

**ENGAGING SCHOOL PRACTICES AND TEACHER-
PROVIDED EMOTIONAL SUPPORT FOR STUDENTS'
SCHOOL ENGAGEMENT IN EUROPEAN SCHOOLS**

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ABSTRACT

Paula Hosiaislouma and Laura Luomaniemi, 2023. Engaging school practices and teachers' emotional support for students' school engagement in European schools. Master's thesis in special pedagogy. University of Jyväskylä, Department of Education and Psychology, 63 pages.

The purpose of this study was to examine students' school engagement from the perspective of European educators. Our aim was to find out what kinds of school practices educators use to support students' school engagement, and to learn teachers' thoughts about providing emotional support.

This is a qualitative study. Information on the schools' practices of engagement was collected via questionnaires, and on their practices of emotional support provided to students via thematic interviews. The material for both research questions was analysed using theory-based content analysis. Finn's (1989) students' school engagement theory Participation-Identification model (PI) and Hamre et al. 's (2013) Teaching Through Interaction (TTI) model were used as background theories for the analysis.

The results showed that educators use school practices that aim to influence one, two, or all three types of engagement: emotional, behavioural and cognitive engagement style. Most of the school practices were suitable for supporting all aspects of the student's school engagement. In the school practices of the teachers, different forms of support for students' school engagement were emphasized, depending on which form(s) of students' school engagement were supported by the school practice. The teachers considered emotional support to be important: the teacher's sensitivity, creating a positive climate and regarding for adolescent perspectives. The teachers used several school practices of emotional support, but they found giving emotional support partly challenging.

Keywords: students' school engagement, school practices, emotional support

TIIVISTELMÄ

Paula Hosaiaisuus ja Laura Luomaniemi, 2023. Kouluun kiinnittävät käytännöt ja opettajien tarjoama emotionaalinen tuki oppilaiden kouluun kiinnittymisessä eurooppalaisissa kouluissa. Erityispedagogiikan maisterin opinnäytetyö. Jyväskylän yliopisto, kasvatustieteen ja psykologian laitos, 64 sivua.

Tämän tutkimuksen tarkoituksena oli tutkia oppilaiden kouluun kiinnittymistä eurooppalaisten kasvattajien näkökulmasta. Tavoitteenamme oli selvittää, millaisia koulukäytänteitä kasvattajat käyttävät tukeakseen oppilaiden kouluun kiinnittymistä, ja oppia opettajien ajatuksia emotionaalisen tuen tarjoamisesta.

Kyseessä on laadullinen tutkimus. Tietoa kouluun kiinnittävistä käytännteistä kerättiin kyselylomakkeilla ja oppilaille tarjotun emotionaalisen tuen käytännteistä teemahaastatteluilla. Molempien tutkimusten aineistot analysoitiin teorialähtöisen sisällönanalyysin avulla. Analyysin taustateorioina käytettiin Finnin (1989) oppilaiden kouluun kiinnittymisen teorian osallistumisen ja tunnistamisen mallia (Participation-Identification, PI) ja Hamren ym. (2013) vuorovaikutuksen kautta oppimisen (Teaching through Interaction, TTI) -mallia.

Tulokset osoittivat, että kasvattajat käyttävät koulussa käytännteitä, joilla pyritään vaikuttamaan yhteen, kahteen tai kaikkiin kolmeen kiinnittymisen tyyppiin: emotionaaliseen, behavioraaliseen ja kognitiiviseen kiinnittymistyyliin. Suurin osa koulun käytännteistä soveltui tukemaan kaikkia oppilaiden kouluun kiinnittymisen osa-alueita. Kasvattajien koulukäytänteissä korostuivat erilaiset oppilaiden kouluun kiinnittymisen tukimuodot sen mukaan, mitä oppilaiden kouluun kiinnittymisen muotoa tai muotoja koulukäytänteen tuki. Opettajat pitivät emotionaalista tukea tärkeänä: opettajan sensitiivisyyttä, myönteisen ilmapiirin luomista ja nuorten näkökulmien huomioonottamista. Opettajat käyttivät erilaisia keinoja tukeakseen kouluun kiinnittymistä emotionaalisella tasolla, mutta he kokivat emotionaalisen tuen antamisen osittain haastavaksi.

