pre-correcting is described as prompting to move effectively from one activity or place to another (Haydon & Kroeger,

2015). Explicit timing is used as a measure of how instructional time should be used as procedures both taught and practiced to the class (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015).

Research was conducted at an urban high school in the Midwestern United States with three teachers participating in the study. Two of the teachers co-taught History and English while the third teacher was student teaching. This took place in a 200-minute block period and each subject had 60 students in one large room (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015). The primary dependent variable for this study was frequency of problem behavior and the secondary dependent variable was transition time within the class which was measured by duration recording (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015). Data collection began at the beginning of the class period and there were two data collectors seated in the side of the classroom to have an unobstructed view of the classroom (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015). Daily data reviews were conducted via visual graphs and notes about frequency of problem behaviors and amount of transition time to teachers by email, teachers had the opportunity to respond in person the following day if desired (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015). A third observer was used for 15% of observations to observe the observers to determine interobserver integrity (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015).

During the baseline stage of the procedure, teachers were reprimanding or having reactive responses to students until the intervention phase when the lead teacher carried out active supervision while the co-teacher and student teacher carried out precorrection procedure, all providing students with positive feedback throughout the class period (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015). At this time visuals were hung with

expectations and explicit teaching was used to indicate how much time was dedicated to each activity during class. Data during the baseline and withdrawal of intervention phases show an immediate change in frequency of problem behavior while implementation of the interventions concluded that there were more positive behaviors, transition time was reduced, and clear expectations along with common routines set up students for success (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015). The results of this study indicated that general education teachers with a small amount of training and time can reduce problem behavior and transition time by implementing an intervention package of active supervision, precorrection, and explicit timing (Haydon & Kroeger, 2015). This study did not show specific student data or academic impact but focused on observational data of teachers providing interventions to increase on-task behavior.

Scheaffer et al. (2021) investigated if gender of students with or at-risk of Emotional Behavior Disorders affects teacher ratings. Students who were evaluated as having Emotional Behavior Disorders or at-risk of it are prone to behavioral, academic, and social risk factors while displaying behavior that prevented them from learning and forming appropriate relationships (Scheaffer et al., 2021). Patterns in special education referrals reflected evidence of varying teacher perception of gender as males are referred more often than females despite similar rates of teacher rated behavior and academic deficits (Scheaffer et al., 2021). This study explored the differences between male and female students exhibiting persistent classroom problem behaviors through direct observations of behavior and academic ability.

Data was collected from elementary schools in Tennessee, Minnesota, and Virginia over a 2 year period with two cohorts of students with or at-risk of Emotional Behavior Disorder once they received approval from the review board, school districts, and consent forms were returned (Scheaffer et al., 2021). Of the 352 students participating, if they did not have an Emotional Behavior Disorder they qualified to participate if they were reported to have five or more critical events or one critical event and an adaptive behavior score of at least 30 and maladaptive behavior score of at least 35 (Scheaffer et al., 2021). Rating for student behavior was done with the Social Skills Rating System to evaluate social and behavioral characteristics from the perspective of multiple raters at all school levels (Scheaffer et al., 2021). Teachers were asked to fill out the Teacher's Report Form Internalizing Scale to evaluate internalizing behaviors demonstrated by students while direct observations were conducted by research assistants in English language arts or math instruction during a two-week period focusing on negative talk, disengagement, and aggression (Scheaffer et al., 2021). Scheaffer et al. (2011) found that there were statistically significant, moderate correlations between negative talk, aggression, and disengagement while teacher ratings of student social skills, academic skills, internalizing behavior, and problem behaviors were only moderately correlated. Disengagement was positively correlated with problem behaviors and negatively correlated switch academics and social skills while teacher rating of academic skills and reading achievement were positively correlated (Scheaffer et al., 2021).

Analyzing how gender played into the results, teachers gave higher average ratings in problem behavior and low academic skills to females compared to males while male and female students were rated similarly in regard to internalizing behavior (Scheaffer et al., 2021). Overall, even though females had slightly lower rates of negative talk, aggression, and disengagement than males none of the scores were significant. Scheaffer et al. (2021) considered teacher bias due to gender norms of what male versus female problem behavior should look like despite similar classroom behavior. Overall, the results from the study indicated that student gender may affect how teachers perceive students with problem behaviors and there are potential implications related to teacher behavior (Scheaffer et al., 2021). Positive behavior was not a focus of this study but should be considered in future research as well as exploring the association between teacher perception and teacher behavior.

Effective instruction has a large impact on students feeling safe enough to be vulnerable in the school environment. Students with exceptionalities, such as emotional and behavioral disorders or learning disabilities, typically struggle with academics as they transition into more time in the general education setting. Scott, Hirn, and Alter (2014), researched the impact of teacher instruction as a predictor for student engagement and disruptive behavior in the United States. Failure to be academically successful in school was more likely among students with emotional and behavioral disorders and learning disabilities when there is an absence of effective teacher intervention practices (Scott et al., 2014). Simply providing opportunities for students to

learn was insufficient when consistency and relationships must be built through multi-tiered systems of support. Scott, Hirn, and Alter (2014), had a total of 1,197 direct observations in their study within two elementary schools and two middle/high schools within the United States. Reliability of observers came from multiple trainings and consistent definitions of what behavior and instruction they were tracking. Interobserver data was recorded for 14% of observations (169 of 1,197 observations). Observers measured teaching, engagement, and disruption.

The results of the data analysis showed that out of the 1,197 observations, the average time spent actively teaching (working with students or moving around the classroom) was 59% while student engagement, defined as expected behaviors, was at 85%, while student disruption occurred .07 times per minute. Disruptive behavior was based on one random student per observation. The student was determined by a formula and where they sat in the classroom (Scott et al., 2014). The differences in the data indicate a strong correlation between the increase in engagement and decrease in disruptive behavior. Although the limitations state that there may be specific behavior that have not been identified as part of the definition for the study, the large number of observations indicate that the results are accurate when it comes to the increase in teacher instruction having a positive impact on student engagement. This study supports the question of how to meet the needs of students who have behaviors that interfere with their academic and social success in a variety of ways. Whether it is large or small group instruction, when teachers explicitly teach what is expected behaviorally and

academically there is a significant positive correlation between student engagement and a decrease in disruptive behavior.

