

TEACHING STUDENTS WITH EMOTIONAL AND BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS SELF-
REPORTED PRACTICES: WHAT IS WORKING AND WHAT ARE THE NEEDS?

by

Kristin Robertson

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As members of the Dissertation Committee, we certify that we have read the dissertation prepared by *Kristin Robertson*, Teaching Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders Self-Reported Practices: What is Working and What are the Needs? and recommend that it be accepted as fulfilling the dissertation requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Carl J Liaupsin

Dr. Carl Liaupsin

Date: Apr 27, 2022

Rebecca Aone Hartzell

Dr. Rebecca Hartzell

Date: Apr 26, 2022

Taucia Gonzalez

Dr. Taucia Gonzalez

Date: Apr 27, 2022

Final approval and acceptance of this dissertation is contingent upon the candidate's submission of the final copies of the dissertation to the Graduate College.

I hereby certify that I have read this dissertation prepared under my direction and recommend that it be accepted as fulfilling the dissertation requirement.

Carl J Liaupsin

Dr. Carl Liaupsin

Dissertation Committee Chair
Disability and Psychoeducational Studies

Date: Apr 27, 2022



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ABSTRACT

Students with emotional and behavioral disorders (EBD) exhibit a wide variety of difficult behavior, and the responsibility of educating them is equally difficult. Students with EBD face historically bleak outcomes. Additionally, EBD teachers have had a continual nationwide shortage. They have the highest turnover rate and have more teachers on emergency certification than any other teaching group. Multiple literature analyses have concluded that evidence-based practices are widely absent in EBD classrooms, and student outcomes have had dismal improvements (Bradley et al., 2008; Gage et al., 2010; Harrison et al., 2019; Simpson et al., 2011). However, most of this research has focused on either specific intervention strategies or meta-analysis of previous literature (Bradley et al., 2008; Conroy, 2016; Conroy et al., 2008; Freeman et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2019; Lloyd et al., 2019; Wagner et al., 2006) and have not focused on what teachers report happening in EBD classrooms. This mixed-method exploratory study examined the resources teachers reported using to support their students, the prevalence of evidence-based practices, and whether there is a correlation between access to evidence-based resources and teachers' intent to continue teaching and confidence in their ability. This study explores some of the current instructional practices, barriers, and needs occurring in classrooms supporting EBD students in Arizona. Implications and recommendations for future research are included.

Keywords: emotional and behavioral disorders, teacher preparation, burnout, evidence-based practices

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Poor Outcomes for EBD Students

Students with emotional and behavioral disorders (EBD)¹ exhibit a wide variety of difficult behavior, and the responsibility of educating them is equally difficult. As a result of their disability, students with EBD engage in challenging behaviors in school that can impede their learning and the learning of others, including hyperactivity, aggression, self-injurious behavior, noncompliance, disruptive classroom behavior, and destructive behavior (Lewis et al., 2019). There is extensive literature documenting the bleak school and post-school outcomes for students with EBD. Long-term data show that students with EBD perform one to two grades lower than students without disabilities (Freeman et al., 2019). Poor academic achievement often leads to inappropriate placements for students with EBD in more restrictive special education environments (e.g., self-contained classrooms, remedial programs, and limited access to highly qualified teachers), which affects motivation, and ultimately graduation rates (Bradley et al., 2008). Students with EBD are twice as likely to be placed in alternative educational settings for offenses involving drugs, weapons, or serious bodily injury than students with other disabilities (Freeman et al., 2019). Data from the Office of Special Education (OSEP) indicated that 32% of students with EBD dropped out of high school, only 60% graduated with a regular high school diploma, and only 6% received an alternate certificate for the 2018-2019 school year (OSEP, 2020). In addition, post-school outcomes suggest that students with EBD struggle with

¹ The Individual's with Disabilities Education Act (2004) defines an Emotional and Behavior Disorder as a condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree, which adversely affects a child's educational performance: (1) An inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory or health factors; (2) An inability to build or maintain satisfactory relationships with peers and teachers; (3) Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances; (4) A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; or (5) A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal and school problem

interpersonal relationships, unemployment, incarceration, mental health problems, and lower full-time employment rates (Simpson et al., 2011).

The Situation of EBD Teachers

Classroom Difficulties

Teachers of students with EBD face a daily continuum of behaviors ranging in severity from low-intensity behaviors, such as disrespect and noncompliance, to high-intensity behaviors, including elopement and aggression (e.g., physical harm and property destruction; Lewis, 2016). Not only do students with EBD face poor short- and long-term outcomes, but it is not surprising that EBD teachers face burnout at an alarming rate, which in turn negatively impacts teachers' health (i.e., depression, physical symptoms, and wellness) and student outcomes (i.e., social and emotional struggles, and academic performance; Brunsting et al., 2014). Gilmour and Wehby (2020) reported that the percentage of students with EBD was strongly associated with turnover across teacher certification categories (dual certification, emergency certification, alternate certification, and special education certification). Additionally, a one percentage point increase in the probability of teacher turnover was associated with each additional student with EBD in their classroom.

Available Resources/Unknown Use

Previous research suggests that access to curriculum and time spent planning outside of the school day correlate with teacher burnout and attrition (Billingsley & Bettini, 2019; Brunsting et al., 2014; Gilmour & Wehby, 2020). Prior research on curriculum with EBD has examined teaching strategies, intervention methods, classroom settings, attrition, and teacher characteristics. Additionally, multiple literature reviews have concluded that evidence-based practices are widely missing in EBD classrooms, and student outcomes have had dismal

improvements (Bradley et al., 2008; Gage et al., 2010; Harrison et al., 2019; Simpson et al., 2011). However, most of this research has focused on either specific intervention strategies or meta-analysis of previous literature (Bradley et al., 2008; Conroy, 2016; Conroy et al., 2008; Freeman et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2019; Lloyd et al., 2019; Wagner et al., 2006) and not on what is actually occurring in EBD classrooms.

Poor Preparation

A continual nationwide shortage of teachers for students with EBD has compounded the problem of insufficient resources and training. The teacher shortages have resulted in many teachers being hired on emergency certification without specialized training in teaching students with emotional and behavioral deficits (Billingsley et al., 2006). Unsurprisingly, EBD teachers report feeling unprepared and lacking adequate resources to meet the intense demands of their students (Wagner et al., 2006), both of which are correlated with burnout and attrition (Bettini et al., 2020). EBD teachers have the highest attrition rate, and significantly higher percentages of EBD teachers are on emergency certification or alternate certification than any other teacher group (Bradley et al., 2008). Districts are often filling a revolving door of EBD teachers that have not been adequately trained.

Policy-Research-Practice Gap

Federal laws such as the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act (2002), the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA) (1997), the reauthorization of IDEA (2004), and the reauthorization of NCLB to Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) (2015) have been passed in attempts to protect the rights of individuals with disabilities in education. Collectively, they have fallen short in supporting the special education category for students with EBD by enacting too vague and insufficient mandates for administrators and teachers (Freeman et al., 2019). NCLB requires

educators to adopt evidence-based practices but does not provide guidance to help districts, schools, and teachers navigate the process of implementing evidence-based practices. As a result, there is a lack of cohesive instructional practices occurring in EBD classrooms nationwide (French, 2019). IDEA (2004) stipulates that when a student's behavior disrupts their learning or their classmates, schools have a responsibility to conduct a functional behavior assessment (FBA) and use positive behavior support (PBS). Although both PBS and FBAs are substantiated as evidence-based practices for students with EBD (What Works Clearing House, 2016), IDEA (2004) fails to stipulate systematic guidance. This is analogous to doctors prescribing medication without administration instructions, resulting in the medication being misused and thus ineffective.

Purpose Statement

To mitigate the intense needs and poor outcomes of students with EBD, qualified teachers need to be trained in evidence-based practices which help ameliorate problem behavior (Billingsley & Bettini, 2019; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). However, multiple researchers have suggested a general lack of evidence-based practices occurring in EBD classrooms (French, 2019; Gage et al., 2010; Harrison et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2004; Simpson et al., 2011). The conservation of resources theory posits that individuals are motivated to protect their current resources and acquire new resources, contributing to teachers' level of satisfaction and intent to stay in the profession (Bettini et al., 2020). Essential resources for teachers include training, time, administration support, team support, and curriculum. Access to resources allows teachers to navigate their workload, problem-solve effectively, and acquire new skills (Gilmour & Wehby, 2020). Collectively, leaders in the field have highlighted the lack of national guidelines and curriculum standards being a significant weakness to guide resources for EBD teachers

(Mitchell et al., 2019). Evidence suggests teachers do not feel adequately equipped with resources to teach their students. However, research has not explored how teachers of students with EBD obtain curriculum and training specific to their needs. Better training, access to resources, and improved student behavior would be expected to improve teachers' feelings of adequacy and intent to continue teaching. However, it is unknown if access to evidence-based curricular resources and training correlates with teachers' feelings of efficacy and their plan to continue teaching.

This exploratory mixed-method study aimed to examine the curricular and training needs of teaching students with EBD from the perspective of special education teachers. First, quantitative data was collected through teacher surveys on certification, training, EBD curriculum choices, teaching methods, time spent planning outside of the school day, job satisfaction, and competency. Next, a smaller sample of qualitative data was collected by interviewing teachers to further understand their access to teaching resources, barriers to accessing resources, and identifying additional needs. The conservation of resources theory was used to develop survey questions related to teachers' access to resources and their ability to acquire new resources, contributing to feelings of adequacy and satisfaction (Bettini et al., 2020).

Research Questions

1. What resources (curriculum, practices, materials) do teachers of students with EBD report using to support their students?
2. What are teachers' self-reported use of evidence-based resources (curriculum, practices, and materials)?
3. What facilitators and barriers to using evidence-based resources do teachers report?

4. Is there a correlation between teacher-reported access to resources and training and teachers' self-reported feelings of efficacy and intent to continue teaching?

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Previous research on teaching students with EBD has examined strategies, intervention methods, classroom settings, attrition, and teacher characteristics. Additionally, multiple literature analyses have concluded that evidence-based practices are widely missing in EBD classrooms, and student outcomes have had dismal improvements (Bradley et al., 2008; Gage et al., 2010; Harrison et al., 2019; Simpson et al., 2011). However, most of this research has focused on either specific intervention strategies or meta-analysis of previous literature (Bradley et al., 2008; Conroy, 2016; Conroy et al., 2008; Freeman et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2019; Lloyd et al., 2019; Wagner et al., 2006) and have not focused on what is actually occurring in EBD classrooms. Previous research suggests that access to curriculum and time spent planning outside of the school day are correlated with teacher burnout and attrition (Billingsley & Bettini, 2019; Brunsting et al., 2014; Gilmour & Wehby, 2020). However, research has not demonstrated how teachers obtain curriculum and their perspective barriers and needs.

This literature review will first summarize deficits in federal mandates for supporting teachers and their students with EBD. Next, the insufficient teacher preparation programs and professional development opportunities for teachers of students with EBD. Then, the research-to-practice gap that affects EBD classrooms will be demonstrated. Lastly, I will summarize previous research on teacher curriculum choices. The findings will illuminate the role of teacher preparation, curricular resources, teacher professional development, and the importance of teacher expertise in designing interventions strategies to improve the research-to-practice gap and improve student outcomes.

Selection of Research Articles

An internet search of five databases, Academic Search Ultimate, Google Scholar, PsychINFO, What Works Clearing House, and ERIC, was conducted, looking for literature including students with EBD and interventions. Search words included: emotional and behavior disorders, emotional disturbance, IDEA 2004, ESSA, IDEA 1997, NCLB, EBD curriculum, special education attrition, EBD attrition, special education burnout, collection of resources theory, research-practice partnerships, social skills instruction, positive behavior support, PBIS, functional behavior assessments, and functional behavior intervention plans. Pieces selected for this literature review included book chapters, reports, and articles published in academic journals between 1960 and 2022.

Federal Mandates in K-12 Education

General Mandates

Most states have adopted a Common Core Curriculum, which guides standardized instruction for general education classrooms (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2020). Federal laws such as the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act (2002), the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA) (1997), the reauthorization of IDEA (2004), and the reauthorization of NCLB to Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) (2015) have been passed in attempts to protect the rights of individuals with disabilities in education. Collectively, they have fallen short in supporting the special education category for students with EBD by enacting too vague and insufficient mandates for administrators and teachers (Freeman et al., 2019). For example, IDEA (2004) mandates guidelines for educating students in special education such that schools provide individualized instruction to meet each child's related disability. Without a specific framework guiding instructional practices for the EBD curriculum, school districts and teachers are left with

the burden of determining what individualized instruction entails. As a result, there is a lack of cohesive instructional practice occurring in EBD classrooms nationwide (French, 2019).

Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports

Additionally, IDEA (2004) designates that when a student's behavior in special education disrupts others and or themselves, schools are responsible for using positive behavior support (PBS). PBS comes from applied behavior analysis, which teaches and reinforces social skills to increase student success in academics, socially, at home, and in the community (Carr et al., 2002). Research on schoolwide PBS has shown significant evidence in reducing exclusionary discipline, improving academics, and promoting prosocial behavior (Lee & Gage, 2020; Lewis et al., 2017). As a result, implementing PBS strategies in EBD classrooms could improve EBD students' poor outcomes (high rates of suspension, poor academics, low graduation rates). PBS is a comprehensive framework, but it requires highly specialized training (Dunlap & Fox, 2011) and is most effective when it is part of the school's philosophy. Another limitation is that ESSA (2015) and IDEA (2004) mandate the use of PBS, but federal and state laws have yet to include the PBS framework as a standard. As a result, there is no universal adoption of PBS in schools in the United States, indicating a clear gap between policy, research, and practice.

