

ABSTRACT OF CAPSTONE

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The Graduate School

Morehead State University

February 20, 2019

TOWARDS A NEW MODEL OF STUDENTSHIP:  
INTEGRATING A SUMMATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR STUDENT  
EFFECTIVENESS

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Abstract of Capstone

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A capstone submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
Requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in the  
College of Education  
At Morehead State University

By

Wesley R. Cooper, Jr.

Tollesboro, Kentucky

Committee Chair: Michael Kessinger, Assistant Professor

Morehead, Kentucky

February 20, 2019

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## ABSTRACT OF CAPSTONE

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INTEGRATING A SUMMATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR STUDENT  
EFFECTIVENESS

How do middle and high schools currently monitor student academic progress, behavioral accountability, and character growth? Many school accountability frameworks lack measures for evaluating individual student responsibility of and contributions to their own learning. The following discourse addresses this deficit and offers a theoretical construct of effective studentship meant to supplement existing frameworks of teacher and school effectiveness. This new summative framework of studentship represents a synthesis, selection, and arrangement of specific self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning attributes empirically linked to effective studentship.

KEYWORDS: (Studentship, Self-leadership, Motivation, Emotional Intelligence, Self-Regulated Learning)

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Candidate Signature

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Date

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EFFECTIVENESS

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DEDICATION

This capstone is dedicated to my loving wife, Dawn. Without her support and patience, my doctoral studies would have been impossible.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to acknowledge and thank the dedication, guidance, and patience of my committee members—Dr. Michael Kessinger, Dr. Jeannie Justice, and Dr. Kermit Belcher. They stand as true servant leaders, and I am forever indebted to them.

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## Executive Summary

### What is the Core of the Capstone?

It would be a mistake to believe that education *is* the way we would like it to be. C. S. Lewis famously said, “If you look for truth, you may find comfort in the end; if you look for comfort you will not get either comfort or truth—only soft soap and wishful thinking to begin, and in the end, despair” (Lewis, 2015, p. 32). For Lewis, the sole pursuit of comfort never leads to truth.

**Introduction.** Might we find this pursuit of comfort in some of our current education policies? It may well be a comfort to turn to familiar fixes to educational challenges. But how often do these practices yield the “truth” of lasting change? This frustration has been expressed in various ways.

Somehow our nation got off track in its efforts to improve education. What once was the standards movement was replaced by the accountability movement. What once was an effort to improve the quality of education turned into an accounting strategy: Measure, then punish or reward. No education experience was needed to administer such a program. Anyone who loved data could do it. (Ravitch, 2010, p. 16)

To what extent might the validity of this “accountability movement” be put into question when it fails to account for students themselves, their contribution to the learning process? Does it make sense to have accountability frameworks where teachers and administrators are centrally placed, assessed, and held accountable for student growth while student efforts to their own learning go largely unassessed? Do



the holes in these models further pave our way down the errant road as outlined by Ravitch (2010)? In our vast national, state, and district accountability aims are we, as C. S. Lewis articulated, pursuing comfort (the ease of blame and shame) over truth (the difficult demands of study, self-application, and resourcefulness)?

This missing piece in accountability marks the essence of the problem. In order to adequately evaluate effective learning environments, student-led contributions to learning must be assessed and incorporated into broader accountability measures. It is proposed that an assessment program teaching our students how to become master students (a formative process) and which measures and holds students personally accountable for this growth (a summative process) would help to redress this “top-down”, adult-centered imbalance of accountability. This new program of master studentship is the Student Accountability and Growth Assessment—SAGA (Figure 1).



Figure 1: Summative Assessment Framework Frontespiece

Such a formative and summative process of student accountability and growth would further help educators and policy-makers reimagine a comprehensive systems approach to education where students are restored to their rightful place in the learning process.

Underachievement among American youth is often blamed on inadequate teachers, boring textbooks, and large class sizes. We suggest another reason for students falling short of their intellectual potential: their failure to exercise self-discipline...We believe that many of America's children have trouble making choices that require them to sacrifice short-term pleasure for long-term gain, and that programs that build self-discipline may be the royal road to building academic achievement. (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005, p. 944)

**Purpose.** The purpose, therefore, of this project was twofold. The first purpose was to research and identify those critical behavioral attributes of masterful learning, i.e. studentship. The second purpose was to arrange and synthesize those characteristics into a linear-progressive, student-friendly framework of student growth. This framework represents the summative component of our new model of studentship—the Student Accountability and Growth Assessment (SAGA). The SAGA summative framework could be used by students and teachers alike to monitor individual student contribution to the learning process as the student progresses from novice, developing, accomplished, and exemplary levels of studentship (Figure 2). Additionally, the framework could also be used as a summative assessment by teachers and administrators to help keep students accountable for their learning.

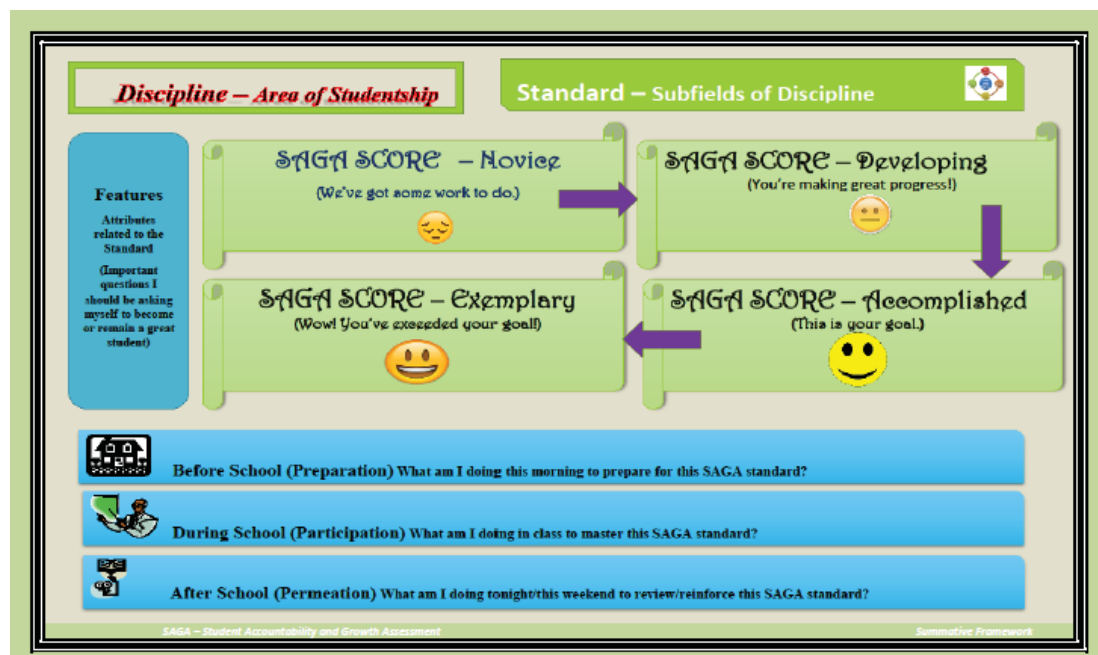


Figure 2: SAGA Score Flow Chart

**Guiding questions.** The guiding questions for this capstone were: How do adolescent learners become better students, and what are the precise attributes of a productive student? Five supportive questions flow from this and drove this integration of a new model framework for adolescent studentship:

1) According to psychological, sociological, anthropological, and educational studies, which skills, knowledge, and behaviors are most essential for effective learning during adolescence?

2) According to empirical quantitative and qualitative studies from around the world, which character, social, and cognitive traits have been demonstrated to influence learning universally in adolescent populations?

3) How might these student skill-sets be synthesized into a useful, student-friendly framework for guiding and monitoring student efficacy?

4) How might the nuanced attributes (or features) of these character, social, and cognitive traits be arranged into four competency levels of a) novice, b) developing, c) accomplished, and d) exemplary within a summative framework for student accountability?

5) In what ways could such a summative framework be used by students, teachers, and administrators to help promote masterful studentship?

**Disciplines of studentship.** The discussion on how SAGA was developed included an examination of the most relevant literature that, collectively, has gone into the creation of a new model framework of adolescent studentship. Essentially,

the literature answers: how do adolescent learners become better students, and what are the precise attributes of a productive student?

A thorough review of the literature has yielded four disciplines of effective studentship: a) self-leadership, b) emotional intelligence, c) motivation, and d) self-regulated learning. These disciplines form what are referred to as SAGA standards (Figure 3). It is constructive, therefore, to include the review of current research in each discipline in order to establish the interrelatedness and impact of these four disciplines on student growth.

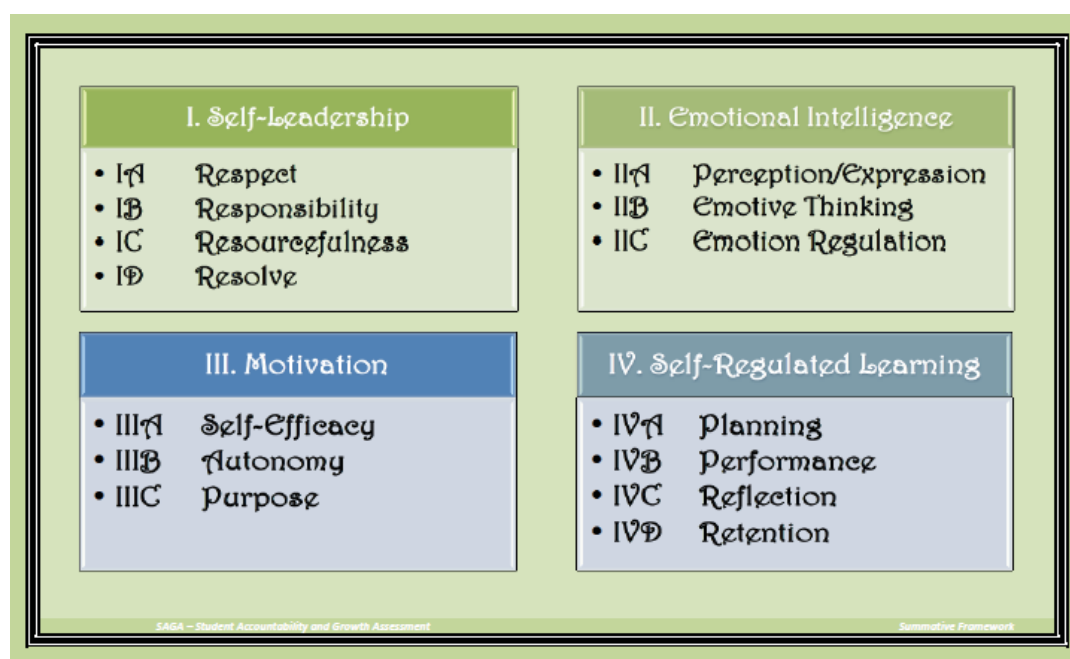


Figure 3: SAGA Standards

Ultimately, this examination and resulting framework support the notion that “the teacher’s role is to establish a learner-centered environment to support student

autonomy whereby students can assume responsibility for their learning and behavior” (Alderman & MacDonald, 2015, p. 54).

Two essential questions drove the strategy selected for the creation of the SAGA summative framework. How do adolescent learners become better students, and what are the precise attributes of a productive student? What resulted was our four-tiered discipline process of studentship: self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning.

Student success and how it is achieved was always the impetus for this project and the strategies selected. What we have seen from the preceding examination of the four SAGA disciplines of studentship is that attitude and application are far greater predictors of student achievement than inherent IQ. These findings are encouraging. We have seen strong, positive associations between self-leadership and academic performance (Neck & Manz, 1992; Becker & Luther, 2002; Duckworth & Seligman, 2005; Saluskey et al., 2014; Alderman & MacDonald, 2015; Akgun & Ciarochi, 2003; Duckworth & Peterson, 2007). Positive correlations appear also between those with highly developed emotional intelligence and academic improvement (Abdullah et al., 2004; Jimenez-Morales & Zafra, 2013; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Marquez et al., 2006;; Salovey et al., 2008; Schutte et al., 1998; Sheykhjan et al., 2014; Parker et al., 2004; Petrides et al., 2004).

Likewise, in the course of this investigation, motivation and students growth have been shown to be positively linked (Bartels & Herman, 2011; Bilge et al., 2014; Luftenegger et al., 2012; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Prat-Sala & Redford, 2010; Smit

et al, 2014). Those students accomplished in self-regulated learning also achieve high academic marks (Cleary & Platten, 2013; Cortright et al, 2015; McMillan & Hearn, 2008; Nodoushan, 2012; Patrick & Middleton, 2002; Pekrun et al., 2002; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Zimmerman, 2002; The strong associations of these four SAGA disciplines with masterful studentship have determined their placement within the SAGA summative framework.

### **Who is the capstone meant to impact?**

A new framework of effective studentship that monitors student self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning was meant to impact young adolescent learners, ideally eighth or ninth grade students. It is during these transitional grades where character development and self-regulated learning interventions have been demonstrated to yield greatest efficacy. Additionally, the SAGA summative framework is indented to be utilized by teachers and administrators to help monitor student growth (Figure 22).

**Context of the capstone.** The context of this project is expanded studentship among adolescent learners, ideally beginning in eighth or ninth grade. The roots of the SAGA initiative reach back to earlier character development curricula.

Recent research (Berkowitz & Bier, 2016; Boekaerts, 2017; Clement & Rollinger, 2017; De Bruin & Van Merriënboer, 2017; Siverthorn, et al., 2017) suggests growing interest in restructuring previously existing character development and self-regulated learning programs. Character development initiatives have sought

to help adolescents assume greater personal responsibility, while self-regulated learning curricula attempt to strengthen student-ownership in the learning process.

The two programs have often worked in isolation of one another. Districts or individual schools tend to adopt one initiative over the other, or avoid both entirely for reasons of their own. There is no paucity of character development programs from which to choose (“Character.org”, n.d.; “Character Education Toolkit”, n.d.; Hoedel, J., n.d.; Narvaez, D, 2001; “Positive Action”, n.d.; “Wise Skills Program”, 2017). Yet, districts often show reluctance to adopt them due to the “add on” nature of the programs themselves and/or because of their own indecision over which character strengths should be emphasized and taught (Clement & Bollinger, 2017). Fewer options exist for student and faculty training in self-regulated learning, though they too are increasing (Clear & Zimmerman, 2004).

The SAGA model of student accountability and growth serves as a bridge between traditional character development programs and recent research in self-regulated learning aimed at early adolescent learners. However, SAGA is not simply a self-regulated learning initiative with character development added to the mix, or vice versa. Rather, it involves a new vision of studentship, a new formative curriculum and summative framework that synthesizes specific skill sets necessary for masterful learning.

How would a summative framework, integrating self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning impact young adolescent learners and bridge character development and self-regulated learning models advanced by



others? These four disciplines of studentship can be likened to the intellectual virtues recently articulated by Baehr (2017). As Baehr demonstrated, the intellectual virtues of curiosity, open-mindedness, intellectual autonomy, intellectual courage, and intellectual humility have direct implications for academic success. In this sense, the four outlined disciplines of studentship in our new model are virtues which may well represent “that dimension of the self or human psychology in which cognitive functioning intersects with positive character” (Baehr, p. 6).

Asked another way: How would such a model of studentship be implemented in actual practice so as to benefit our targeted eighth or ninth grade populations? How might it fit into a typical middle or high school schedule? Several solutions present themselves. The formative curriculum component to this model could be incorporated into a stand-alone freshman orientation seminar. Alternatively, it could be delivered within a series of learning modules embedded into an eighth grade or freshman social science or humanities course. Regarding the summative accountability framework, this could supplement student handbooks for self-evaluating. A summative scoring rubric could even be used to assess learning behaviors on report cards.

### **How was SAGA developed?**

The implementation of this project was constituted only in the selection and construction of the summative framework itself. The Disciplines of Studentship outlined below detail the research consulted in the synthesis of the various framework disciplines, standards, and features.

### **Discipline I of Studentship: Self-Leadership.**

**Introduction.** Self-leadership calls upon student mastery of the four “R”s—respect, responsibility, resolve, and resourcefulness. Accomplished SAGA students must become leaders, leaders not just of their own learning but leaders also of their own character development.

Learning, of course, is an inherently internal phenomenon. It occurs in the mind of the learner (no one can learn something for someone else). Accepting this requires from our adolescent students a degree of maturity and strong self-leadership. It requires them to ask: Have I prepared myself for the learning process? Am I open to learning? Am I willing to learn? Am I engaging in the learning process? Proactive responses to these questions necessitate self-leadership. Effective studentship begins with self-leadership, and so too does our summative framework.

Self-leadership, as first described by Manz (1983) is a process of influencing the self as opposed to an external leader influencing the self. More specifically, “self-leadership involves the influence people exert over themselves to achieve self-motivation and self-direction needed to behave in desirable ways” (Prussia et al., 1998, p. 524). For students, behaving in desirable ways are those ways which produce meaningful and lasting learning.

**Respect.** Self-leadership begins with positive character development, i.e., developing one’s character and leading one’s character toward positive outcomes for the individual and others. Character, quite simply, is “the mental and moral qualities distinctive to an individual” (“Character”, 2018). It is easy to see how respect is an important moral quality.

Adolescents achieving accomplished levels of self-leadership would display respect for themselves and others through the (very teachable) techniques of positive imagery and self-talk. For those students unaccustomed to receiving respect from others in their daily lives, the road to mastering this standard of self-leadership would not be an easy one.

Many of today's students lack an understanding of respect because their experiences with this essential character trait have been minimal. Think about it: If you are rarely around people who display respect and if you aren't treated as though you are a valued and worthwhile individual, how can you possibly "catch the behavior?" That's the secret of learning new character building behaviors—they're caught by watching others do them well. Today's schools and classrooms are enormously significant institutions because for many students these places may be the only times appropriate character building traits can be taught. (Borba, 2001, p. 4)

***Respect and self-talk.*** Individuals, therefore, "can influence and lead themselves by utilizing specific cognitive strategies that focus on individual self-dialogue and mental imagery" (Neck & Manz, 1992, p. 681). Self-talk is what we internally tell ourselves. It is the discussion we have with ourselves as we weigh options and work out solutions. Self-talk is a vehicle for promoting self-knowledge, self-awareness, and self-respect

When students learn the importance of self-knowledge, they are enabled to think positively about themselves and others. When students feel good about

themselves and their actions, they are less likely to seek satisfaction at the expense of others. As students achieve personal power in positive, creative, and nonviolent ways, they become better students, better friends, and valuable members of their communities. (Community for Education Foundation, Inc, 2016a, p. 73)

Fundamentally, the process of self-leadership as a mechanism for learning and displaying respect begins with our private thoughts. Thoughts do not simply affect our behavior—they are the source of our behaviors. Negative mental suggestions, or negative self-talk, can significantly disrupt healthy self-leadership development and diminish the learning process. Indeed, negative self-talk is a form of self-disrespect. Self-respect starts students down the path of self-leadership.

To combat damaging thought patterns of self-disrespect, four strategies have been offered (Prussia et al., 1998). These strategies include; 1) self-analysis and improvement of belief systems, 2) mental imagery of positive performance, 3) positive-self-talk to facilitate performance, and 4) using positive scripts in place of ineffective, negative ones. Through the application of these strategies, both self-efficacy and performance outcomes have been shown to improve substantially in children (Prussia et al., 1998).

Because self-leadership is so firmly situated in cognitive processes, it is sometimes referred to as “thought” self-leadership. (Neck & Manz, 1992). Thought self-leadership, with its focus on self-awareness and control, is a derivative of cognitive psychology, just as earlier models of self-leadership have their roots in

social learning theory. Thought self-leadership explores the ways in which individuals control their own thoughts by means of specific cognitive exercises, including self-talk and mental imagery (Neck & Manz, 1992).

In their seminal study, Neck & Manz (1992) examined a sample of “troubled” adolescents prone to behaving impulsively. Their study concluded that self-talk enabled these students to modify their behavior on a variety of psychological assessments which tested cognitive impulsivity, performance IQ, and motor ability.

***Respect and mental imagery.*** Mental imagery, a complimentary component of thought self-leadership, is a process whereby one imagines a mental experience which reliably represents an anticipated future reality. In other words, “mental imagery refers to imagining successful performance of the task before it is actually completed” (Neck & Manz, 1992, p. 684).

The learner must be able to imagine success before he or she can be successful. Mental imagery is a type of mental preparation anticipating the actual event. The meta-analysis of Neck & Manz (1992) exposed a strong correlation between mental imagery and successful accomplishment of a wide array of tasks.

Positive self-talk and metal imagery should be incorporated into a student-centered toolkit for continuous growth and improvement. Where student autonomy and student-centered learning are increasingly advocated, self-respect, as a beginning to self-leadership, is invaluable.

It is challenging for some young people to understand that self-respect comes from within—not from appearance, achievements, fame or wealth. They may

not understand that self-respect cannot be taken away from them. They may not understand how critically important self-respect is in determining a path in life. They may not understand that having self-respect will lead to others respecting them. And, equally important, they may not understand that self-respect helps them learn to respect others. (Community for Education Foundation, Inc., 2016b, p. 2)

A formative component to our SAGA framework of studentship would provide students with a bank of positive, high-efficacy scripts to replace negative scripts that students consciously or unconsciously carry around inside limiting self-respect.

Acquiring a deeper respect for learning in addition to respecting one's self constitutes an added benefit to mastery self-leadership. In fact, improving one's self-leadership capacity may even help to close the achievement gap among many of our disadvantaged students. Research conducted by Becker and Luther (2002) into self-leadership among middle-school students revealed that these at-risk populations tend to exhibit the sharpest decline in achievement motivation and a general lack of respect for learning. Parental support and greater school involvement emerged as principle corollaries to improving educational achievement among disadvantaged students. Their results indicated a significant relationship between academic failure among disadvantaged students and pervasive anti-academic norms among their peers (Becker & Luther, 2002). Reversing this debilitating "anti-school" disrespect among some of our youth is a targeted outcome of positive imagery and self-talk.

In short, the key features of respect, as a beginning standard of self-leadership, would ask the following of our adolescent learners (Figure 4). Do I respect my self and learning? Do I imagine positive performance and use positive self-talk to overcome negative thoughts? Am I displaying kindness, courtesy, and compassion when I communicate? Do I respect personal spaces, possessions, and points of view?

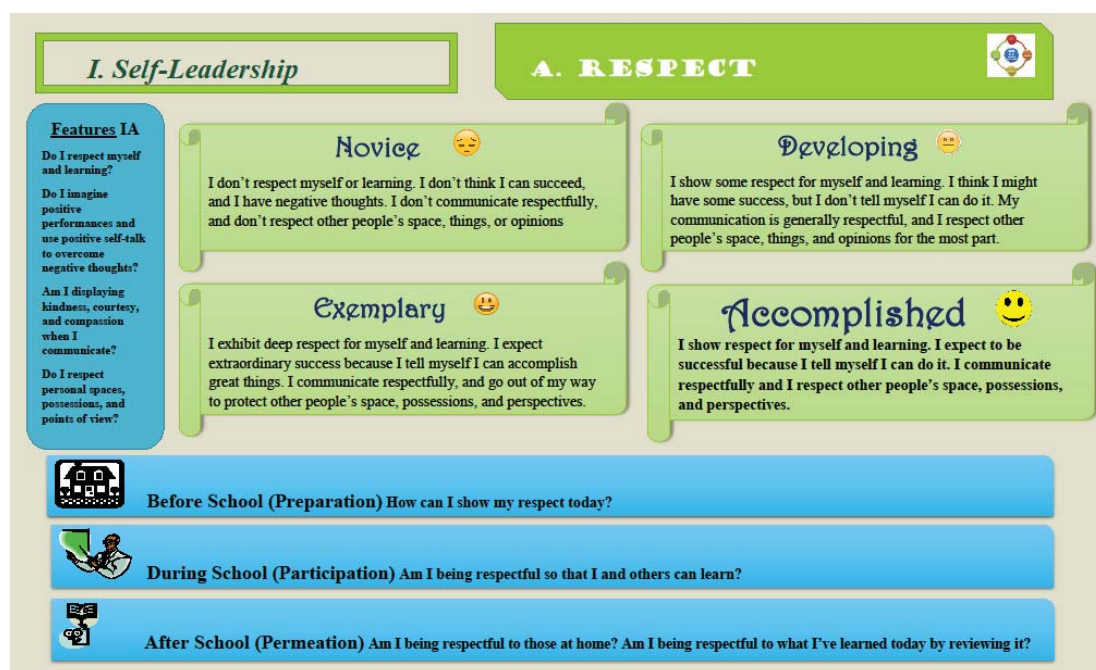


Figure 4: Self-leadership: Respect

**Responsibility.** We know from cultural anthropology that responsibility is a character trait universally valued by societies around the world (Saluskey et al., 2014). Its acquisition is seen as essential to adulthood. Yet many adolescents are averse to responsibility. Some researchers (Saluskey et al.) have reflected on the lack of responsibility acquisition by adolescents in the United States. Traditionally, households have been crucibles for responsibility development. However, research

shows that American parents have been giving adolescents fewer and fewer chores over the last century, chores which are vital to learning responsibility (Saluskey et al.). Many parents today place little or no household demands on their children (Saluskey et al.). This state of affairs underscores the urgency of school programs that promote self-leadership.