To determine the amount of engagement or disruptive behavior that is connected to learned helplessness in academic achievement situations, Reynolds and Miller (1989) conducted a three part study in Wisconsin to determine the most appropriate measurement of generalized learned helplessness in adolescents by analyzing development, reliability, and initial validation of the Mastery Orientation Inventory (MOI). In this series of studies, learned helplessness was viewed as an individual difference variable that is generalized beyond a single situation. Study one consisted of 112 students randomly picked from an urban-suburban high school. All 112 students completed a 50-item initial form of the Mastery Orientation Inventory to examine the behavioral and cognitive features including characteristics such as lack of effort and persistence, passivity, motivational deficits, and nonconstructive communication after failing (Reynolds & Miller, 1989). Those characteristics reflected either mastery oriented or learned helplessness functioning. The data from the Mastery Orientation Inventory showed that the lower the rating manifested higher depression scores. The highest correlation indicated that if students made a connection to putting forth effort, they would have more control of the outcome which resulted in a score closer to being mastery-oriented.

Study 2 of Reynolds and Miller (1989) was to determine the reliability of the Mastery Oriented Inventory when demographic variables such as age, grade point

average, and socioeconomic status were incorporated. Study 2 consisted of 645 students from the same high school as Study 1. The use of information from Study 1 was not used in this study. This group of participants completed the Mastery Oriented Inventory that was developed in Study 1 (Reynolds & Miller, 1989). Students were asked to circle what grade they usually receive in school as the first task of Study 2. All students completed the questionnaire during their English or History classes. Data from this study indicated that there was a significant difference in the Mastery Oriented Inventory scores showing that men scored lower, meaning that they were more helpless than women (Reynolds & Miller, 1989). There was an assumption made that there was a strong positive correlation between grade point average and results on Mastery Oriented Inventory that those students have the skills to persist when things are difficult while there was a very low, significant correlation between the MOI and socioeconomic status (Reynolds & Miller, 1989).

Study 3 was conducted with the same 112 students that participated in Study 1 12 weeks after their first time filling out the Mastery Oriented Inventory to determine if there is a change in their mindset. This study had an added component of a Global Helplessness Rating Scale completed by teachers to provide validation evidence from an external source (Reynolds & Miller, 1989). Teachers were directed to put an “X” on a line, which Reynolds and Miller (1989) called the continuum of behavior, that specified which degree each student manifested behavior in the classroom, 0 being learned helplessness and 100 being mastery-oriented. The results of Study 3 found that there were

nonsignificant differences between men and women and that there was only a 1 point mean on the Mastery Oriented Inventory completed by the students; the low nonsignificant correlation suggests that teachers perceive students' helplessness in academic situations and depressive behaviors differently (Reynolds & Miller, 1989).

The results of this study had a clear correlation between grade point average, related constructs of depression, and learned helplessness which add to the evidence of validity of the Mastery Oriented Inventory to measure generalized learned helplessness (Reynolds & Miller, 1989). What Reynolds and Miller (1989) had created was a clear way to determine the first step of the cause of behavior for students whether it is learned helplessness or mastery-oriented. The perception that students have of themselves when they are experiencing heightened levels of depression or helplessness, whether it is in the form of "cognitive distortions as well as behavioral deficits,"(Reynold & Miller, 1989, p. 226), is the root of their performance in academic situations. To move forward from this cause of behavior, it is important that the skills to develop resilience are being built to prepare for achievement situations.

Implementing proactive interventions that are both academic and social-emotional for students can decrease the suspension rate and increase overall attendance and feeling of success in the school setting when students have an increased feeling of trust. Netzel and Eber (2003) analyzed the support of a positive behavior intervention system in Illinois to develop a school wide proactive discipline system with multiple levels of intervention to address needs of all students, including those with

significant behavioral challenges. Netzel and Eber (2003) analyzed the Waukegan School District in Illinois and the impact that implementing positive behavior intervention support had on the shift from reactive discipline to proactive discipline. Netzel and Eber (2003) analyzed the elementary school as the pilot school for their wraparound approach to support students at all levels. North Elementary School consisted of 600 students of which 96% held minority status and 68% were eligible for free and reduced lunch. Of all the 600 students there were 117 documented incidents of out-of-school suspension during the school year prior to implementing the positive behavior intervention system wraparound approach.

The district's goal was to demonstrate that the positive behavior intervention support implementation would be a philosophy that increases the probability of success by building system change to support behavior changes (Netzel & Eber, 2003). The team at North Elementary School participated in a 2-day initial positive behavior intervention supports training which would allow them to begin at a similar point for evaluating the impact of their interventions and created a pyramid of school-wide positive behavior support sectioned into the school-wide prevention, specialized group or at-risk, and the top tier of specialized individualized systems for students with high-risk behaviors (Netzel & Eber, 2003). The team that measured support and impact met every three weeks to review progress and focused on an intervention that they called "Gotchas" which were distributed to staff to positively recognize any students that were seen following the rules. Once a week there was a lottery from all of the names drawn and

the student and teacher who recognized them were positively recognized (Netzel & Eber, 2003). The “Gotcha” program was implemented for two years when data was being collected. To add to that, the action plan expanded, and the principal gave reminders over the intercom about the lessons and skills that were being taught, as well as staff being encouraged to routinely remind students of expected behavior (Netzel & Eber, 2003). This intervention team then implemented the “3 R’s”, respect ourselves, respect others, respect property, and worked to use positive phrasing rather than beginning statements with “don’t” and “no”.