Functional Behavior Assessments

A functional behavior assessment (FBA) is also stipulated in IDEA (2004) when a student's behavior disrupts themselves or their classmates. FBAs are widely recognized as an evidence-based intervention for students with EBD (Gable et al., 2014; Umbreit et al., 2007; What Works Clearinghouse, 2016). An FBA is an assessment tool that is instrumental in identifying skill deficits, which should then guide behavior goals and intervention strategies for each student's individualized education plan (Freeman et al., 2019; Lewis, 2016). In addition,

conducting an FBA and developing a function-based behavior intervention plan can be instrumental in supporting students at-risk for EBD and teaching skill deficits which in turn could lead to exiting students from special education (Gable et al., 2014). Unfortunately, conducting an FBA requires specialized in-service training in the three contingency models of behavior: antecedent, behavior, and consequence (Umbreit et al., 2007), which is either widely unavailable or limited for teachers (Dunlap and Fox, 2011; Gable et al., 2014). As a result, FBAs are not conducted appropriately, which affects their accuracy and the validity of resulting intervention strategies.

In spite of the compelling evidence of their effectiveness, FBAs (What Works Clearinghouse, 2016) are often not used in schools or not implemented as intended (i.e., with a low level of fidelity of intervention procedures, leaving out key elements, reinforcing the target behavior; Liaupsin, 2015; Umbreit & Ferro, 2015). Additionally, data from the Special Education Elementary Longitudinal Study (SEELS) and the National Longitudinal Transition Study-2 (NLTS2)² indicated that only half of EBD students had a function-based behavioral support plan, despite this being an evidenced-based practice for ameliorating behavior problems in schools (Gable et al., 2014; Umbreit et al., 2007). Another limitation is that FBAs are only mandated after substantial disciplinary infractions have occurred (e.g., suspension) for students in special education (Bradley et al., 2008; Wagner et al., 2006; Yell, 2019). As a result, the benefits of conducting an FBA to guide instruction based on function-based data are generally not utilized until it is too late. The potential effects of delaying an FBA are expulsion, academic failure, change in placement, and harm to oneself or others. Furthermore, poor student outcomes

²The Special Education Longitudinal Study and the National Longitudinal Transition study are two major national datasets examining longitudinal experiences of teachers, administrators, paraprofessionals, and direct assessments.

are primarily associated with practitioners not knowing the evidence-based practices or having the resources to implement them effectively (Lloyd et al., 2019).

Evidence-based Practices

NCLB requires educators to adopt evidence-based practices but again does not provide guidance to help districts, schools, and teachers navigate implementing evidence-based practices. ESSA further stipulates the “use of local funds to effectively teach children with disabilities, which may include the use of multi-tiered systems of support and positive behavioral interventions and supports” without providing specific guidelines or a framework (ESSA, 2015, section 2103(a)(3)(f)). Even though both PBS and FBAs are substantiated as evidence-based practices for students with EBD, IDEA (2004) fails to stipulate systematic guidance.

EBD Teacher Preparation

One concerning deficit in resources for EBD teachers is a lack of adequate training and preparation to meet the unique needs of their students (i.e., classroom management, behavior regulation strategies, study skills, behavior management interventions; French, 2019). Oliver and Reschly (2010) evaluated syllabi from 26 midwestern university special education courses to measure the degree to which courses taught classroom management, organization, and behavior management. Their study found that only 27% of university special education programs had a course devoted to classroom management. Given the diverse needs of students with EBD, good classroom management and predictability must be present. Furthermore, teacher preparation programs focused on reactive behavior reduction strategies but severely lacked preventative strategies. As a result, teachers are not prepared to teach preventive strategies such as coping skills, problem-solving, and social skills. Students with EBD receive special education services due to their lack of age-appropriate behavior under normal circumstances. Without specialized

instruction that teaches appropriate replacement behaviors with reinforcement, inappropriate behaviors are likely to occur again. Teachers also reported that their training did not prepare them adequately for the daily difficulties of managing students with EBD. Feelings of inadequacy and unpreparedness are correlated with stress, burnout, and teacher attrition (Gilmour & Wehby, 2020).

Additionally, teachers who obtain teacher certification through traditional teaching preparation programs have lower rates of turnover than teachers who receive teacher certification through alternate or emergency certificates, which indicates the “resources teachers gain through preparation may improve their abilities to handle the demands of teaching and decrease the likelihood of teacher turnover” (Gilmour & Wehby, 2020, p.1049). Unfortunately, the number of teachers with emergency certification for EBD is significantly greater than in any other teaching area (Bradley et al., 2008). Billingsley and colleagues (2006) reported that EBD teachers are among the least qualified special educators, have the highest proportion of teachers without certification (e.g., only 44.52% are fully certified for their position), and had significantly fewer years of teaching experience than other special educators. Alternative certification and emergency certification programs lack resources (i.e., preparedness, skills in accommodating students with diverse needs, classroom management strategies, strategies in managing behavior) to meet the unique needs of students with EBD.

In addition, even fewer EBD teachers receive specialized in-service training regarding strategies for teaching students with EBD (e.g., from *The Study of Personnel Needs in Special Education 1999-2000*; Bradley et al., 2008). Special education teachers report that professional development opportunities rarely support their students (Cavendish et al., 2020). Furthermore, if professional development opportunities are available, they are primarily one-day workshops

without continued support (Maggin et al., 2010). However, research aimed at improving teaching strategies has shown higher rates of treatment fidelity when modeling, continual assessment, and feedback are part of the training process (McKenney et al., 2013). Professional development for EBD teachers is widely ineffective without modeling, assessment, and feedback. Yell (2019) called for a consensus among researchers and practitioners “to optimize training efforts, direct resources, and advance best practices in schools” (p. 378). Yet it is unknown if these conversations between researchers and practitioners are occurring.

Data from NLTS2 and SEELS studies indicate that EBD students are likely to receive accommodations but unlikely to receive additional academic support or behavioral interventions (Bradley et al., 2008). The most widely used accommodations are small group testing, extended time on tests, and checking for understanding (Kern et al., 2015). Nevertheless, these accommodations are widely mismatched to the emotional and behavioral needs that students with EBD have. Considering the lack of adequate preparation for teachers of EBD students, having behavior-matched accommodations is essential in supporting students in the classroom.

Research-to-Practice Gap

Researchers have long called for more rigorous guidelines to serve EBD students. Morse et al. (1964) sought to identify best practices for improving student outcomes occurring in EBD programs to improve student outcomes. The authors evaluated a spectrum of programs, theories, curricula, and punishment strategies in EBD classrooms. Morse and colleagues called for additional focus in defining the following four areas: (a) philosophy and goals, (b) service delivery models, (c) teacher roles and training procedures, and (d) entrance and exit criteria. Based on the authors' recommendations, more rigorous guidelines are needed for programs that serve students with EBD (Gage et al., 2010).

More than 20 years later, Grosenick et al. (1987) conducted a comprehensive study profiling EBD school programs. They posited that teachers are the “heart” of EBD programs. The authors found that EBD teachers in most schools were responsible for creating curriculum, establishing goals, and designing interventions on top of their other responsibilities. In addition, districts lacked formal program evaluations to help guide and sustain quality programming. The authors concluded that the frameworks set by Morse and colleagues were inherently absent twenty years later. Most concerning was that half of the districts did not have procedures to determine when a student could be exited from special education. Essential resources were also predominately missing in schools, especially curriculum and program evaluation procedures.

In 1990, 12 leaders in EBD education came together to set universal recommendations and best practices known as the Peacock Hill Working Group (PHWG). PHWG urged for better teacher preparation and professional development opportunities to ensure high-quality instruction for students with EBD (Maggin et al., 2010). PHWG recommended the following seven critical features in services for students with EBD: (a) systematic, data-based interventions, (b) continuous assessment and monitoring of progress, (c) provisions for the practice of new skills, (d) treatment matched to the problem, (e) multicomponent treatment, (f) programming for transfer and maintenance, and (e) commitment to sustained interventions.

PHWG was the first to systematically review evidence-based literature and apply critical practices scientifically, but the framework is too broad. It does not provide sufficient guidance for teachers and teacher preparation programs to implement each framework component. Given that it is widely known that EBD teachers feel unprepared to meet the unique needs of their students, the PHWG framework does little to provide or guide instruction. Unfortunately, 30

years after PHWG, teacher attrition and educational outcomes have not improved for students with EBD.

Simpson and colleagues (2011) revisited PHWG by analyzing the EBD literature published after 1991 and expanded the PHWG framework titled “Fundamental effective practice component for programs for students with emotional and behavioral disorders.” The authors identified that the key element in EBD programs is qualified and appropriately trained professionals. The authors identified six additional elements essential to teaching students with EBD: (a) environmental supports, (b) behavior management systems, (c) social skills and social interpretation training and social interaction programs, (d) learning and academic support methods, (e) parent and family involvement programs, and (f) community supports. Simpson and colleagues called for appropriately trained professionals, but the EBD field lacks specific standards guiding instruction. Furthermore, an EBD teaching framework with evaluation criteria is needed to guide teacher implementation of evidence-based practices.

Zaheer and colleagues (2019) identified evidence-based practices to support students with EBD. Each recommended practice has multiple empirical studies. The evidence-based practices are divided into four strategic focus areas: (a) creating structure and predictability, (b) promoting positive classroom environments, (c) using effective instructional strategies, and (d) using assessment and data-based decision making to address behavior and academic needs of students. Classroom-wide PBIS, positive classroom expectations, rules, active supervision, and positive reinforcement systems help teachers build structure and predictability for students, thus reducing behavior problems. In addition, teachers should use explicit instruction to teach desired skills without expecting students to connect or extrapolate new information.

Furthermore, students should be given multiple opportunities to respond with performance feedback. Another critical component is that instruction and support are matched to the student's level, and data-based decisions are made along with progress monitoring. Adopting a Multi-tiered Systems of Support framework is essential to the sustainability of individual practices while continually monitoring data within school teams and regular meetings. Additionally, districts should provide ongoing training and assistance in implementing effective procedures.

Where do Teachers Find Interventions

Beahm et al. (2021) explored resources educators and school personnel use to find behavior management practices and how they evaluate the trustworthiness, accessibility, understandability, and usability of the resources. The authors recruited professional personnel (i.e., teachers, principals, assistant principals, instructional guides, and speech therapists), not solely special educators. Their findings apply to this study's development. Interestingly, 80.1% of their participants reported that they felt prepared to manage students' challenging behavior. In addition, 89.4% of the participants said they downloaded material related to teaching and instruction from the internet in the past year, with 58.8% responding that they paid for the downloaded material. Educators wanted resources to be in simple language with exact details explaining how to implement the steps. Colleagues were the most reported trustworthy resource because they provided practice-based evidence. Participants said resources like Teachers Pay Teachers were quick and easy to use. Furthermore, Landrum et al. (2007) found teachers' perceived information to be more usable when described in a personal format instead of a data-based format.

Improving the Research-to-Practice Gap

The research demonstrates insufficient evidence-based practices in EBD programs (Bradley et al., 2008; Lloyd et al., 2019; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). There is also a substantial gap in the literature demonstrating how schools adopt curricula for students with EBD. Not only are evidence-based intervention strategies not being utilized, but prior research reflects a lack of good teaching practices (i.e., praise, engagement, classroom management, opportunities to respond, and predictability) in many EBD classrooms (Mitchell et al., 2019). Quality teaching is correlated with student achievement (Manning et al., 2009), and therefore students with EBD specifically need predictability, positive reinforcement, and good classroom management to circumvent their emotional dysregulation.

In addition, prior attrition research demonstrated that access to resources is directly correlated with teachers' intent to stay and directly relates to teachers' stress levels (Bettini et al., 2020). Given that it is unknown how curricula for students with EBD are attained, teachers are likely using unsubstantiated teaching strategies and ultimately developing their curriculum. Additionally, if teachers are left with the time-consuming burden of creating their curriculum, it will likely contribute to teacher stress and marginal student behavior progress. Moreover, evidence-based curricular resources substantially impact the time teachers spend curriculum planning outside of the school day, teacher feelings of adequacy, and student outcomes. Lack of curricular resources interferes with a teacher's ability to manage their workload and leads to teacher burnout (Billingsley & Bettini, 2019).

Unfortunately, there is a lack of qualitative research in special education. Kozleski (2017) rationalized that qualitative research is needed in special education research to engage with practitioners, clarify variables, and develop research questions that are socially valid and represent the current needs in schools. Collecting qualitative data can help researchers determine

socially valid sustainable intervention strategies. While qualitative research does not measure causality, it can be instrumental in helping researchers gain insight into contextual factors, development, implementation, and promotion of evidence-based practices (McDuffie & Scruggs, 2008). Additional research with practitioners is needed to improve the current research-to-practice gap in special education.

Research Framework: The Conservation of Resources Theory

The conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) explicitly states that resources may have a positive, negative, or neutral effect in differing circumstances. Stress may jeopardize the security of resources and how individuals react to their environment. Hobfoll and Freedy (1990) explored social interactions and their relation to resource acquisition and protection. The authors predicted that individuals who were uncomfortable asking for help would be at a disadvantage and more likely to experience stress. Additionally, those with enough resources can better negotiate their social environments to keep and acquire new resources.

Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources theory claims that when individuals are under stress, they are less likely to use their voice because it consumes resources (time, energy, conflict). Ng and Felman (2012) studied the "resource conservation" tenet. The authors established that employees who reported higher levels of job stress were related to less use of voice, perceptions of lack of job autonomy, perceptions of lack of job challenge, global job dissatisfaction, dissatisfaction with work conditions, dissatisfaction with pay, dissatisfaction with promotions, strained relationships with supervisors, and lack of organizational support. Furthermore, disparities in access to collective social assets are prevalent among teaching groups who are at a higher risk of attrition (c.f., Mason-Williams et al., 2022; i.e., new teachers, teaching in high poverty schools, special education teachers, teachers of color, and teachers in

schools serving predominately students of color). Additionally, special education teachers who work in higher-poverty schools are significantly more likely to teach in self-contained classrooms, have a lower rating of cooperation among teachers, and have weak access to resources (Bettini et al., 2021).