A good starting point and, in fact, a critical attribute of responsible self-leadership is the ability to exert self-control. Self-control has been defined as “restraint exercised over one’s own impulses, emotions, or desires” (“Self-control”, 2017). Thanks to our advanced prefrontal cortex (which separates us from other mammals), human beings are able to delay gratification, avoid temptation, stifle immediate impulses, and plan and evaluate choices, all in order to reach our long-term goals (Tough, 2012).

Self-control requires volition. For some adolescents, making wise decisions that are evaluative and which delay gratification can be particularly challenging. This difficulty may lie in our very physiology. Tough (2012) in, *How Children Succeed*, described how “there is something uniquely out of balance about the adolescent brain that makes it especially susceptible to bad and impulsive decisions” (p. 21). This neurological imbalance, impeding self-control derives from the differing maturation rates of two separate neurological systems. One, the incentive processing system, drives individuals toward sensation seeking, emotional reaction, and social awareness. The incentive processing system is fully developed by early adolescents.



Another, the cognitive control system, regulates these drives. However, the cognitive control system does not fully develop until the mid-twenties (Tough, 2012).

If for no other reason than redressing this neurological imbalance in adolescents, formative training in self-control is an essential component to a learner-centered program of studentship. While the maturation rates of the incentive processing and cognitive control systems may be ill-aligned, students, through awareness and practice, can improve their brain's executive function capacity, a function so integral to self-control.

The reason that researchers who care about the gap between rich and poor are so excited about executive functions is that these skills are not only highly predictive of success; they are also quite malleable, much more so than other cognitive skills. The prefrontal cortex is more responsive to intervention than other parts of the brain, and it stays flexible well into adolescence and early adulthood. (Tough, 2012, p. 21)

The psychological research conducted by Duckworth and Seligman (2005) further validates the teaching of self-control as a supportive feature to responsible self-leadership. Their longitudinal study of 140 eighth-grade students revealed the predictive quality of self-discipline for final grades, school attendance, and standardized achievement-test scores, among other variables (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005). Through a correlational analysis of self-reports, parent reports, teacher reports, monetary choice, and IQ tests, they concluded that self-discipline measures “accounted for more than twice as much variance as IQ in final grades, high

school selection, school attendance, hours spent doing homework, hours spent watching television (inversely), and the time of day students began their homework” (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005, p. 939). In fact, possessing self-discipline was so significant that its effect “on final grades held even when controlling for first marking-period grades, achievement-test scores, and measured IQ” (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005, p. 939).

Responsibility, expressed through self-control, benefited adolescents well beyond the classroom. Responsibility and related dispositions like dependability and conscientiousness were found to have strong consistent associations with individual academic achievement, productivity at work, positive health behaviors, and lower rates of anti-social behavior (Saluskey et al., 2014). In addition, responsible self-leadership can be significantly influenced by the presence of reward structures, that is, one tends to find higher and longer sustained levels of self-leadership when intrinsic motivators such as feelings of competence, self-control, and purpose are present in the individual (Stewart et al., 2011).

In light of these benefits, the question remains: how best can adolescents learn responsibility? In *How adolescents develop responsibility: What can be learned from youth programs*, Salusky et al. (2014) suggest a four-step process for teenagers in developing responsibility. This cycle begins with adolescents taking on a new role or obligations (Salusky et al.). They can either choose the role or accept a role assigned to them.

A second step involves the adolescent's ongoing experience of his or her new obligations (Salusky et al.). In this experience they must acknowledge and eventually overcome the apprehensions that the new role or obligation is more difficult than expected. Feelings of self-doubt and wavering commitment should be faced and surmounted.

The third step adolescents should follow in fostering responsibility is fulfillment: they must fulfill their obligation (Salusky et al.). This, of course, necessitates perseverance. Students can be helped to fulfill their obligations when they feel a sense of solidarity and obligation to their classmates tasked with similar, related roles. Finally, adolescents, through successful task or role completion, will experience changes in their self and behavior, the essence of self-leadership (Salusky et al., 2014). Often times, these changes are manifested in feelings of dependability, maturity, capability, and confidence (Salusky et al., 2014).

Classroom instructors wishing to successfully implement a "bottom-up" orientation to learning must first create the conditions for self-leadership to take root. Salusky et al. (2014) suggest that facilitators of learning should create structured but open-ended roles which can provide youth additional agency in meeting expectations and goals. Moreover, teachers have to provide judicious assistance and cultivate a sense of ownership and obligation among their students (Salusky et al., 2014).

Alderman and MacDonald (2015) similarly reported that the process of improving student responsibility by managing positive behavior and self-control is central to establishing a learner-centered classroom. When students display increased

responsibility they are rewarded with increased autonomy. Activity-based classrooms require students to hone new skills sets for responsible and autonomous learning. Students “must develop capacities for exercising responsibility and self-regulation...As students assume more responsibility and self-regulation, the central role of the teacher becomes to facilitate and encourage student self-control and personal responsibility for contributing to academic achievement” (Alderman & MacDonald, p. 53).

Responsibility is essential to self-leadership. The following features emerge for the SAGA summative framework (Figure 5). Do I self-control by behavior? Am I reliable, trustworthy, and honest? Do I accept responsibility for my actions? Do I use good judgement? Do I accept the consequences of my actions?

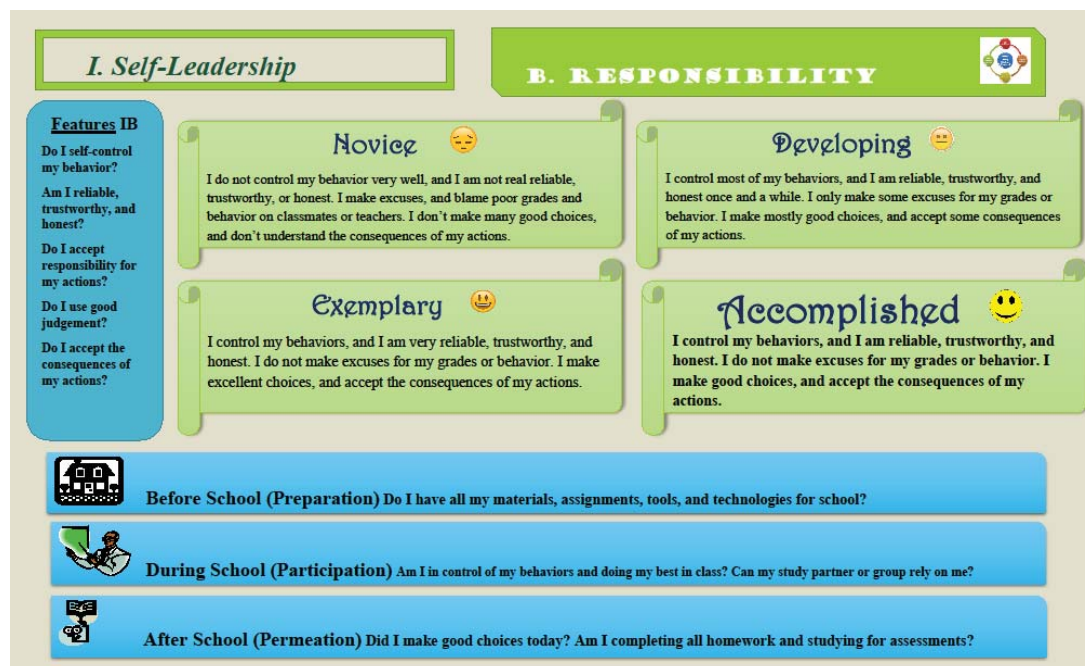


Figure 5: Self-leadership: Responsibility

**Resourcefulness.** Resourcefulness further strengthens self-leadership. Thus, it stands as the third SAGA standard of self-leadership. Resourcefulness is the ability to deal skillfully and promptly with new situations and difficulties (Price-Mitchell, 2015). Equally, resourcefulness is the ability to find and use available resources to achieve goals. It is the capacity to see beyond typical solutions, to persevere when problems get complicated, and to learn from mistakes (Price-Mitchell, 2015).

Resourcefulness is a skill applicable to the classroom and, obviously, a vital life skill too. Unfortunately, the high-stakes testing paradigm of our schools often does not permit students to hone this skill.

High grades and test scores are not reliable indicators of resourcefulness. In fact, most teachers know bright college graduates who struggle to resolve everyday problems. Being resourceful takes more than cognitive skill. It takes the ability to process information emotionally as well as intellectually.

Research shows that resourceful students are not only better at achieving their goals, but also respond better under stress. (Price-Mitchell, 2015, p. 62)

A well-structured student-centered classroom provides students with novel concepts and challenges which result in productive struggles for the learner. When placed in such environments, it is the resourceful students who learn at their fullest potential (Baldoni, 2016).

Just as with respect and responsibility, students displaying self-leadership will exhibit resourcefulness in varying ways. When one is resourceful, he or she is self-assured (Akgun & Ciarrochi, 2003). Belief in one's ability to achieve underscores not

only self-leadership, but motivation, emotional intelligence, and self-regulated learning as well.

Resourcefulness calls upon cleverness, imagination, positive networking, inventiveness, originality, and positive skepticism (Price-Mitchell, 2015). Positive skepticism particularly supports masterful studentship. It allows the resourceful student to look at multiple solutions to a single problem while requiring additional evidence before accepting another's claim to truth. Positive skepticism aids the learner in resourceful problem solving (Price-Mitchell).

. While these key attributes of resourcefulness are more present in some adolescents than others, resourcefulness is a learnable skill nonetheless (Akgun & Ciarrochi, 2003). A student replete with the skills of self-leadership will be able to call upon resourcefulness to help manage the typical and atypical stresses of school.

Akgun and Ciarrochi (2003) conducted multiple linear regression analyses to test the hypothesis that learned resourcefulness can moderate the relationship between stress and academic success (Akgun & Ciarrochi). Academic stress was shown to be negatively associated with academic achievement (Akgun & Ciarrochi). Interestingly, their results indicated that high academic stress adversely affected the grades of low-resourceful students while having no impact upon high-resourceful students (Akgun & Ciarrochi). It is therefore likely that "the learned resourcefulness measure may be useful in identifying students who may react poorly to academic stress. Special efforts could then be made to teach these students how to deal effectively with academic stress before such stress adversely impacts their grades" (Akgun & Ciarrochi, p. 293).

To review, SAGA students would ask the following questions as guiding features of resourceful self-leadership (Figure 6). Do I know how to find and use what is needed to achieve my learning goals? Can I adapt to new learning conditions? Do I imagine new possibilities and multiple outcomes? Do I experiment with new approaches? Am I skeptical in a positive way?

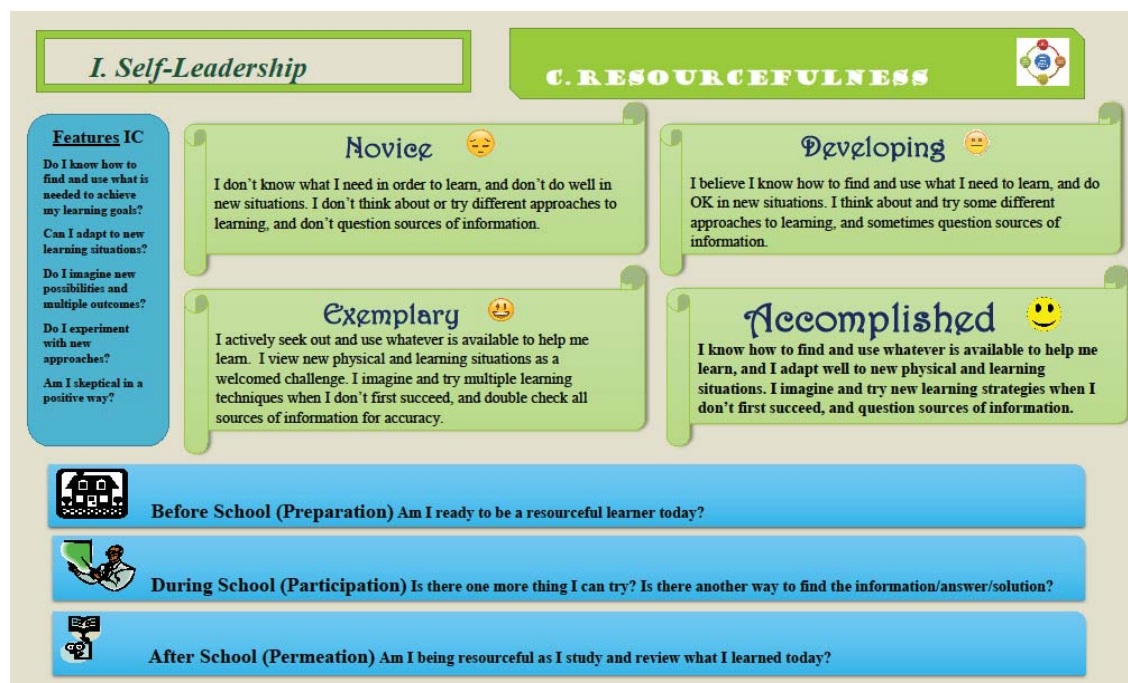


Figure 6: Self-leadership: Resourcefulness

**Resolve.** Resolve, variously defined as self-determination, grit, or firmness of character, represents the fourth SAGA standard of self-leadership. It is difficult to imagine adolescents becoming self-leaders in the absence of resolve, i.e., in the absence of “a passionate commitment to a single mission and an unswerving dedication to achieve that mission” (Tough, 2012, p. 74).

Duckworth and Peterson (2007) have pioneered research in the relatedness of perseverance and passion to long-term goal attainment. Their work explored the ways in which the character trait of resolve enables one to overcome challenges. Through hard work and not allowing adversity to daunt or discourage, the learner exhibits the very essence of resolve. “The gritty individual approaches achievement as a marathon; his or her advantage is stamina. Whereas disappointment or boredom signals to others that it is time to change trajectory and cut losses, the gritty individual stays the course” (p. 1088).

In their correlational study, Duckworth and Peterson (2007) developed a self-report questionnaire which they dubbed the “Grit Scale” (p. 1089). Individuals scoring high marks on this questionnaire, whereby exhibiting *grittiness*, display 12 attributes:

- 1 I have overcome setbacks to conquer an important challenge.
- 2 New ideas and projects do not distract me from previous ones.
- 3 My interests do not change from year to year.
- 4 Setbacks don’t discourage me.
- 5 I do not become obsessed with a certain idea or project for a short time and later lose interest.
- 6 I am a hard worker.
- 7 I do not set a goal and later choose to pursue a different one.
- 8 I maintain my focus on projects that take more than a few months to complete.
- 9 I finish whatever I begin.
- 10 I do not become interested in new pursuits every few months.
- 11 I have achieved a goal that took years of work.
- 12 I am diligent.

Figure 7: Duckworth and Peterson (2007) Grit Scale



Duckworth and Peterson (2007) employed their questionnaire over six separate correlational studies. The results revealed that grit “accounted for an average of 4% of the variance in success outcomes, including educational attainment among 2 samples of adults ( $N = 1,545$  and  $N = 690$ ), grade point average among Ivy League undergraduates ( $N = 138$ ), retention in 2 classes of United States Military Academy, West Point, cadets ( $N = 1,218$  and  $N = 1,308$ ), and ranking in the National Spelling Bee ( $N = 175$ )” (p. 1087). While their results did not show positive associations between grit and IQ, grit did demonstrate “incremental predictive validity of success measures over and beyond IQ and conscientiousness. Collectively, these findings suggest that the achievement of difficult goals entails not only talent but also the sustained and focused application of talent over time” (p. 1087).

Foundational to all 12 attributes of *grittiness* is tenacity. Duckworth and Peterson (2007) provided an analogy of two piano students to help illustrate the role of tenacity in self-leadership:

Assume that both children are equally talented in music and, therefore, improve in skill at the same rate per unit effort. Assume further that these children are matched in the intensity of effort they expend toward musical training. Intensity in this case is described by the extent to which attention is fully engaged during practice time. Duration and direction of effort, on the other hand, are described by the number of accumulated hours devoted to musical study and, crucially, the decision to deepen expertise in piano rather than to explore alternative instruments. Our findings suggest that children

matched on talent and capacity for hard work may nevertheless differ in grit.

Thus, a prodigy who practices intensively yet moves from piano to the saxophone to voice will likely be surpassed by an equally gifted but grittier child. (p. 1098)

Educators endeavoring to strengthen their students' resolve, or grit, must emphasize the importance of stamina and duration. Hence, students should come to expect failures and misfortunes as a natural part of the learning process. "Excellence in any discipline requires years and years of time on task" (Duckworth & Peterson, 2007, p. 1100).

In summary, SAGA students displaying accomplished levels of resolve would be determined, committed, and dedicated to their education, and would not be discouraged by learning challenges. Rather, they would get excited about their studies and complete what they start (Figure 8).

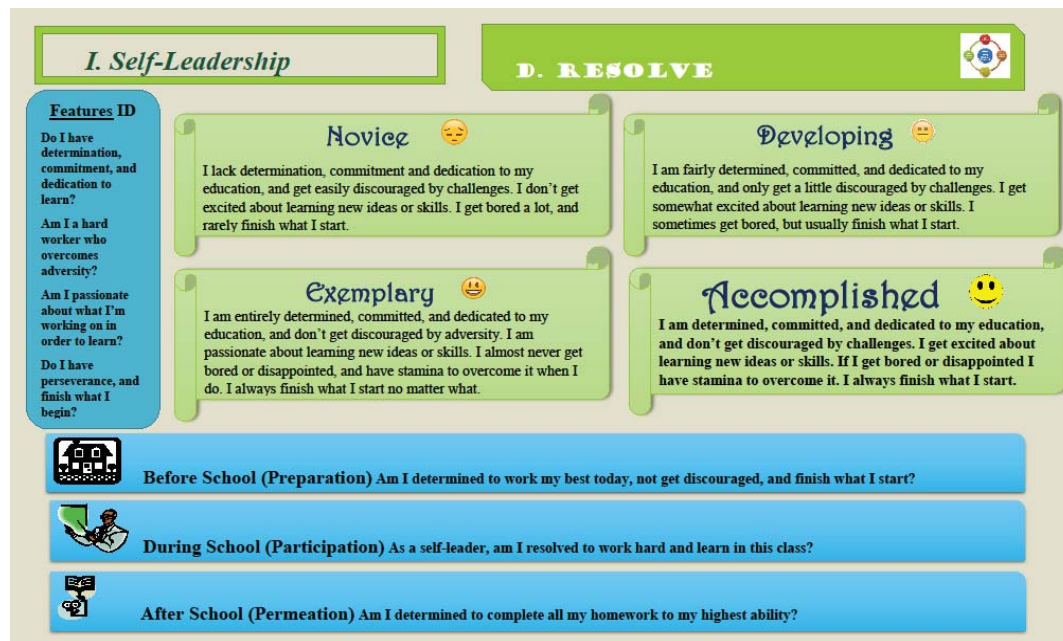


Figure 8: Self-Leadership: Resolve

Respect, responsibility, resourcefulness, and resolve work in concert to promote strong self-leadership. Self-leadership serves as a beginning for masterful studentship; there can be little learning in our increasingly demanding classrooms without it. And yet, possessing self-leadership alone is not sufficient. Evidence suggests that emotional intelligence is required too.

## Discipline II of Studentship: Emotional Intelligence

**Introduction.** What of emotional intelligence (EI)? Developing emotional intelligence is integral to student success. EI is the ability, “to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 5).

How does EI fit into a new model of studentship and accountability?

Numerous studies (Abdullah et al., 2004; Jimenez-Morales & Zafra, 2013; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Marquez et al., 2006;; Salovey et al., 2008; Schutte et al., 1998; Sheykhjan et al., 2014; Parker et al., 2004; Petrides et al., 2004) have reported positive correlations between heightened awareness and application of emotional intelligence and academic performance. This alone seems reason enough that a student accountability model should contain a process for identifying and cultivating emotional intelligence within the learner. There is a secondary reason—the pernicious effects of emotional maladjustment:

Emotional maladjustment affects children's ability to concentrate and to remember, resulting in poor school work which later increases the child's anxiety and frustration causing the child to be emotionally disturbed...As attention and memorization are crucial in learning and influenced by emotional adjustment, the ability to regulate one's emotion can serve as a tool for adolescents to cope with negative affects when they encounter them in learning situations. Therefore, emotional regulation of emotional intelligence plays an important role in students' academic performance above and beyond their cognitive ability. (Abdullah et al., 2004, p. 106)

Emotional intelligence is one of the most underdeveloped and under taught competencies for middle and high school students. Be that as it may, why is emotional intelligence important for the adolescent learner? Emotional intelligence is, in part, one's capacity to perceive and react to the emotional states of others.

Learning, particularly in school, rarely occurs in isolation. Learning involves interactions with others, and those interactions are largely directed and interpreted by one's emotions. Our emotions determine whether those interactions are positive or negative, fruitful or unproductive in the learning process (Abdullah et al., 2004).

In the context of middle and high school classrooms bulging with 30 or more adolescents, the absence of EI training for such students certainly makes cohesive learning systems difficult. As there continues to be a push for collaborative learning within the student-centered paradigm, students will have to become increasingly conscious of their own emotional states as well as those of their classmates in order for collaborative work to deliver desirable outcomes. Unfortunately, schools devote few resources toward developing EI in their students (Salovey et al., 2008).

Understanding the complexities of emotional intelligence can challenge the adolescent learner. It requires practice and application. Understanding how emotions work and how they impact our daily lives is the first step in this instruction. Development and application of our emotions then follows. "Individuals differ in how skilled they are at perceiving, understanding, regulating, and utilizing this emotional information, and that a person's level of 'emotional intelligence' contributes substantially to his or her intellectual and emotional well-being and growth" (Salovey et al., 2008, p. 533).

Emotional intelligence has not always been understood to be so elemental to learning. Indeed, for many years, emotion was thought to interfere with our reason. Our modern understandings of emotions are quite different. It has been suggested

(Salovey et al., 2008) that neither our reason nor our emotions govern our consciousness in isolation. We are equally rational and emotional beings. A person's individual and social well-being depends in large measure on a person's ability to rationalize emotional experiences and to modify emotional expressions toward beneficial ends.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) created the definitive model for understanding and applying EI. It is divided into four stages, each of which contains hierarchical skills of increasing complexity. The stages are conceived in a linear progression; one must master a prior competency before proceeding to subsequent levels which rise in sophistication. Each level contains multiple subskills. This model informs the SAGA standards of emotional intelligence.

**Perception/Expression.** Mayer and Salovey (1997) describe this first, elementary stage of emotional intelligence as perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion. Within this foundational stage of EI reside several subskills, including; ability to identify emotion in one's physical and psychological states; ability to identify emotion in other people and objects, ability to express emotions accurately and to express needs related to those feelings, and ability to discriminate between accurate and inaccurate, or honest and dishonest, expressions of feelings (Salovey, et al., 2008).