Netzel and Eber (2003), stated that the philosophy began to shift when the school implemented alternatives to suspension and explicit expectations of behavior for each part of the school day which included a script for teaching for staff to support social emotional lessons. As a result of one year of teaching school-wide rules, working on classroom management, and recognizing and acknowledging appropriate behavior, North Elementary school experienced a 22% reduction in overall suspensions and a continuous decline in discipline referrals (Netzel & Eber, 2003). These results indicated that the majority of referrals happened between 2:00 and 2:59 pm which was discussed with staff at a building wide meeting that they needed to add more structure to the end of the day and increase reminders and reinforcers for positive behavior (Netzel & Eber, 2003). Due to data that showed the majority of office referrals were written during classroom time, there were a series of voluntary workshops for classroom management held by the district's behavior intervention coordinator. Workshop week for staff also

included responses for appropriate and inappropriate student behavior in the classroom and on the playground (Netzel & Eber, 2003). Netzel and Eber (2003), highlight the importance of building-level administrators buying in and following through, self-evaluation, a shared philosophy among staff, and the importance of long term motivational and financial support. What they highlighted were the key components to create relationships and mutual respect with students. Although acting proactively will take more time, allowing students to see the clear expectations throughout the school year and in all settings has had a very clear positive impact on their time in elementary school and will support their individual social and emotional development as resilience is created.

Relationship Building

Accepting academic or behavioral feedback from teachers is linked to on task behavior and an increase in positive relationships. Social relationships with students, parents, and teachers can act as positive reinforcement systems as they navigate interactions and academics at school. Pham, Murray, and Good (2018) researched the teacher-student and teacher-parent relationships among students with disabilities with the anticipation that in high school teacher-student relationships have the potential to influence teacher-parent relationships due to parental involvement declining and adolescents gaining more autonomy as they get older. Two male and 15 female special education teachers participated in this study along with 228 of their students with Individualized Education Plans. Teachers and students were recruited from 10 high

schools in seven districts from four different states in the United States (Pham et al., 2018). The research team received approval from the university and school district then from high school principals, special education teachers, parents, and students before sending out surveys to students and teachers (Pham et al., 2018).

Measures for this study were rating scales in the area of socioeconomic status, teacher-parent relationships, teacher-student relationships and the combination of grade point average, problem behaviors, and engagement (Pham et al., 2018). Data collected from the rating scales indicated that there were no significant group differences in teacher-student relationship in the areas of student disabilities, socioeconomic status, race/ethnicity, or grade level, but teacher-students relationship did have a significant impact and accounted for approximately 5% of the variance in teacher-parent relationships in the area of trust and communication (Pham et al., 2018). Teacher-parent relationships did not have a difference among race/ethnicity but did show that families of students with autism spectrum disorders received scores that showed higher positive relationships than families with students that have learning disabilities (Pham et al., 2018). There were higher ratings for teacher-parent relationships with families identified as mid to high socioeconomic status while families identified as low or unknown socioeconomic status were identified as having a less strong relationship with teachers (Pham et al., 2018). The findings from this study indicated that trust and communication between students and teachers was associated with the quality of teacher-parent relationships and that teachers rated their

relationships with families from mid-high socioeconomic status more positive relative to parents from lower socioeconomic status while a students' GPA, behavior, and engagement had a small contribution to relationships (Pham et al., 2018).

Future research should consider requesting parent surveys for an in-depth perspective of the teacher-parent relationship and if high quality teacher-student relationships can buffer the strain of family socioeconomic status on teacher-parent relationship (Pham et al., 2018). Pham et al. (2018) proposed the theory that positive teacher-parent relationships may contribute directly to student grades, behavior, and engagement because their student is likely more willing to follow directions, expectations, and have a strong connection to their school and home environment. The impact that teachers, parents, and students have has a direct impact on student achievement with or without disabilities which is important to be nurtured through feedback and emotional support.

"Supportive adult-child relationships can promote social, emotional, and academic adjustment among children and youth exposed to multiple risks," (Murray & Malmgren, 2005, p. 138). One positive relationship with a teacher for a student can make a world of difference and Murray and Malmgren designed a study to analyze the impact socially, emotionally, and school related that a teacher-student relationship program has in a high-poverty urban school. This study took place in Illinois within a high school that has a 17% rate of students graduating with their entering class (Murray & Malmgren, 2005). Eight teachers participated in this 5-month long study designed to

improve social, behavioral, emotional, and school-related functioning. Student participants in 9-12th grade were nominated by staff if they were enrolled in one of their classes and demonstrated significant emotional or behavioral problems, resulting in 48 student participants, 31% of which receive special education services (Murray & Malmgren, 2005). Fifty percent of those 48 students were assigned to either the treatment or control condition. Teachers completed measures of student adjustment at two time periods about each student, the Achenbach Child Behavior Checklist, classroom engagement, student absences and academic grades while students completed the Walker-McConnel Scale of Social Competence and school adjustment (Murray & Malmgren, 2005). All intervention teachers were excluded from grade point average ratings. This study used a randomized control group design and an intervention that had three components and developed with teachers including weekly meetings between teachers and students within their intervention group to discuss academic and personal goal sheets for students (Murray & Malmgren, 2005). The second component of the intervention was increasing teacher praise that is behavior specific during all interactions. The third component established ongoing communication and involvement within relationships between both teachers and students as well as teachers and parents because they focused on calling home two times per month and sending personalized updates of student progress (Murray & Malmgren, 2005).