Secondly, the conservation of resources theory posits that individuals are motivated to protect their current resources and acquire new resources, contributing to teachers' satisfaction and intent to stay in the profession (Bettini et al., 2020). Previous studies have explored why EBD teachers leave the profession and found that lack of resources is directly correlated with stress and attrition (Bettini et al., 2020; Billingsley & Bettini, 2019). Essential resources for teachers include training, time, administration support, team support, and curriculum. Access to resources allows teachers to navigate their workload, problem-solve effectively, and acquire new skills (Gilmour & Wehby, 2020). Collectively, leaders in the field have highlighted the lack of national guidelines and curriculum standards being a significant weakness in guiding resources for EBD teachers (Mitchell et al., 2019). Evidence suggests teachers do not feel adequately equipped with resources to teach their students, but research has not explored how teachers obtain curriculum and their specific needs.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

The primary goal of this explanatory sequential mixed methods design study was to first quantitatively explore the research questions related to identifying teacher resources used in supporting students with EBD, curriculum choices, use of evidence-based practices, and if access to resources and training are correlated with teachers reported feelings of efficacy and intent to continue teaching (Ivankova et al., 2006). Then qualitative data was collected from a sample of follow-up interviews to better explain the quantitative data results in more depth. Qualitative data aims to understand complex questions that are not easily answered through statistical analysis and rely on the perspectives of those most directly involved in and affected by the practice in question (Rumrill, 2011). The qualitative data expanded on teachers' access to training and resources and identified barriers teachers face in obtaining resources. Table 2 denotes the research matrix and literature base for each research question. A mixed-methods approach expanded the survey results and triangulated conclusions from the quantitative data (Drew et al., 2008).

Research Questions

1. What resources (curriculum, practices, materials) do teachers of students with EBD report using to support their students?
2. What are teachers' self-reported use of evidence-based resources (curriculum, practices, and materials)?
3. What facilitators and barriers to using evidence-based resources do teachers report?
4. Is there a correlation between teacher-reported access to resources and training and self-reported feelings of efficacy and intent to continue teaching?

Participants

Recruitment Procedures

This exploratory mixed-method study examined the needs and barriers to teaching students with EBD (Creswell & Clark, 2017). The first author recruited special education teachers in Arizona. Teachers were recruited in Arizona to inform the authors on current practices and needs in Arizona. Results potentially will be used to inform future research partnerships in Arizona schools. Participants were recruited using a snowball sampling method (Miles & Huberman, 1994). First, the first author personally emailed EBD teachers with whom she was acquainted. The email included a flyer with a brief description of the study's purpose, confidentiality, approximate time commitment, and the survey link. As a second method of recruiting, the first author emailed the flyer and Qualtrics link to professional organizations that she belonged to (The University of Arizona's Department of Disability and Psychoeducational Studies, Southern Arizona PBIS Network, Arizona's Council for Children with Behavior Disorders, and Arizona's Council for Exceptional Children). Next, participants were asked to "snowball" the study by sharing the Qualtrics link and flyer with additional EBD teachers they have a relationship with.

Teachers were considered for inclusion in this study if: (a) they were hired as a special education teacher in the state of Arizona (i.e., long-term substitutes, hired on an emergency certification for special education, traditional special education teaching certificate), (b) they had one or more students in their classroom who have a special education diagnosis of Emotional Disturbance, and (c) they consented to participate in the study. The participants' classroom settings included full inclusion, self-contained, separate schooling, and resource room.

Consent was managed through the Qualtrics link. Participants were asked if they consented to participate in the study. By selecting "yes," participants consented to the study.

Additionally, participants were asked if they were interested in being contacted for a follow-up interview. By selecting “yes” and providing their contact information, participants consented to participate in the follow-up interview.

Participant Protections

Participants were provided information regarding the study, their role, and advised of any possible harm related to their participation before consenting to participate in the research study. Additionally, steps were taken to protect the privacy of all participants. To protect confidentiality, referrals were not made directly to the first author. Surveys and consent were managed and collected through Qualtrics (<https://www.qualtrics.com>), a secure web platform for building and managing surveys. Any identifiable information was deidentified.

Participant Compensation

Each participant who elected to participate in follow-up interviews received a \$50 Amazon gift card following the completion of their interview. Compensation was intended to cover the time and effort of participating in the interview. Individuals were made aware of compensation during the recruitment phase, including the requirements to obtain compensation and their requirements to report compensation.

Research Design

Survey

In the first phase, quantitative data were collected through a teacher-inventory survey. The survey questions were designed to collect data on EBD teacher certifications, curriculum choices, time spent planning outside of the school day, job satisfaction, and teachers’ feelings of adequacy. An extensive literature search found no generally accepted or frequently cited assessment to identify teacher perceptions on how they attain curriculum and resources. Previous

research has not explored teacher curriculum and resource choices. Therefore, a new instrument was created to answer the research questions by adapting existing measures and scales aligned with relevant theory and previous research.

For the first research question, “What resources do teachers of students with EBD report using to support their students” descriptive statistics were used to determine what resources teachers report using with their students. Additionally, survey question number eight, “Where do you typically go to seek resources to support your students with EBD,” was adapted from a similar study (Beahm et al., 2021). Beahm and colleagues assessed the prevalence of teachers’ use of resources (i.e., search engines, Teachers Pay Teachers, Pinterest, professional websites, YouTube, professional and academic journals, colleagues, and professional development training) to find behavior management strategies from a sample of educators (e.g., administrators, teachers, and special education teachers) in West Virginia. Professional websites from their survey were changed to professional organizations in this study for clarity.

Additional survey questions were developed to explore how teachers of EBD students teach skill deficits specifically related to teaching students with EBD (i.e., social skills, classroom management, and study skills). Social skill curriculum choices were assessed because social skills interventions are the primary intervention for children with EBD (Rutherford et al., 1996). Wagner et al. (2006) found that study skills or learning strategies were provided to 27.5% to 36.5% of students with EBD. As a result, a question regarding study skills curriculum choices was included in the survey. Additionally, a survey question asked participants about their classroom management strategies because classroom management has been an essential component of teaching students with EBD (French, 2019; State et al., 2019; Zaheer et al., 2019).

To answer research question 4, “Is there a correlation between teacher-reported access to resources and training and self-reported feelings of efficacy and intent to continue teaching?” participants were asked to rate elements ((appropriate training, resources, intent to continue teaching, and confidence in their ability) of their job. The conservation of resources theory was used to develop survey questions related to teachers’ access to resources and their ability to acquire new resources, contributing to feelings of adequacy and satisfaction (Bettini et al., 2020). The survey also asked participants to report the number of hours they plan weekly outside of the school day, considering previous research found that time was positively correlated with burnout and attrition (Bettini et al., 2020; Gilmour and Wehby, 2020). Lastly, research suggests that the percentage of students with EBD is strongly associated with burnout and attrition. Therefore a survey question was developed to measure the number of students with EBD participants had in their classroom (Gilmour and Wehby, 2020).

The first author piloted the survey with four special education teachers (who did not participate in the survey), and one special education professor reviewed the draft version. They provided feedback about the questions’ clarity, language, and time commitment, which was applied to the final survey version. Open-ended survey questions were changed to a dropdown menu with curriculum options to reduce participants' time commitment. The wording was changed on a few questions for clarity. The resulting survey gathered quantitative information related to trends, attitudes, and opinions from a sample of EBD teachers in Arizona. Quantitative data provided statistical results regarding the influence resources and training had on teachers’ intent to continue teaching and confidence in their ability. See Appendix A for survey questions.

Analysis

An online survey was chosen because it gave quick responses and quickly transferred the data directly into a database for statistical analysis. Data were analyzed using a Pearson correlation statistical analysis to examine the relationship between access to resources and training on teachers' confidence in their ability and intent to continue teaching.

Additionally, survey responses related to resources teachers reported using to teach (i.e., social skills, organization, and classroom management) were assessed to determine if the intervention or practice was validated as evidence-based. To answer the second research question, "What are teachers' self-reported use of evidence-based resources?" the first author and the second author developed the rating scale based on the standards provided by Horner et al. (2005), Kratochwill et al. (2010), Steinbrenner et al. (2020), and What Works Clearinghouse (2020) reviews. An internet search of four databases, Academic Search Ultimate, Google Scholar, What Works Clearing House, and ERIC, was conducted for each survey option. Each practice was then rated as having strong, moderate, weak, or no evidence based on the rating scale. Each rating is elaborated in Table 1. To answer research question 2, "What are teachers' self-reported use of evidence-based resources?" descriptive statistics were used to determine the frequency in which participants chose evidence-based practices.

Table 1
Summary of EBP Standard Ratings

Standards	Number of Studies	Experimental Control	External Validity	Stable Trend
Strong Evidence	At least 5, combinations of group designs and single case. At least 20 participants across studies	Demonstrates that the introduction of the independent variable and change in the dependent variable	Demonstrates control for external validity. High-quality designs, at least two different investigators across studies. Strong interobserver agreement (IOA)	Consistency with each phase

Moderate Evidence	At least 3 studies, or more than 3 studies but has not been studied with individuals with EBD.	Lower degree of confidence that the intervention caused the observed effect	Some threats to external validity (e.g., one research group, less than 80% IOA)	Limited inconsistency in the trend, at least 3 data points
Weak Evidence	Few peer reviewed studies published	Mixed Positive Effects	Threats to external validity (i.e., high attrition, weak experimental designs)	Some inconsistency in trend (i.e., not enough data points)
None	Insufficient research studies available			

Semi-structured Interviews

Next, qualitative data were collected to further interpret and understand the quantitative data from the teacher-inventory survey (see Appendix B). Semi-structured interviews were selected because the first author could expand on topics that arose during the interviews. They allowed a conversation beyond what a structured interview would have permitted (Ahlin, 2019). Using follow-up interviews helped explain the quantitative data and provided triangulation against threats to validity from the quantitative data (Drew et al., 2008). Additionally, the survey could not answer questions about why curriculum choices were made. The interviews enabled the first author to explore themes that promote or hinder teachers from obtaining evidence-based resources for their students.

Ten participants self-selected to participate in Zoom interviews on the survey. Only eight followed through with scheduling an interview. The interviews were conducted individually through Zoom and lasted approximately one hour. Interviews were conducted using semi-structured interview questions focused on access to teaching resources and barriers. The interviews were designed to gain an understanding of the journey the teachers experienced

teaching students with EBD, the support they received, and the resources that have been helpful for them.

Themes that promote access to evidence-based curricular resources and barriers were developed. Interviews were conducted through Zoom, recorded, and transcribed verbatim. The first author compared transcripts with the video recording to ensure accuracy. In addition, any identifiable information was removed to protect teachers' confidentiality.

Transcripts were uploaded into Dedoose (<https://www.dedoose.com>), an online qualitative analytic software. The first author developed apriori codes and definitions based on emergent themes in the survey and the research goals (i.e., certification, curriculum, facilitators, barriers, classroom setting, and classroom management). In addition to the apriori codes, the researchers used Saldaña's (2016) open-coding method to generate additional open codes and a codebook. An intercoder agreement was assessed for 50% of the interviews to establish the reliability of the findings. The first author and a second researcher met to review and develop the codebook (see Table 3).

The coded excerpts were extracted using a process of searching for patterns and clustering (Miles et al., 2020). Both authors independently coded the same four transcripts. Then the two authors compared coding in areas where it differed, and these areas were discussed until a consensus was reached during the first round of coding. Additional themes were added to the codebook (i.e., Covid-19, IEPs, and LRE) and corresponding definitions (Miles et al., 2014). The second round of coding was conducted independently to expand on the themes of barriers and facilitators. The first author and a second researcher met and compared coding. They were discussed in areas where coding differed until a consensus was met. Additional sub-themes emerged under barriers and facilitators after the second round of coding (i.e., previous

experience, training, personal experience, tenacity, systems of support, misconceptions, time, lack of curriculum, understaffed, burnout, inconsistency, and lack of training) and were applied to the codebook. See Table 3 for the codebook. Then two researchers met to discuss the meaning of the themes developed from the analysis (Miles et al., 2020). The first author coded the remaining four transcripts. Table 2 shows the research questions, theory, data source, and data analysis methods.

Table 2
Research Matrix

Research Question	Theory	Data Source	Data Analysis
1. What resources (curriculum, practices, materials) do teachers of students with EBD report using to support their students?	Conservation of resources theory	Survey with teachers of students with EBD in AZ schools.	Descriptive Analysis
2. What are teachers' self-reported use of evidence-based resources (curriculum, practices, and materials)?	Conservation of resources theory	Survey questions	Descriptive Analysis
3. What facilitators and barriers to the use of evidence-based resources do teachers report?	Conservation of resources theory	Semi-structured interview questions	Coding
4. Is there a correlation between teacher-reported access to resources and training and self-reported feelings of efficacy and intent to continue teaching?	Conservation of resources theory	Likert scale on survey	Pearson r

Table 3
Interview Codebook with Definitions

Codes	Definitions
Certification	Certification methods and degree types (i.e.,

Individualized Education Plan	Functional Behavior Assessments and Behavior Intervention Plans Least Restrictive Environment/Placement Decisions	Master's, Bachelors, Post-Bachelors, Principal, Intern, Alternate Certification) Who is responsible for writing them? Is there a method or template? How are placement decisions made?
Barriers	Lack of curriculum Burnout Inconsistency Misconceptions Time Understaffed Lack of training	What makes teaching and their job difficult? Teachers report not having curriculum or adequate curriculum. Reports of being overwhelmed and burnout. Inconsistency about who performs what duty, differing administration ideas, new special education directors. General education teachers misconceptions about what it their role is and the ability of students with EBD. Misunderstandings regarding appropriate behavior or students Not enough time, lack of planning time, multiple roles. Not having aides support, counselors, psychologist, teachers. Teacher preparation programs, lack of professional development opportunities relevant to EBD students, lack of FBA and BIP training Number of students, special education categories, support staff, classroom setting (i.e., self-contained, resource)
Classroom setting and students		Classroom management strategies.
Curriculum		How is curriculum chosen, where do teachers find resources, and what curriculum is used?
Facilitators	Personal Experiences Previous Experience Training Tenacity Systems of Support	What makes teaching easier? Personal life experiences, teaching experiences, home, and family Experience prior to being a special education teacher in Arizona. Professional development opportunities and training related to being a teacher of students with EBD. Personality traits, willingness to pay for training themselves, examples of how participants go outside of their network to get the resources they need. Schools systems and collaboration with outside agencies that help participants get training and resources to support their students.