The second gradation, called emotional facilitation of thinking, takes the individual to a slightly more nuanced level of emotional cognition. Emotional facilitation of thinking encompasses four subskills. The first is the ability to redirect

and prioritize one's thinking based on the feelings associated with objects, events, and other people. The second subskill of emotive thinking is the ability to generate or emulate vivid emotions to facilitate judgments and memories concerning feelings. The third subskill provides the ability to capitalize on mood swings to take advantage of multiple points of view. The final subskill of emotive thinking is the ability to integrate these mood-induced perspectives, and the ability to use emotional states to facilitate problem solving and creativity (Salovey et al., 2008).

Understanding and analyzing emotional information is the third stage of this continuum. Again we see an assortment of supportive subskills: (a) the ability to understand how different emotions are related; (b) the ability to perceive the causes and consequences of feelings; (c) the ability to interpret complex emotions, such as emotional blends and contradictory feeling-states; and (d) the ability to understand and predict likely transitions between emotions. Understanding the consequences and contradictions of our feelings and those of others helps facilitate productive outcomes during cooperative learning.

Finally, stage four, the most advanced level of Mayer's and Salovey's (1997) model involves reflective regulation of emotion. It includes the following: the ability to be open to feelings (both those feelings that are pleasant and those that are unpleasant); the ability to monitor and reflect on emotions; the ability to engage, prolong, or detach from an emotional state depending upon its usefulness; and the ability to manage emotion in oneself and others (Salovey et al., 2008).

This four-step model of EI was tested for its predictive value (Schutte et al., 1998). Employing a 33-item statistical analysis, Schutte et al. (1998) concluded that the model of emotional intelligence first proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1997) did exhibit sound internal reliability and validity. Their study further indicated that this four-stage construct may have potential value for individuals who wish to assess their own emotional intelligence and may even assist individuals who are at risk of performing poorly on certain tasks which necessitate emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 1998). While it may in fact be useful for self-evaluation, it is also limited in its application. “The emotional intelligence scale, like most self-report measures, seems susceptible to faking good. Thus, the emotional intelligence scale should probably not be used as a method of selecting individuals for jobs or other highly desired opportunities” (Schutte et al., 1998, p. 176).

More to the purpose of the SAGA initiative is the relationship between emotional intelligence and masterful learning among adolescents. The salient SAGA features for emotional intelligence as they relate to perception and expression include (Figure 9): Am I aware of my emotions in my thoughts and feelings? Do I recognize emotions in others by their language, appearance, or behavior? Can I tell the difference between honest and dishonest expressions of emotion? Can I accurately express my emotions? Do I understand the causes and consequences of feelings? Honest reflection of these questions should prepare the learner for the next SAGA standard—emotive thinking.



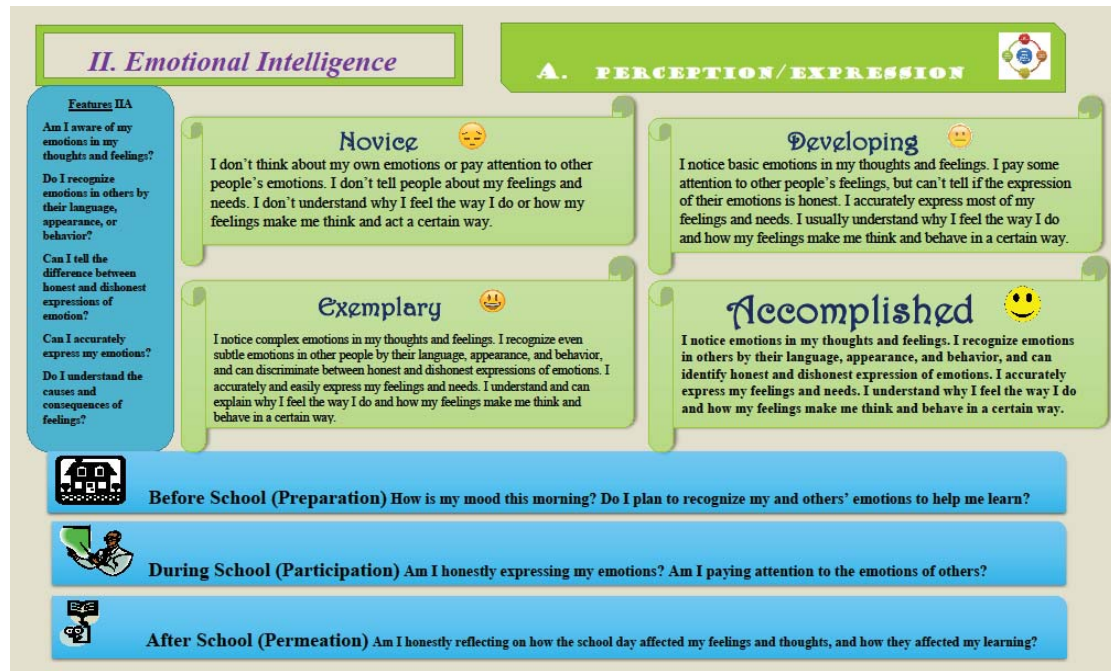


Figure 9: Emotional Intelligence: Perception/Expression

**Emotive thinking.** A broad, cultural-anthropological approach to adolescent behavior and learning must inform any new model of the adolescent studentship if it is to be universally applied. Investigations into student self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning around the world, particularly in non-western cultures are essential for validity. To limit our own research to only American student samples would be to deny a broad understating of adolescent learning.

Research conducted in Selangor, Malaysia (Abdullah et al. 2004) examined student EQ and its relationship to anxiety, anger, and frustration arising from school tasks and academic achievement. Their work illuminated how emotional intelligence and emotive thinking augment students' emotional competency, which in turn

improves learning. Their findings ultimately suggested a linear negative association between student EQ levels and levels of negative affect toward specific school tasks (Abdullah et al. 2004). There emerged also a positive linear relationship between EQ and academic achievement. Furthermore, the evidence suggests a positive relationship between EQ and gender differences.

Additional studies (Abdullah et al., 2004; Jimenez-Morales & Zafra, 2013; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Marquez, et al., 2006; Salovey et al., 2008; Schutte et al., 1998; Sheykhjan et al., 2014; Parker et al., 2004; Petrides et al., 2004) have reported similar positive correlations between emotional intelligence and academic performance. Public educators in Spain, for example, are taking increased notice of the power of EI to predict academic success. Jimenez-Morales and Zafra (2013) surveyed 193 students, ages 11 to 16, from a single school in Jaén, Spain. Students completed a self-report that measured perceived emotional intelligence through the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (Tmms-24). The same student group also took the Attitudes and Social Cognitive Strategies Questionnaire (AECS) to assess social attitudes. Their study analyzed the role that perceived emotional intelligence and social competences have on academic performance (Jimenez-Morales & Zafra, 2013). Their results indicated that prosocial attitudes were, once again, positive predictors of student academic performance and perceived emotional intelligence as well (Jimenez-Morales & Zafra, 2013). Moreover, students who have trouble managing their emotions and attitudes, and who show asocial and/or antisocial attitudes appear to

have a correspondingly greater chance of experiencing difficulties negotiating their social environment (Jimenez-Morales & Zafra, 2013).

Validity and utility of measuring emotional intelligence among high school students have been studied in Spain (Marquez et al., 2006). Marquez et al. (2006) administered the Spanish version of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) to 38 female and 39 male Spanish-speaking students. They hypothesized that the MSCEIT could provide a framework for studying the role that emotional intelligence and ability contribute to student learning and social adaptation. Ultimately, their study revealed a strong relationship between students with high EI and corresponding prosocial behaviors and high academic success (Marquez et al., 2006).

Empirical studies conducted in Iranian middle schools (Sheykhjan et al., 2014) yielded similar relationships between emotive thinking and academic success for males. One hundred randomly selected male students studying in the city of Miandoab during the 2012-2013 academic year completed the *Bar-On's Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire*. The need to measure and understand the association between learning and EI became particularly poignant for researchers:

Learning requires thinking. Our thoughts influence how we feel. How we feel influences how we think. The connections between emotion and learning are bidirectional and complex. Emotions are the relay station between sensory input and thinking. When the input is interpreted positively, we are motivated to act and achieve a goal. When the input is interpreted negatively, we do not

act and do not learn...Learning is as much a function of a person's emotional response to a learning environment as it is to the instructional method or classroom. (Sheykhjan et al., 2014, p. 30)

Evidently, the learner's EI is as important to the learning process as the instructor's teaching methods. Just as we saw in those studies of adolescents in Malaysia and Spain (Abdullah et al. 2004; Jimenez-Morales & Zafra, 2013; Marquez et al., 2006) a significant and positive relationship emerged between emotional intelligence and social responsibility for the test sample of these Iranian middle school males. Additionally, a significant positive correlation emerged between interpersonal relationships and social responsibility (Sheykhjan et al., 2014).

A similar EI and academic achievement study (Parker et al., 2004) tested 667 students from a high school in Huntsville, Alabama. Their analysis indicated that emotional intelligence positively influences the development of academic achievement (Parker et al., 2004). A comparison between student results on the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i:YV) and their academic records drove this conclusion. A comparison of students achieving at different academic levels of performance –the bottom 20%, the middle 60%, and the top 20% academic levels—revealed that academic success was significantly aligned with nearly all of the EI domains measured by the EQ-i:YV. “Students in the top academic group had higher levels of interpersonal, adaptability, and stress management abilities than the other two groups. Students in the middle academic group also had higher scores on these

variables compared to students in the problematic academic group” (Parker et al., 2004, p. 1327).

Likewise, academically successful students scored higher on interpersonal skills than those students who struggle with their classwork. Such findings remind us how inextricably linked learning is to emotional awareness, particularly for adolescents who develop intellectually and socially through a broad nexus of age-set relationships. “During middle childhood and adolescence students spend more time with friends than at any other time in their lives; adolescence is marked by an increase in the intimacy between opposite-gender friends and a focus on sharing common activities, self-disclosure, and expectations of loyalty and trust” (Parker et al., 2004, p. 1328).

It seems clear that if we desire increased student collaboration and student centered learning within this nexus of relations, students need to be aware of their own competencies in emotive thinking (Figure10). This, to summarize, would see students using emotions to redirect their thinking toward positive choices. Moreover, students would be better able to modify mood swings in order to stay positive and solve problems. None of this seems likely without adequate training and the proper formative and summative framework to guide such instruction.

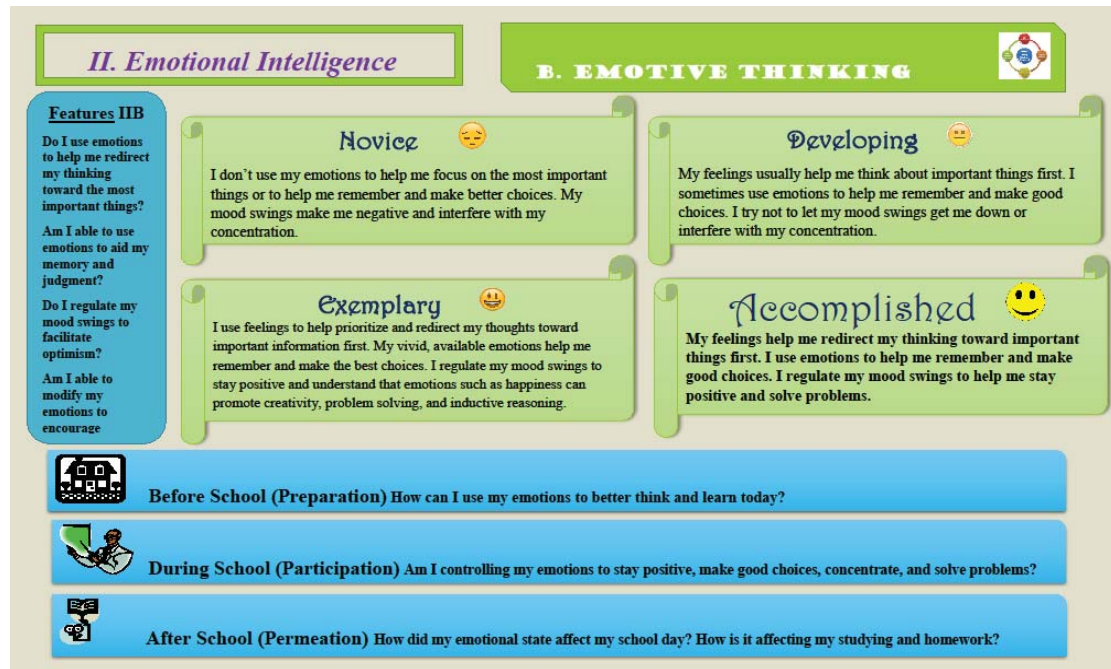


Figure 10: Emotional Intelligence: Emotive Thinking

**Emotion regulation.** It has been demonstrated that higher levels of emotional intelligence and its regulation foster a corresponding academic success. What of the opposite? It is worth investigating the existence of similar associations between lower levels of emotional intelligence and deviant, antisocial behaviors. A growing body of research (Brackett et al., 2004; De Caroli & Sagone, 2014; Jimenez-Morales & Zafra, 2013; Parker et al., 2004; Parker et al., 2006; Petrides et al., 2004; Salovey et al., 2008; Sheykhjan et al., 2014) suggests just such a correlation.

Truancy and unruliness fit the category of deviant school behavior. A negative association between unexcused absences and students displaying low trait emotional intelligence has come to light. Indeed, many students low in trait emotional intelligence are substantially more likely to be expelled from school than those with

moderate to high levels of trait emotional intelligence (Petrides et al., 2004). This is not surprising as we remember that those who are able to control their emotions and respond appropriately to the differing emotional states of others tend to be more successful in life. These students “establish more balanced relationships with their teachers, parents and friends” (Sheykhjan et al., 2014).

This seems to hold true in large measure because people who are in possession of sound social skills, such as emotional regulation and appraisal, are less inclined to exhibit antisocial behaviors when faced with distressful episodes. On the other hand, “individuals with poor social and emotional skills are more likely to feel withdrawn and excluded, which increases their likelihood of behaving in anticonventional ways” (Petrides et al., 2004, p. 289).

It is worth noting that the students who stand to gain the most from expanding their range of emotional intelligence and regulation are our academically challenged students. They are the most vulnerable, the most prone to becoming disengaged academically and socially. A new model of studentship would necessarily target the neediest of our student populations. Emotional intelligence is clearly a core deficit within this student group.

All stakeholders concerned with elevating the academic and social growth of these vulnerable students need to understand the importance of teaching emotional intelligence. For one thing, students with higher levels of cognitive intelligence need to rely less upon emotional awareness and control—they have their IQ to see them through. This is less true for our academically-challenged students.

It is not unlikely that for low IQ pupils, who are more likely to find it difficult to cope with the demands of their courses, aspects of the construct, such as positive self-perceptions, may facilitate improvements in academic performance... In contrast to their high IQ counterparts, low IQ pupils are more likely to be forced to draw up resources other than their cognitive ability in order to cope with the demands of their courses... For pupils with low IQ scores, who are much more likely to find themselves under pressure due to the disparity between their abilities and the educational demands imposed upon them, high trait EI is conducive to improved performance perhaps because it enables them to cope more effectively with emotional stress and anxiety.

(Petrides et al., 2004, p. 287-288)

With regard to emotion regulation (Figure 11), accomplished students would therefore be able to detach from harmful feelings while being self-aware of how their feelings impact others. Both positive and negative emotions would be harnessed for useful purposes that augment learning.



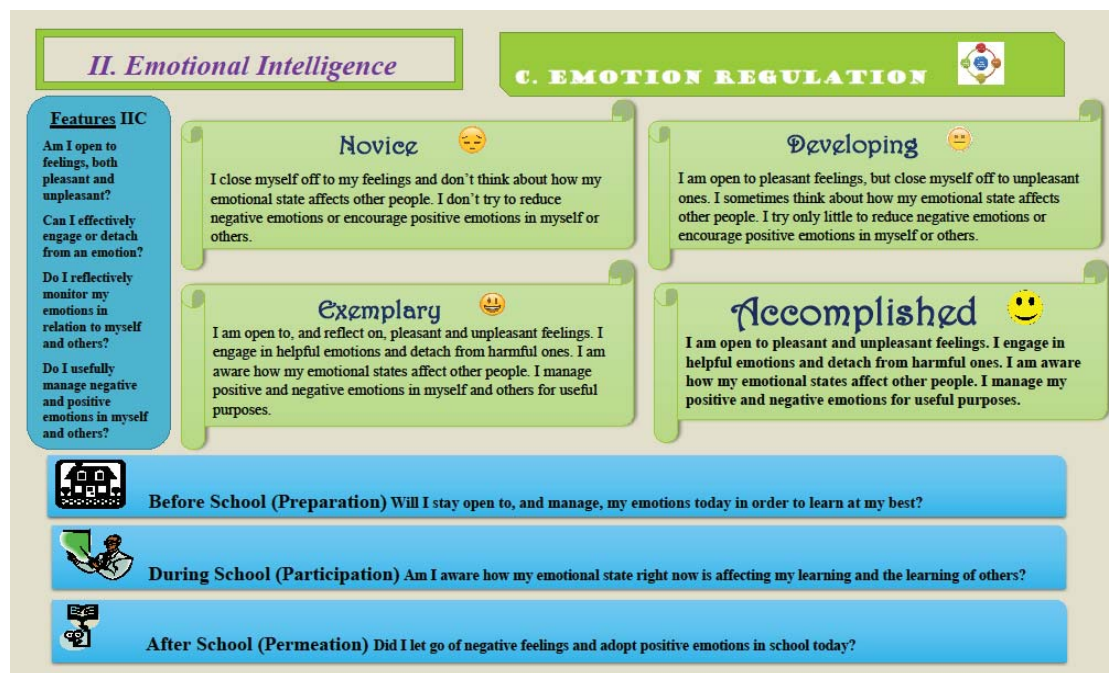


Figure 11: Emotional Intelligence: Emotion Regulation

A summative framework would be a useful aid to students monitoring their progression toward greater emotional intelligence. Given what we know of the intricacies of EI and their relationship to academic achievement, an effective framework would guide students through three core standards: perception and expression, emotive thinking, and emotion regulation. Using what they have hitherto mastered through their training in self-leadership, a newly acquired competency in emotional intelligence would equip students for the next chapter of their studies into master studentship—motivation.

### Discipline III of Studentship: Motivation

**Introduction.** Merriam-Webster defines motivation as “the act or process of giving someone a reason for doing something; the condition of being eager to act or

work; and a force or influence that causes someone to do something” (Motivation, n.d.). The Oxford dictionary similarly defines motivation as, “the reason or reasons one has for acting or behaving in a particular way; and the general desire or willingness of someone to do something” (Motivation, 2016). The American Psychological Association further refines this definition by suggesting that motivation is “the process of starting, directing, and maintaining physical and psychological activities; (it) includes mechanisms involved in preferences for one activity over another and the vigor and persistence of responses” (Gerrig & Zimbardo, 2002, p. 23).

Much has been written on motivation. Psychologists and philosophers have generated a wide array of motivational theories over the past century. In fact, the interest in human motivation can be traced back to the ancient Greeks with the writings of Plato and Aristotle (Pakdel, 2013). Later, during the Scientific Revolution of the seventeenth century, Rene Descartes, the French philosopher and mathematician, gave Western society its first elaborate model of motivation, stressing the active agent of one’s will, or mind, over the more inert contribution of body to motivation (Pakdel).

Since then, motivation has assumed one of the most prominent topics of discourse within psychology. That interest to understand what drives the human animal has spawned such constructs as instinct theory; incentive theories of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; behaviorist theories of classical and operant conditioning; drive-reduction theory; cognitive dissonance theory; humanistic theories, including Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and self-determination theory; Freud’s psychoanalytic

theory; and cognitive theories, incorporating goal-setting theory and expectancy theory (Geller, 2016a; Pakdel, 2013). This enumeration is by no means an exhaustive list of motivational theories, but it does provide a sample of the spectrum of theoretical constructs that collectively inform our conception of a summative framework of studentship with regard to motivating the adolescent learner.

At present, the prevailing, “top-down” axiom in education purports: teach them—teach them well, teach them creatively and in a way that engages—and they will learn. This is good practice and works sometimes. But this supposition also forgets apathy. Far too many students struggle with this debilitating self-imposed handicap. Indeed, some children are so apathetic about school that, “they actively resist attempts to get them involved” (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010, p. 19).

Truly, students can resist the best laid plans of teachers to engage them in the learning process. But apathy is not insurmountable. First, students must be made aware of the presence and/or degree of their apathy. Motivational strategies can then be put into action which may help to mitigate its effects. The process, though, is complex and its outcome never certain.

This is the problem with trying to motivate people: No one really knows how to do it well. It is precisely why we have such a booming industry in inspirational posters and self-help books and motivational speakers: what motivates us is often hard to explain and hard to measure. (Tough, 2012, p. 67)

At its most basic level, our new summative framework of studentship should be viewed as a measure to help students help themselves. While the evidence is clear that improving self-leadership and emotional intelligence is necessary for students' academic and social success, particularly when the learning environment is student-centered, learning to overcome apathy is no less crucial. How can educators foster motivation within their students? How can adolescents themselves mitigate their own latent or active apathy? Let us first examine the importance of self-efficacy.

**Self-efficacy.** It is difficult to overstate how self-efficacy impacts intrinsic motivation. Students must believe that they can accomplish the task at hand in order for them to actually do so. "Students who feel competent show more persistence when meeting obstacles on their learning path. It enhances their motivation and increases the use of deep level learning strategies" (Smit et al., 2014, p. 697).

One component of deep-level learning is deep-strategic studying. Positive associations between deep-strategic studying, intrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy in academic reading and essay writing have recently come to light (Prat-Sala & Redford, 2010). One hundred sixty three British university freshmen took part in a study in which they completed the Revised Approaches to Studying Inventory (RASI), the Work Preference Inventory motivation questionnaire, and a self-efficacy in reading and writing questionnaire. Data from these suggest that self-efficacy contributes significantly to motivation and learning approaches in first year undergraduate students. Moreover, self-efficacy was shown to be positively related to academic performance, particularly in reading and writing.

The relationship between self-efficacy and improved reading and writing skills is an intriguing one. It is not impossible that our proposed framework designed to enrich students' self-efficacy could even lead to improved student scores on writing-on-demand examinations as well as AP examinations and ACT/SAT college entrance exams.

Research (Bartels & Herman, 2011) into the motivational disposition known as self-handicapping has revealed the devastating impact of low self-opinions and self-esteem in adolescent and early adult populations. Self-handicapping may be understood as a deliberately self-imposed barrier set in place prior to a particular performance such as exams, auditions, interviews, etc. Self-handicapping is in direct response to one's fear of failure. The fear of failure has been linked to an elevated susceptibility to self-conscious negative emotions in which one feels a sense of shame upon failure and overgeneralizes failure toward many other, sometimes unrelated endeavors.

Bartels and Herman (2011) explored the link between fear of failure and self-handicapping in a sample population of 48 University of Minnesota-Rochester undergraduate students. Subjects completed a 25 item Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory, or PFAL, in which they individually assessed intrapersonal and interpersonal consequences of failure. The results suggest that this type of self-imposed handicapping helps mitigate feelings of shame and embarrassment. In effect, self-handicapping is a coping mechanism of self-sabotage that may bring momentary comfort to the learner but also diminishes self-efficacy and motivation in the long

run. Making students aware of their self-handicapping through strategies that bolster autonomous, motivated learning are essential tools for any student toolkit.

Just as self-handicapping is employed by some students (perhaps subconsciously) as a defensive mechanism when confronting challenging tasks, apathy, or the absence of self-efficacy, might also be called upon as a similar preservative of self-esteem:

Children doing poorly at school may begin to devalue school achievement as a way to protect their self-esteem. This devaluing could lead to apathy, again as a self-protective mechanism. Engaging in learning has risks, particularly for students not doing well, and one way to protect against those risks is to be apathetic about learning...Apathy and work avoidance relate in mostly negative ways to positive forms of motivation, strategy use and self-regulation, and achievement. Thus children who have the strong goal to avoid work and/or become apathetic about their schooling likely will not fare very well in school. (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010, p. 20)

If we wish to combat student apathy, helping learners believe in their own abilities and fostering self-efficacy seems to be pivotal to improving motivation in our struggling student populations.