Asiasanat: oppilaiden kouluun kiinnittyminen, koulun käytännöt, emotionaalinen tuki

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1. INTRODUCTION

To support students' engagement in school, it is essential to be aware of the issues and challenges facing students' school engagement (Jimerson et al., 1999). The more we know about the challenges related to students' school engagement, the better educators can create different ways to support students' school engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004). Elffers (2012), for one, states that, schools do not always recognise such problems and challenges.

School dropout is often the result of many long-term processes (Lamote, 2013; Rumberger & Lim, 2008). It is known that students' school engagement is negatively affected by, for example, weaker socio-economic background and the need for special education (Jimerson et al., 1999). High residential mobility is also a risk factor for early school leaving (Rumberger & Lim, 2008) and immigrants are more likely to drop out of school than other students (Elffers, 2012). It is, therefore, important to take social situations in account.

Higher education has become increasingly common and its importance has been highlighted (Furlong et al., 2019). Many longitudinal studies have shown that students' school engagement has many long-term benefits: it supports children's general development, psychosocial adjustment (e.g. towards academic problems), resilience, learning, academic performance, prevents school dropout and predicts better overall well-being in life (Appleton et al., 2008; Archambault, Janosz, Fallu & Pagani, 2009; Brooks et al., 2012, ch. 26; Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5; Fraysier & Reschly, 2022; Fredricks et al., 2004; Li & Lerner, 2011; Skinner et al., 2016; Wang & Eccles, 2012 b). In the long-term preventing early school leaving is one of the biggest factors in preventing exclusion.

Early school leaving is defined in different ways in contexts. González et al. (2019) define it as meeting one criterion of the following: 1. Dropping out of school before age limit or instantly after 2. Not completing secondary school or not obtaining the minimum academic qualification 3. Leaving upper secondary

education without the minimum requirements or skills needed to access higher education.

Furrer and Skinner (2003) found that many studies of students' school engagement focus on the interaction between the student and teacher. They suggest that one explanation for this is that teachers play multiple roles for the student: they are educators and evaluators, but also potential figures of engagement and enforcers of order. According to Klemm and Connell (2004), studying teachers' beliefs helps identify supportive school practices that promote students' school engagement. Indeed, they argue that teachers' beliefs about students' school engagement influence how and what support schools provide regarding students' school engagement. Thoneen et al. (2011) suggest that teachers' own engagement in professional learning activities is a meaningful predictive factor for school practices and that teachers' sense of self-efficacy is one of the most important motivational factors for explaining teacher learning and school practices. One of the main objectives of current pedagogies should be to promote school practices that support students' school engagement (Hietajärvi et al., 2020). In this study, by 'school practices', we mean the tools and methods educators use in their work to engage students in school.

The aim of this study is to find out what kind of school practices European educators use to support students' school engagement. We are also particularly interested in the emotional support that teachers provide to support their students' school engagement. We chose emotional support because previous research has shown its importance for students' school engagement. Pakarinen et al. (2014) found that if emotional support from the teacher is low, students are more passive in classroom activities. It has also been found that emotional support provided by teachers reduces the likelihood that students will seriously consider dropping out of school (Tvedt et al., 2021). Additionally, emotional support is key, given the recent increase in mental health challenges among young people (Peyton et al., 2023; UNICEF, 2021; WHO, 2022).