Covid-19

Teaching changes and challenges because of Covid-19.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter begins with demographic data collected through the survey instrument. Demographic data were not used in this data analysis. Then the findings of analyses conducted to answer the four research questions in this study are reported.

1. What resources (e.g., curriculum, practices, and materials) do teachers of students with EBD report using to support their students?
2. What are teachers' self-reported use of evidence-based resources (e.g., curriculum, practices, and materials)?
3. What are the facilitators and barriers to using evidence-based resources do teachers report?
4. Is there a correlation between teacher-reported access to resources and training and teachers' reported feelings of efficacy and intent to continue teaching?

Survey Demographics Data

Table 4 presents demographic information for survey participants. Fifty-eight participants completed the online survey. Most respondents identified as female and white. Table 5 denotes teaching certifications. Sixty-two percent of teachers reported having a master's degree. Only 7% of participants selected alternate certification. The results were inconsistent with previous literature, which suggest that more special education teachers have an alternate certification than any other teaching group (Billingsley et al., 2006). Fifty percent of respondents taught in a resource setting, 40% in a self-contained classroom, 16% reported co-teaching, 17% reported supporting inclusion, and 3% taught in separate schools (see Figure 1). Teachers taught a variety

of age groups, as shown in Figure 2, with about a quarter of teachers teaching elementary school or K-8 schools.

Table 4
Survey Participants Demographics

M/% of Sample (N=58)	
Gender	
Female	54 (93%)
Male	3 (5%)
Prefer not to Answer	1 (2%)
Ethnicity	
African American or Black	4 (7%)
Asian	0
Hispanic or Latino	5 (9%)
Native American or Alaska Native	1 (2%)
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	0
White	43 (74%)
Other	3 (2%)
Prefer not to answer	3 (5%)

Table 5
Survey Participants Teaching Demographics

M/% of Sample (N=58)	
Teaching Certification Method	
Bachelor's Degree	10 (17%)
Master's Degree	36 (62%)

Alternate Certification	4 (7%)
Substitute Teacher	0
Emergency Certification	0
Other	8 (14%)

Figure 1
Teacher Classroom Settings

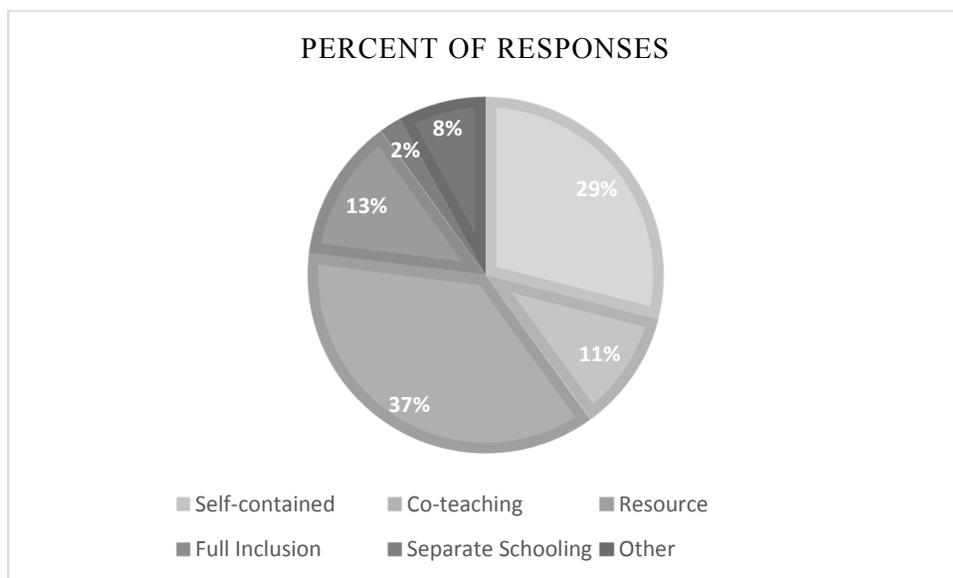
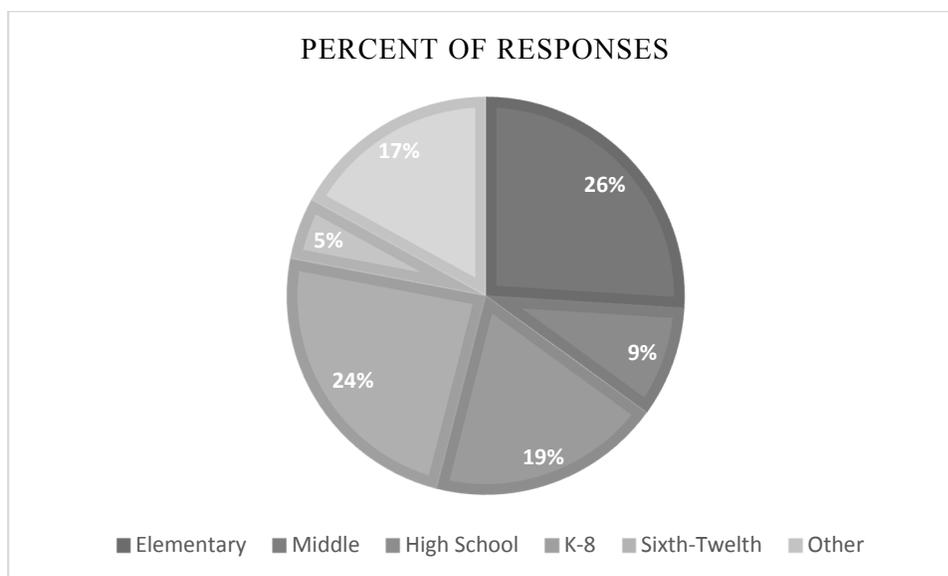


Figure 2
Age Groups Survey Participants Teach



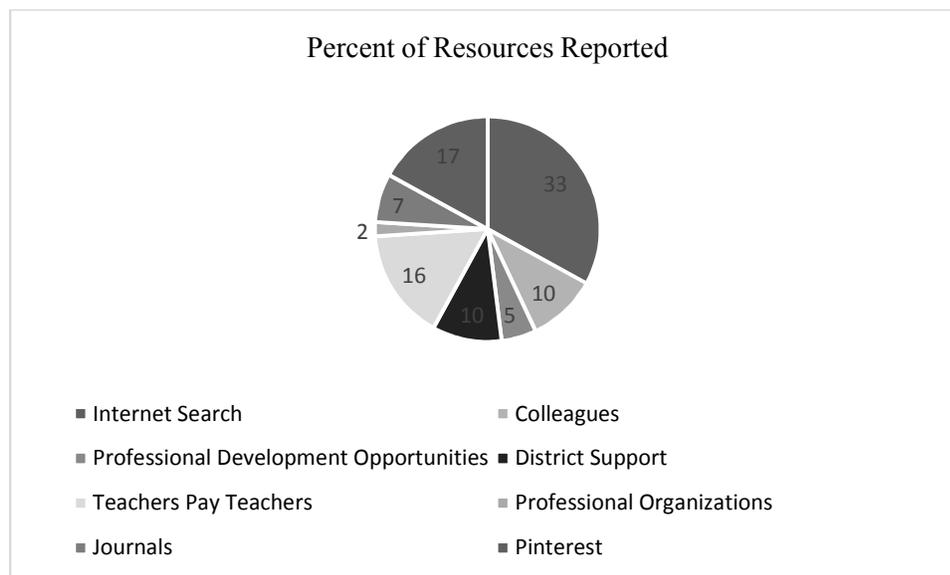
Research Question 1: What Resources are Teachers Using?

Data for research question 1 was collected using a survey instrument. The results for each survey item are described below and presented in figures.

General Resources

Item 8 on the survey asked the teachers to rate (most to least) where they go to access resources between the following categories: professional development/training, professional organizations, journals, district support, Teachers pay Teachers, colleagues, Pinterest, and the internet search (see Figure 3). The highest-rated resources reported were internet search, Pinterest, colleagues, Teachers Pay Teachers, and district support. The least used sources reported were journals, professional organizations, and professional development/training.

Figure 3
Where do Teachers go first to get Resources?



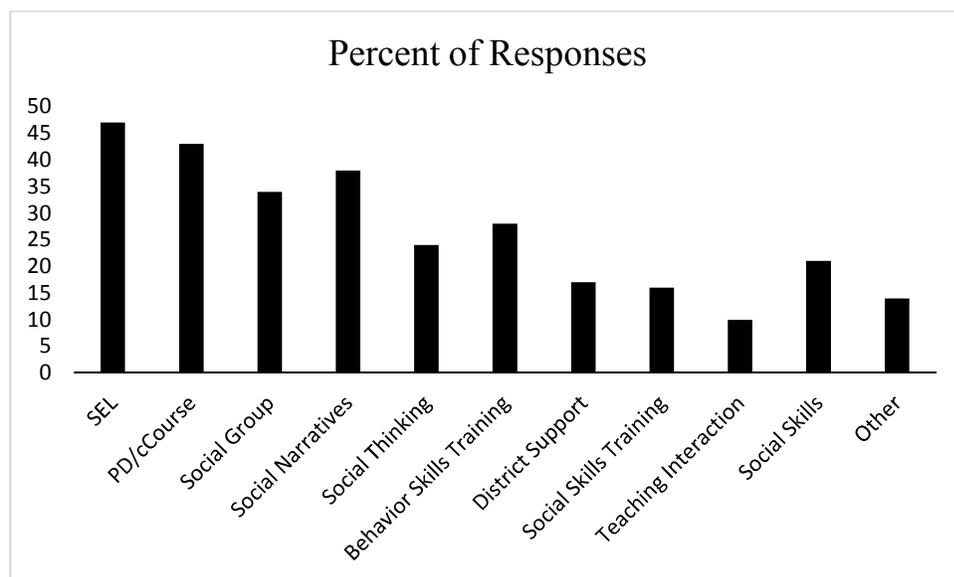
Social Skills Resources

Item 9 on the survey asked teachers to select all resources they used to teach social skills (see Figure 4). The most used curricular resource to teach social skills was the Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) Curriculum package, with 47% of respondents reported using it. Materials from professional development or a course were selected by 43% of participants. Also, 34% of teachers reported that students attend a social group with a counselor or speech and language pathologist. Social narratives were used by 38% of participants (e.g., Gray and Garand, 1993). Specific EBP to teach social skills include Social Skills Training (e.g., Elliott & Gresham, 1991) was reported by 16% of participants, Behavior Skills Training (e.g., Miltenberger, 2012) was reported by 28% of participants, and Teaching Interaction Procedure (e.g., Phillips et al., 1974) by 10%; Although they were the least reported curricular resources. Fourteen percent of participants chose other and wrote in the text box: “skill streaming, I purchased books on sensory-motor, Carol Gray social stories, facilitating development and Sensorimotor

development, brain guy, and many others,” “I do not have a curriculum, I just wing it,”

“Personally purchased Social Thinking, Zones of Regulation, Social Stories.”

Figure 4
Social Skills Curriculum

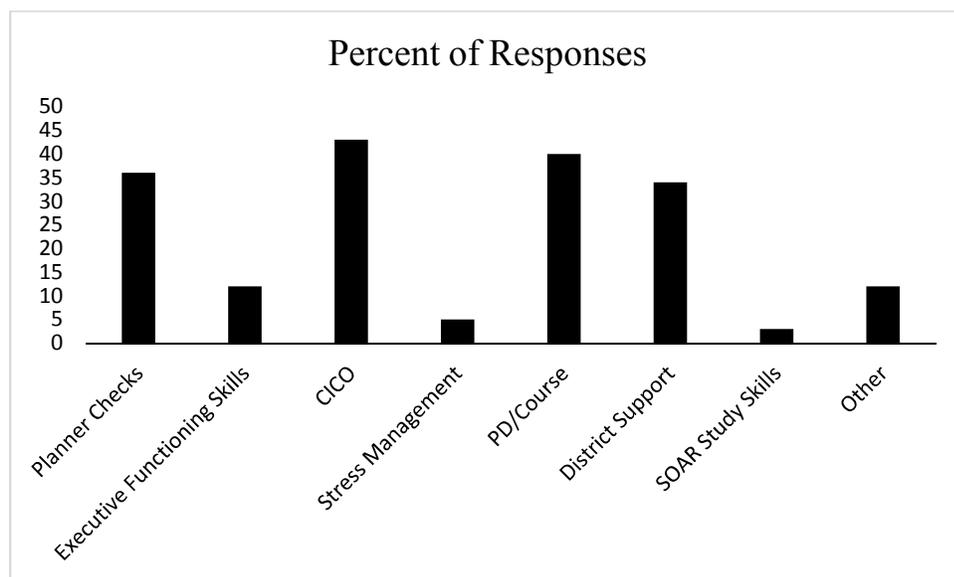


Organization and Study Skills

Item 10 on the survey asked teachers to select all resources they used to teach organization and study skills, as demonstrated in Figure 5. The most frequently reported curricular resource used to teach organization and study skills was check-in/check-out (CICO) by 43% of participants. District or school-provided curricular resources and materials from professional development were also highly reported. Planner checks were reported by 36% of teachers. The executive functioning skills curriculum was reported by 12% of participants. The stress management curriculum package and SOAR Study Skills curriculum (Kruger, 2017) were the least used curricular resources to teach organization and study skills. Other was selected by 12% of participants, and participants typed, “I’ve created my own,” “Each student had a

notebook in backpack, we wrote it in daily for parents,” “weekly SDI sessions, using graphic organizers, checklists, and other supports per IEPs.”