All teacher interventions were documented and turned in to the evaluator at the end of the five months. The results of the data indicated that the social and school

competence assessment did not differ between the intervention and control group significantly but there was still an increased mean for the intervention group five points above the control group (Murray & Malmgren, 2005). There was a positive adjustment among youth in the area of emotional adjustment from the intervention group and the impact on grade point average was a significant increase for the intervention group compared to the control group (Murray & Malmgren, 2005). Although there were no statistically significant findings on the impact of student social and emotional adjustment, there was a positive effect for grade point averages which can be connected to the supportive teacher-student relationships formed during the weekly meetings (Murray & Malmgren, 2005). One of the biggest limitations was that this study took place over a short period of time. All interventionists did have a previous relationship with the researcher and stated in the review the teachers were used because of a lack of funding and previous relationship that had a higher chance of getting the necessary data returned in order to complete this study (Murray & Malmgren, 2005). Developing cooperative behavior and seeing a positive change in grade point averages and academics is the beginning of habits starting to form for students who likely did not know how to clearly communicate their needs or lack of skills to teachers for support.

The environment and support in a school can serve as a strong foundation of support and emotional regulation for students. As students transition to a different building there is a loss of social support from peers and teachers as they begin somewhere new, especially if they already struggle academically. Langenkamp (2010)

identified low achieving middle school students as high risk for being socially marginalized within school transitions and at-risk academically, which resulted in the focus of her study to investigate how academically vulnerable middle school students can be protected from low academic track placement and failing classes in the transition to high school. Langenkamp (2010), used data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health and the Adolescent Health and Academic Achievement study which is a school-based survey of adolescents in 7th-12th grade in Georgia. All samples were randomly drawn from a sample of 80 high schools and 52 middle schools that "fed" large proportions of students into the random high schools sampled (Langenkamp, 2010). If the students failed a course within their first year of high school it indicated a difficulty adjusting academically to the new school and creating relationships with teachers (Langenkamp, 2010). Social relationships were measured before the transition to high school which analyzed middle school teacher bonds being positively associated with academic achievement and popularity among classmates was defined as students with the highest rating and considered a "friend" by their peers (Langenkamp, 2010).

Potential disruptions to the data collection and investigation are families that move in or have attended a school for less than a year, but that data is less than 10% and is not considered in the final data (Langenkamp, 2010). The factors that had a greater impact on low-achieving students through the potential effects of social relationships and academic outcome with the potential to create resilience have shown that when there are a variety of middle schools that "feed" or are mixed into one high school there

is a higher potential for social opportunity by expanding their social network (Langenkamp, 2010). Langenkamp (2010) also found that there was no direct association between attending a high school with a mix of middle schools but that it was found to be consistent that students who have parents with higher levels of education are less likely to be placed in low math courses in the first year of high school. Predicting course failure had a unique association with having friends and developing relationships being seen as a protective factor for average or high achieving students compared to those who were labeled low achieving (Langenkamp, 2010). If low achieving students have a higher level of support at a mixed high school it could be due to the new opportunities and shift in reputation that follows from middle school (Langenkamp, 2010).

Overall, the role of middle school social relationships in the context of transitioning to a high school, indicates vulnerability while having the ability to bond with teachers. Students are more likely to use those skills to replicate that closeness and seek out a similar connection in a new school (Langenkamp, 2010). Low middle school achievement predicts both lower math course placement and course failure in high school while social relationships that are left behind have little impact on high school performance (Langenkamp, 2010). If further research is to be conducted it would be pertinent to the research to track a grade through their high school career to analyze the data of students who fail a course in 9th grade and how their resilience develops through the four years. Social opportunity shows to be a key component for students to increase their connections to both staff and peers. Students who fail at transition are

likely to be disengaged sooner and drop out. As new or returning students enter a school, the nature of school matters. It is important to look past the reputation of who they were or what they have done previously in order for them to feel that it is okay to be vulnerable and take risks to develop the resilience necessary to overcome obstacles that will be faced.

"Connectedness to school is a significant predictor of adolescent health and academic outcomes," (Waters, et al., 2010, p. 381). Waters, Cross, and Shaw (2010), aimed to identify the school ecological characteristics that predicted enhanced connectedness in secondary school from a sample of 5,159 8th-9th grade students in Australia. Waters, et al. (2010) describe a school's ecology as both the functional aspects and the interpersonal interactions. There were 39 schools randomly selected, and students were tracked from 8th grade to the end of 9th grade. All participants were given permission via parents and self-reported school, teacher, and family connectedness, as well as mental health and peer relationships were all measured at two points during the study (Waters et al., 2010). With appropriate levels of support there were opportunities for student autonomy and involvement in school to increase their competence and a greater sense of connectedness to school.

Limitations to this study are that Waters et al. (2010) reported that this the first study that they know of that is researching the interpersonal connections with school ecology. The sample of students were from schools in the Perth metropolitan area which did not include rural or other regional populations as well as schools utilizing different

consent procedures that could have potentially led to biased samples of more willing participants so less connected students may be underrepresented even though it is a large sample size (Waters et al., 2010). The “why” of students feeling connected needs to be investigated at a deeper level. Findings from this study suggest that connectedness is related to satisfaction of an individual's need to belong so if they are experiencing depressive or anxious symptoms, they are less likely to feel connected compared to students who engage in fewer problem behaviors and have above average academic achievement (Waters et al., 2010). As students completed questionnaires that measured their connectedness to teachers, family, mental health, transition to secondary school, academic achievement, classroom management climate, extra-curricular activities, and school ecological level data came back that if they rated higher in these areas at the individual student level, they had a significant level of connectedness to school (Waters et al., 2010). The same categories were measured associated with school and student level models and the student’s perception of peer support was no longer significant when considering the whole school. This research showed that there is a continued need for future research in school connectedness in the construct of schools by identifying the variables that influence individuals’ feelings of school connectedness and the social emotional components that impact that feeling (Waters et al., 2010). Without interventions to support students who are not involved in extracurricular activities or taking the first step to experience new opportunities, disengagement will increase and can lead to negative outcomes academically and behaviorally.