But what of those students who might be suffering low levels of self-efficacy from a general sense of academic burnout? Bilge et al. (2014) explored the connections between student cynicism, self-efficacy, and exhaustion as sub-elements of the larger problem of student burnout. Data were gathered from 633 high school

students from six different high schools in Ankara, Turkey. Students completed the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Student Form, the Utrecht School Engagement Scale, the Study Habits Inventory, and the Scale for Self-Efficacy Expectations. Results indicated that students low in self-efficacy tend also to display higher levels of exhaustion, and students with low study habits and low self-efficacy beliefs have a corresponding high level of cynicism. The researchers expected to find students with high GPAs to also possess high self-efficacy beliefs—this was precisely what they found. The importance of self-efficacy, particularly for our struggling students cannot be overstated. “Research has shown that self-efficacy is positively related to academic achievement, academic motivation, self-regulated learning, and read/writing performance, and negatively associated with cheating” (Prat-Sala & Redford, 2010, p. 286).

Ultimately, self-efficacious students would respect and think well of themselves, believing that they can accomplish goals and learn by making mistakes. Such learners would look back on past success to build confidence and find encouragement in those supporting them (Figure 12).



Figure 12: Motivation: Self-efficacy

**Autonomy.** Autonomy, or individual freedom and independence, encourages intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). Freedom of thought, of choice, of expression and direction, and their combined effects on intrinsic motivation go to the heart of Daniel Pink's (2009) *Drive: The surprising truth about what motivates us*.

The relationship between autonomy and intrinsic motivation has implications for both the workplace and the classroom. Pink's model of motivation, which he calls *Motivation 3.0*, is offered as a more effective alternative to the much antiquated and Industrial Age view of motivation. The outdated, "Industrial" approach to motivation operates on reward and punishment at the expense of cultivating intrinsic motivating factors—the *2.0 model* of the "carrot and stick". Pink suggests that:

The problem is that most businesses haven't caught up to this new understanding of what motivates us. Too many organizations—not just



companies, but governments and non-profits as well—still operate from assumptions about human potential and individual performance that are outdated, unexamined, and rooted more in folklore than in science... Worse, these practices have infiltrated our schools, where we ply our future workforce with iPods, cash, and pizza coupons to “incentivize” them to learn. Something has gone wrong. (Pink, 2009, p. 9)

Not surprisingly, Pink’s (2009) ideas have become the topic of some debate over its applicability to the classroom. Satisfying our larger aim of acquiring a universal understanding of student growth we find Nordgren’s (2013) application of Pink’s *Motivation 3.0* model to student-centered learning in Sweden. Nordgren’s longitudinal study of the Swedish public school system reveals that many of Pink’s concepts, particularly autonomy, mastery, and purpose, are as explicitly apparent in Swedish schools as they are often absent in American schools. Nordgren suggests that systemic mechanisms of control in American schools, beginning with our federal and state departments of education and flowing downward into our local boards of education, administration, and classrooms suppresses autonomy. Such regulation is not only antithetical to teacher and student autonomy, it necessarily discourages intrinsic motivation.

Conversely, Sweden grants far more freedom to their teachers and students (Nordgren, 2013). As a result, Swedish students are better able to manage and take ownership of their own educational needs. These students have been trained to do so. They were prepared for autonomous learning. “Whereas the primary concern of many

U.S. school administrators is controlling student behavior, the Swedes have relatively little adult supervision of students, freeing up personnel for more important pedagogical purposes and allowing students to concentrate on learning, not on who was or wasn't watching them" (Nordgren, p. 2).

Naturally, this largely *hands-off* stance toward education is only effective when student responsibility and accountability has become a widely practiced school norm. Nordgren (2013) identifies four operational attributes of one particular feeder system of schools in Sweden that embodies this culture of accountability. These characteristics include: (a) student responsibility; (b) faculty and student trust; (c) shared governance of the classroom and school; and (d) global workforce competencies of teamwork, critical thinking, technology literacy, creativity and risk-taking (Nordgren). Nordgren speaks often of student responsibility as a necessary condition for student autonomy.

One of Nordgren's many personal anecdotes speaks pointedly to the necessity of student ownership of their learning, and is worth here retelling:

When reading *Drive* (Pink, 2009) I was taken back to my experiences in Swedish schools; experiences I had thought about often but had given up all hope in replicating on a large scale in the U.S. I recalled asking several high school (or "upper secondary") students at a school not included in my study regarding why they bothered attending, since they weren't compelled by law to do so (Motivation 2.0), as compulsory schooling typically ends at age 16. To a one, the answer was to the effect of, "It's my responsibility to learn"

(Motivation 3.0). From the viewpoint of a then-high-school assistant principal and former teacher, this reply was astounding. In the U.S. we too often deem education as something that is done to us, not something we do for ourselves...The more you are watched, the more you need to be watched. The more we control, the more we need to control because we deny the controlled the freedom necessary to foster responsibility. More and more jobs in the new global economy require workers to be autonomous; if we are to truly prepare our students to succeed in this new economy, then freedom linked with responsibility is key. (Nordgren, 2013, pp. 4-5)

If Nordgren (2013) is correct—that student responsibility must precede autonomy and its resulting intrinsic motivation—then students stand to gain much from a student-centered program that instills responsibility which, as we have already discussed, is foundational to self-leadership.

Pink (2009) and Nordgren (2013) are not alone in their view that granting autonomy to both learner and instructor can go far in fostering intrinsic motivation and the desire for life-long learning. The research findings of Luftenegger et al. (2012) indicate that life-long learning, or a self-driven desire to learn that extends beyond secondary and vocational and/or university studies, has positive associations with student autonomy. Luftenegger et al. investigated how student perceptions of their autonomy within the classroom affected their motivational dispositions. Overall, two elements emerged which facilitate life-long learning—the *will* to learn, or

persistent motivation to learn, and the *skills* to learn, or the capacity to internalize concrete activities which can further expand existing knowledge and talents.

Tied to the will to learn are learning goal orientation and self-efficacy, both of which become increasingly essential for learners as they move into the adolescent years. Indeed, “motivational beliefs of pupils decrease the longer they stay in school, especially after the transition to secondary school” (Lufenegger et al., 2012, p. 28). Their research indicated a positive correlation between student perception of autonomy and a rise in expression of interest, learning goal orientation, and self-efficacy. Once again, we see the potential power of autonomy to combat apathy and promote self-efficacy, particularly among adolescents where it is most needed, where motivation is most in peril.

It has been further confirmed that expressions of interest, learning goal orientation, and self-efficacy decline with the progression to higher academic grades. As such, grade had the greatest predictive power for interest, meaning that older school children show less interest for their classes...(I)n classes where perceived autonomy is high, expressions of interest, learning goal orientation and self-efficacy are higher among pupils. (Lufenegger et al., 2012, p. 32)

Student autonomy in the learning process has been shown to be most effective when students acquire a personal commitment to their studies, displaying responsibility in the acquisition of knowledge and skills. Commitment and personal responsibility lead to trust from their teachers. This hard-earned and well-merited

trust enables the learner then to have greater choice of learning inquiry, i.e. to be more autonomous learners.

Quantitative research conducted by Smit et al. (2014) further support the efficacy of student autonomy. They compared student perceptions of motivation within the dichotomy of student centered versus teacher centered classrooms. Their self-determination-theory-based research employed a self-report Intrinsic Motivation Inventory administered to 230 adolescent students in the Netherlands. Self-determination theory purports to explain a rise in students' intrinsic motivation when the individual learner satisfies three elementary psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Smit et al.). Teachers who encourage autonomy in their students can expect to find enhanced motivation, curiosity, and engagement. Likewise, when students feel a sense of competence, they tend to display greater persistence in the face of academic adversity. Additionally, if they feel relatedness to their teachers, giving rise to trust, comfort, and reliability, all the better for student motivation (Smit et al.).

Others (Loukomies et al., 2013) have emphasized the critical role teachers play in fostering student motivation. A robust teaching sequence, similar to the practices of standards-based instruction, can help augment student motivation. A quantitative study (Loukomies et al.) administered to 27 students in Finland and an equal number of students in Greece evaluated the self-determination theory of motivation. The self-determination theory of motivation stresses that "humans are active and growth-oriented, making the actualization of their potentialities, growth

and integration, fulfilling their basic psychological needs. These needs include autonomy, competence, and social relatedness, and moving their lives in desired and specific directions rather than being passive subjects to environmental forces that push them around” (p. 2519). Ultimately, Loukomies et al. concluded that a hands-on, designed-based research approach to learning, autonomously selected by the learner, can improve intrinsic motivation.

Such autonomy for students has been shown to yield a stronger work ethic and a corresponding higher-level product of learning. Autonomy of this sort gives rise to a desire to gain mastery over a present topic or skill. Ultimately, this may bring the learner to a sense of why something is done; this understanding is what we mean by a sense of purpose. The suggestion is that, “through being able to explore and work at one’s own pace, for the sheer pleasure of learning, students are better able to obtain mastery of the content area” (Gillard et al., 2015, p. 2).

The accomplished autonomous learner would understand that independence and freedom of choice can motivate (Figure 13). Likewise, such levels of studentship would result in a focus on learning rather than who is or is not watching the learner. In the end, the autonomous learner would appreciate that learning is something that one does for himself and not something done to him.



Figure 13: Motivation: Autonomy

**Purpose.** Educators must do all we can to help students develop more robust patterns of motivation. The ways in which intrinsic motivation works must be taught, taught through a formative motivational program of self-efficacy, autonomy, and purpose. Teachers must be facilitators of learning, but they must be much more than this too.

Educators can no longer only be facilitators of learning either. Learning more and more information does not matter unless that information becomes purposeful and makes sense to students. Therefore, it is now time to advance to the next level: teachers must become motivators of purpose. (Gillard et al., 2015, p. 3)

From facilitators of learning to motivators of purpose: this is an important objective for teachers as they utilize our SAGA framework of studentship. Autonomy and self-efficacy have been shown to be necessary for cultivating intrinsic motivation within our students. Having a sense of purpose, both in and out of school, is no less necessary for improving motivation. It has been observed (Damon et al., 2003) that positive purpose, as part of adolescent development, has received too little attention from psychologists and sociologists. This is unfortunate. For when young people find little in life to which they can devote themselves as they pass from childhood into adolescents, they tend to have difficulty building motivational belief systems as they age.

Damon et al. (2013) asked whether teenagers today cultivate positive purposes, and if so, what the nature of these purposes might be. A key finding of their research suggests that adolescents express their purpose in acutely different ways than adults. When teenagers lack purposeful aspirations for life they are more apt to engage in antisocial behavior. Helping students develop a positive moral identity and purpose may play a key role in minimizing apathy in adolescents and those restrictive barriers to learning that apathy can erect.

Young people who express purpose, in the sense of a dedication to causes greater than the self, show high degrees of religiosity, consolidated identities, and deeper senses of meaning than those who do not experience purpose. In addition, the value of purpose to the self continues well beyond the adolescent period—indeed, throughout the rest of the life-span. All of this suggests



purpose plays a positive role in self-development as well as a generative one for the person's contributions to society...Acquiring noble purposes discourages the acquisition of ignoble ones. For example, when a youngster is filled with a sense of purpose based on love, the youngster may become too well-centered to drift towards hatred. In contrast, a youngster without a noble purpose may be like a vacuum that can be filled with unwholesome elements of all kinds. (Damon et al., 2003, p. 126)

We have seen that self-efficacy, autonomy, and positive purpose combine to increase intrinsic motivation in adolescent students. And yet, fostering these elements of motivation (Gillard et al., 2015) are becoming increasingly difficult for teachers in the present age of hyper-accountability models. "At every level of education, demands for outcomes such as higher scores on standardized tests and higher attendance, retention, and graduation rates are forcing administrators to micromanage the teachers under their charge, who, in turn, micromanage the students in the classroom" (Gillard et al. p. 1).

Micromanagement, albeit of administrators, teachers, or students, does little to encourage motivation. In fact, such micromanagement has resulted in unprecedented levels of educational apathy and mediocrity (Gillard et al., 2015). Gillard et al. offered a new philosophy for public education where micromanagement ceases, and where students learn through heightened intrinsic motivation derived from self-efficacy, autonomy, and purpose.

As our investigation into studentship is ostensibly for the learner, what questions should students ask themselves with regards to their own motivational purpose? Pintrich and De Groot (1990) suggested that an expectancy-value model of education best supports motivated learning. From this model three essential questions arise.

The first question students should ask themselves is, “Can I do this task?” This question resides in the student’s expectations. As we have seen from our discussion of self-efficacy, belief in one’s ability to accomplish tasks is paramount. “The expectancy component of students motivation has been conceptualized in a variety of ways, but the basic construct involves students’ beliefs that they are able to perform the task and that they are responsible for their own performance” (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990, p. 33).

The second question arises from the student’s value and purpose orientation. This question is: “Why am I doing this?” One constructive way for students to answer this question is through goal setting. Studies indicate that when students set mastery goals for themselves that are viewed as challenging and interesting students are more inclined to engage in metacognitive strategies and manage their efforts more effectively (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990).

The third question students should ask themselves in an effort to maximize motivational purpose is, “How do I feel about this task?” In this emotive response, the bond between emotional intelligence and motivation is reaffirmed.

An accomplished student of motivational purpose, as we have seen, would maintain a sense of positive purpose and fulfillment, while also understanding that there are things, ideas, and causes greater than themselves. In the same spirit, he or she would understand why certain things are asked of them in school, and when they don't see the purpose in the learning task he or she would ask for clarification (Figure 14).



Figure 14: Motivation: Purpose

Self-leadership, emotional intelligence, and motivation competencies will stand students in good stead as they prepare for the final task of mastery studentship—self-regulated learning. Looking ahead, we understand, as will our students, that “motivational beliefs are not sufficient for successful academic performance; self-regulated learning components seem to be more directly implicated

in performance” (Pintrich & De Gross, 1990, p. 38). It is to self-regulated learning that we finally turn our attention.

#### **Discipline IV of Studentship: Self-Regulated Learning**

**Introduction.** Research in character, social, and cognitive attributes of studentship suggest self-regulated learning as a final guidepost. Self-regulated learning represents the ultimate destination for adolescent learners on their way to maximum studentship. It is therefore worth underscoring its salient quality:

Self-regulated learners are not passive; rather, they are active in the sense that they know their own strengths and weaknesses, and when needed, they are able to seek and access information which is conducive to learning. A nonstandard learning condition—be it due to abstruse course books, confusing instructors, below-average study conditions and school facilities—cannot create any crippling obstacles for them. They manage to use failure as a bridge to success. For them, the process of the acquisition of knowledge is both systematic and controllable. Self-regulated learners are individuals who are claimed to possess such qualities as resilience, confidence, diligence, resourcefulness, and the like; they see themselves as motivated, hard-working, appropriately strategic, and academically competent. (Nodoushan, 2012, p. 2)

Given this description of the ideal self-regulated learner, it is easy to see how it serves as a culmination to our framework of student accountability. Our SAGA model begins with self-leadership and concludes with self-regulated learning. It begins and ends with the self. It begins and ends with the learner, with his or her

empowerment. “The development of motivation and self-regulated learning skills can take classroom management beyond the role of maintaining order in the classroom to empower students and teachers in lifetime learning” (Alderman & MacDonald, 2015, p. 52).

Self-regulated learning compliments student centered learning environments. Strong self-regulated learners flourish best in student centered learning environments. Smit et al. (2014) explained there are clear operational differences between teacher-centered and student-centered learning environment. Student-centered learning environments (SLEs) are those which emphasize “student responsibility and activity in learning rather than content of what the teachers are doing” (Smit et al. p. 696). Remove student accountability and self-regulation from student-centered learning environments and you effectively end up with teacher-centered conditions. There can be no student autonomy, no student-centered learning without student accountability for their learning.

Student-centered learning environments necessitate five steps (Smit et al., 2014). First, lessons are inquiry based, providing students multiple perspectives from which to examine a particular topic or unit of study. Second, students assume an active role “set goals and take responsibility for the learning process. Furthermore, students learn cooperatively to enable negotiation and social construction of knowledge” (Smit et al. p. 696). One can see how augmented emotional intelligence would support this second step of cooperation and negotiation.

In the third step, teachers assume the role of coach or facilitator, and in time relinquish “responsibilities for the learning process” (Smit et al. p. 696). Next, sources of information are extended beyond the instructor and textbook to the internet and other sources. Finally, students’ self-reflections assess the final learning product as well as the learning process itself.

The student-centered-learning-environment process is ambitious and expectant; it hinges on self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning. Student-centered learning environments unlock “students’ full potential to become active, self-regulated learners” (Smit et al. p. 708). Intrinsic motivational processes and extrinsic motivational strategies are indispensable. Ultimately, both teachers and students play a symbiotic role in the learning process. A failure of responsibility on either part interrupts the cycle of learning. Mastery learning in the classroom cannot occur in the absence of highly-effective teacher support; nor can it occur in the absence of student accountability. If one party fails in its duty, the learning process cannot proceed; teacher and student play a pivotal role.

This brings us to the core of our model of mastery studentship—student growth. Students are the beneficiaries of thorough training in, and monitoring of, self-regulated learning. Students are empowered. “The importance and positive impact of self-regulated learning processes on the academic achievement of students have been consistently demonstrated over the past couple of decades across a multitude of research methodologies and contexts...SRL interventions afford opportunities for students to become more empowered” (Cleary & Platten, 2013, p. 1).

**Planning.** Students new to the concept of self-regulated learning may find it daunting. To help bring clarity, our SAGA summative framework sub-divides self-regulated learning into four sequential standards: a) planning, b) performance, c) reflection, and d) retention.

“How do I plan to be a self-regulated learner today?” If we educators can get our students to this point we have already accomplished much. Planning begins the self-regulated process of learning. Planning begins with forethought, that is, the “processes and beliefs that occur *before* efforts to learn” (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 67). Motivation initiates these processes.

Motivational beliefs drive positive outcome expectations, self-efficacy, and intrinsic task interest (Zimmerman, 2002; Nodoushan, 2012). Remove self-leadership, emotional intelligence, and motivation, and self-regulated learning cannot proceed. “A motivated learner is one who is a real self-starter in the process of learning. Motivated learners display exemplary effort, persistence, and perseverance in the learning process” (Nodoushan, p. 3).

Process awareness, or the student’s belief in the effectiveness of the SRL method, is key to the planning phase. When learners acknowledge the connection between self-regulated strategies and learning outcomes, and further intend to use such strategies, they tend to display marked achievement results “from their non-self-regulated-counterparts” (Nodoushan, p. 3).

Students who confronted and improved their motivational states, and accepted the proven efficacy of the self-regulated learning method, find themselves in a

position to set learning goals. Goal setting represents the third step within the planning phase of self-regulated learning. Students who do not set goals to guide their learning are less likely to exert meaningful effort during the performance phase of learning or to self-reflect thereafter (Zimmerman).

The fundamental process underscoring the goal setting and evaluation starts with conservative learning goals which upon successful completion result in greater motivation and elevated goals. Rather than a cycle, the goal setting process has been envisioned (Nodoushan) as a spiral which continues to take the learner to the next and higher level of goal sophistication and learning (Figure 15).

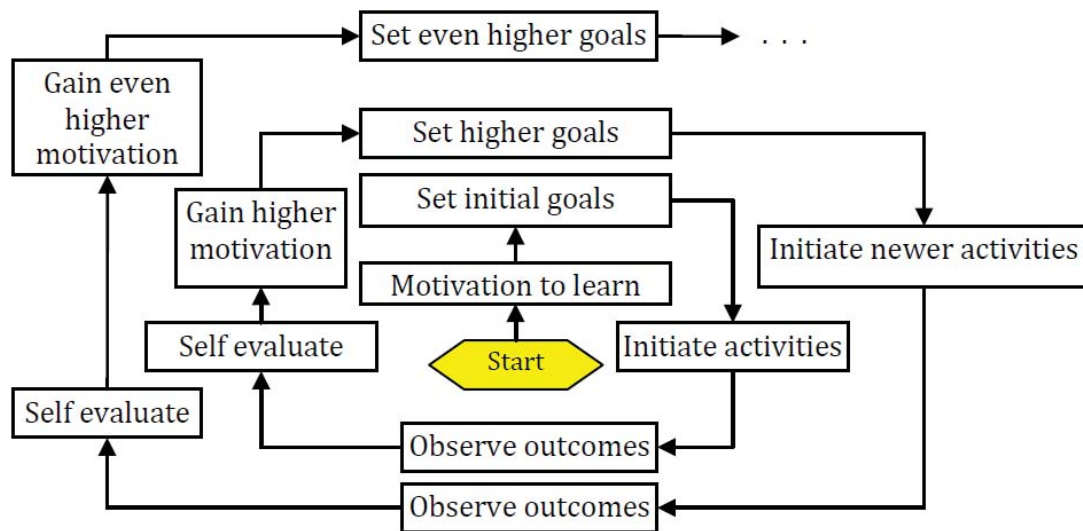


Figure 15: Goal Setting Process. (Nodoushan, 2012)

Students should establish self-consequences for their goals. What will follow if I reach my goals? What if I don't? Such questions and their consequences might take the form of self-sacrifice and delayed-gratification.



Students may frequently need to ignore pass-time activities for the sake of staying home to prepare for class assignments. Making these kinds of sacrifice requires the students' self-confidence in their own potentials and abilities as well as personal determination to postpone gratification. Facing a situation of this kind, students often ask the question: Is it worth my while? (Nodoushan, p.7)

In summary, the accomplished student who plans for his or her self-regulated learning, would have a sufficiently sophisticated epistemology to believe that SRL strategies work and would plan meaningful goals without procrastination. These accomplished students would also make necessary sacrifices and delay gratification in order to best learn (Figure 16).

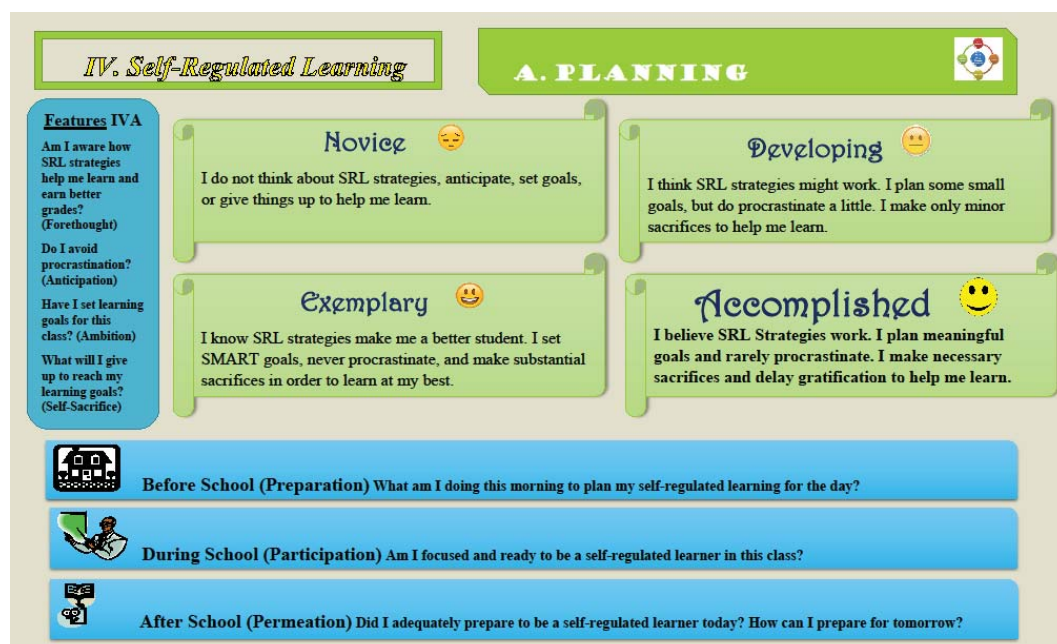


Figure 16: Self-regulated learning: Planning

**Performance.** As students plan for self-regulated learning they look ahead to their performance. To aid students with their performance of self-regulated learning, four steps are provided as a guide. These include: environmental control, application and effort, self-monitoring, and metacognition.

Students need to recognize the characteristics of a productive learning environment. In class, this might include selecting suitable partners during collaborative activities as well as resisting social and digital distractions when they appear. At home, distractions and alternative amusements can be even greater.