Figure 5
Organization and Study Skills Curriculum

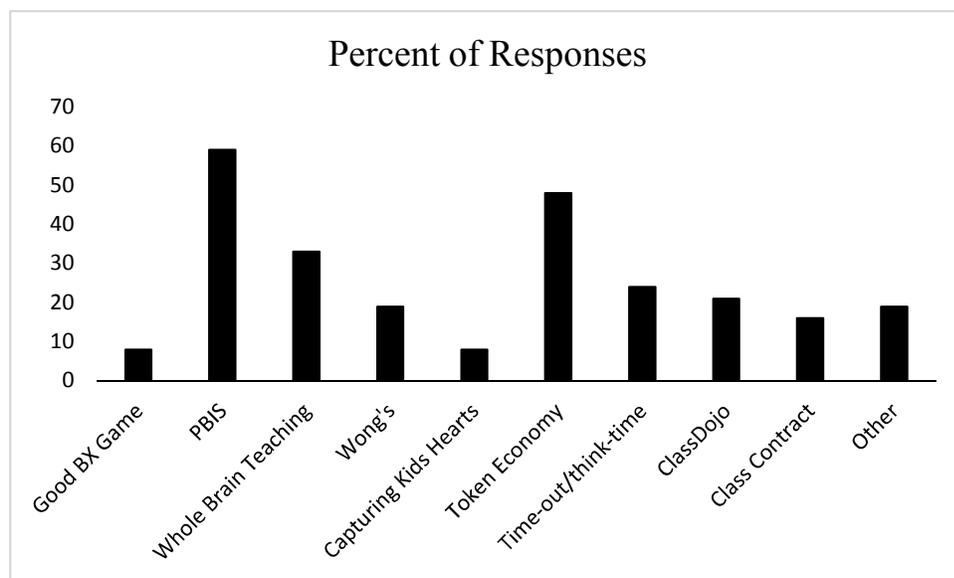


Classroom Management Systems

Item 12 on the survey asked teachers to select from a list the classroom management system they use, as noted in Figure 6. The highest-rated classroom management strategies reported were schoolwide PBIS, with 59% of participants using it. Next was a token economy, with 48% of participants reported using it as a classroom management system. Additionally, 33% of teachers reported using whole-brain teaching (Biffle, 2013). Twenty-four percent of participants reported using time-out and think-time. ClassDojo (Chaundhary & Don, 2011) was reported by 21% of participants. Nineteen percent of respondents reported using the Wongs’ (2018) classroom management, and 16% of participants selected class contracts. The lowest rated classroom management strategies reported were the Good Behavior and Capturing Kids Hearts, with only 8% of participants reported using them. Seven participants selected “other” and indicated included in the text box: “self-created points/assessment,” “Visuals, visuals, visuals

and teaching skills thru role play while videotaping and social stories,” “Point system on a daily sheet- positive rewards towards their goals,” “I do not use a management system but have firm rule,” and “level system.”

Figure 6
Classroom Management Strategies



Research Question 2: Are Teachers Using Evidence-Based Resources and Curriculum?

General Resources

Resources ascertained from the internet, Pinterest, colleagues, district support, professional development/training, and Teachers Pay Teacher are impossible to evaluate as evidence-based or not.

Social Skills Resources

Table 6 shows the resource options for social skills instruction. Table 7 shows the percentage of participants who selected each practice. The most used resource to teach social skills reported was the SEL curriculum. Research on SEL has had positive outcomes in social-emotional skills, attitudes, and well-being indicators regardless of socioeconomic status or school location (Taylor et al., 2017). The social-emotional learning foundations curriculum

positively affected internalizing and externalizing problems in kindergartners and first graders at risk for EBD (Daunic et al., 2021). However, research suggests that SEL programs are most effective when implemented in a planned, ongoing, systematic way from preschool through high school (Mahoney et al., 2018). Teachers were not asked if their school districts used an ongoing universal SEL curriculum. As a result, social gains may not sustain long-term if the curriculum is not ongoing. Additionally, there are over two hundred SEL curriculums, many of which have not been adequately researched (Mahoney et al., 2018). For example, the PEERs curriculum package meets the eligibility criteria for an EBP for individuals with autism but has not been researched with individuals with EBD (e.g., Laugeson & Frankel, 2010; Steinbrenner et al., 2020).

Materials from professional development, course, or social group with a counselor were also highly reported. Unfortunately, resources from professional development, courses, or social groups cannot be evaluated as evidence-based. Social narratives were also selected by about a third of the participants and does not have strong evidence as being an effective intervention to improve social behavior (Leaf et al., 2019). Although, social narratives are listed as an EBP for teaching social behavior in learners with Autism by the National Clearinghouse on Autism Evidence and Practice (Steinbrenner et al., 2020), insufficient evidence exists with individuals with EBD. The Social Thinking curriculum (Winner, 2005) has mixed results as an EBP. Leaf and colleagues (2016) argue that the intervention methods are not based on science, and as a result, observers can't determine if a client's thinking has changed. However, Crooke and colleagues' (2008) pilot study indicated significant positive outcomes on "expected" verbal and nonverbal behavior with six males with autism. Although, a literature search did not reveal that Social Thinking has been studied in individuals with EBD. Social skills training has strong evidence as an EBP for students with or at risk for EBD in improving aggression, externalizing

behaviors, internalizing behaviors, and antisocial behavior problems (Gresham et al., 2004). Behavior Skills Training (Miltenberger, 2012) and Teaching Interaction Procedure (Phillips et al., 1974) are EBPs to teach social skills in individuals with Autism (Leaf et al., 2015). Teaching Interaction Procedure has limited research on individuals with EBD. Kirkpatrick et al. (2019) suggested in a systematic review that Behavior Skills Training is an effective and empirically validated teaching procedure for individuals regardless of the disability. However, few studies have been conducted inside a classroom with teachers. Behavior Skills Training and Teaching Interaction Procedure were the least reported curricular resources to teach social skills.

One participant wrote that she uses Carol Gray's social stories, which have mixed evidence, as being an effective strategy to teach social skills (Leaf et al., 2012). Another write-in response was sensorimotor development which is not an EBP for social skills, and it is more commonly used in occupational therapy for individuals with Autism. There is weak evidence that sensorimotor integration training is an effective intervention strategy for improving social and academic outcomes (Dawson & Watling, 2000), and has limited evidence with students with EBD.

Table 6
Evidence-Base for Survey Options for Social Skills

Practice	Strong N (%)	Moderate N (%)	Weak N (%)	None N (%)
Social Skills Training	X			
Social Skills Curriculum Package		X		
Social Thinking			X	
PD/ Course			X	

Behavior Skills Training		X			
SEL		X			
Social Narratives		X			
District/ School Provided Curriculum		X			
Teaching Interaction Procedure		X			
Social Group					X
Other					X
Total	1 (9%)	5 (45%)	1 (9%)	4 (36%)	

Table 7
Use of Evidence-Base Options for Social Skills

Practice	Strong N (%)	Moderate N (%)	Weak N (%)	None N (%)
Social Skills Training	9 (16%)			
Social Skills Curriculum Package		12 (21%)		
Social Thinking			14 (24%)	
PD/ Course				25 (43%)
Behavior Skills Training		16 (28%)		
SEL		27 (47%)		
Social Narratives		22 (38%)		
District/ School Provided Curriculum				10 (17%)

Teaching Interaction Procedure	6 (10%)
Social Group	20 (34%)
Other	8 (14%)

Organization and Study Skills

Table 8 outlines the resource options for organization and study skills instruction. Table 9 shows the percentage of participants who selected each practice. Only one of the survey options has strong evidence as an EBP to teach organization and study skills. Most of the resources have weak or limited evidence that they are effective interventions to teach organization and study skills. The most frequently reported curricular resource used to teach organization and study skills was check-in/check-out (CICO) by 43% of participants. CICO is an evidence-based practice used as a Tier 2 intervention to provide schedule feedback with a responsible adult to improve behavior and academic outcomes for students with and at risk for EBD (Crone et al., 2004; Lewis et al., 2017). District or school-provided curricular resources and materials from professional development were also highly reported by 34% of participants. Unfortunately, this information does not allow the authors to determine if the curricular resources are evidence-based.

About twenty percent of participants reported using the executive functioning skills curriculum to teach organization and study skills. Previous research on executive functioning indicates that having strong executive functioning skills predicts higher performance in mathematics, reading, and writing in children (Valcan et al., 2020). However, the executive functioning skills curriculum has mixed results as an EBP in improving organization and academic achievement. One significant barrier in the research is that there are many different guides and curriculums that target executive functioning (i.e., Second Step, Mindfulness, Student

Success Skills) with limited research on each. Stress management strategies have some evidence for reducing anxiety which has positive outcomes on attention and education for individuals with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and emotional dysregulation (Barra et al., 2021), which many individuals with EBD exhibit. Although only 5% of respondents in the survey reported using stress management strategies.

SOAR study skills curriculum was one of the least used resources to teach study skills and organization, reported by only 3% of participants. Based on a research search, there has not been research specifically measuring the efficacy of the SOAR study skills curriculum on teaching organization and study skills. However, research suggests that directly teaching organizational skills are prerequisite for success in school and the workforce (Gambill, 2008). One participant wrote, “weekly SDI sessions, using graphic organizers, checklists, and other supports per IEPs.” Graphic organizers have been shown to improve writing skills in inclusive classrooms (Baxendell, 2003), math problem solving in students with learning disabilities (Maccini & Gagnon, 2005), and reading comprehension in students with intellectual disabilities (Ozmen, 2011). Garwood et al. (2017) found that graphic organizers and story maps increased students with EBDs’ engagement, increased independence, and improved literacy skills. Checklists used for homework, organization, and planning skills intervention improve organization and homework management skills in students with EBD and ADHD (Langberg et al., 2020).

Table 8
Evidence-base for Survey Options for Study Skills and Organization

Practice	Strong	Moderate	Weak	None
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Executive Functioning Skills Curriculum		X		

SOAR Studies Skills Curriculum			X	
Materials from Professional Development/Course				X
Stress Management Package			X	
Check-in Check-out	X			
Planner Checks			X	
District or School Provided Curriculum				X
Other				X
Total	1 (12%)	1 (12%)	3 (38%)	3 (38%)

Table 9
Use of Evidence-base Options for Study Skills and Organization

Practice	Strong N (%)	Moderate N (%)	Weak N (%)	None N (%)
Executive Functioning Skills		12 (21%)		
SOAR Studies Skills Curriculum				2 (3%)
Materials from PD/Course				23 (40%)
Stress Management Package			3 (5%)	
Check-in Check-out	25 (43%)			
Planner Checks			21 (36%)	
District/School Provided Curriculum				20 (34%)

Other

7 (12%)

Classroom Management Strategies

Table 10 shows the resource options for classroom management strategies. Table 11 shows the percentage of participants who selected each practice. More strategies for classroom management are EBPs than the other categories explored (i.e., social skills, organization, and study skills). Additionally, more survey participants report using EBPs for classroom management than the other categories explored.

The results indicate that more than half of the participants use Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) as a classroom management strategy. PBIS is an evidence-based strategy to improve student behavior and create a positive classroom environment (McIntosh et al., 2020). The second most reported strategy was a token economy by 48% of participants. Token economies are an EBP for classroom management (Maggin et al., 2011) and can increase pro-social behaviors in adolescents with EBD (Wolfe et al., 2003). Time-out/ think-time are effective classroom management strategies for students with EBD (French, 2019).

Additionally, Cumming and colleagues (2016) suggest that teachers who support students with EBD use Class Dojo as a Universal Design for Learning to reward students for engaging in desired classroom behavior. ClassDojo has been shown to track behavioral data and positively impact students' behavior and their ability to self-monitor and redirect (Chiarelli et al., 2015). Unfortunately, the Good Behavior Game (Barrish et al., 1969) was among the least used classroom management strategies, with only 8% of participants reported using it even though the Good Behavior Game is a highly endorsed evidence-based classroom management strategy across age levels and classroom settings (Bowman-Perrott et al., 2016).

Whole-brain teaching (Biffle, 2013) has limited scholarly research, but research shows that students with EBD perform better in classrooms with good classroom management and engagement (Zaheer et al., 2019). Harry and Rosemary Wong have published multiple editions of their books on classroom management. Although, specific research on their strategies has not been conducted. Capturing Kids Hearts has some evidence as being a classroom management strategy in promoting prosocial behaviors and decreasing discipline referrals in schools (Holtzapple et al., 2011) but has not been researched with students with EBD. Eleven participants included in the text box: “self-created points/assessment and a daily tracking sheet which are components of CICO and token economies. Two additional participants wrote that they use a level system which is a component of a token economy.

Table 10
Evidence-base for Survey Options for Classroom Management

Practice	Strong N (%)	Moderate N (%)	Weak N (%)	None N (%)
Good Behavior Game	X			
Classroom-wide PBIS	X			
The Wong's' Classroom Management			X	
Think-time or Time-out	X			
Token Economy	X			
Whole-Brain Teaching			X	
Class Dojo			X	
Capturing Kids Hearts			X	
Other				X

Total	4 (44%)	4 (44%)	1 (11%)
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Table 11
Use of Evidence-base Options for Classroom Management

Practice	Strong N (%)	Moderate N (%)	Weak N (%)	None N (%)
Good Behavior Game	5 (8%)			
Classroom-wide PBIS	34 (59%)			
The Wong's' Classroom Management			11 (19%)	
Think-time or Time-out	14 (24%)			
Token Economy	28 (48%)			
Whole-Brain Teaching			19 (33%)	
Class Dojo			12 (21%)	
Capturing Kids Hearts			5 (8%)	
Other				11 (19%)

Research Question 3: What are Facilitators and Barriers to Using EBP Resources?