Behavior specific praise is part of affirmative classroom management to improve student behavior examined by Clair, Bahr, Quach, and LeDuc (2018) through a program called Positive Plus Program which is a multicomponent intervention that combines behavior specific praise with an interdependent group contingency and teacher feedback. Poorly managed classrooms create a sense of instability with the potential to create limited opportunities and significant disruptive or off-task behaviors. The sample size for this study is small including only four students, a general education teacher, and a school consultant participating in the study. The study took place in the midwest United States at a public urban elementary school. The four students were specifically chosen for this study based on their unique behavior. Clair et al. (2018) described the students as follows: Student 1 was 8 years old and had an intellectual disability. Student 2 was 8 years old, had one suspension when the study began and displayed noncompliance such as wandering around the classroom and not following directions. Student 3 was 8 years old, had five suspensions when the study began, is the only one of the four students who scored in the second quartile on the school reading assessment, and had a medical diagnosis of bipolar disorder and was suspected of having an educational disability along with compliance problems such as bullying, distracting others, not following directions. Student 4 is the only female from the sample size, 8 years old, was usually compliant but performed below basic on the reading inventory assessment (Clair et al., 2018).

The teacher being monitored was recommended by the principal as someone who would benefit from improved classroom management skills (Clair et al., 2018). Direct observation of the teacher was assessed in the areas of behavior specific praise, delivery of points, number of reprimands, and number of statements that contain a description of praise that will be given as soon as the student demonstrates the appropriate behavior (Clair et al., 2018). Researchers had observers complete observation days to create a baseline and establish a criterion of high reliability. As part of the Positive Plus Program teachers were to award points on the basis of summative performance regardless of the number of prompts, to the class as a whole even if an individual student received praise, and no points could be taken away once they were earned (Clair et al., 2018). There was a visual representation of the point total and if the class met or exceeded the point goal, they would earn a social reinforcement of an activity prize (Clair et al., 2018). Once students started meeting the point goal regularly there was a drop in compliance, so teachers increased the point goal to regain and maintain student behavior (Clair et al., 2018). Instead of addressing noncompliance with negative phrasing the program encouraged students to engage in the expected behavior with a direct and positive statement that was repeated or rephrased until the child was compliant unless it was a skill deficit, which would result in the teacher demonstrating how to begin or modeling appropriate behavior (Clair et al., 2018).

Results of teacher reprimands decreased from an average of 3.78 per 60-minute observation at baseline to .5 during the program which indicated that the intervention

of behavior specific praise has a significant impact on positive behaviors. For student data results Student 1 displayed a downward trend in academic engaged behavior during baseline at 49.29% exhibiting behavior that is expected to a level of 78.5% when the interventions were being implemented (Clair et al., 2018). Student 4 increased from a level of academic engaged behavior from a level of 65.4% at the first baseline to 88.6% on task. The addition of a second baseline assessment indicated that stability and routine are an integral part of supporting students' engagement and behavior because all students dropped an average of 40% from their increased percentage when there was a return to baseline expectations before implementing interventions again (Clair et al., 2018). Student 2 and Student 3 both began at 44.6% and increased to 47.17% but during the second implementation there was an increase to 60.36% academic engagement (Clair et al., 2018). Across all four students in the area of off-task behavior, there was a decrease from 63.1% of the time being off task to 29.76% of the time (Clair et al., 2018).

Clair et al. (2018) found that there was a high level of intervention effectiveness for the four students in both the social and academic/on-task aspects of the program. Clair et al. (2018) noted that even though suspensions were not a measurement of this study, Student 3 who had had five suspensions prior to the Positive Plus Program had zero during the intervention period which indicated that Student 3 needed structure and consistency. With a sample size of four students and one teacher, it would be beneficial to expand the study with a larger sample size to analyze future impacts of the Positive

Plus Program as data showed student engagement increased, it did not include data on student achievement, student reactions, or gender (Clair et al., 2018).

In order to provide all students with the opportunity to develop trust and the skills to become a “help-seeker”, it is important to address community impact on youth development. Harden et al. (2015) conducted a nine-month study to determine the impact that empowerment, trauma informed, and restorative practices can have on youth to increase their resilience and positive impact on their community. In the southern part of Chicago, 44 youth were selected as participants based on their expressed concern about community violence and demonstration of leadership in the formal and informal setting (Harden et al., 2015). All participants were given a stipend as an incentive to participate in the program called Truth N’ Trauma. Fifty percent of participants were male, and fifty percent were female while all were between 9th and 12th grade. Each individual selected a focus area chosen from the following options: trauma-informed practice, video production, action research, or theatre (Harden et al., 2015). Throughout the nine-month implementation of the program participants joined small groups in their area of interest and in a large group for overall learning at the Chicago State University campus three days per week (Harden et al., 2015).

The Truth N’ Trauma project ran with a restorative framework training both staff and youth in the restorative practice theory, methods, how to plan, and facilitate circle keeping (Harden et al., 2015). The goal for the implementation of the restorative framework is to heal trauma and promote peace throughout the length of the project.

Within each of the four topic areas that participants chose, they were provided guidance in the development of skills and both staff and peers provided ongoing feedback on training effectiveness (Harden et al., 2015). All four groups completed an end project to present what they have learned and created. The trauma-informed practice group focused on learning about their own culture and identity to address the trauma in their community with the goal of healing. Their final product was a trauma-informed presentation to offer to peers and communities based on their own experiences while the media production group after being taught the basics of film and editing created a documentary with interviews from young people who have experienced or witnessed police brutality in Chicago combined with footage from teens who have been brutalized or arrested by Israeli police (Harden et al., 2015). The video production cohort wrote, directed, taped, and edited a public service announcement that modeled the approaches to violence prevention that they had learned in their trauma-training (Harden et al., 2015). The theatre component taught the basics of theatre with the challenge of embodying complex ideas, emotions, and concepts into physical storytelling that would be used for healing. The theatre groups processing was done by compiling their journals from the process and creating a piece about it while the action research group studied the social problems that impact their lives and worked to create solutions and engage other youth in their goal of learning ethical principles and behavior that conducive to it (Harden et al., 2015).