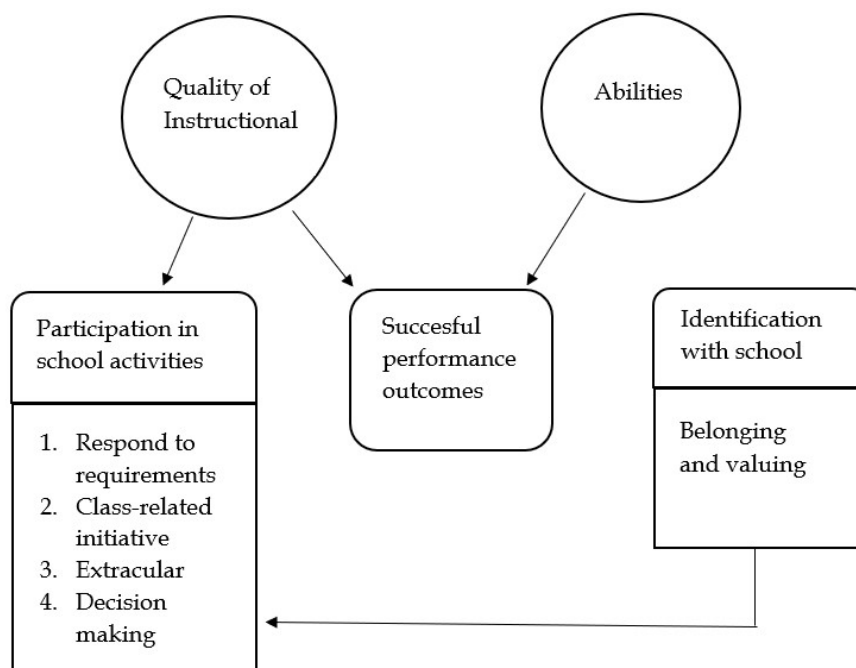
2. STUDENTS' SCHOOL ENGAGEMENT

2.1. Participation-Identification Model

The purpose of this study is to investigate the school practices used by educators to increase students' school engagement. The study is based on Finn's (1989) model of participant' identification (PI) (Figure 1). According to this participation-identification model, students are encouraged to participate in various school activities and teachers are encouraged to provide quality teaching. This model is based on the idea that when students participate in school either socially or academically, they begin to identify with the school. According to this model, as the sense of belonging increases, motivation increases and dropout decreases. Voelkl (1997) Finn's (1989) PI model initially provided the basis for studies to address school engagement from a behavioural as well as an emotional perspective. Motivation studies have added a cognitive level to the study of students' school engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004; Skinner et al., 2008).

Figure 1

PARTICIPATION-IDENTIFICATION MODEL (FINN, 1989)



In line with the PI model outlined, this study sees students' school engagement as a three-dimensional process. These dimensions are behavioural, emotional and cognitive. They are presented in more detail in the following section.

2.2. Definition of students' school engagement

The behavioural, emotional, and cognitive dimensions of students' school engagement are all necessary factors when considering engagement holistically (Fredricks et al., 2004). Behavioural engagement includes voluntary participation in social and academic or extracurricular activities (Appleton et al., 2006; Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5; Fredricks et al., 2004; Jimerson et al., 2003). Stated by Finn and Zimmer (2012, ch. 5) behavioural engagement includes doing tasks and seeking help independently as well as how a student behaves socially in school, for example, in terms of following rules and answering the teacher's questions. The behavioural dimension of engagement in schoolwork does not only imply that the student is making a genuine effort to learn, because, for example, a student may study persistently but only use superficial learning strategies (Fredricks et al. 2004).

Emotional engagement is defined by school-related emotional reactions (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5), such as positive and negative reactions to classmates, teachers, school, and learning (Fredricks et al., 2004). In the words of Finn and Zimmer (2012, ch. 5), emotional engagement involves students feeling that they are part of the school community: the student values school and sees it as meaningful to their life.