Selecting and controlling one's learning environment is an essential behavioral process of learning performance. This is a process "whereby self-regulated learners select, structure, and create environments that are conducive and facilitative to optimized learning" (Nodoushan, 2012, p. 3). Teachers play an important role here. Good teachers promote cultures of learning. Without strong teacher leadership students, in many cases, will find this self-regulating learning task nigh on impossible to accomplish. The classroom instructor must provide the necessary conditions for self-regulated learning. Effective classroom management is paramount.

At the heart of performance is effort, effort which can be qualified as decisive and persistent, and which relies upon agency, cognitive and behavioral engagement. Putting forth one's best effort will depend upon the student's use of high-yield learning strategies. Strategies to facilitate learning actions can involve the use of imagery, self-instruction, and focusing attention.

In learning the Spanish word *pan* for “bread,” an English-speaking girl could form an image of a bread pan or self-instruct using the phrase “bread pan.” She could also locate her place of study away from distracting noises so she could control her attention better. For a task-strategy, she could group the Spanish word *pan* with associated words for foods. (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 68).

There is little meaningful performance without effort and perseverance. Students who are better able to ignore the many potential distractions to learning within classrooms can better regulate their cognitive engagement in the learning task (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990). With better, more focused cognition students are in a position to deploy specific learning strategies relevant to the task at hand. “Students who were more cognitively engaged in trying to learn by memorizing, organizing, and transforming management through the use of rehearsal, elaboration, and organizational cognitive strategies performed better than students who tended not to use these strategies” (Pintrich and DeGroot, p. 38).

Student engagement is crucial. Indeed, the very concept of student engagement has been interpreted in various ways (Sheppard, 2011). What exactly does it mean for students to be engaged?

Sheppard (2011) draws a sharp distinction between procedural engagement and substantive engagement, both of which are subdomains of cognitive engagement. With procedural engagement one finds efforts of task completion that endure only as long as the task itself lasts. Procedural engagement flows from the philosophy of John

Dewey whereby the learner is not the principle agent responsible for his or her own learning; this responsibility lies with the teacher. The student, therefore, is the subject of the activity.

Conversely, substantive engagement represents continuous commitment to the intrinsic content of schooling, or an educational pursuit on behalf of the learner.

Substantive engagement is an intellectual process to learn by study, application, and surmounting challenges; it is a personal transaction between learner and teacher. It has further been observed (Sheppard) that substantive engagement is a commitment made by the active individual toward furthering his or her understanding.

Unfortunately, the shift over the past 30 years has moved toward procedural engagement at the expense of substantive engagement.

The shift in essence, put the procedural ‘cart’ before the substantive ‘horse’...A more serious consequence of the revolutionary shift is that the ‘strategic assaults’ may have unwittingly eliminated from our educational pursuits, the very *ideas* of individual commitment, intrinsic value and most importantly, the significance of ‘what’ education entails, i.e. worthwhile knowledge and understanding...In the interests of educational engagement, it is time to resurrect the substantive ‘horse’, i.e. what is worthwhile, and put it back in ‘front of the cart’, i.e. the means by which it is achieved. (Sheppard, pp. 120-121)

If Sheppard (2011) is right and there is a need to resurrect substantive engagement of student responsibility and ownership in the learning process, our

proposed SAGA framework of student accountability should help serve that end.

Aspirational goals of student centered learning seem unlikely to become reality without student commitment, effort, correct habits of mind, and accountability.

Substantive engagement can have much broader implications than just mastering particular content or skills. It affects nearly every aspect of a student's experience in school. Students substantively engaged have "positive feelings about education, a sense of belonging in the school environment, a positive relationship with faculty and other students, attending school, participating in extracurricular activities, spending extra time on schoolwork, subscribing to the decisions taken in class and school, determining one's own learning objectives, and being able to voice one's views in class" (Bilge et al., 2014, p. 1722).

Self-monitoring is integral to the performance component of self-regulated learning. We employ the term "*in situ*" monitoring to mean "real-time" self-monitoring, self-monitoring that occurs while the learning process is unfolding. *In situ* is a Latin expression (meaning "on site", or "in place", or "in position") used by archaeologists to denote archaeological features, structures, or artefacts that are intact within an excavated site. We appropriate the use of *in situ* to distinguish between monitoring "during" the learning activity and self-reflection which occurs "after" the learning activity.

*In situ* self-monitoring is a process of self-observation whereby students track the on-going quality of their work. This is accomplished through metacognitive, student engagement where students maintain an awareness of his or her individual's

thoughts and knowledge. *In situ* self-monitoring is accomplished by students self-recording their individual success or failure in task performance or behaviors. Such journal entries can then be used in the post-learning phase of self-reflection (Cleary & Platten, 2013).

We return to the writings of Zimmerman (2002), one of the founders of self-regulated learning, to help us envision this *in situ* self-monitoring as it might occur in practice:

Students are often asked to *self-record* their time use to make them aware of how much time they spend studying. A boy may notice that when he studied alone, he finished his homework more quickly than when studying with a friend. To test this hypothesis, the boy could conduct a *self-experiment* in which he studied parallel lessons alone and in the presence of his friend to see whether his friend was an asset or liability. Self-monitoring, a covert form of self-observation refers to one's cognitive tracking of personal functioning, such as the frequency of failing to capitalize words when writing an essay. (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 68)

The performance phase of self-regulated learning is dependent upon *in situ* self-monitoring which itself is informed by substantive engagement and metacognition. Metacognition, despite what many students seem to think (Patrick & Middleton, 2002) is far more than simply thinking about what you are doing.

Metacognition asks students to think about why they are being asked to accomplish a particular learning task. This goes far deeper than merely following a

teacher's instructions. Students often struggle with this deeper application of metacognition. "When we considered the focus of student's attention, though, it was evident that their cognitive and metacognitive engagement was directed in large part at following procedures or at more superficial aspects of the task, rather than to understanding ideas (Patrick & Middleton, 2002). Authentic meta-cognition will always result in students reflecting on the ideas and purpose behind the lesson and not merely on its procedures.

Qualitative anecdotes like the following illustrate the shallow and misguided metacognitive processes that adolescent students sometimes commit.

This was evident also during students' construction of artifacts. Examples come from the period during the air-quality curriculum when students worked on creating posters for a group presentation about one of a range of pollutants. We observed students reflecting on and debating questions such as the color and size of the lettering or the extent of students' artistic skills, rather than ensuring that they achieved an integrated understanding of, for example, what the chemical formulae meant or how CFCs damage the ozone layer... We need to question whether their metacognition is directed toward features of the tasks that will promote learning and understanding, rather than more superficial aspects of the task. (Patrick & Middleton, p. 30)

In this example we see not only student misconception of metacognition but also procedural engagement at the expense of substantive engagement as described by Sheppard (2011).

An appreciation of metacognition in the learning process is ancient. It is ancient and likely a universal pedagogical practice. Recent comparisons (Tan, 2005) between metacognition and the ancient Confucian concept of *si* have been drawn. The individual journey toward self-regulated learning crosses culture, location, and time.

*Si* strictly translated within the Confucian concept of learning means “thinking”. And yet, it has also been translated by varying contexts to suggest understanding, reflection, analysis, synthesis, evaluation, making connections, drawing analogies, making inferences, and forming judgments (Tan).

Confucius clearly understood the value of thinking about thinking and the seminal place it holds in the self-monitoring role within self-regulated learning. “Confucius’ concept of *si* involves active reflection and inquiry, extending one’s learning through higher-order thinking, and self-examination. Far from advocating rote-memorization, Confucius highlights the need for us to take ownership of our own learning, engage in higher order thinking, and reflectively apply the lessons learnt in our lives” (Tan, p. 437).

Self-regulated students performing at an accomplished level, therefore, would look for positive learning environments, put forth good effort, and check their work as they go. They would ask themselves if they understand the ideas of the lesson and would ask for help when they do not. They would focus just as much on the substance of the lesson as its procedures (Figure 17).





Figure 17: Self-regulated Learning: Performance

**Reflection.** Student self-reflection, which follows after the learning activity either in school or at home, builds upon two components—knowledge beliefs and self-assessment. Both components work together to enable the developing self-regulated learner to reflect and make judgements upon the cause and effect relationship between the self-regulated learning process and their performance outcomes.

Knowledge beliefs, so crucial to reflection, arise from epistemology. Epistemology, or the study of the origins, nature, methods, and limits of human knowledge (Epistemology, n.d.), not only constitutes a foundational branch of philosophy, it is a vital part of interpreting and understanding the learning process.

What students believe about learning shapes how they assess their success and areas of improvement. Knowledge beliefs directly impact the efficacy of reflection.

Patrick and Middleton (2002) demonstrated through their qualitative examination into self-regulated learning that the ways in which students view the relative simplicity or complexity of knowledge directly governs their ability to self-reflect and utilize appropriate learning strategies. At a superficial understanding, students think that knowledge is simple, isolated, and fully knowable. With a deeper and more sophisticated epistemology, students regard knowledge as complex, interrelated, uncertain, and evolving.

The opposing views of knowledge impact how students regulated their own learning. “If students believe that knowledge is simple, then there is little reason for them to try to integrate different ideas and knowledge sources. Similarly, if they believe that knowledge is certain, they may be unlikely to think about exceptions or question whether there is conflicting evidence” (Patrick & Middleton, p. 31).

Simplistic epistemologies can lead adolescents toward shallow surface processing, knowledge acceptance, and external regulation of learning. Alternatively, an enlightened metacognitive epistemology has been positively correlated with deeper processing, interest in learning, and internal, self-regulation of learning (Mellat & Lavasani, 2011).

Introducing students to basic concepts of knowledge beliefs during the formative phase of student development could advance students from a more shallow and superficial self-reflection to a deeper self-assessment of their learning. When

students do not cultivate advanced knowledge systems they struggle with opposing viewpoints and contradictory facts—it limits growth mind set. In fact, it is not uncommon for them to view counter-arguments as an intrusion to learning, “rather than as a prompt to integrate new and existing knowledge” (Patrick and Middleton, 2002, p. 31). Students with an elementary epistemology tend to find “the emphasis on discussing alternative viewpoints distracting and obscure the identification of facts” (Patrick & Middleton, p. 31).

One’s epistemological orientation can also affect motivation. Students’ beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning affects intrinsic motivation and class performance. Students who believe that knowledge is simple, absolute and certain have demonstrated low intrinsic motivation and low academic performance. (Cortright et al., 2015). Interestingly, there are gender discrepancies in the development of epistemological beliefs:

Female students appear to have more sophisticated beliefs about the nature of knowledge. Specifically, more female students than male students believe that knowledge is organized as highly intertwined concepts, is uncertain, and that individuals have the capability to improve their learning skills. In contrast, male students are more likely to have less sophisticated epistemological beliefs that knowledge is acquired rapidly, is composed of a series of isolated independent facts, is unconditional, and that individuals have a predetermined ability to learn. These beliefs affect their motivation to learn and class performance. (Cortright et al. p. 185)

Self-assessment, as the ultimate aim of self-reflection, is predicated on a student's ability to understand the cause and effect relationship between self-regulated learning techniques and positive learning outcomes. Self-assessment can be defined as the process of students evaluating their own work in order to identify needed areas of improvement. Using feedback provided by teachers or tutors, self-regulated learners establish connections between academic outcomes, such as test scores, and learning strategies (Cleary & Platten, 2013).

Positive correlations between beneficial academic emotions and perceived self-regulation, as well as those between negative academic emotions and perceived external regulations have been identified (Pekrun et al., 2002). The cause and effect relationship is cyclical, and reversible. "The reverse direction of causation may play a role here as well: Self-regulating one's own learning may induce positive feelings, whereas external control may induce anger, anxiety, and boredom" (Pekrun et al., p. 99).

Accomplished levels of EI and a strong sense of self-efficacy are therefore foundational to productive self-regulated learning. We now realize (Zimmerman, 2002) that learners who are low in these standards of studentship tend to conduct self-reflections only in comparison to other learners, never in light of their own learning goals. This then prompts them to attribute academic deficiencies to innate scholastic abilities rather than ineffective strategy use. Conversely, students with healthier academic emotions, "self-evaluate their performance against their personal goals rather than other learners' performance, and they make strategy (or method)

attributions instead of ability attributions. This leads to greater personal satisfaction with their learning progress and further efforts to improve their performance” (Zimmerman, p. 69).

But what about those students who, because they have yet to master self-leadership, are not prepared for autonomous learning? It is worth remembering the very real human component of our discussion—adolescents. “Give students autonomy, but only to the extent that they are able to self-regulate their learning” (Pekrun et al., 2002, p. 101).

Not all students, of course, arrive at the same cognitive and emotional stage necessary for productive use of autonomous learning. How do we help students on their way toward autonomous learning? Training is the answer; it lies in adequate preparation. Part of this training is the intentional and carefully monitored use of student self-assessment.

While student training is essential for self-regulated learning, teachers remain the catalyst for change, particularly when it comes to student-self assessment. In other words, providing student autonomy alone might not be sufficient to facilitate student-self assessment. “Pupils are more interested, learning goal oriented and show higher self-efficacy when they perceive themselves as more self determined and autonomous in classroom learning activities. Contrary to our expectations and to former empirical results, autonomy did not significantly predict monitoring and self-assessment of learning actions” (Luftenegger et al., 2012, p. 34). Granting autonomy to students may, as we have seen, enhance intrinsic motivation but it does not in itself

automatically produce self-regulated reflection. Only through the combined mastery of self-leadership, emotional intelligence, and motivation can such reflection be accentuated.

Teachers will need to help guide students in the proper use of self-assessment, both as a vehicle for strong self-regulation of learning and for greater intrinsic motivation. McMillan and Hearn in *Student Self-Assessment: The Key to Stronger Student Motivation and Higher Achievement* (2008) even go so far as to assert that student-centered self-evaluation is *the* most effective way to increase student motivation, claiming student self-assessment, “stands alone in its promise to enhance intrinsic motivation, student engagement and learning; self-monitoring and mastery goal setting hold the key to more meaningful learning” (McMillan & Hearn, p. 40).

Self-assessment is itself a three-step process (McMillan & Hearn). First, students self-monitor their learning during the performance phase. Students achieve this by examining (honestly) what they have been doing to promote or inhibit their success both in terms of behavior and thinking. This, we have previously described as *in-situ* self monitoring. Second, self-judgment involves a snap-shot assessment of their current mastery of learning standards. In other words, what do they know at this moment and what still needs to be learned? The third step hinges on students’ corrective actions. Students choose alternative goals and activities that hopefully will yield accurate answers and correct misconceptions.

The three steps outlined above demand considerable maturity and emotional sophistication of the student. Teacher guidance is imperative. “Students who are

taught self-evaluation skills are more likely to persist on difficult tasks, be more confident about their ability, and take greater responsibility” (McMillian & Hearn, p. 42).

Even with teacher (external) guidance, we still run the risk of certain students not becoming actuated toward good self-assessment habits. Some as a result may simply end up superficially going through the motions of self-assessment only from a desire to be compliant. Worse still, there may be those students who make no attempt whatsoever to self-assess their learning, never having fully developed the requisite self-leadership, emotional intelligence, and motivational competencies to do so.

Personal attainment, to repeat, of self-leadership, emotional intelligence, and motivation will assist students in the processes of self-judgment and self-reaction as they assess their learning. Again, self-judgment, calls upon the student’s capacity to establish cause-and-effect relationships within the self-regulated learning process and to appropriately ascribe success and failures to strategy use and not inherent ability. One’s ability and intelligence is never fixed; they can be expanded. Students must be made to understand this. “Attributing a poor score to limitations in fixed ability can be very damaging motivationally because it implies that efforts to improve on a future test will not be effective. In contrast, attributing a poor math score to controllable processes, such as the use of the wrong solution strategy, will sustain motivation because it implies that a different strategy may lead to success” (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 68).

Student self-reaction follows this reflection. Self-reaction implies: how will I respond to what I've learned in my self-assessment? Two responses are prominent: defensive reactions and adaptive reactions. Defensive reactions are characterized by a student's desire to protect his or her self-image through a process of avoidance, such as dropping a course or avoiding an examination. Adaptive reactions, conversely, are behavioral modifications intended to enhance the effectiveness of the individual's learning methodology. This could take the form of abandoning or modifying ineffective learning strategies, or relocating one's learning environment (Zimmerman, 2002).

Self-regulated learners who reflect at accomplished levels (Figure 18) would display the following attributes. First, they would integrate new learning with existing knowledge and value alternative viewpoints. Secondly, they would attribute their learning performance to strategies and study habits while assessing their growth in light of their own goals. Finally, he or she would consider all feedback in order to modify learning practices.



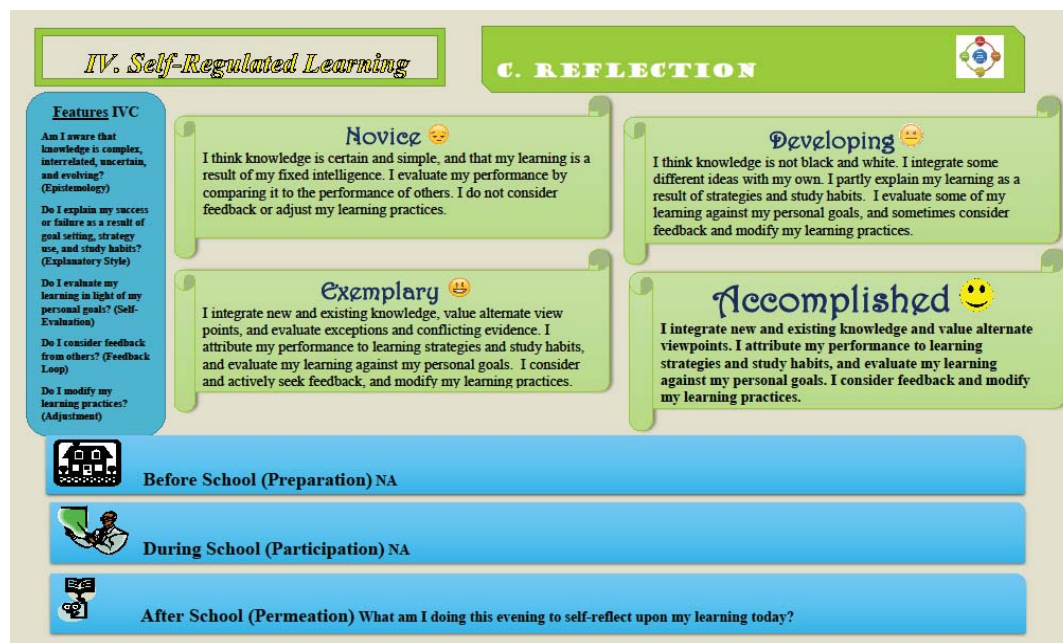


Figure 18: Self-regulated Learning: Reflection

**Retention.** The final standard in self-regulated learning discipline helps students reinforce and retain what they have learned. Retention builds upon concentration, positive habits of mind, and study techniques.

Our SAGA summative framework places the reduction of digital, social, and cognitive distractions as a starting point for effective reinforcement and retention. In *Digital distractions in the classroom: Student classroom use of digital devices for non-class related purposes* McCoy (2013) concluded from his survey of 777 students that the use of Smartphones, tablets, and laptop computers contributed significantly to a loss of concentration and focus during learning. According to his study, the average survey respondent used a digital device 10.93 times a day during class on non-lesson purposes. Moreover, 80% of respondents suggested that these activities prevented

them from paying attention in class and resulted in a loss of content understanding (McCoy).

Additionally, McCoy (2013) observed that 71% of teachers responding to a Common Sense Media Survey believed that digital technology diminished student attention span “somewhat” or “a lot”. In a separate survey, 87% of teacher respondents claimed that digital technologies were producing “an easily distracted generation with short attention spans”, while 64% claimed that digital devices did “more to distract student than to help them academically” (McCoy, p. 72).

Texting during class is another ubiquitous distraction. It has been observed that students had difficulty “learning new things when their brains were distract by another activity” (McCoy, p. 73). Texting for many adolescents is the chief distractor. Texting, to a degree, can affect “a student’s ability to self-regulate their attention to classroom learning” (McCoy, p. 73).

Alternatively, students should be encouraged to power down electronic devices when they are not integral to the studying or learning process. When digital technology is the sole learning medium, students must call upon strong volition and disciplined restraint to prevent their minds from wandering. Indeed, for many teenagers, going without their digital devices is tantamount to a painful withdraw. “When they cannot use them, they feel cut off, antsy, and more inclined to think about what they’re missing than to focus on information being presented to them” (Cardon, 2014, p. 35).

Effective studying techniques are key to retention of information, knowledge and skills. Students completing a robust formative program of studentship will have been exposed to a wide array of proven study techniques. From that point onward, it will be up to them, as motivated self-leaders, to take command of their studying, monitoring it, and holding themselves accountable for it. Our framework of growth and accountability can serve as this reminder.

SAGA students accomplished in retaining their self-regulated learning (Figure 19) would not allow their phone, friends, thoughts, or surroundings to distract them from their learning. Moreover, they would realize from experience that studying helps them to learn. They would be willing to utilize different studying techniques and guides.

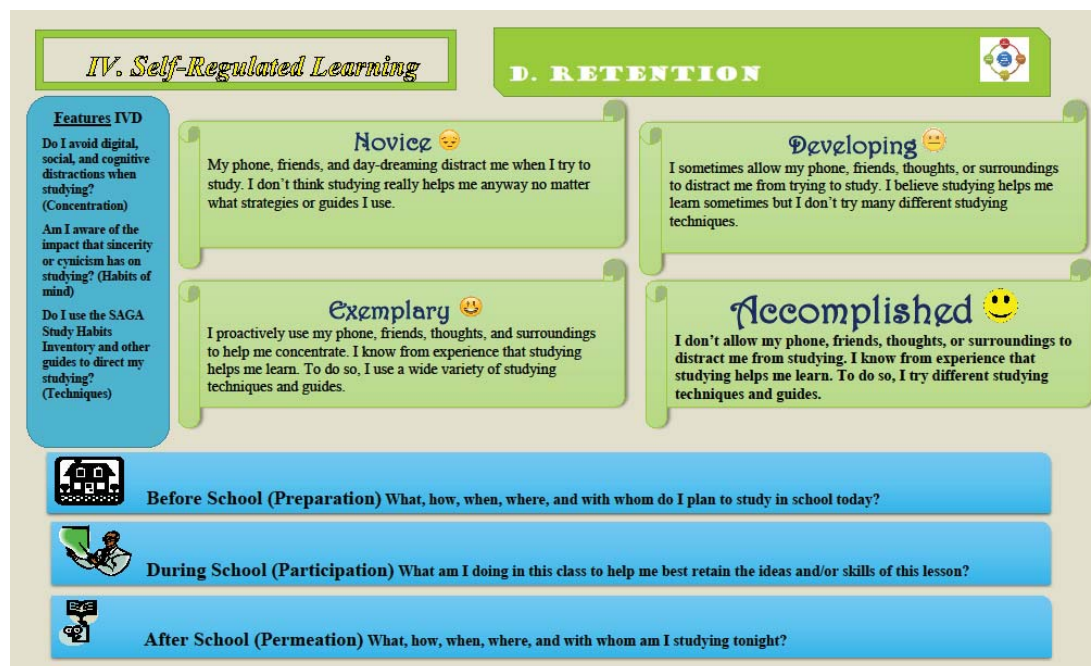


Figure 19: Self-Regulated Learning Retention

**Why were this capstone and related strategies selected?**

**Problem statement.** How do we currently prepare adolescent students for individual academic, behavioral, and social growth? The failure to teach our youth to be effective, self-regulated learners could well be one of the most egregious consequences of the current high-stakes testing and accountability model in our nation's schools. In an age of extreme cynicism, violence, and obscenity, in a popular culture of endless digital and chemical distractions (Shollenbarger et al., 2015), coupled with an intractable unraveling of our economies, families, and communities, is there any wonder why many students (adolescents in particular) often take little interest in their schooling? They must be taught that they themselves are their own solution. They must be taught how to achieve self-efficacy; they must be taught how to be master students.