Results of the Truth N' Trauma study captured evidence of change in the participants through both a survey given at the beginning and end of the study, as well as a qualitative research component administered to 32 participants and 18 staff (Harden et al., 2015). Significant positive changes were reported representing empowerment, increased involvement in school, active involvement in their communities, the ability to handle problems well and work hard while cooperating with others. The negative change was an increase in self-blame, difficulty recognizing the good things about themselves, and spending time with individuals that cause trouble was identified in three reports (Harden et al., 2015). The negative changes may be due to trauma experienced by the individuals within the nine months of the Truth N' Trauma project.

Qualitative data does not link directly to the program components but highlights that individuals had an understanding of trauma, how they could respond to it, and the power of community. Participants relayed that they wanted to overcome their trauma and support others which showed their ability to critically reflect on their experiences, a restorative practice perspective that was addressed in their initial training (Harden et al., 2015). Harden et al. (2015) noted that an implication for their research could have been that it was a small sample size and would recommend increasing a randomized experimental-control sample to monitor and expand on the implementation. A community through the Truth N' Trauma project has been created and nurtured which has allowed participants to become vulnerable over time and be heard. The power of

community where your voice is heard can change a life and allow for individuals to take the risk and as they learn about themselves, respond to their experiences, and support others.

Creating community in and out of school begins with the continuum of support for families exposed to adverse childhood experiences. Eismann, Brinkmann, Theuerling, and Shapiro (2019) studied the feasibility and acceptability of identifying childhood adversity and strengthening family protective factors by incorporating professional development and targeting interventions within childcare programs. Childhood adversity is strongly associated with poor health and young children are at the highest risk of adverse childhood experiences (Eismann et al., 2019). “The stress of adversities and living in an unsafe or unstable environment can lead to the release and dysregulation of stress hormones which can change the way that the body and brain function which can alter a child’s capacity to learn, reason, develop healthy attachments, navigate social relationships, and remain healthy,” (Eismann et al., 2019, p. 451). As young children express their reactions to experiences and needs in a variety of ways, childcare providers are a constant in both the life of the child and parents. Ten licensed childcare programs in Ohio were part of the Strengthening Families Southwest Ohio program. This was a collaboration of ten social service agencies that worked to incorporate specialized training, coaching in order to promote social and emotional development of children as well as the capacity of all adults that care for them (Eismann et al., 2019). 159 caregivers participated and all families were given a Family Wellness Survey and Protective Factors

Survey. The Family Wellness Survey has two parts that assess the Adverse Childhood Experiences that caregivers have experienced during their childhood and the risk factors for current adversity in the children's environment (Eismann et al., 2019). If caregivers scored a 3 or higher out of 10 on the Adverse Childhood Experiences survey they were invited to participate in a meeting with the childcare provider. All families were given the Protective Factor survey which consisted of 20 items and assessed for protective factors against child maltreatment. Average scores were calculated and if 33% or more questions were not answered the data would be disregarded (Eismann et al., 2019).

After the surveys were completed, a structured interview was completed between each childcare program director and an unaffiliated interviewer to collect data on how they thought the caregivers responded to the information. Caregivers that gave the interviews participated in a training to discuss the impact of adversity on the developing brain of children and a motivational interviewing technique to ensure collaboration, empathy, safety, and resiliency were incorporated (Eismann et al., 2019). The conversation was intended to build on the caregivers' strengths and help staff have a better understanding of the family while providing whole person care. Interventions were discussed and all families were offered informational resources when desired then were followed up with 2 to 4 weeks later to see if the resources were helpful (Eismann et al., 2019).

"Parent Cafe's," were led by a trained parent facilitator to discuss topics such as resilience, self-care, parenting approaches, and strengthening parent-child relationships

while parenting workshops were led by a trained educator that worked to support highly stressed parents with children 0-8 years of age with the goal of better managing stress, anger, and approaches to discipline (Eismann et al., 2019). Results of the study indicated that caregivers with an Adverse Childhood Experiences score more than 3 were 1.46 times more likely to have more experiences of risk factors and less social support and fewer high protective factors. There were 97 caregivers who met criteria to participate in an interview and 75 attended as well as 9 who did not meet criteria but chose to participate for a total of 84 caregivers that received support and targeted intervention (Eismann et al., 2019). 94 of the total 159 caregivers completed the Protective Factors Survey again at the end of the project and showed significant improvement in family resilience and their total number of high protective factors over the academic year (Eismann et al., 2019).

Interviews were performed at 9 of the 10 participating cites which helped build and strengthen relationships, foster empathy and understanding, and allowed for parents to communicate their needs in a safe space. The results found by Eismann et al. (2019) were found to be both feasible and acceptable to childcare providers. The more prominent note that the researcher made was that it could have been more effective to focus on developing rapport with newer parents before conducting the interviews to increase the validity of their surveys (Eismann et al., 2019). The method of voluntary services for all families and intervention meetings is a strong first step of intervention to address and adapt to the current needs of families. By supporting families, as well as the

child, a safe, stable, and nurturing environment can be encouraged to support child development.

Providing social support for parents to coach them during times of stress can directly impact the emotional regulation of adolescents. Emery, Heath, and Rogers (2017) conducted a study that investigated how parental autonomy support influences non-suicidal self-injury directly and indirectly through emotional regulation. Participants were recruited from 15 high schools in Canada. The study began with 730 individuals but was reduced to 639 with a mean age of 13.38 years old and 53% female, due to 91 participants completing invalid questionnaires (Emery et al., 2017). 116 participants indicated they had hurt themselves on purpose without the intent to die and were classified as the non-suicidal self-injury group, while the 523 participants without a history of self-injury were classified in the non-suicidal self-injury group (Emery et al., 2017). Three questionnaires were conducted including the How I Deal with Stress Questionnaire, Perceptions of Parents Scale, and Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale to measure types of coping strategies and the extent that children believe parents are involved in their lives and support their choices (Emery et al., 2017).