According to Appleton et al. (2006) and Finn and Zimmer (2012, ch. 5), cognitive engagement involves the use of cognitive methods and different strategies to guide learning. They note that cognitive engagement is evidenced, for example, by independently completing school tasks and setting personal goals. Fredricks et al. (2004) add that cognitive engagement includes both reflection and

the willingness to make efforts to master challenging skills and understand complex ideas. The three dimensions of school engagement described above were behavioural, emotional, and cognitive school engagement. The definitions of these three dimensions of engagement are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1

DEFINITION OF THE ASPECT OF ENGAGEMENT OF THE SCHOOL

Behavioral engagement	A student participates in school activities both academically and socially.
Emotional engagement	A student feels part of the school community and also values the school.
Cognitive engagement	A student figures out ways to make progress in learning, for example through goal setting or reflection.

Students' school engagement is a complex concept (Fredricks et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2017), that is reflected in the dimensions of students' school engagement mentioned above. In the conceptualization of students' overall school engagement, the focus of interest is on their long-term level of school engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004). Skinner et al. (2009) state that definitions of students' school engagement emphasise not only the quality of student participation but also its variability: It ranges from focused, enthusiastic, energetic, and emotionally positive interaction to apathetic withdrawal from academic tasks. Sinatra et al. (2015) points out that the concept of students' school engagement is also related to situational engagement, where students' engagement experiences differ depending on the activities, feelings, and cognitions caused by the situation.

2.3. Students' school engagement and motivation

There are major similarities between students' school engagement and motivation (Martin et al., 2017). According to Schunk and Mullen (2012, ch. 10), motivation can be divided into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Internal motivation comes from within the individual and can be based, for example, on personal development at school, in which case the student sees learning as meaningful in itself. External motivation is based on external factors, such as rewards.

Martin's (2012, ch. 14) motivation and engagement wheel is divided into four dimensions. The first dimension, adaptive cognition/motivation, includes self-efficacy, mastery orientation, and valuing, which reflect students' positive attitudes in general and towards academic learning. The second dimension is adaptive behaviour/engagement, which includes task mastery, planning, and persistence, which in turn reflect not only positive behaviour but also students' engagement in academic learning. The third dimension is maladaptive/impeding cognition; maladaptive motivation includes uncertain control, failure avoidance and anxiety, which suggest that students have negative attitudes towards academic learning. The fourth dimension is maladaptive behaviour/engagement, and includes self-handicapping and disengagement, which reflect negative learning behaviours. Martin's framework of engagement and motivation aims to reflect the connection and reciprocal interaction between engagement and motivation, thereby assisting the teacher in supporting student engagement and motivation and promoting student learning.

Based on one view, motivation is a prerequisite for students' school engagement, but that alone is not enough for engagement in school to occur (Appleton et al., 2006). Motivation promotes engagement and prior engagement is connected to later motivation (Martin et al., 2017). By supporting motivation, educators can enhance students' behaviour, cognition, and affects during school work (Shunk & Mullen, 2012, ch. 10). For example, Wang et al. (2021) found that students with greater metacognitive skills, interest, and self-control in mathematics reported higher daily engagement with the subject. According to their results,

interest in mathematics and metacognition compensated for each other; even though engagement declined over time, engagement was still high if metacognitive skills and interest were high. The same compensation was seen with metacognitive skills and self-control.

Some children have low or high levels of engagement from their early years of primary school, which then become established a pattern of engagement (Ladd & Dinella, 2009). Many studies have found that engagement and motivation in school declines over the school years. For example, Tvedt et al.'s (2021) study of high school found that the longer students had been in high school, the more they considered dropping out.

2.4. Significance of students' school engagement

Students' school engagement is particularly important in adolescence, when school engagement typically decreases (Archambault et al., 2009; Wang & Degol, 2014). This is explained, for example, by changes in the physical and social environment and the support provided with (Järvinen, 2020; Lundahl et al., 2017; Wang & Eccles, 2012 a; Wang & Eccles, 2012 b). However, Finn and Zimmer (2012, ch. 5) claim that many symptoms and consequences of low engagement levels can also be seen earlier on in school. Disengaged students do not, for example, actively participate in school activities; they do not get involved cognitively or develop and maintain a feeling of belonging to school, teachers, or peers. (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5). School engagement plays many important roles in school: it is an indicator of participation in education (Wang & Degol, 2014), a facilitator of learning (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012, ch. 2) and a mediator between different actors such as home, parenting styles, peers, teachers, school climate and teaching (Li et al., 2010; Reyes et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2018). Finn and Zimmer (2012, ch. 5) claim that the different school engagement styles have different outcomes, but all forms of engagement are interlinked and support each other.