Unfortunately, too many young people simply do not know where to begin. They do not know what being an effective student looks like. They do not understand that effective learning entails a difficult, self-regulating, self-disciplined process requiring hard work and volition—to be a student is to test and strain one's will. Too many have never been shown how; too many have never been exposed to the crucial disciplines of self-leadership, emotional intelligence, and motivation—conditions necessary for self-regulated learning.

Self-regulation is not a mental ability or an academic performance skill; rather it is the self-directive process by which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills. Learning is viewed as an activity that students

do for themselves in a *proactive* way rather than as a covert event that happens to them in reaction to teaching...Self regulation of learning involves more than detailed knowledge of a skill; it involves the self-awareness, self-motivation, and behavioral skill to implement that knowledge appropriately...Because of their superior motivation and adaptive learning methods, self-regulated students are not only more likely to succeed academically, but to view their futures optimistically. (Zimmerman, 2002, pp. 65-66)

Too few of today's adolescents are self-disciplined leaders, motivated to learn and to work well with others. Too few are self-regulated learners. In many (if not most cases), today's teens and preteens are hardly to blame. They have never been taught such things—they have not been taught effective studentship.

A student, it should be remembered, is one who studies. The ancient Romans understood this. They used the word *studium* to denote the act of studying. But they also used *studium* to connote zeal, devotion, interest, application, diligence, eagerness, and general studiousness. How many of these attributes can be accurately applied to describe the bulk of today's adolescents? Imagine the state of education and our nation if they could. "Students need to have both the 'will' and the 'skill' to be successful in classrooms, and we need to integrate these components in our models of classroom learning" (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990, p. 38).

The significance of this problem is apparent: If we do not teach students how to be effective in the classroom, their journey of authentic learning will be all the

more arduous as they move on to employment or higher education. They need to be taught how learning works. They then need to be held accountable for their learning. But this cannot occur without guidance. It cannot occur without a summative accountability framework that monitors its progress and fosters self-regulating learning (SRL).

Developing SRL interventions specifically targeting high school students is important for a variety of reasons. At the high school level, classroom-based exams often represent a key-performance outcome and an integral component of students' report card grades. Thus, the skills necessary for effectively studying for exams represent a critical academic skill that needs to be taught, practiced, and refined, particularly for students who struggle academically...In secondary school contexts, students are often faced with many challenges or demands as they prepare for exams, most notably the need to organize and integrate large volumes of information presented within class lessons, homework assignments, and/or readings from relevant texts and resources. Given that these activities often occur outside the supervision of teachers and necessitate the use of efficient regulatory strategies and processes, attention devoted to how students regulate and use such strategies as they prepare for exams is critical. (Cleary & Platten, 2013, p. 2)

**Background to the problem.** In many ways, this project was a response to the “top-down” paradigm in education which, arguably, is incomplete. Instilling “Best Practices” in our teachers and administrators is vital, but it is not enough. It is

not enough for highly effective learning and continuous school improvement. Also required is instilling “Best Practices” in our students, a “bottom-up” addition to this paradigm. Without a program that assesses student accountability and growth, student learning stagnates. The following flow chart (Figure 20) illustrates this stagnation:

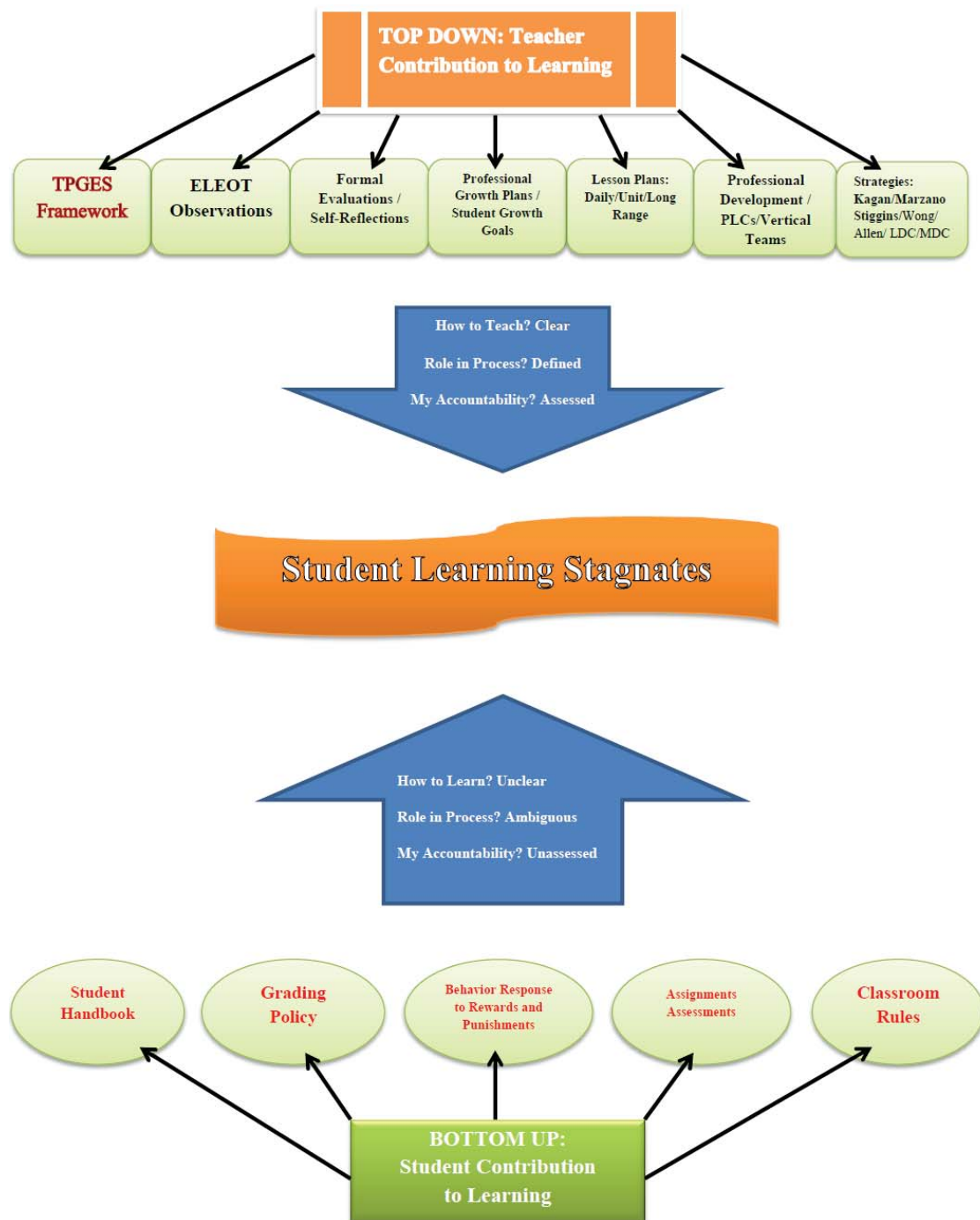


Figure 20: Student Stagnation



Equally, we should promote “Best Practices” in our students and develop their capacity to learn at high levels. This represents a shift of mindset. Students must be better equipped to meet the needs of rigorous classroom instruction.

Activity-based classrooms require a new repertoire of skills for teacher and students. With a shift in classroom management away from unilateral teacher control, students must develop capacities for exercising responsibility and self-regulation...as students assume more responsibility and self-regulation, the central role of the teacher becomes to facilitate and encourage student self-control and personal responsibility for contributing to academic achievement. (Alderman & MacDonald, 2015, p. 53)

Our new model of studentship, the Student Accountability and Growth Assessment (SAGA), could provide this new “repertoire of skills”. It would do so in two phases. The first phase is a formative program of study in self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning. The second phase resides in summative accountability framework to be used by teacher and learner alike to monitor learning-conducive behaviors. The summative framework could ultimately enable students to assume greater responsibility and autonomy for their own learning, indispensable attributes of authentic college and career readiness. The summative framework could even be used to supplement or replace those more “traditional” behavior comments on report cards:

Interest in the “other” side of the report card is not at all new. What is new is the expectation that we can measure, with precision and accuracy, the many

positive personal qualities other than cognitive ability that contribute to student well-being and achievement. Quantifying, even imperfectly, the extent to which young people express self-control, gratitude, purpose, growth mindset, collaboration, emotional intelligence, and other beneficial personal qualities, has dramatically advanced scientific understanding of their development, impact on life outcomes, and underlying mechanisms. (Duckworth & Yeager, 2015, p. 246)

School improvement measures might be better served with a “bottom-up” initiative that cultivates essential study, character, leadership, and socio-emotional skills in our students that will forever serve them in and out of the classroom. This supplement to continuous school improvement would clearly define the student’s role in the learning process, detailing how best to learn while assessing his or her accountability to student growth. A more robust “bottom-up” strategy (Figure 21) would help bring cohesion to student-expectation policies already in place, reverse student stagnation, and facilitate student growth:

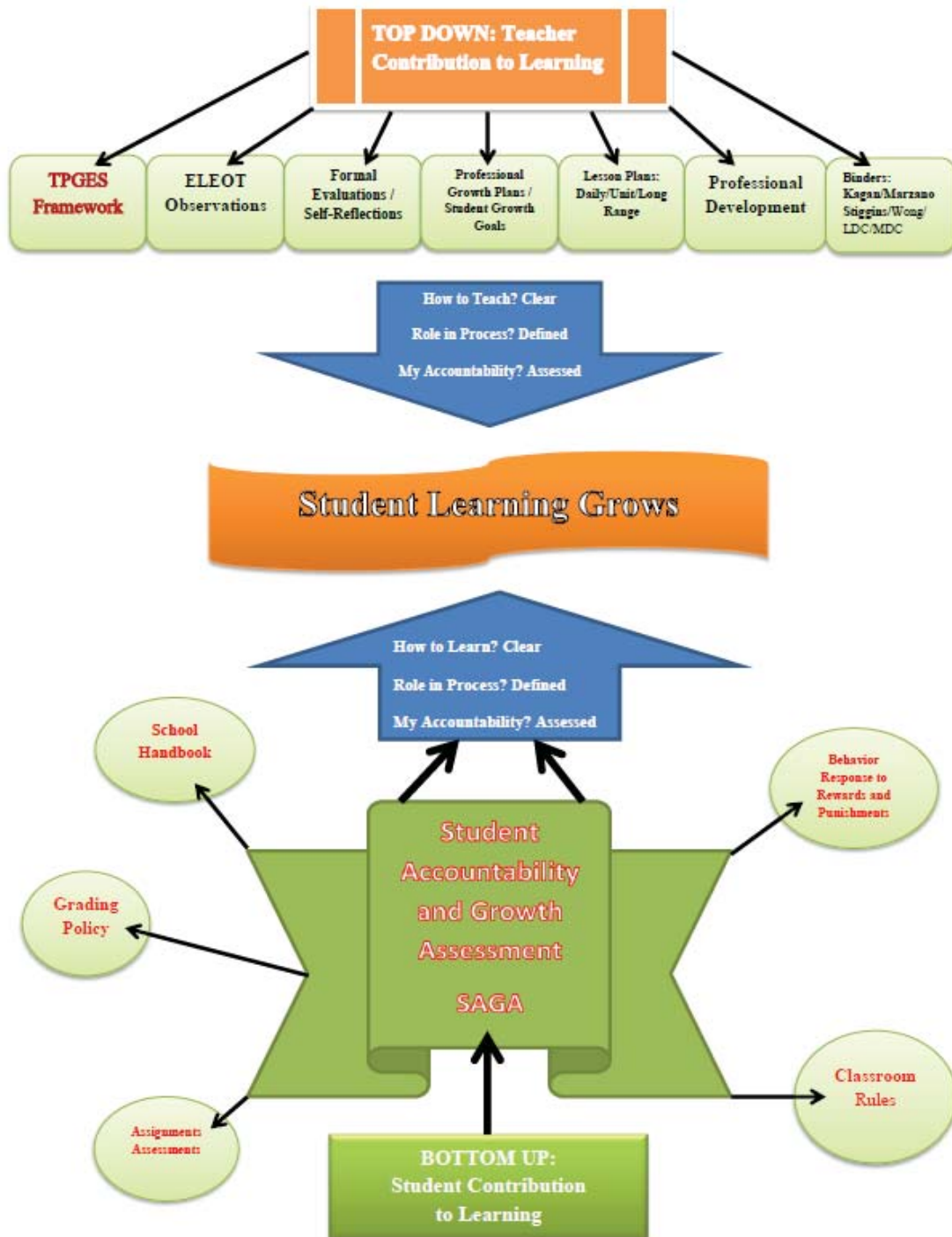


Figure 21: Student Growth

A supplemental “bottom-up” approach to continuous school improvement is a response to the widely-acclaimed work by Paul Tough (2012), *How Children Succeed: Grit, Curiosity, and the Hidden Power of Character*. In it, Tough (2012) argues that character traits of grit, self-control, zest, social intelligence, gratitude, optimism, curiosity, and perseverance are the strongest predictors of academic success in secondary and post-secondary education in addition to career success, interpersonal relationships, and physiological well-being.

A new model of studentship, a “bottom-up” initiative, can be well positioned within the ongoing debate passing between the standards-based reform and learner-centered movements. The former, it can be argued, perpetuates the “top-down” approach, while the learner-centered concept embraces our “bottom-up” vision.

Basically, standards-based reform efforts focus on designing the conditions in the classroom and school to produce high levels of student achievement, whereas the learner-centered perspective believes that educational interventions must also focus on students’ will to learn, intrinsic motivation, and self-regulated learning. This latter perspective takes the approach that if higher academic standards are to be attained, the most important changes must be made by students, not schools; therefore, students should be placed at the center of school reform. (Dembo, 2004, p. 38)

The SAGA model can help students make those important changes. Moreover, as a means to student accountability, the SAGA model could supplement the ubiquitous teacher, school, and district accountability models already in place.

The school reform movements emphasizing rigorous academic content with accountability assessed through standardized testing have placed stress on teachers and students. Yet, education is more than grades on high-stakes tests; it is about the all-around well-being of students academically, socially, and emotionally in school and life. Increasingly, noncognitive attitudes, beliefs, skills, and strategies that are outside the testing accountability movement are being advocated to improve performance. (Alderman & MacDonald, 2015, p. 56)

**What are the phases to implement the capstone?**

How could the SAGA summative assessment framework be used in actual practice? How could it help students improve their learning? How could the framework be utilized by teachers and administrators as well?

In order to answer these questions, it is worth remembering that the summative framework cannot stand alone. It must be paired with, and follow after, its formative component, i.e. the curricula, instructional piece. Therefore, any discussion on the implementation of the SAGA summative assessment framework must begin with SAGA's formative component.

The adoption of the summative framework is envisioned as a piecemeal, incremental process spanning seven phases. The following implementation process is strictly theoretical and advisory. The SAGA program could be modified at any phase in any number of ways to meet the local needs of students, schools, and districts.

**Phase One: Teacher PD.** During SAGA's initial phase, teachers would explore the four SAGA disciplines for an understanding of how they impact studentship. During this professional development orientation, teachers would similarly learn how the formative program of study would be taught to ninth grade students. Teachers would receive a copy of the summative assessment framework and trained in its use as a student observational and diagnostic tool. To this end, teachers could be given exemplars—examples of what to look for that best represent accomplished levels for each SAGA standard. It should be noted that this SAGA professional developed is at present conceptual and remains to be fully drafted along side the SAGA formative, instructional component.

A critical part of this professional development is for teachers to view the SAGA program within the context of four interrelated initiatives already in practice: 1) the Kentucky Department of Education's *Kentucky Framework for Teachers*, 2) the Kentucky Department of Education's *Characteristics of Highly Effective Teaching and Learning*, 3) the Kentucky Department of Education's *Student Growth Goals*, and 4) the new Kentucky ESSA aligned accountability system.

Within moments, teachers during the professional development sessions should appreciate that the SAGA summative framework is structured in a similar design to the *Kentucky Framework for Teachers*. Drawing parallels should be easy. Just as *the Kentucky Framework for Teachers* is a best-practice guide and accountability rubric for teachers, so too is the SAGA summative framework a best-practice guide and accountability rubric for students. The essential take-away for

teachers is that student effort is as important as teacher effort to highly effective learning environments and continuous school improvement.

In a like way, teachers should grasp the ways in which the SAGA summative framework gives real, tangible form to the desired student characteristics central to the Kentucky Department of Education's *Characteristics of Highly Effective Teaching and Learning*—CHETL (Appendix A). While KDE provided the *Framework for Teachers* as a mechanism for monitoring the teacher characteristics of CHETL, no such mechanism exists for monitoring student characteristics. The SAGA summative framework can be used as that mechanism. For example, the SAGA framework could be used to evaluate CHETL's student characteristics for learning environment, namely that the student "accepts responsibility for his/her own learning, collaborates/teams with other students, and exhibits a sense of accomplishment and confidence" (*Characteristics of Highly Effective Teaching and Learning*, 2018). SAGA standards IB, IIA, and IIIA directly tie to these CHETL characteristics while also providing a clear scoring rubric to assess these student attributes (see Appendices A and B). Similarly, the four SAGA standards of the self-regulated learning discipline can be used to monitor the CHETL section three and four (see Appendices A and B).

The SAGA professional development would also position the SAGA initiative within the context of KDE's expectation of student growth goals. As is further examined in Phase Three below, students can set SAGA growth goals that help support traditional academic benchmarks which students set for themselves.

Finally, this professional development could help teachers appreciate the SAGA program as a supportive effort to the *Every Student Succeeds Act—ESSA*. “ESSA provided an opportunity for Kentucky to create a new accountability system that will be used as the basis to better our schools and celebrate their educational progress” (Kentucky Department of Education, *Every Student Succeeds Act*, 2018). SAGA could certainly be used to help better schools and support educational progress.

**Phase Two: Freshman orientation.** During Phase Two of the SAGA rollout, ninth grade students would have their first exposure to SAGA. The formative assessment component to SAGA is likely best suited within a freshman social studies course if a stand-alone course cannot fit a school’s master schedule. This training best fits within Kentucky’s current ninth grade social studies curriculum. SAGA has its roots in adolescent, social, and behavioral psychology, an appropriate match for a social sciences curriculum. One nine-week quarter could be allocated for SAGA instruction, leaving quarters 2-4 for government, economics, and geography as per current social studies standards.

At this formative training, students would receive copies of the SAGA summative assessment framework (Appendix A). Students must have early exposure to the framework in order that they understand course outcome goals and expectations. Having the framework in hand allows students to know what they are expected to know and to be able to do at the end of their training. This includes not just the inner mechanics of the framework itself, but the precise ways in which self-



leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning can lead to masterful learning.

**Phase Three: Application.** Following the nine-week formative SAGA training, ninth grade social studies students would use the summative assessment framework to self-assess their present SAGA scores for each standard of each discipline. At this stage, students identify areas of strength and needed-growth. Students will create SAGA student growth goals for end of year progress. These can be tied to their academic benchmark student growth goals. Most importantly, students would identify associations between strong SAGA scores and academic strength and equally between low SAGA scores and academic challenges.

To help facilitate their SAGA growth goals, students would be expected to keep a SAGA journal or checklist to monitor their daily or weekly interaction with the SAGA framework. As this likely will not come easily or willingly for many students, schools should devise a SAGA incentive plan to encourage and reward student use of the SAGA summative framework. This incentive plan could take a variety of creative, enjoyable forms.

An additional step during Phase Three involves the use of teacher-generated progress reports. Teachers will use ready-made SAGA progress reports for quarters 2, 3, and 4. The SAGA progress report would identify student behaviors for the various SAGA standards spread across the four SAGA disciplines. These could be compared to student self-assessments. Does the classroom teacher identify the same SAGA strengths and weaknesses that the individual student identified? This naturally leads

to constructive dialogue between teacher and students. The SAGA progress report would likely be attached or linked in some way to academic progress reports.

**Phase Four: Extension.** At Phase Four, the initial SAGA cohorts would be entering their sophomore year. The ninth grade freshman academy/social studies class would continue as the previous year with new students, while reflecting upon the previous years successes and shortcomings. Modifications for the incoming freshman class would be made.

In addition, there would be an expectation that all sophomore teachers use the SAGA summative framework for all their classes. Teachers should require students to self-assess and create SAGA student growth goals for their individual subject classes. Students' goals may or may not be distinct from one subject to the next depending upon the individual student's mastery in his/her various courses. Additionally, each sophomore teacher would continue to utilize the SAGA log and checklist incentive program along with the SAGA progress reports, all of which are grounded in the SAGA summative assessment framework (see Appendix A).

As an additional measure, schools might even consider the addition of the SAGA progress report into quarterly report cards. In this way, students, teachers and parents might discover associations between SAGA and academic areas of strength and needed-growth.

There is also the opportunity during Phase Four for sophomore teachers to periodically focus on one particular SAGA discipline or standard for an entire class if the collective classroom dynamic suggests a need for work in one particular area. To

accomplish this, teachers could incorporate elements of the summative framework in bell-ringer and exit slip activities in order to reinforce behaviors of masterful studentship.

Perhaps most importantly, sophomore teachers ought to use the SAGA summative assessment framework as a regular part of their RTI (response to intervention) strategies and differentiated instruction. Should associations emerge between student scores on the SAGA framework and particular academic measures, teachers could better devise RTI strategies that bring to bear self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and/or self-regulated learning strategies as a means to improving academic performance.

Finally, sophomore teachers should be encouraged to bring data collected through the SAGA summative assessment framework to department or faculty PLC meetings. Once more, this is an opportunity to explore continuous school improvement should associations become apparent between student SAGA scores and the various academic measures.

Administrators could likewise make use of SAGA's summative assessment framework. Routine classroom observations could include the framework to evaluate student characteristics of CHETL along with their other classroom observation tools. These data could then be presented during departmental PLCs or school-wide PLC meetings.

**Phases Five and Six: Replication.** The process outlined above for 10<sup>th</sup> grade teachers now extends into 11<sup>th</sup> grade subject classes and on to 12<sup>th</sup> grade classes the

following year. All else remains identical as Phase Four. By Phase Six, all teachers grade 9 through 12 are actively using the SAGA summative assessment framework.

**Phase Seven: Evaluation.** Phase Seven provides an opportunity for teachers, administrators, school improvement teams, and local boards of education to assess the impact of the SAGA program. During the evaluation phase, determinations would be made to continue with the program unaltered, make changes as needed, or abandon entirely if no positive academic progress can be demonstrated.

**Use of the Framework.** To clarify, the following chart (Figure 22) lists how various stakeholders could potentially use the SAGA summative assessment framework as outlined in the seven phases above.

Stakeholder	Application of SAGA's Summative Assessment Framework
Student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Self-reflection</li> <li>• SAGA journal/checklist</li> <li>• SAGA student growth goals</li> <li>• RTI strategies</li> </ul>
Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Diagnostic tool for assessing CHETL student characteristics</li> <li>• Bell-ringers</li> <li>• Exit slips</li> <li>• RTI</li> <li>• Differentiated Instruction</li> <li>• SAGA progress reports</li> <li>• PLC discussions</li> </ul>
Administrator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• SAGA report cards</li> <li>• SAGA walk-through observations</li> <li>• PLC discussions</li> <li>• School-wide PLC meetings</li> <li>• Facilitate Kentucky-aligned ESSA compliance</li> </ul>

Figure 22. Summative Assessment Framework Application

**Limitations of the captone**

**Limitations.** The fundamental limitation of this project was that, as a collective framework, it is yet theoretical and untested. The formative, training component of this program supporting this summative framework awaits final completion. Following its completion, the formative program will need to be administered to a test group of students and measured against a control group that does not receive the training. Correlations could then be sought between objective student learning measures (i.e. GPA or ACT/SAT scores) and student scores on the Student Assessment and Growth Assessment to demonstrate effectiveness.

**Assumptions.** The principle assumption was that the combining of the four disciplines of studentship will yield positive student growth. While there is ample evidence that individually, self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning have a positive bearing on student growth, there were no data indicating that the synthesis of these areas into an administered and measured program will yield even greater results. This assumption awaits testing.

**Reflections**

Reflection on the culminating summative framework leads to the question: Is it complete? Of course, the present summative framework is a theoretical prototype. There may be considerable room for addition, subtraction, and modification to the framework. Is it possible these four disciplines might be expanded to five? Reflection and *ex post facto* research suggest there may indeed be room for “Growth Mind Set” as a fifth discipline of studentship, perhaps residing between motivation and self-

regulated learning. While the other four disciplines steer students toward improving “Growth Mind Set” it is not explicitly outlined in the current SAGA summative assessment framework.