The study was approved by an ethics board and all students were invited to participate in a three-year project examining stress and coping with the transition to high school (Emery et al., 2017). An incentive of different valued gift cards was offered at different stages to all who participated and one time to those who attended the initial meeting. All participants were given the option to withdraw from the study at any time.

Students completed the questionnaire at three points through 7th, 8th, and 9th grade. The data from this study came from 8th grade specifically. Emery et al. (2017) found that results supported their hypothesis revealing significant direct effects of parental autonomy support on non-suicidal self-injury and on difficulties in emotional regulation in all questionnaire data. The combination of multiple methods should be considered in the future in order to reduce reliance on self-reported data (Emery et al., 2017). Self-determination was found to be a protective factor against suicidal ideation (Emery et al., 2017). It was proposed by Emery et al. (2017) that a lack of parental autonomy support leads to difficulties in regulating emotions and leads to internalizing or externalizing problems as negative reinforcement when they are overwhelmed with emotions and do not have the skills to regulate in a way other than non-suicidal self-injury behavior. This data shows that recognizing an individual's emotions with empathy is necessary in order to work with parents. Providing tools for parents to adapt their parenting style to include more autonomy supporting techniques such as offering choices, providing a rationale when expectations are set and empathizing with their child (Emery et al., 2017). The stress that is created for both parents and children from the feeling of not having control has the potential to create tension, but through coaching and understanding of both the parent and child there are opportunities for growth and healthy skill development for everyone involved.

CHAPTER III: DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

Summary of Literature

Meeting the needs of students in the school setting presents a variety of obstacles not only for each individual, but their teachers and parents as well. Social, emotional, and behavioral needs have a direct impact on academics and relationships. Dileo et al. (2017) found that there was a significantly greater number of negative reactions and increased levels of cognitive dysfunction in children with documented maltreatment history creates a cognitive deficit resulting in individuals having an increased vulnerability to aggression. The ability to self-regulate or seek help when faced with adversity impacts academic achievement and emotional functioning in and out of school. Baars, Leopold, and Paas (2018) found a consistent correlation between the level a student is able to self-explain complex problems and self-regulate independently in the classroom. This leads to a direct correlation with the time that teachers spend actively teaching to support differing levels of understanding while increasing positive classroom behavior (Scott et al., 2014).

Rapport and relationship building serve as an intervention for students that fall within what Biolcati, Palareti, and Mameli (2018) refer to as a "service gap," created when those who need services do not receive it. If students are not receiving individualized support necessary to overcome social, emotional, behavioral, or academic obstacles, anxiety levels and learned helplessness may get in the way of continued independence. "Reading, both socially and emotionally, is one of the important skills that provide development for the individual," (Gencer & Demirgunes, 2019, p. 91).

Klassen (2010) found that early adolescents with learning disabilities reported low levels of self-regulatory efficacy associated with academic achievement and reading scores. The negative relationship between reading anxiety often turns into a feeling of failure or helplessness where there is a higher chance that the individual will fall into the at-risk category and will not have the rapport built with anyone in the school community to gain skills to be a help seeker (Biolcati et al., 2018; Scheaffer et al., 2020). Combining academic instruction with behavioral instruction can result in significant improvement in performance academically and a significant decrease in office referrals by providing a whole student approach to learning (Algozzine et al., 2012; Netzel & Eber, 2003).

The amount of engagement or disruptive behavior that is connected with learned helplessness has a significant correlation with the perception that students have of themselves when they are experiencing heightened levels of depression or helplessness (Reynold & Miller, 1989). Self-concept or perception that students have of themselves are a crucial component in whether a student is mastery-oriented or helpless (Sia & Kaur, 2015). Sia and Kaur (2015) identified that behavioral areas impact learning, school failure, depression, aggressive behavior, peer difficulties, and substance abuse creating a high level of helplessness and need for intervention. Implementing social-emotional learning in the classroom to support self-compassion can weaken the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and depression (Ferrari et al., 2018). The perception that a student has of teacher support and their experience of positive feedback impacts individual learning and continued development of learned

helplessness (Lincoln & Chazan, 1979). Connectedness to school is related to satisfaction of an individual's need to belong. Students who exhibit and experience the feelings of helplessness or anxiety in school often lower their expectations which results in lower performance and an increase in negative attitude that impacts self-esteem and life past secondary school (Raufelder et al., 2018; Waters et al., 2010).

Students with learning difficulties or disabilities often are unsure of their feelings towards academics or do not have a mastery-oriented mindset to overcome difficulties. When teachers know what to expect working with students it was found that they have a more positive experience supporting students who demonstrate learning difficulties or dyslexia by allowing students to share their opinions and building in scaffolding to instruction (Tsovili, 2004). Scaffolding the level of routine support in classrooms provides stability and consistency for students (Athanases & de Oliveira, 2014). Combining routine support with scaffolded questioning to support student independence and processing skills as they learn to develop a growth mindset. Video support for academic instruction paired with reading materials has been found to have a positive impact on learning and achievement through motivation for students that are independent learners and have a foundation of intrinsic motivation (Zheng et al., 2020). Language used through teacher-student interactions is a form of scaffolding used to bridge the gap between students that are independent, mastery-oriented learners and those that are experiencing learned helplessness. Gibbons (2003) noted that it is important to remember that students who appear fluent in English in contexts such as playing or

conversation still have difficulty understanding and using vocabulary associated with academic learning in school. By providing multimodal text such as pictures and newspaper articles, familiar language can be connected to new or technical terms to provide repetition for students to gain a deeper understanding of what they are learning and the time to process and make corrections (Gibbons, 2003).