Qualitative data were analyzed to answer question three to examine themes that promote and barriers to using evidence-based practices (EBP). Additionally, interview themes were assessed to obtain a deeper understanding of resources and EBPs to answer questions one and two. The interview participants had a wide range of experience and classroom settings across the state of Arizona. The average amount of time teaching special education was 8.1 years, with 13.62 years of average experience in education total. The range was between three and 20 years

of special education teaching experience (see Table 12). Table 3 displays the criteria used to identify and define each theme used in the qualitative analysis. The names are pseudonyms to protect the participants' identities.

Table 12
Interview Participants Demographics

Name	Classroom Setting	Demographics	Years Teaching	Degree
Brenda	Resource	Prefer not to answer	8 Sped	BA in Special Education
Molly	Self-contained	White	3 Sped, 15 Gen Ed	BA in Elementary Education, MA in Special Education
Jill	Resource	White	7 Sped, 9 Gen Ed	Intern Certificate, MA in Elementary Education and Special Education
Lisa	Self-contained	White	6 Sped	BA in special education
Jenny	Online	Hispanic or Latino	12 Sped, 10 Counselor	PhD in Educational Leadership, MA in counseling BA in counseling, PostBac in Special Education, reading endorsement

Katie	Resource	White	20 Sped	BA in Special Education, MA in Educational Leadership
Kelly	Self-contained	White	5 Sped	BA in Special Education
Erika	Self-contained	White	10 as Paraprofessional 4 Sped teacher	Intern Certificate, BA and MA Gen Ed and Special Ed, Reading endorsement

Facilitators

Previous experience/training. One theme that emerged during the interviews was that if teachers had a curriculum, it came from specific training or in the classroom before hiring. Unfortunately, only three out of the eight interviewees had an actual curriculum for their classroom. Katie attended a CEC conference presentation on self-evaluation and then brought the strategy to her classrooms. She described self-evaluation as “You’ve got to teach those soft skills, you have to teach self-awareness, self-regulation, then the academics will come. So, yeah, I’m going to teach them algebra, but you know what? I would rather sit down and talk with them for a half-hour about what’s going on and the choices they’re making, and where they are as a student, then we’ll get to algebra.”

Lisa also received more training than the other participants without paying for it herself or begging her administration for professional development, as other participants reported doing. Lisa started her teaching career in a different state. She was trained and given the MindUP curriculum (The Hawn Foundation, 2011) and Zones of Regulation (Kuypers, 2011), which she

brought to Arizona and used in her classroom. Lisa also worked in a district that incorporated school-wide PBIS; she used CICO (a tier 2 intervention from PBIS) with her students. However, even though Lisa had the most curriculum resources and training among the participants, she reported not having enough.

For example, she says:

Zones of regulation has like 14 lessons. And I just ended that, which a whole quarter for 14 lessons is pretty good on my part to, like, to drag it out that long. But realistically, that is a tool, not a curriculum, you know, like, that is a tool that supports students, emotional regulation. I'm going through the mind up [the] curriculum, but that also doesn't provide me with, like, you know, coping strategies, really like you know it doesn't provide me with social skills.

Molly was semi-fortunate in that her classroom had Sanford Harmony and another SEL curriculum in it before she started. Although, she was not trained in implementing either curriculum.

All the participants received training in crisis intervention (CPI, CIT, NCI). Each crisis intervention training teaches crisis antecedents, de-escalation, restraint, and debriefing procedures. However, the trainings vary in length (12-24 hours), and there is a lack of state guidelines on the instruction and implementation of the training (Couvillon et al., 2010). Crisis Intervention Team (CIT) training does not meet the criteria of EBP, and the research is mainly centered on police officers (Peterson & Densley, 2018). Literature on Non-violent Crisis Intervention (NCI) and Crisis Prevention Intervention (CPI) primarily focuses on best practices with various crises, not on academic and behavioral outcomes for students with EBD.

Promotion. Another theme that developed was that being promoted to a leadership position allowed participants to receive additional training. Katie had much more training than the other participants from her experience as an administrator at an emotional disabilities private/public program. She explained that staff had to be trained yearly on behavioral interventions as part of the licensure process. Jenny received additional training (e.g., PBIS) when she was promoted to a district mentor for new special education teachers.

Personal Experience. Many teachers in the interviews relied on personal experiences or training outside of the education field. Brenda was trained in the Boys Town curriculum (Batenhorst et al., 2011) with her family. She brought verbiage, consistency, and diffusion methods into her classroom. Brenda has two children with EBD; she explained that her personal experience was helpful for parents because she could be a resource and soundboard. Molly expressed that she had 15 years of experience raising a son with autism that she has brought to the school. Jill also has a daughter with ADHD; the strategies she uses in her classroom for organization and breaks are the same ones she uses at home.

Erika was a paraprofessional for 14 years before becoming a teacher. She was able to pick up strategies and ideas from other teachers to use in her classroom. Additionally, Jenny had several family members on the spectrum; she uses her personal experience to support her students. For ten years, Jenny was also a counselor, which she described as helpful when transitioning to a special education teaching position.

Tenacity. Many of the participants reported being life-long learners and were willing to pay for training themselves or beg for it. Jenny had a lot of tenacity. She called herself a MacGyver; she actively looked for training to support her role (e.g., transition planning, PBIS, MTSS, whole-brain teaching). She explained, “only because I’ve sought it out. I paid to go to

training; I paid to stay at the hotel myself. I've been fortunate to get a lot of training in my experience, but that's not the same for everyone." Katie also had tenacity about getting the training she wanted by building mental health agency connections. Brenda discussed having to fight with her administration and district to get training, but she was tenacious about it, and it worked for her most of the time.

Systems of Support. Having connections and school-wide systems emerged during the interviews as facilitating evidence-based practices. In the interview with Lisa, she described how school-wide systems were beneficial in the school district she worked in before moving to Arizona. She said, "school-wide was phenomenal because the entire school used it. They were trained in it. It was the same verbiage, and it was great, awesome." Kelly, Brenda, Erika, Jill, and Lisa work at schools that have a Multi-Tiered System of Supports in place, which helped reduce students being referred for special education, and to some degree, reduced inappropriate placements in their classrooms. Molly, and Katie, relied on collaboration with other agencies (i.e., mental health, residential treatment centers, counselors, psychiatrists) to receive additional training and support in teaching students with EBD.

Barriers to Efficacy, Resources, Curriculum, and Burnout

Misconceptions. Overwhelmingly, teachers in this study reported that general education teachers lacked an understanding of students with EBD and were often unwilling to provide accommodations and support in their classrooms. Kelly described, "I have definitely a lot of general education teachers that have a minimal understanding of like our students and their needs. Just like why they're in their classroom and what they need." Interview participants reported they often had to move students out of the general education classroom due to teacher conflicts and general education teachers not feeling ownership of students with EBD in their classroom. Brenda

elaborated, “Get your kids out of here. Excuse me; I didn’t give birth to him.” Another theme from a few interviews was additional teacher difficulty when districts hired teachers from other countries (i.e., India, Sri Lanka, Philippines, Marshall Islands) to teach hard-to-fill positions (e.g., special education, low-income rural or urban schools). Newly arrived teachers were expected to take immediate charge of a classroom without support, and subsequently, they often struggled with classroom management and behavior. Differences in teachers’ ideas regarding the appropriate behavior of students, respect, and focus were difficult for newly recruited teachers. As a result, mainstreaming students with EBD was difficult in their classrooms.

Time and Lack of Curriculum. Every teacher reported using various internet resources to build their curricula (i.e., Teachers Pay Teachers, Pinterest). Jill elaborated, “Google, Teachers pay Teachers, yeah nothing is provided. It’s trial and error that I find for myself. I’ll try this one today and see what works.” Another theme that emerged during the interviews was that teachers struggled to find a curriculum related to social skills. The lack of curriculum and time severely impacted teachers’ ability to use the evidence-based curriculum. Lisa explained that her district requires teachers only to use research-based curricula.

She further explains:

At our school, so, it's actually blocked from even allowing the server, like you can't even get it on your computer because they only want you to use an approved curriculum, which is difficult for my role because there is no approved curriculum, so, it's kind of like a double edge thing here like okay well, you don't need to use it, but you haven't provided me with anything else.

Furthermore, teachers struggled to get modified or adapted curricula for their students. They reported having a daily struggle in finding a general education curriculum for their

students. Unfortunately, no single teacher received a curriculum from their general education teachers.

Jill emphasized:

The reading curriculum that we have, I can look at it online, but I can't print anything, so if I needed something at a lower grade level that still matched my fourth-grade curriculum or standard. I would have to go to the first-grade teacher and ask to borrow a workbook to make a copy. When I only have 30 minutes during the day, it's just easier for me to supplement things on my own and just don't tell anybody I'm doing it. I know that's completely wrong, but when I'm not given access to what I need, then it makes it difficult to do my job.

As a result, teachers had to rely on previous teaching experience, old and unused books, and online resources (i.e., Teachers Pay Teachers, education.com, superteachers.com, Houghton Mifflin workbooks from 2002, the elements curriculum). Jenny described finding curriculum and resources as “when there are no textbooks, there's no curriculum, It's that MacGyver. You have to know the people that have the resources. I don't have the resources, but I know how to get them. So, you borrow, you beg, you procure.”

Understaffed. In addition, not having sufficient aide support for their program was reported by all eight interview participants. Several teachers said they often lost aides to better-paying jobs. Moreover, Title 1 schools also require a paraprofessional certificate, limiting qualified applicants. One of the most significant barriers that emerged from being short-staffed is that students cannot mainstream without support in the classroom. Erika described, “So, for example, trying to get my kids into the gen-ed setting. I wish I had more para pros that I could use because I only have two para pros. I need a para pro in the classroom. That leaves only one

para pro to go with the students into gen-ed or to the mainstream.” Instructional support vacancies may be detrimental to educating students in their least restrictive environment. Additionally, schools have made staff cuts for counselors, psychologists, and special education secretaries, limiting the teachers’ resources for support.

Burnout. Burnout and increased students being identified as EBD have also identified barriers to teachers’ intent to continue teaching. Two of the interview participants indicated they felt burnt out and unsure if they could continue teaching. Several participants discussed an increase in behavior problems and students needing behavior support. Lisa described, “the expectation for teachers is unrealistic, there is lack of support, lack of funding. Teachers here in Arizona have 30 plus kids that legally cannot meet 30 plus kids minutes, but we do it anyway. And they’re like, well, too bad we don’t have the funding for it.”

Inconsistency. Another theme that arose during the interviews was that seven out of the eight participants described that their classroom was often a “dumping ground” due to inconsistency on what behaviors or expectations qualify a student to be in their classroom.

Lisa further explains:

It’s definitely a dumping ground; it’s difficult when other campuses make the decisions because I am not a part of that campus. I had a new kid that came to me last week that another campus had determined, oh, he needs a program, and he came to me. So far, I haven’t seen the need compared to what other needs in my classroom are so. It is hard because it’s easy for other classrooms to say, he needs to be with you because it’s easy for them just to get rid of the kids, and now I have too many kids.

Having one student inappropriately placed often throws off the entire classroom dynamic and can be detrimental to students with EBD. Several teachers reported having barriers with

consistency among administration and differing ideologies about EBD students. As a result, teachers reported not feeling supported by their administration. Lack of consistency on how a student qualifies to be placed in a more restrictive environment created significant barriers to teachers' ability to curriculum plan and meet the individual needs of their students.

Lack of Training. A significant barrier that arose during the interviews was that every participant reported not being prepared to teach students with EBD when they started teaching. Several participants discussed that their teacher preparation programs focused on differentiating instruction and learning disabilities. Classroom management and handling challenging behavior was not focused on during their teacher preparation programs. Additionally, teachers did not have training on FBAs or BIPs. The Office of Special Education Rehabilitative Services reiterated that IEPs must consider behavioral needs in the development, review, and revision of IEPs. Furthermore, IEP teams must consider and, if necessary, provide FAPE, include appropriate behavioral goals and objectives and other appropriate services and supports in the IEPs of children whose behavior impedes their own learning or the learning of their peers (OSERS, 2017, p.8).

Unfortunately, the interviews indicated that participants did not receive training on conducting or writing FBAs or BIPs before they began teaching students with EBD. as Erika elaborated, "FBAs and behavior plans we have through the district; I haven't had as much training because I haven't really had to write one." Molly also described being confused about what the process was. She said, "our BCBA does that; she wrote them, but then there is talk that she is not supposed to do them; we're supposed to do them. But I've never done one. Am I supposed to be writing this, and what kind of data do you want?" The only teachers with formal training in writing FBAs and BIPs were Katie and Jenny, although neither were trained before

starting as a special education teacher. Lisa, Jill, and Kelly have relied on mentors, district support, and templates to write them.

Research Question 4: Efficacy and Intent to Continue Teaching?

Descriptive statistics were used to answer the fourth research question. Participants were asked to rate their likelihood of continuing teaching students with EBD over the next five years. Both “not likely” and “very likely” were rated equally, with 22.41% of participants rating that category. Next, 25.8% of participants selected “somewhat” likely. The most selected choice by 29.31% of participants was “likely.” Although the data was not varied, about an equal number of respondents plan to continue teaching as those who do not.

Survey participants were also asked to rate their feelings about elements of their job (appropriate training, available resources, and confidence in their ability), between zero being insufficient and five being superior. A descriptive analysis was used for each variable to determine the central tendency (e.g., mean) and variability (i.e., standard deviation, range). Confidence in their ability had the highest mean of 3.76, ranging from two to five. Appropriate training averaged 2.59 with a range of answers between zero and five. Available resources had the lowest mean of 2.38, ranging between zero and five. Teachers’ average time outside the school day was 6.1 hours, ranging from less than two to more than ten hours.