**Implications on future research.** Three implications on future research present themselves. First, as stated above, the entire formative and summative components of this program will have to be administered and measured for efficacy. Only then can judgments be about the relationship between the four SAGA disciplines of studentship and measurable academic indicators.

Secondly, once these data are obtained, the program of study and corresponding summative framework can be reassessed. This reassessment would include additions, subtractions, and amendments. Such changes could possibly involve the inclusion of “Growth Mind Set” as a fifth discipline.

Third, it is hoped that the SAGA summative assessment will eventually acquire a digital operating platform. The creation of a Smartphone app for the SAGA summative assessment would be a more appealing mechanism of interaction for adolescents. Moreover, a SAGA app could be used to monitor student engagement with the framework in much the same way that Fitbits monitor patient health and provide crucial data to health providers.

**Conclusion.** The present mode of education is certainly far from the way we would like it to be. No system is flawless. But if, as we offered at the beginning, that Lewis (2015) may have been on to something when he admonished “if you look for comfort you will not get either comfort or truth” (p. 32), then the road to lasting

school improvement may indeed be difficult and devoid of comfort. But if we take that difficult road to greater learning, and that road accommodates students as well as teachers and administrators, then it may prove a road to the sort of enduring improvement long looked for.

It has been argued throughout these pages that an essential and largely ignored component to school improvement is, essentially, student improvement. If we could but take our current adolescent pupils and render them master students imagine the outcome.

To be sure, the present accountability movement has endeavored to provide meaningful school reform. However, is it not right to question such movements if they fail to acknowledge the indispensable role that students themselves play in their own learning? The Student Accountability and Growth Assessment supports, reaffirms, and wholly agrees that “if higher academic standards are to be attained, the most important changes must be made by students, not schools; therefore, students should be placed at the center of school reform” (Dembo, 2004, p. 38).

The SAGA summative framework is the first step in that missing piece of present accountability models. The SAGA summative framework provides a student-centered and student friendly road map toward masterful studentship, a road map to redress this “top-down” imbalance of teacher and administrator accountability. This summative piece to student accountability and growth is intended to restore students to their rightful place in the learning process.

Underachievement among American youth is often blamed on inadequate teachers, boring textbooks, and large class sizes. We suggest another reason for students falling short of their intellectual potential: their failure to exercise self-discipline... We believe that many of America's children have trouble making choices that require them to sacrifice short-term pleasure for long-term gain, and that programs that build self-discipline may be the royal road to building academic achievement. (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005, p. 944)

SAGA is that program. The acquisition and monitoring of self-leadership, emotional intelligence, motivation, and self-regulated learning will help bring our adolescent pupils closer to what the ancient Romans called *studium*—closer to zeal, devotion, interest, application, diligence, eagerness, and general studiousness. The SAGA summative framework is a tool for the acquisition and monitoring of *studium*. It is a tool for masterful studentship.



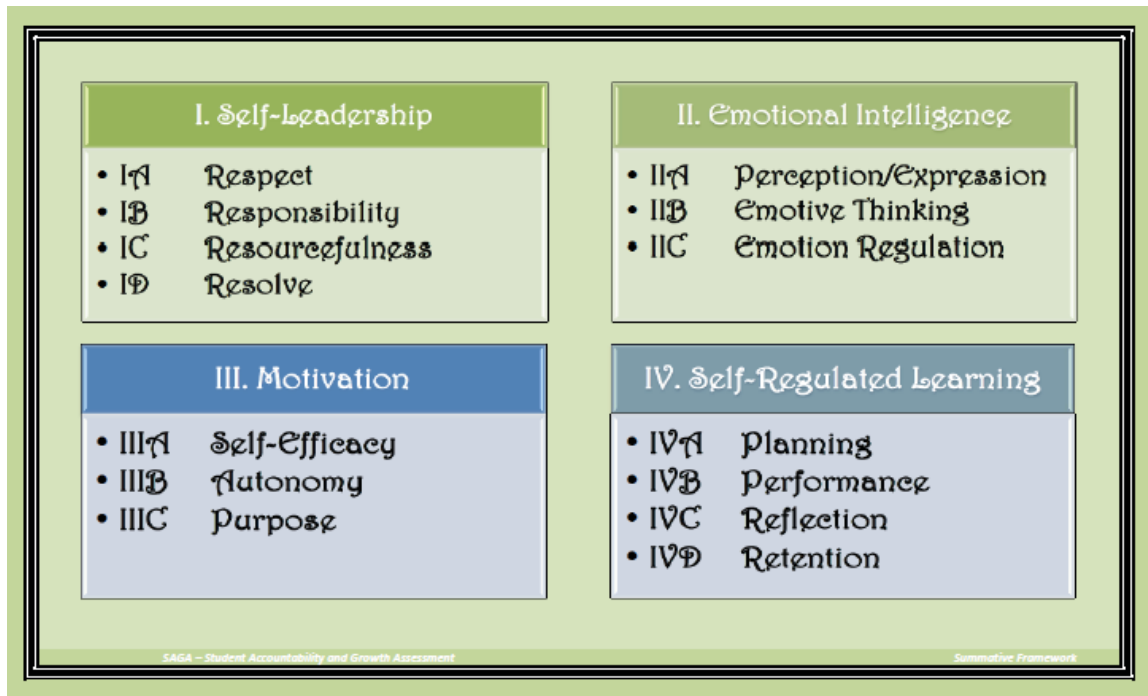
### Capstone Project

The following sections contains the elements of the SAGA framework that would be used for the development of studentship.

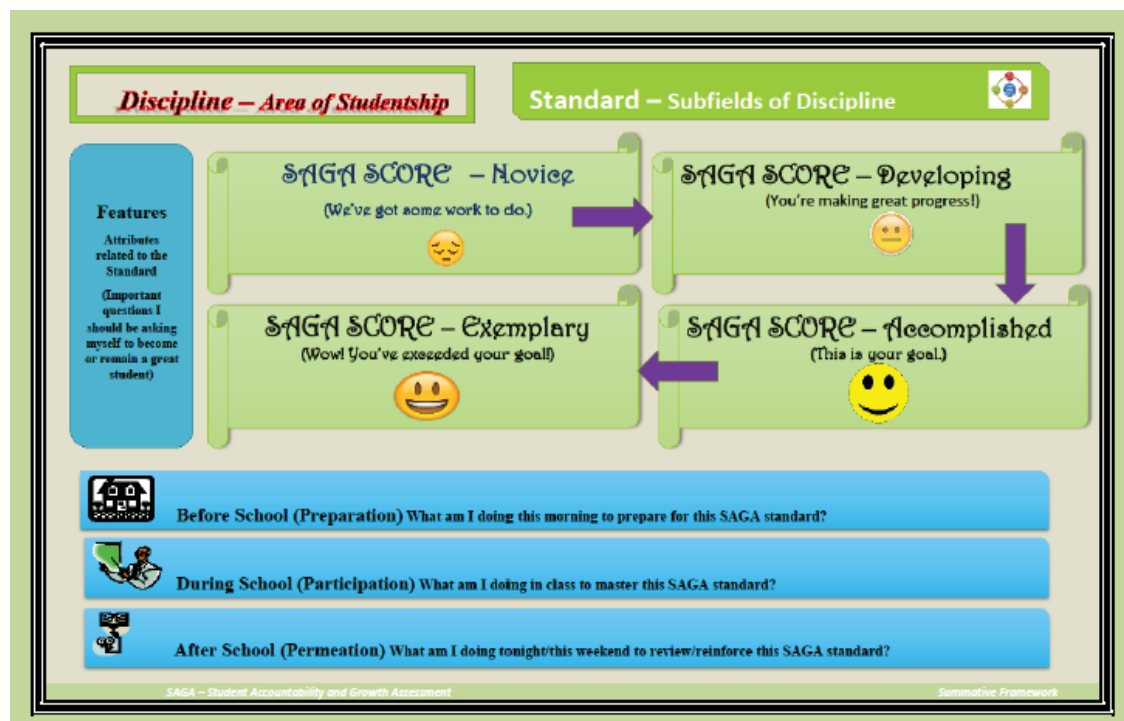
#### SUMMATIVE FRAMEWORK



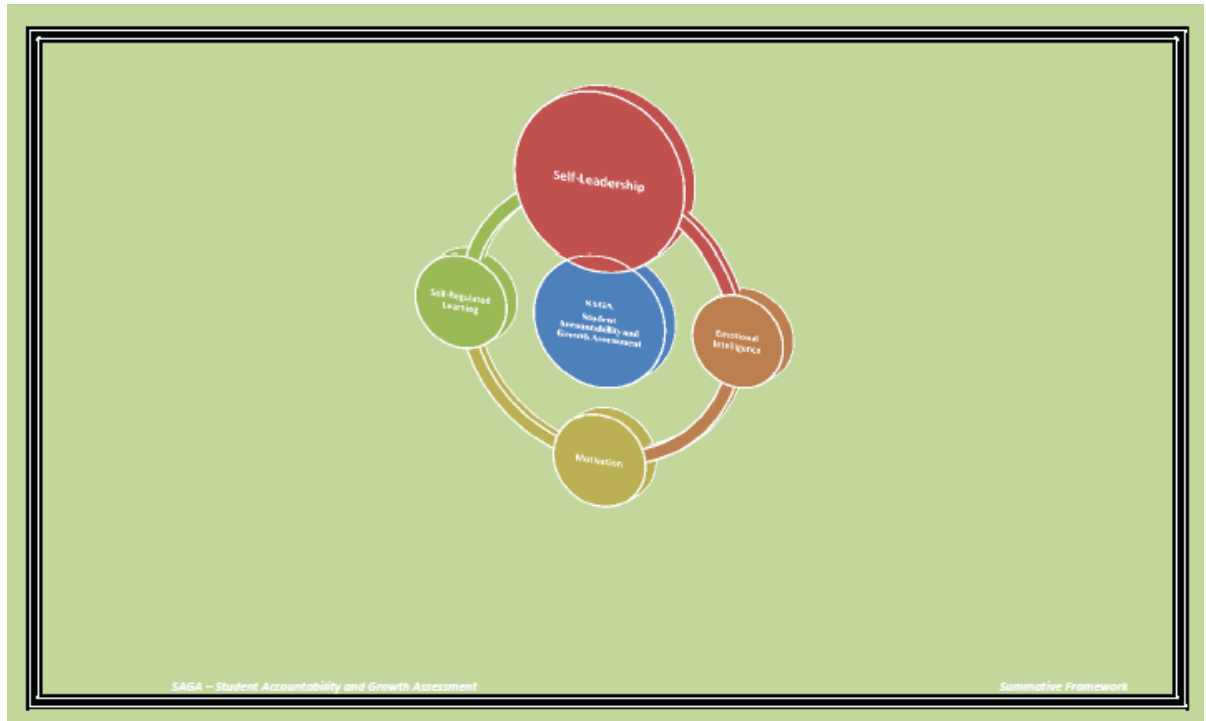
The Summative Assessment Framework Frontespiece suggests the temporal component of student application which begins at home (preparation), progresses to the school day (participation), and concludes with evening reflection and retention of the learning process (permeation).



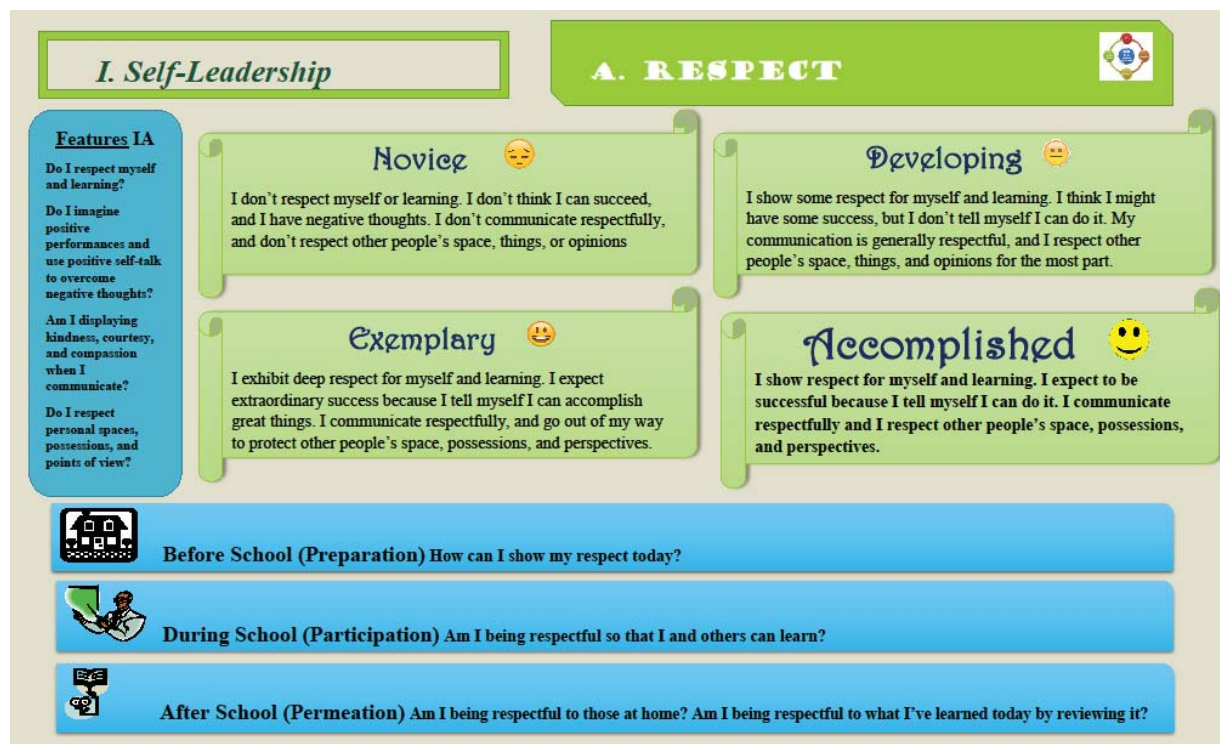
The four SAGA disciplines of studentship are illustrated with their supportive standards. This is provided as a quick and concise guide to all the SAGA standards as they relate to their SAGA discipline.



The SAGA score flow chart outlines the basic workings of SAGA features, standards, scores, and temporal component. The aim for students is to achieve a SAGA score of accomplished. Students achieving exemplary status should be given high praise and reward.



The SAGA discipline divider alerts the student of transitions from one SAGA discipline to the next. It is intend to aid students as they attempt to locate the SAGA discipline and standard that they need to work on as they develop their skills of studentship.



SAGA Standard IA (Self-Leadership: Respect) starts students down the path of Self-Leadership toward the greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the four important features of respect, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Self-Leadership and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.



SAGA Standard IB (Self-Leadership: Responsibility) continues students along the path of Self-Leadership toward the greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the five important features of Responsibility, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Self-Leadership and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.





SAGA Standard IC (Self-Leadership: Resourcefulness) enhances the student's growth toward Self-Leadership and his or her greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the five important features of Resourcefulness, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Self-Leadership and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.

### I. Self-Leadership

### D. RESOLVE

**Features ID**

Do I have determination, commitment, and dedication to learn?

Am I a hard worker who overcomes adversity?

Am I passionate about what I'm working on in order to learn?

Do I have perseverance, and finish what I begin?

**Novice** 😞

I lack determination, commitment and dedication to my education, and get easily discouraged by challenges. I don't get excited about learning new ideas or skills. I get bored a lot, and rarely finish what I start.

**Developing** 😐

I am fairly determined, committed, and dedicated to my education, and only get a little discouraged by challenges. I get somewhat excited about learning new ideas or skills. I sometimes get bored, but usually finish what I start.

**Exemplary** 😊

I am entirely determined, committed, and dedicated to my education, and don't get discouraged by adversity. I am passionate about learning new ideas or skills. I almost never get bored or disappointed, and have stamina to overcome it when I do. I always finish what I start no matter what.

**Accomplished** 😄

I am determined, committed, and dedicated to my education, and don't get discouraged by challenges. I get excited about learning new ideas or skills. If I get bored or disappointed I have stamina to overcome it. I always finish what I start.

**Before School (Preparation)** Am I determined to work my best today, not get discouraged, and finish what I start?

**During School (Participation)** As a self-leader, am I resolved to work hard and learn in this class?

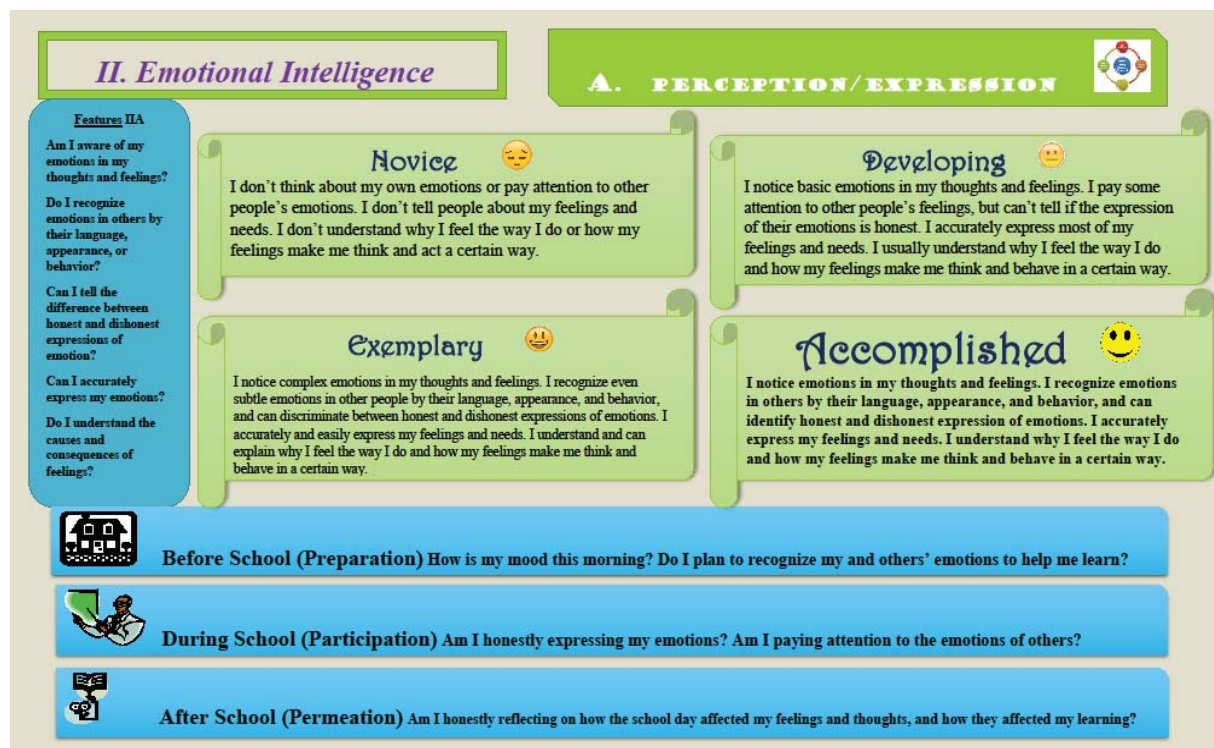
**After School (Permeation)** Am I determined to complete all my homework to my highest ability?

SAGA Standard ID (Self-Leadership: Resolve) brings students to the final phase of Self-Leadership. It reminds them of the four important features of Resolve, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Self-Leadership and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.

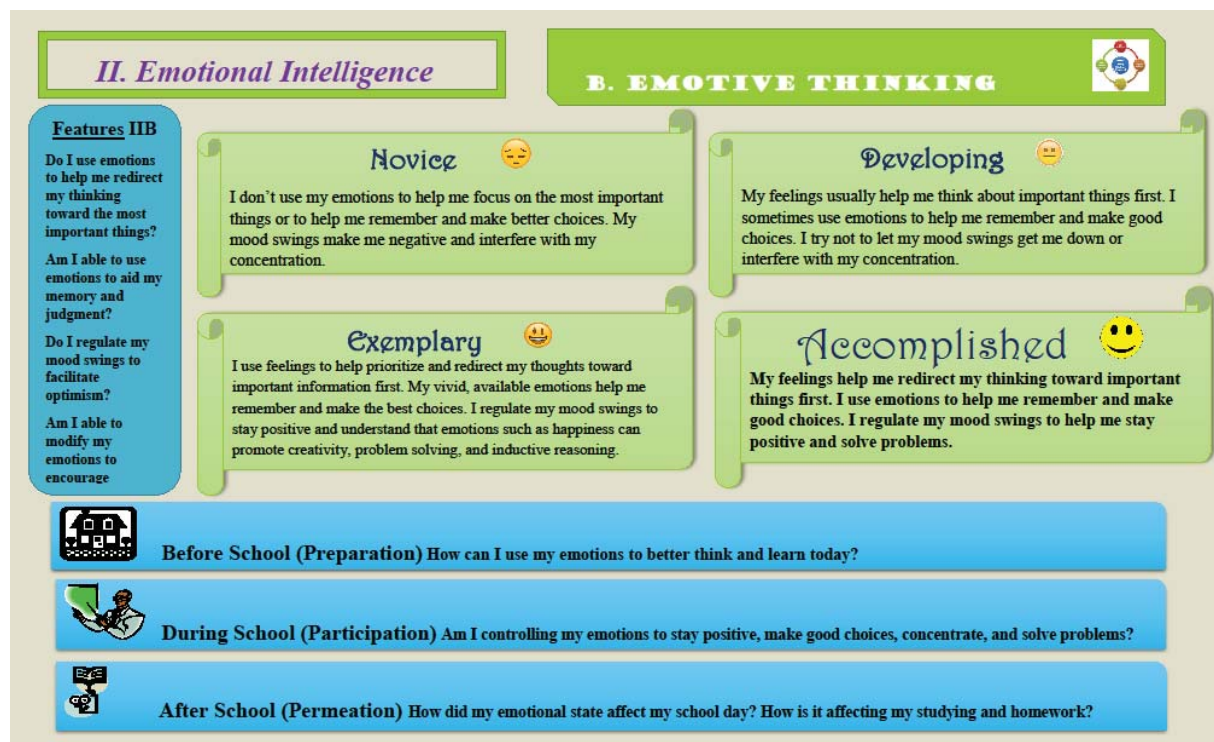




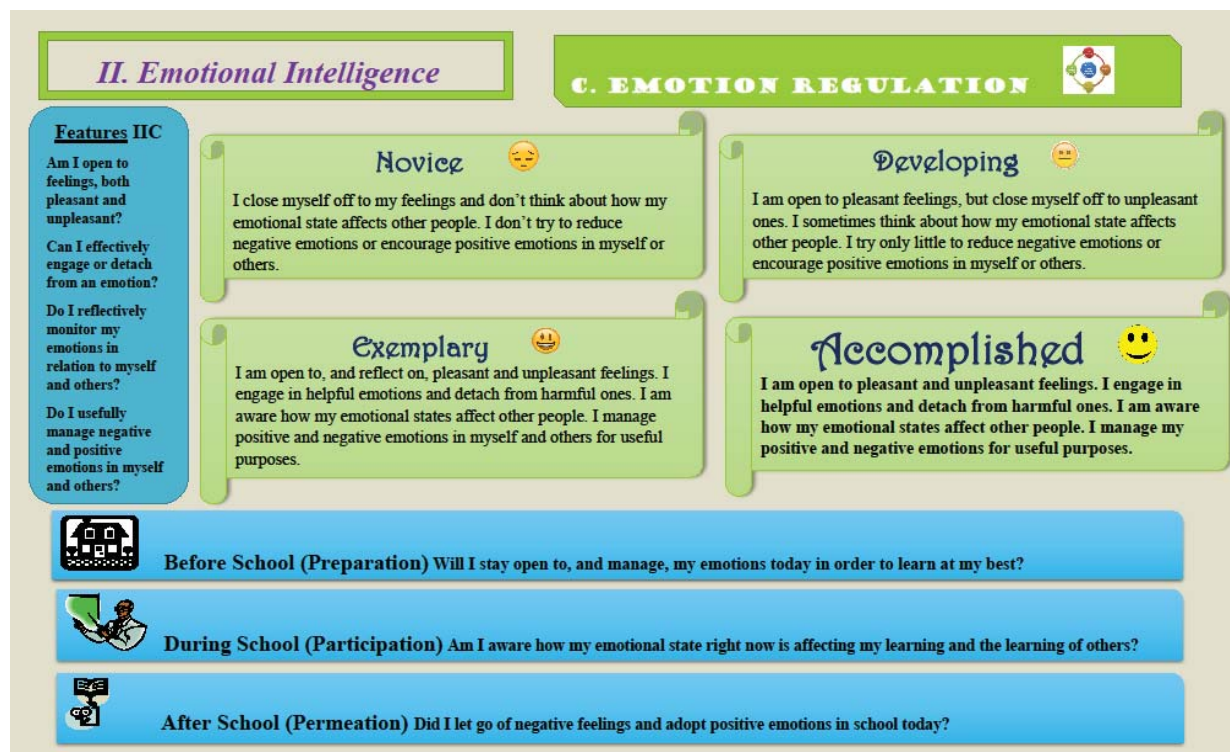
This SAGA discipline divider alerts the student of the transition to the SAGA discipline of Emotional Intelligence. It is intend to aid students as they attempt to locate the SAGA standard of Emotional Intelligence that they need to work on as they develop their skills of studentship.