Functional behavior assessments are used to create effective interventions to increase on-task behavior of those at risk socially, emotionally, or academically by using contingencies and promoting self-determination (Hawkins & Axelrod, 2008; Lane et al., 2012). Intervention strategies cannot be implemented or developed without having a deeper understanding into the relationships between violent and disruptive behavior including where it stems from (Rozalski et al., 2009). In order for at-risk students and those with disabilities to graduate, there is a need for interventions that support their mental, social, and emotional needs in order to reach academic goals (Schifter, 2011). Students that are unable to follow through with goals or create them often have a low motivational profile and believe that they do not have the ability to complete tasks asked of them (Núńez et al., 2011). Academic and behavioral feedback from teachers is linked to on task behavior and increased positive relationships. Structured lessons create a significant increase in on-task behavior for students labeled as, “difficult,” while active supervision and clear expectations teaches replacement behaviors that are desired in the classroom (Swinson & Knight, 2007; Haydon & Kroeger, 2015). Providing visuals when using behavior specific praise as an intervention to increase on-task and desired

behavior encourages students to engage in expected behavior with a significantly positive impact academically which correlates to influences socially, emotionally, and behaviorally (Clair et al., 2018).

Trust and communication between students and teachers was associated with the quality of teacher-parent relationships which can promote social, emotional, and academic adjustment among youth exposed to multiple risks (Pham et al., 2018; Murray & Malmgren, 2005; Langenkamp, 2010). Trauma and experiences that youth have can be processed and supported through programs that are consistent and work through their experiences while practicing appropriate coping skills (Harden et al., 2015). This has a direct impact on the community, school, and individual view of self-concept as they see positive progress being made. Creating community in and out of schools can be supported by providing families exposed to adverse childhood experiences with social support for parents to coach them in times of stress which directly impacts the emotional regulation of adolescents (Eismann et al., 2019; Emery et al., 2017). Communicating positive interactions and information to parents or guardians creates a positive association between school and home for families.

Limitations of the Research

Published literature that was peer reviewed and discussed development of behavior, proactive interventions, and how to support the development of self-regulation skills were reviewed in this literature review. This information was helpful in determining the cause of behavior, proactive interventions, and how relationships can

promote academic and social achievement. The literature used in this thesis was found through the search engines EBSCO, Academic Search Premier, and ERIC with publication dates from 1979 to 2020.

Searches were found by using the following key terms: “trauma informed practice”, “proactive intervention”, “self-regulation”, “academics”, and “restorative behavior secondary”. The majority of peer reviewed articles found within the term “restorative behavior secondary”, related to teacher-student and teacher-parent relationships with a focus on building rapport and community. Research was not limited to the United States due to a lack of desired information found in the areas of connecting social and emotional needs with academics or the connection that maltreatment has with executive functioning that serves as a main cause for behavior. 18 of the 33 peer reviewed articles were conducted in the United States while the other 15 are from countries such as Australia, India, Africa, and within Europe.

Implications for Future Research

Future research is needed in the area of implications of interventions both academically and social-emotionally over extended periods of time. Majority of research conducted is over a length of time ranging from one week to nine months. Baars, Leopold, and Paas (2018) noted that the ability to self-regulate and self-explain problems can only increase if future research increases in duration and teacher supported implementation for a higher impact overall for students in a variety of subject areas to increase their comprehension and confidence in content areas.

Examining the relationships between teacher-student, teacher-parent, and student-parent should be included in future research to find a more comprehensive understanding of how to build positive relationships among the three areas. Research was conducted by interviewing teachers and students but not parents. Gaining parent input and perspective is a significant factor in student achievement and self-concept. Bridging connections and deepening an understanding of the demographics that students are coming from supports relationship building and academic achievement.

Finally, along with teacher, student, and parent relationships being involved in future research the implications that those relationships have on social and academic progress is important to be monitored. Monitoring over a period of time up to a few years will allow for researchers to learn about the interventions at home and in school that can be used to support the student as a whole as they grow, overcome obstacles, and prepare for post-secondary endeavors.

Implications for Professional Application

Research conducted in this literature review highlights the importance of understanding the funds of knowledge that come with each student that we support. This is done successfully through teacher buy-in, proactive interventions through scaffolding, and allowing for students to process behavior or academic obstacles. Teacher buy-in is crucial for any school or classroom wide intervention to be successful. If teachers are not engaged wholly, students and colleagues pick up on it which creates an environment with less of a drive and desire to fulfill the expectations. Although it is

difficult and often more work for staff to implement multi-tiered interventions and proactive strategies for students the outcome has a lifelong impact by allowing students to have the opportunity to be vulnerable and take risks in a safe classroom environment.

Students that are labeled as “difficult” often have a stigma or reputation that follows them through the school daily and as they transition to different grades. Understanding the experiences that students have and the “why” of their behavior can be done through functional behavior assessments and collaboration with families. Often there are barriers socially, emotionally, academically, or through language that create undesired behavior in the classroom. When teachers take time to put interventions in place to support students who are struggling, their team will be able to get behind them to get rid of the stigma associated with a lack of self-concept by providing a sense of community and safety. Implementing interventions for social-emotional needs or proactive, positive feedback about behavior will increase positive relationships among teachers, students, and parents.

Ultimately, findings in this literature review indicate that putting the student first will allow for them to increase their self-concept and independence in and out of school. Starting with relationship building students will find value in their time spent at school and will be more likely to engage in school and their communities in a positive way. Putting students first will also allow for them to feel some autonomy by being heard and encourage them to ask for help, which will decrease negative feelings about school,

negative interaction with peers and staff, and increase overall academic performance, which results in a decrease of students feeling that their only option is to drop out.

Conclusion

Proactive interventions support students with social, emotional, behavioral, and academic needs by putting the student first. To support youth with at-risk behaviors and disabilities, clear expectations need to be set with the addition of relationship building in the school setting. Expectations will allow for students to have something consistent to look back at when faced with an obstacle and building rapport with a teacher will create a sense of safety and belonging. By implementing proactive interventions, students will experience an increase in self-regulation skills and independence while decreasing reactive behavior and supporting social-emotional growth.

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