As seen in Table 13 and Table 14, a Pearson’s correlation was used to examine the relationship between the independent (resources and training) and the dependent variables (efficacy and intent to continue teaching). The minimum sample size to collect a higher correlation coefficient of .5 and .7 is 29 (Bujang & Baharum, 2016). The sample size for this study was 58, which is beyond the threshold for qualitative analysis. Training and teachers’ confidence in their ability strongly correlated ($r = .4668, p = 0.0002$). However, access to

resources did not have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' confidence in their ability ($r = .1554, p = .244$). Training and teachers' intent to continue teaching had a significant positive correlation ($r = .5513, p < 0.0001$). Resources and teachers' intent to continue teaching had a significant positive correlation ($r = .4646, p = .0002$).

Although the number of students with EBD and hours spent planning outside of the school day were not independent variables in the study, previous research suggests a significant association between teachers' feelings of efficacy and retention (Gilmour & Wehby, 2020). A Pearson's correlation was used with the addition of two variables (i.e., number of hours spent planning outside of the school day, number of students with EBD) to determine if they are related to teachers' intent to continue teaching and their confidence in their ability. The number of hours spent planning outside of the school day ($r = -.03711, p = .7821$) and the number of students ($r = .1341, p = .3157$) did not have a significant association with teachers confidence in their ability. The number of hours spent planning outside of the school day ($r = .005420, p = .4839$) and number of students with EBD ($r = .1128, p = .1997$) also did not have a significant association with teachers intent to continue teaching.

Table 13
Teacher's Intent to Continue Teaching

	Training	Resources	Students	Hours
Pearson r				
r	0.5513	0.4642	0.2475	0.06207
95% confidence interval	0.3417 to 0.7087	0.2340 to 0.6452	-0.01149 to 0.4754	-0.1994 to 0.3153
R squared	0.3039	0.2155	0.06128	0.003852
P value				
P (two-tailed)	<0.0001	0.0002	0.0610	0.6435
P value sum	****	***	ns	ns
Significant? (alpha = 0.05)	Yes	Yes	No	No
Number of XY Pairs	58	58	58	58

Table 14
Teacher's Confidence in their Ability

	Training	Resources	Students	Hours
Pearson r				
<i>r</i>	0.4688	0.1544	.1128	.005420
95% confidence interval	0.2370 to 0.06470	-0.1072 to 0.3977	-.1499 to .3606	-.2532 to .2633
R squared	0.2179	0.2155	.01272	2.938e-005
P value				
P (two-tailed)	0.0002	0.2441	.1997	.4839
P value sum	***	ns	ns	ns
Significant? (alpha = 0.05)	Yes	No	No	No
Number of XY Pairs	58	58	58	58

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This chapter will begin by reviewing the general problem and the research questions. It will continue by reviewing the overall findings of those research questions and how those findings are related to previous research. The chapter will then consider how the findings of this study provide implications for teacher preparation, curriculum, and resources. The chapter will conclude by describing some study limitations and directions for future research.

General Problem and Research Questions

For decades, poor short and long-term outcomes for students with EBD and long-standing EBD teacher shortages have been a national concern. Evidence-based teaching, good classroom management, positive classroom environments, and data-based decisions are essential to teaching students with EBD (Zaheer et al., 2019). Previous research has identified that teacher burnout is attributed to class size, resources, teaching demographics, and teacher certification methods (Bettini et al., 2020; Billingsley & Bettini, 2019). This study sought to identify the resources teachers of students with EBD use in their classrooms, whether they are evidence-based, what promotes and hinders the use of evidence-based resources, and whether resources or training are associated with teachers' feelings of efficacy and intent to continue teaching.

Findings and Connections to Prior Research

Research Question 1: What Resources Do Teachers Report Using? and Research Question 2: Are Teachers Using Evidence-based Curriculum and Resources?

This section will deal with Research Questions 1 and 2 together. In other words, for each area of curriculum and resources (i.e., organization and study skills, social skills, classroom management), this section will discuss the findings of the use of resources and whether those resources are evidence-based.

Identifying Resources. Both survey and interview participants reported using internet searches (i.e., Pinterest, Teachers pay Teachers, Google) to build their curriculum consistent with previous literature (Beahm et al., 2021). Colleagues were not the first choice for most respondents, which is inconsistent with previous studies (Beahm et al., 2021; Landrum et al., 2007). Professional organizations, journals, district support, and professional development were the least used resources. Previous literature suggests that professional development opportunities are rarely relevant to special education teachers (Cavendish et al., 2020). Additionally, Cook and Farley (2019) argued that educators often do not have the time, resources, or access to scholarly publications, which may explain why journals and professional organizations were among the least used resources.

Organization and Study Skills. The most used resource reported by survey participants to teach organization and study skills was check-in/check-out (CICO). Materials from professional development or a course and district-provided curriculum were also highly reported among participants. More than a third of participants reported planner checks. The executive functioning skills curriculum was reported by a quarter of the participants. The least used curricular resources were the SOAR study skills curriculum and stress management package by only five percent of respondents.

CICO is a highly endorsed EBP to teach organization, behavior management, and academic engagement in elementary school students (Miller et al., 2015), improve behavior and academic outcomes for students with and at risk for EBD (Crone et al., 2004; Lewis et al., 2017), and an EBP for problem behavior maintained by adult attention (Wolfe et al., 2016). Furthermore, CICO is an EBP with a reduction in problem behavior that increases work completion and homework accuracy in middle school students who engage in escape-maintained

behavior (Turtura et al., 2014). Materials from professional development or a course and district-provided curriculum does not give enough information to determine if the materials are EBPs. Planners themselves are not an EBP, but many organization strategies include using a planner. Class-wide planner checks can be used as a Tier 1 teaching practice and effectively reduce some ADHD symptoms, gains in academic functioning, organization of material, homework management, and planning (Langberg et al., 2020).

Executive functioning skills curriculums have strong evidence as being EBP for individuals with ADHD (Brown, 2000) and moderate evidence with individuals with learning disorders (Wolraich et al., 2005). There has been limited research exploring the effectiveness of using executive functioning skills curriculum in classrooms supporting EBD students. Although individuals with ADHD often exhibit poor emotional awareness and higher levels of externalizing behavior problems (Factor et al., 2016) which are also prevalent in students with EBD (Lane et al., 2002). Furthermore, 60% of students with ADHD qualify for special education under the Emotional Disturbance category (Mustian & Cuenca-Sanchez, 2012). Social problems often result from problem behavior at an early age and are associated with long-term difficulties (Kern et al., 2015). Brown's Model of Executive Functioning (2009) features intervention strategies widely centered on self-management techniques. Self-management is an EBP for students with problem behavior from preschool through high school (Lewis et al., 2004). The findings suggest that many components of EBPs to teach study skills and organization are being used in classrooms. Both PBIS strategies and Brown's Executive Functioning model are easily accessible (i.e., jargon-free language, free online), which aligns with previous research which found understandability and accessibility to be factors educators use to filter through and find resources (Beahm et al., 2021; Landrum et al., 2007).

Social Skills. The Social Emotional Learning (SEL) curriculum was the most reported resource to teach social skills by about forty percent of participants. The survey also highly reported materials from professional development or a course. More than a third of participants reported using social narratives, and students attend a social group (e.g., counselor or social worker provided). A quarter of participants reported using the Behavior Skills Training framework, Social Thinking curriculum, and social skills curriculum package. Less than twenty percent of participants reported using district or school-provided curriculum, which differs from the organization and study skills results. The district or school-provided curriculum was one of the most used resources. The least used resource to teach social skills was the Teaching Interaction Procedure.

SEL curriculum has moderate evidence as an EBP due to multiple curriculums and resources available under the same umbrella. However, Durlak et al. (2011) analyzed 213 school-based SEL programs. They found that SEL participants had a significant gain in social and emotional skills, attitudes, behavior, and academic performance compared to controls. SEL has promising availability, use, and positive outcomes, which could positively affect students with EBD. Additionally, future additional research could qualify it as an EBP for students with EBD. The Social Thinking curriculum currently does not meet the criteria of an EBP (Leaf et al., 2016). The Social Thinking curriculum research has been chiefly researched with individuals with autism. Materials from professional development or a course and district-provided curriculum cannot be assessed for an EBP.

Unfortunately, the three strongest EBPs to teach social skills (i.e., Teaching Interaction Procedure, social skills training, and Behavior Skills Training) were among the least used curricular resources reported. The EBPs to teach social skills may be the least used because these

interventions are reported in journals and targeted at behavior analysts, not teachers. Cook and Farley (2019) further explained that journal articles often publish studies conducted in small controlled settings. As a result, teachers may not perceive the findings as applicable or generalizable in their busy classrooms. Unfortunately, most research on EBPs to teach social skills was conducted in small settings and predominately on individuals with Autism. Additionally, much of the research was conducted in a “top-down” manner, where educators are recipients of interventions (Conroy, 2016, p. 192), affecting teachers’ perceptions of their validity.

Classroom Management. Additionally, survey participants were asked to report on the classroom management strategies they use. Classroom-wide PBIS was the most used classroom management strategy reported by more than half of the participants. The Wongs’ classroom management strategies were the second most used resource for classroom management by about half of the participants. A third of the participants also reported using whole-brain teaching. About twenty percent of survey respondents reported using time-out or think-time and Class Dojo. Class contracts were reported by fifteen percent of survey participants. The least used classroom management systems used were the Good Behavior Game and Capturing Kids Hearts, with less than ten percent of participants using them.

PBIS is a widely endorsed EBP for classroom management (Wehby & Lane, 2019) and supporting students at risk and with emotional and behavior disorders (Lewis et al., 2017). Token economies are an EBP for classroom management, behavior, and academics (Kazdin, 1977). Token economies have increased pro-social behaviors in adolescents with EBD (Wolfe et al., 2003). Additionally, previous studies have found Class Dojo to be an effective token economy method to improve student behavior (Garcia & Hoang, 2015). The Wongs’ classroom

management strategies may have weak peer-reviewed research. Still, their strategies include teaching specific expectations and procedures, creating classroom structure, displaying procedures and rules, and creating a supportive classroom (Wong & Wong, 2018).

Unfortunately, there are not enough peer-reviewed studies on whole-brain teaching to classify it as an EBP, but it does encompass many of the same EBPs (i.e., clearly stated classroom rules and expectations, routines, promoting a positive classroom environment, creating structure and predictability) that are in PBIS and substantiated by previous research (Simonsen et al., 2008; Zaheer et al., 2019).

The findings suggest that these practices may not be published in peer-reviewed journals, but they have the potential for being practice-based. Practice-based evidence is conducted in natural teaching environments by the classroom teacher (Beahm et al., 2021); thus, practitioners are more likely to view the practices as reliable. Still, these resources have EBP components and are easily accessible to teachers (i.e., online searches, Teachers pay Teachers, Pinterest).

Whereas most EBP research is disseminated outside of sources teachers rely on for instructional information (i.e., professional development, social media, websites, other teachers, curriculum packages; Cook et al., 2013), impacting their accessibility to teachers.

Research Question 3: What are Facilitators and Barriers to the Use of EB Resources?

Facilitators. Previous research has explored the lack of EBPs in EBD classrooms, but they have not reported what teachers use to support their students. A few themes emerged during the interviews that promote evidence-based resources, practices, and curricula. The EBPs were already in the classroom before the teachers were hired. Teachers were also able to rely on support staff and mentors when they started. Teachers brought EBP resources from previous training and experience to their classrooms. A couple of the teachers were promoted to

leadership roles where they received training in EBP. Several participants discussed being life-long learners, so they actively enjoyed and sought out training and were willing to pay for it themselves. Lastly, districts with established systems (e.g., MTSS, PBIS) promoted EBPs in their classrooms (CICO, PBIS, token economies, SEL).

Barriers. The most reported barrier to teachers' ability to use and access EBPs was time. Special education teachers reported they often do not have a dedicated planning period or even lunch on some days. Lack of sufficient aide support also hindered teachers' ability to obtain resources and was reported by all eight participants. All eight interview participants reported they struggled to get a general education curriculum. Also, mainstreaming conflicts (i.e., general education teachers not supportive of students, not enough aide support for students in mainstream classrooms) were significant barriers for teachers to use EBPs. Research suggests general education teachers lack formal training in mainstreaming practices, and there are rarely opportunities for the general education teacher and special education teacher to collaborate (Alnasser, 2021). As a result, much of their time was spent on other roles, which did not leave enough time for them to search and use EBPs effectively. Previous studies on teacher burnout found that role ambiguity and role conflicts significantly contribute to special education teachers' burnout (Brunsting et al., 2014). Several teachers reported feeling burnt out, which contributed to the amount of time and energy they were willing to dedicate to finding additional resources and curriculum. Inconsistency regarding expectations, administration support, and district turnover was also reported as a barrier to accessing evidence-based resources. Lastly, poor preparation and formal training in EBPs (i.e., FBA, BIP, social skills, organization) were barriers to teachers using EBP.

Research Question 4: Efficacy and Intent to Continue Teaching?

Survey participants indicated they are using many evidence-based practices in their classroom to teach social skills, organization, and classroom management. However, during the interviews, it was extrapolated that teachers may be using pieces of evidence-based practices. Still, they may not have enough resources (time, training, curriculum) to use these practices with fidelity. Interview participants described not being adequately prepared to teach students with EBD when they started teaching, which aligns with previous research (Gilmour & Wehby, 2020). The association between training and teachers' intent to continue teaching and feelings of efficacy was high. Having sufficient resources was not correlated with teachers' feelings of effectiveness but was strongly correlated with teachers' intent to continue teaching.