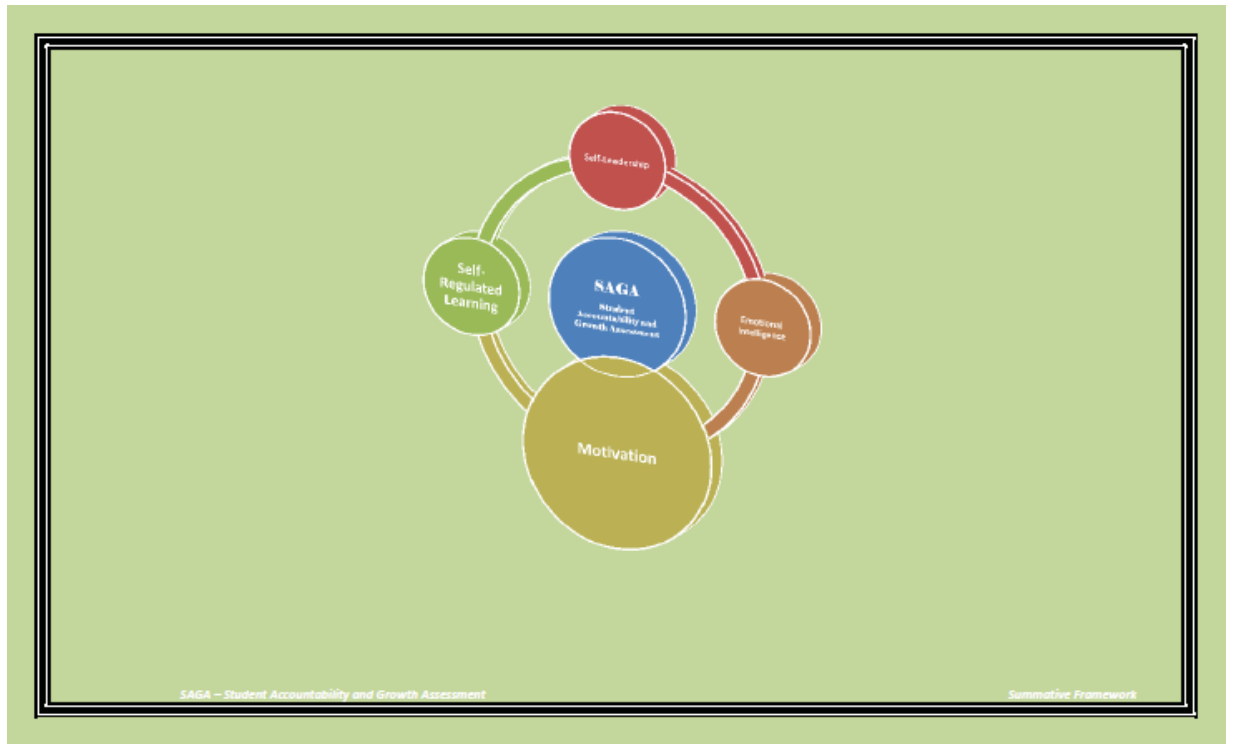
SAGA Standard IIA (Emotional Intelligence: Perception/Expression) starts students down the path of Emotional Intelligence toward the greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the five important features of Perception/Expression, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Emotional Intelligence and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.



SAGA Standard IIB (Emotional Intelligence: Emotive Thinking) continues students down the path of Emotional Intelligence toward the greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the four important features of Emotive Thinking, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Emotional Intelligence and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.



SAGA Standard IIC (Emotional Intelligence: Emotion Regulation) concludes the students journey toward mastering Emotional Intelligence. It reminds them of the four important features of Emotion Regulation, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Emotional Intelligence and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.



The SAGA discipline divider alerts the student the transition to the SAGA discipline of Motivation. It is intend to aid students as they attempt to locate the SAGA discipline and standard that they need to work on as they develop their skills of studentship.





SAGA Standard IIIA (Motivation: Self-Efficacy) starts students down the path of Motivation toward the greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the six important features of Self-Efficacy, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Motivation and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.

III. Motivation

B. AUTONOMY



**Features IIIB**

Am I aware that independence and freedom in class can motivate me?

Do I concentrate on learning, and not on who is watching me?

Have I earned the trust of my teachers and classmates?

Do I understand that education is something I do for myself, not something done to me?

Am I aware that commitment to my studies will lead to greater trust, autonomous learning and motivation?

**Novice** 😞

I don't think that freedom in class can motivate me to learn. I pay close attention to who's watching me and not on what I'm supposed to be learning. I feel that school is something negative that happens to me. I don't show much commitment to my studies.

**Developing** 😐

I like when teachers give me more freedom in class and sometimes work harder when they do. I try to concentrate on learning, but I'm also worried about who's watching me. Education is something I should do for myself, but I still feel like I'm in school because I have to be. I am trying to commit more to my studies to earn greater trust and autonomy and become more motivated.

**Exemplary** 😊

I am aware that independence and freedom in class motivate me to do my best. I've worked hard to earn this trust. I concentrate on learning, and not on who's watching me. I know that education is something we do for ourselves, and not something done to us. I am also aware that commitment to learn leads to greater trust, autonomous learning, motivation, and the will to learn even more.

**Accomplished** 😄

I am aware that independence and freedom in class can motivate me, and that I must first earn this trust. I concentrate on learning, and not on who's watching me. I know that education is something I do for myself, and not something done to me. I am also aware that commitment to my studies will lead to greater trust, autonomous learning and motivation.



**Before School (Preparation)** Do I intend to earn certain freedoms in class to help motivate myself?



**During School (Participation)** Am I doing this assignment or learning task for my own learning?



**After School (Permeation)** Did I earn the privilege today to learn autonomously? Did it help me stay motivated?

SAGA Standard IIIB (Motivation: Autonomy) continues students down the path of Motivation toward the greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the five important features of Autonomy, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Motivation and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.

### III. Motivation

### C. PURPOSE

**Features IIIC**  
Am I aware that having a sense of positive purpose and personal fulfillment can help motivate me?

Do I believe in things, ideas, or causes that are greater than I am?

Do I understand why something is done, or why I am being asked to do this?

Am I aware how I feel about particular tasks?

**Novice** 😞

I don't find much personal fulfillment in things related to school. I don't really think about things that are bigger than I am. I usually don't see the point in what I'm doing or being asked to do in school, and I don't pay attention to how I feel about it except that I don't want to do it.

**Developing** 😞

I find some personal fulfillment in things related to school. I sometimes think about things that are bigger than I am. Once and awhile I see the point in what I'm doing in school, but I usually don't pay attention to how I feel about it.

**Exemplary** 😊

I possess a strong sense of positive purpose and personal fulfillment which keeps me motivated. I believe in things, ideas, or causes that are greater than I am. I also understand why I do, or am asked to do, particular tasks in and out of school. When I don't understand, I ask. I know how I feel about particular learning tasks and apply my emotional intelligence to help me accomplish them.

**Accomplished** 😊

I maintain a sense of positive purpose and personal fulfillment to help keep me motivated. I believe in things, ideas, or causes that are greater than I am. I also understand why I do, or am asked to do, particular tasks in school. When I don't understand, I ask. I know how I feel when trying to accomplish learning tasks.

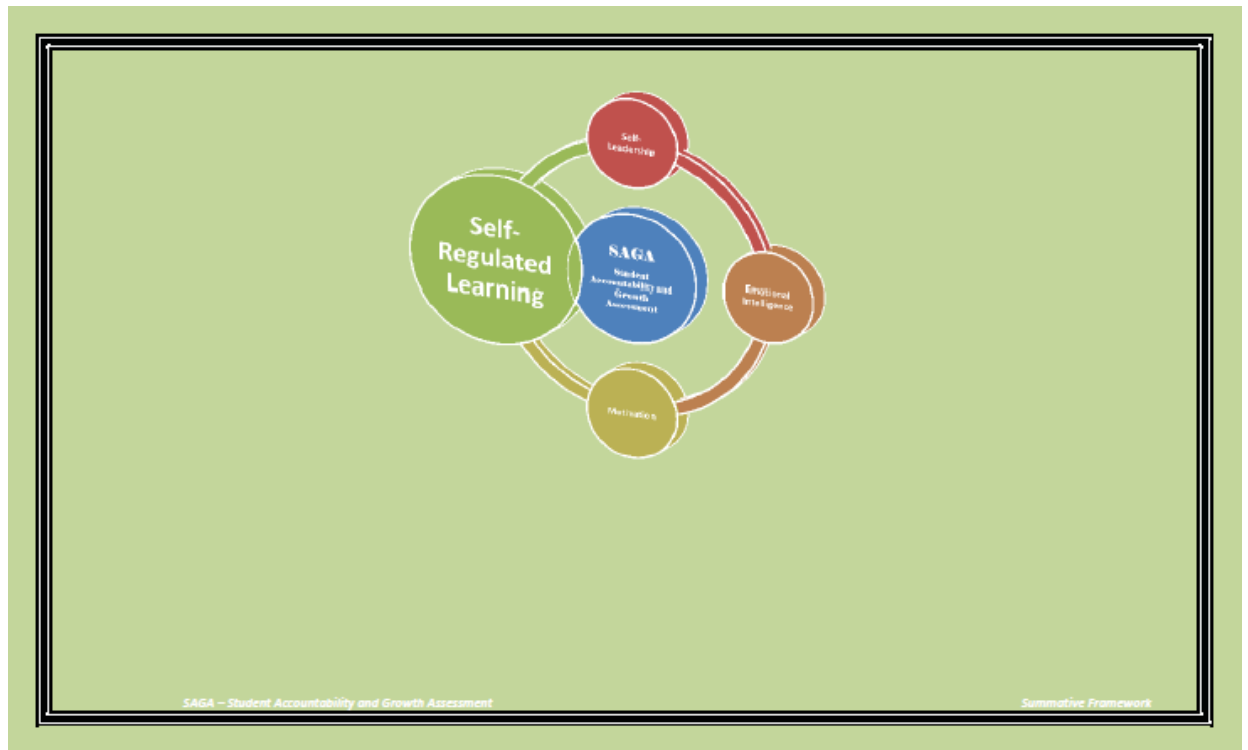
**Before School (Preparation)** Do I intend to accomplish something meaningful in school today?

**During School (Participation)** Do I understand the purpose to this assignment, learning task, or assessment?

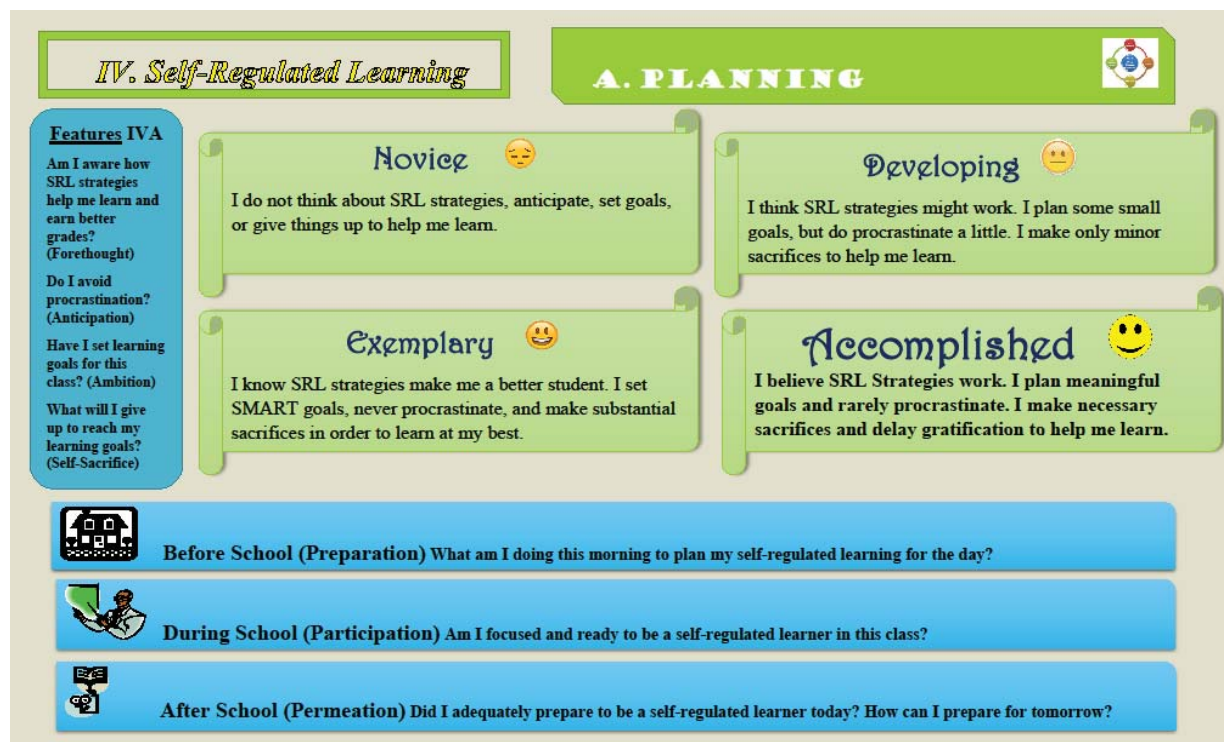
**After School (Permeation)** What was the most meaningful learning experience today in school? Was it personally fulfilling?

SAGA Standard IIIC (Motivation: Purpose) concludes the student's journey of Motivation. It reminds them of the four important features of Purpose, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Motivation and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.





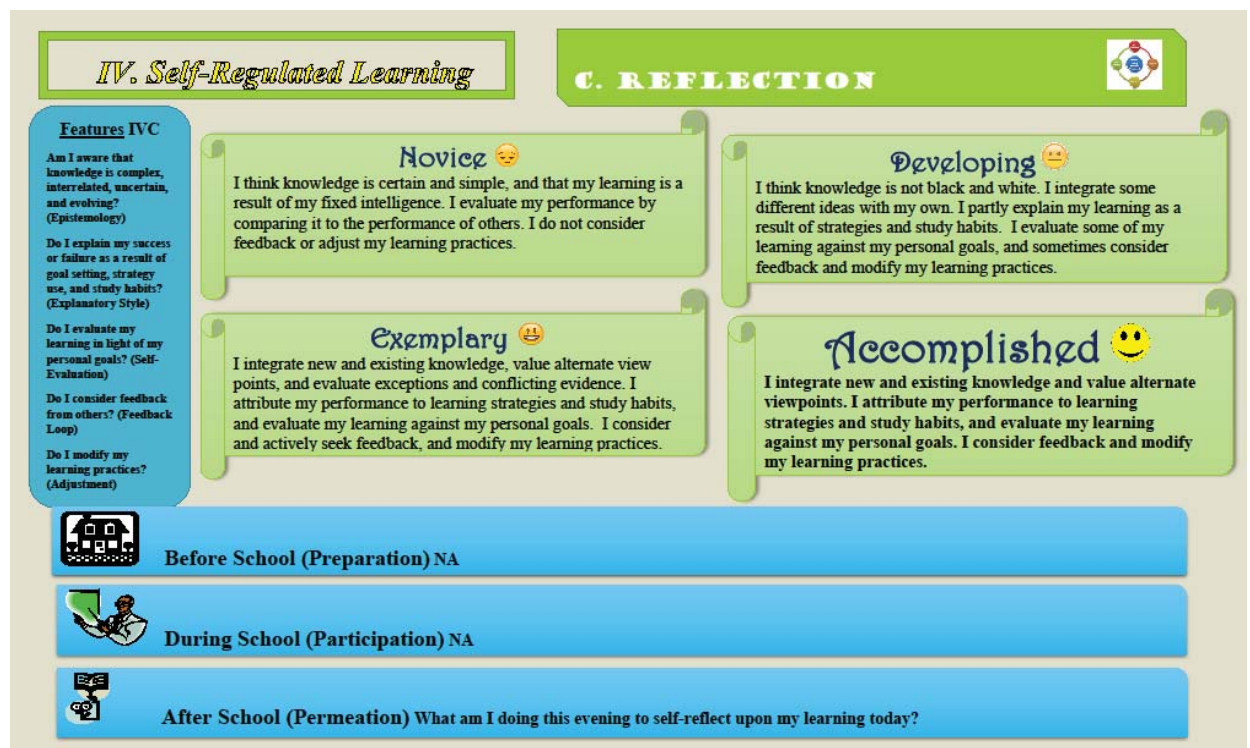
The SAGA discipline divider alerts the student of the transition the SAGA discipline of Self-Regulated Learning. It is intend to aid students as they attempt to locate the SAGA discipline and standard that they need to work on as they develop their skills of studentship.



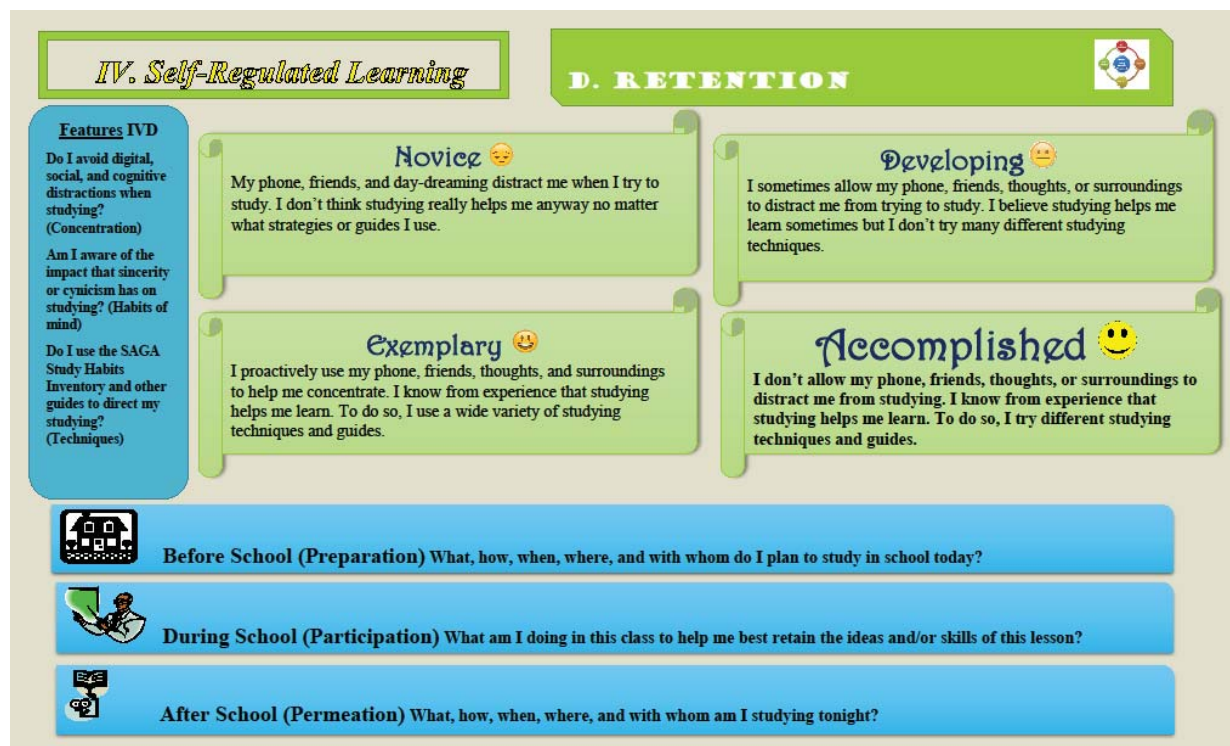
SAGA Standard IVA (Self-Regulated Learning: Planning) starts students down the path of Self-Regulated Learning toward the greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the four important features of Planning, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Self-Regulated Learning and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.



SAGA Standard IVB (Self-Regulated Learning: Performance) continues students down the path of Self-Regulated Learning toward the greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the five important features of Performance, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Self-Leadership and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.



SAGA Standard IVC (Self-Regulated Learning: Reflection) continues students down the path of Self-Leadership toward the greater goal of effective studentship. It reminds them of the five important features of Reflection, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Self-Regulated Learning and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.



SAGA Standard IVD (Self-Regulated Learning: Retention) concludes the student's journey toward Self-Regulated Learning. It reminds them of the three important features of Retention, framed as questions that they should be asking themselves. They should review the SAGA score of Accomplished to remind themselves where they ought to be in this standard of Self-Regulated Learning and effective studentship. It further reminds the learner of what they ought to be doing at home, during school, and after school in order to master this SAGA standard.



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## Appendix A

**Characteristics of Highly Effective Teaching and Learning – Student****Characteristics**

<b>Section One: Learning Climate</b>	<b>Student Characteristics</b>
A safe environment supported by the teacher in which high, clear expectations and positive relationships are fostered; active learning is promoted.	A. accepts responsibility for his/her own learning B. actively participates and is authentically engaged C. collaborates/teams with other students D. exhibits a sense of accomplishment and confidence E. takes educational risks in class F. Practices and engages in safe, responsible and ethical use of technology
<b>Section Two: Classroom Assessment and Reflection</b>	<b>Student Characteristics</b>
The teacher and student collaboratively gather information and reflect on learning through a systematic process that informs instruction	A. Recognizes what proficient work looks like and determines steps necessary for improving his/her work B. Monitors progress toward reaching learning targets C. Develops and/or uses scoring guides periodically to assess his/her own work or that of peers D. Uses teacher and peer feedback to improve his/her work E. Reflects on work and makes adjustments as learning occurs
<b>Section Three: Instructional Rigor and Student Engagement</b>	<b>Student Characteristics</b>
A teacher supports and encourages a student's commitment to initiate and complete complex, inquiry-based learning requiring creative and critical thinking with attention to problem solving	A -Student articulates and understands learning intentions/targets and criteria for success. B - Student reads with understanding a variety of texts. C -Student applies and refines inquiry skills.

<b>Section Four: Instructional Relevance</b>	<b>Student Characteristics</b>
A teacher's ability to facilitate learning experiences that are meaningful to students and prepare them for their futures.	<p>A-Student poses and responds to meaningful questions.</p> <p>B-Student uses appropriate tools and techniques to gather, analyze and interpret information from quantitative and qualitative evidence.</p> <p>C-Student develops descriptions, explanation, predictions, and models using evidence.</p> <p>D-Student works collaboratively to address complex, authentic problems which require innovative approaches to solve.</p> <p>E-Student communicates knowledge and understanding in a variety of real-world forms.</p> <p>F-Student communicates knowledge and understanding for a variety of purposes.</p>
<b>Section Five: Knowledge of Content</b>	<b>Student Characteristics</b>
A teacher's understanding and application of the current theories, principles, concepts and skills of a discipline.	<p>A- Student demonstrates growth in content knowledge.</p> <p>B-Student uses and seeks to expand appropriate content vocabulary.</p> <p>C-Student connects ideas across content areas.</p> <p>D- Student uses ideas in realistic problem solving situations.</p>

(Kentucky Department of Education, 2018)

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