Implications for Teacher Preparation

This study suggests that teaching programs may not adequately prepare teachers to teach students with EBD. Yell (2019) clarified that behavior deficits must be addressed in a student's IEP if they interfere with a student's independence and functioning. In addition, IDEA requires that if a student's behavior "impedes the child's learning of that of others, the IEP team must consider the use of positive behavioral interventions and supports to address that behavior" (IDEA, 20 U.S.C. § 1414 [d][3][B][i]). However, interview participants reported they were not trained in conducting FBAs and or writing BIPs before they started teaching, despite extant research supporting function-based behavior intervention plans (McKenna et al., 2021). Furthermore, professional development opportunities in behavior management, social-skills instruction, FBAs, BIPs, and curriculum choices were almost non-existent once participants became teachers. Although, having mentors, supportive administration, and district systems of support were helpful for teachers to access resources and informal training. The results suggest that school districts should build district-wide support systems for teachers with more intensive

support for special education teachers. Previous research indicated that teachers rely on colleagues because they are the most trustworthy and provide practice-based evidence (Beahm et al., 2021). Developing professional learning communities relevant to special education teachers may also be an effective practice to reduce burnout and increase the capacity for EBPs in classrooms.

The gap in research-to-practice in special education classrooms supporting students with EBD has not changed, as demonstrated by many of the teaching practices indicated in the surveys and interviews. This aligns with previous studies (Gable et al., 2014; Wagner et al., 2006). Students with EBD need targeted explicit instruction in skill deficits unique to their population (i.e., organization, social skills, emotional regulation). The study results indicate that training impacts teachers' feelings of efficacy in their job. In addition, the incongruence of general education teachers' perception of including students with EBD in mainstream classes often caused friction, hindering students' ability to be included with their nondisabled peers effectively. As a result, developing professional development opportunities for all staff (i.e., teachers, administrators, support staff) would be the most beneficial resource in supporting students with EBD and their teachers.

Previous research suggests that teachers do not feel prepared to teach students with challenging behaviors (Wagner et al., 2006). This aligned with the interviews; teachers overwhelming reported they were not prepared for the complex behaviors of students with EBD. Most of the interviewees discussed learning about differentiating instruction and working with students with learning disabilities during their coursework. The findings align with previous professional development in special education research, which indicated that special education teachers rarely receive professional development opportunities relevant to teaching students with

EBD (Cavendish et al., 2020; Maggin et al., 2010). Moreover, the fact that journals are the least used source teachers use to find resources and curriculum needs to be addressed. Educators often do not have the time, resources, or access to scholarly publications (Cook & Farley, 2019). Researchers need to make their findings more teacher-friendly and accessible outside of peer-reviewed journals to improve the research-to-practice gap.

There is a plethora of research documenting the quality of implementation and the effectiveness of classroom interventions and teaching strategies (Sabina et al., 2016). Many teachers reported using evidence-based curriculum and teaching methods. It is unknown to what extent teachers are implementing these strategies as intended. Furthermore, resources/curriculum did not correlate with teachers' confidence in their ability. At the same time, there was a correlation between training and teachers' self-report of confidence in their ability, suggesting that providing teachers with training could impact promoting evidence-based practices in classrooms. Although previous research found training in isolation to be ineffective, the sustainability of professional development depends on ongoing coaching and feedback (State et al., 2019). Future research in research-practice partnerships is needed to tailor evidence-based practices to meet the needs of teachers. Additionally, these partnerships can provide ongoing coaching and feedback to sustain interventions supporting students with EBD.

Implications for Provision of Curriculum and Resources

Several significant implications can be drawn from this study regarding curriculum and resources. First, the interviews further demonstrated some of the bleak situations in schools today. Every participant described not having enough staff support, including instructional aides, a shortage of special education teachers, and limited school psychologists and counselors presence in schools to support students. The amount of time planning outside the school day did

not significantly correlate with the teacher's intent to continue teaching, contradicting previous research on burnout and attrition (Bettini et al., 2020). Although, training and resources did have a strong positive correlation between teachers' intent to continue teaching. Surprisingly, there is a lack of planning time and resource sharing between general education and special education teachers. As a result, most interviewees described using internet searches and teacher-friendly websites to supplement their insufficient curriculum, which was established in previous research (Beahm et al., 2021; Landrum et al., 2007).

Second, throughout the interviews, participants described mentorship and school systems as instrumental in helping teachers obtain the resources (training, curriculum, teaching support, behavior interventions) they needed. The conservation of resources theory posits that mentors and supportive relationships are facilitators for individuals to obtain the help they need and prevent burnout (Hobfoll, 1989). Furthermore, participants described losing resources (staff, new administration, budget cuts, moving schools), which contributed to stress and burnout. While special education teacher burnout and attrition have long been studied, the interviewees indicated that support staff retention had been a long-standing issue in supporting students with EBD. It would be helpful for state agencies, districts, and policies to recognize the need to increase pay for individuals who support special education classrooms. Additionally, resources were stretched even further after the introduction of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, which further impacted teacher turnover in schools. The authors did not evaluate the relationship between loss of resources and teachers' feelings of burnout, but according to the conservation of resources theory, stress results when an individual's resources are depleted or threatened, which is a long-standing reality in Arizona schools (Hobfoll, 1991).

Limitations

This study was conducted in Arizona, with only 58 survey participants and eight interviewees. The findings might have been different if the first author had surveyed and interviewed more teachers. A snowball recruitment method was used, which resulted in many teachers with master's degrees. It is unlikely that this study's demographics are representative of the actual population. In addition, most of the participants were white women. As a result, it is unknown if different results would have emerged if the participants were more racially/ethnically diverse. Teachers were only recruited in Arizona; other states may have different teaching certifications and licensures that better prepare educators to work with students with EBD. The study was also conducted during the second full school year during the Covid-19 pandemic. Some burnout, lack of training, and resources could result from teaching during a pandemic.

Additionally, the surveys and interviews relied on self-reports, and the outcomes' accuracy was not substantiated. Furthermore, teachers may have selected that they used curriculum from the survey choices, but they may not have known the teaching practice. For example, one of the survey choices was "Teaching Interaction Procedure," an evidence-based strategy in applied behavior analysis (ABA) but may be widely unavailable to teachers outside of the ABA field. Teachers may have clicked on choices based on the literal meaning of the words. Also, the fidelity of implementation is critical to EBPs being effective. It is unknown to what extent teachers use the curriculum and methods as intended. SEL has been shown as an effective strategy, but numerous curriculums and packages have emerged that have not been sufficiently researched. As a result, teachers may or may not use an evidence-based intervention.

Future Research

Future research is needed to improve the research-to-practice gap in classrooms supporting students with EBD. Researchers and practitioners need to join forces to mutually

work together to improve teachers and students with EBD outcomes. Conroy (2016) suggested that future research needs to ensure a contextual fit, interventions are feasible to be implemented by teachers and staff, and educators are highly skilled and competent to maintain the practices with fidelity. First, collaboration needs to determine what is working and what resources are needed. Additionally, school data needs to drive short- and long-term intervention goals and subsequent research. The resulting partnership efforts will make intervention strategies more applicable and accessible for schools. Research partnerships have an immediate benefit to students, while practitioners and researchers create structures and systems for intervention sustainability (Lane, 2017). In addition, including practitioners in intervention development can increase teachers' feelings of adequacy and could reduce teachers' burnout and attrition.

Additionally, it is important to note that although treatment integrity is essential to determine if an intervention is effective, components of EBPs often need to be tailored to meet the teacher's needs (time, training, personality, class size, students, age group). Future research replicating EBPs (Teaching Interaction Procedure, social skills training) to teach social skills in individuals with Autism needs to be explored with EBD students. Suppose these studies result in similar positive effects. In that case, future research needs to focus on professional development and coaching with special education teachers to increase the prevalence of EBPs to teach social skills in EBD classrooms. Future research is needed on study skills and organization practices (executive functioning skills curriculum, planner checks, and SOAR studies skills curriculum) for students with EBD. Given that student behavior is the most cited reason teachers leave the profession, teacher-friendly classroom management strategies need to be researched. Most importantly, researchers need to disseminate EBPs in resources teachers use.

APPENDIX A: SURVEY QUESTIONS

Survey Questions

Survey Question	Literature Base	Research Methodology
1. What best describes your gender? Checklist (female, male, transgender, nonconforming, other, prefer not to answer)	N/A	Demographic information
2. What best describes your racial identity? Checklist (Asian, Black, or African American, White, Native American, or Alaska Native, Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latino, other, prefer not to answer?)	N/A	Demographic information
3. What teaching certifications do you hold? Check all that apply (e.g., traditional bachelor's degree in teaching, K-8, Cross-Categorical, Master's degree, emergency certification, alternative certification, substitute, none) (checklist)	Billingsley and Bettini, 2019 Oliver and Reschly, 2010	Demographic information, Research question three
4. What age group do you teach? Multiple choice k-8, elementary, middle school, high school, 6-12, other	N/A	Demographic information
5. How many students with EBD do you teach and or case manage? Multiple choice (> 5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-25, < 25, other)	Gilmour and Wehby, 2020	Demographic information
6. How would you describe your classroom setting? Check all that apply, self-contained, co-taught, full inclusion, separate schooling, resource, other.	N/A	Demographic information
7. How do you provide instruction in skill deficits for students with EBD? Check all that apply (yes a dedicated class to teaching skills deficits in EBD students, I see students once a week for an intervention period, pull-out services as indicated on their IEP, as needed, no, other).	Wagner et al., 2006	Research question one
8. Where do you typically go to seek resources to support your students with EBD? Please rate based on 1 being most used and 5 least used (internet search, Pinterest, teachers' pay teachers, colleagues, district support, professional development opportunities, journals, professional organization)	Beahm et al., 2021	Research questions two and three

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| 9. What curricular resources do you use to teach social skills? Check all that apply (social thinking, materials from a professional development/ and or course, Social Skills Training Curriculum Package, Behavior Skills Training (BST), Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) curriculum package, social skills curriculum package, Teacher Interaction Procedure, Social Narratives, Social Stories, District, or school provided curriculum package, other, n/a | Rutherford et al., 1996 | Research questions one and two |
| 10. What curricular resources do you use to teach organization and study skills? Check all that apply (materials from a professional development/and or course, district and or school provided, executive functioning skills curriculum, SOAR study skills curriculum, planner checks, check-in check-out, stress management package, other) | Wagner et al., 2006 | Research questions one and two |
| 11. What classroom management system do you use? Check all that apply (Good Behavior Game, classroom-wide PBIS, the Wongs' Classroom management, Whole-brain teaching, Capturing Kids Hearts, time-out of think-time, token economy, class contract, ClassDojo, other) | Beahm et al., 2021, French, 2019; State et al., 2019; Zaheer et al., 2019 | Research questions one and two |
| 12. Do you use any additional curriculum or resources? | N/A | Research questions one and two |
| 13. How many hours outside of the school day do you spend planning weekly? (<2, 3-5, 6-9, >10). | Gilmour and Wehby, 2020 | |
| 14. How would you rate your feelings about the following elements of your job (0 being insufficient, 5 being superior)?
a. Confidence in my ability (0-5 scale)
b. Appropriate trainings (0-5 scale)
c. Available Resources (0-5 scale) | Bettini et al., 2020 | Research question four |
| 15. How would you rate your likelihood that you will continue to teach students with EBD over the next five years? Not likely, somewhat likely, very likely | Bettini et al., 2020 | Research question four |
| 16. Any comments, suggestions, or additional information you feel would be useful? | | |
| 17. Are you interested in participating in a follow-up interview? | | |

18. Please leave your name, email, and phone number if you would like to participate in a follow-up interview.
 19. Are you interested in helping recruit additional teachers you may know to participate in this study? (Yes and here is my email address)
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APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview Questions

Interview Questions	Literature Base	Research Methodology
1. Can you describe your certification/ and or training in teaching students with EBD?	Billingsley and Bettini, 2019; Oliver and Reschly, 2010	Research question one
2. What has your experience been teaching students with EBD, how long, what types of classrooms have you worked in, the good and the bad?	Oliver and Reschly, 2010	Research questions two and three
3. Did you feel adequately prepared to teach students with EBD when you started? Why or why not?	Manning et al., 2009	Research question four
4. What resources did you have/use when you first started teaching?	Manning et al., 2009	Research questions three and four
5. What resources such as training and curriculum would have been helpful for you to have before you began teaching students with EBD?	Lloyd et al., 2019	Research questions three and four
6. What types of professional development have you attended related to teaching students with EBD?	Oliver and Reschly, 2010	Research questions one, two, and three
7. What types of training and resources do you use to write an FBA, a BIP, and behavioral interventions? How did you obtain them?	Lane, 2017	Research questions one, two, and three
8. How often do you see your students with EBD? Do you teach a class related to skill deficits such as social skills, organization, in students with EBD? What types of instruction do you use?	Wagner et al., 2006	Research question one
9. What curriculum do you use to teach these classes? How did you obtain it?	French, 2019	Research questions one, two, and three
10. What barriers have you experienced in obtaining curriculum?	Wagner et al., 2006	Research question three
11. If you could dream up the best scenario, what support or resources would you have that you don't currently have?	Bettini et al., 2020	Research question three
12. Where do you typically look for resources (online, journals, etc.)? How do you evaluate the quality of the resources you are using?	Beahm et al., 2021	Research questions one and two

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| 13. If you need additional support with a student, what resources do you use? Where do you look for new resources? | Lane, 2017.
Beahm et al., 2021 | Research question three |
| 14. What are classroom management strategies that you use? How did you determine these would be effective? | Chang, 2013 | Research questions one, two, and three |
| 15. Do you have any resources or people who supported the development of these strategies? | Bettini et al., 2020 | Research question three |
| 16. What has been the most helpful resource for you in teaching students with EBD. | Bettini et al., 2020 | Research question three |
| 17. Is there anything else that you feel would be useful for me to know about teaching students with EBD? | | |
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