According to Eccles (2009), emotional engagement plays a significant role in students' motivation to pursue school-related goals. Experiences of success

and failure influence individuals' emotional reactions to assigned tasks. Finn and Zimmer (2012, ch. 5) summarize motivation theories to definition that motivation is originating from inner drives and psychological needs. They define and separate emotional engagement as an output of early behaviour patterns and external motivators which over time become internal. So one engagement style can activate another. This can explain why engagement is important for staying persistent, which in turn is linked to graduating and completing further studies (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5). Both cognitive and emotional school engagement are associated with school completion (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5; Maguire et al., 2017), enrolment and retention in further education through career aspirations and goals enrolment (Fraysier et al., 2020). Engagement is seen as a protective factor against educational risks such as school failure, withdrawal and dropping out (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5).

It is also important to consider the difference between persistence and success. Wang and Eccles (2012b) claim that while students may feel emotionally engaged at school, if they do not actively participate in school activities or use self-regulatory learning strategies, they are less likely to achieve very high grades. Pianta et al. (2012) state that engagement, together with active participation in school, is central to students' learning. Wang and Degol (2014) suggest that the joy of learning and high emotional engagement can result an increasing use of self-regulated learning strategies or cognitive engagement, and an increase in behavioural engagement in learning situations. Many further studies have found that cognitive and emotional engagement have an indirect effect on school success through behavioural and academic engagement (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5; Reschly & Christenson, 2012, ch. 1; Voelkl, 2012, ch. 9).

Engagement in school is also an important factor in achieving various developmental tasks such as learning social skills, which are often learned by engaging in play with peers. Later, these skills are developed through participation in the social situations of middle childhood and adolescence, in which school is an important setting (Mahatmya et al., 2012, ch. 3). According to Bembechat and

Shernoff (2012, ch. 15) define school engagement through students' self-perception, and state that engagement and adaptation to a school environment is linked to the wider context of psychological and relational well-being.

The importance of completed education as a predictor of labour market careers and professional achievements has also increased over the past decades (Järvinen, 2020) suggesting how education influences other aspects of life. Studies from different countries show that early school leavers are more likely to be unemployed in the future, stay unemployed for longer, be less likely to be employed in a permanent job, and work more part-time, have lower incomes, and accumulate less wealth over their lifetime. They are also more likely to use social security and other social programmes during their lifetime, and are less likely to return to education later in life and to participate in active citizenship. (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5.) Students who experienced more favourable experiences of behavioral or emotional engagement were also less likely to be depressed and less likely to be involved in criminality and drug abuse later in life. In the long term, problematic school pathways were linked not only to bad academic outcomes and unemployment but to more frequent involvement in, for example, substance abuse and criminality. (Henry et al., 2012 & Li, & Lerner, 2011.)

2.5. Influential factors on students' school engagement

Students' school engagement can be influenced in many ways. The main focus of our research was on educational factors, because it was primarily about the school practices that educators use. However, many factors overlap and interact with each other, so in this section we will also mention non-direct school-related factors. It is difficult to compile a theory of concrete school practices because, the subject is very broad, and in principle, any activity of an educator that is intended to engage a student in school can be interpreted as a school practice. Therefore, in this section we look more generally at the issues that affect school engagement.

Appleton et al. (2008) have described school engagement through an interactive self-processes model, where the main influencing factors in the academic

environment are social context (including structure, autonomy support, and involvement) and students' self-system processes (including competence, autonomy, and relatedness), leading to engagement patterns of action. (Appleton et al., 2008.) Finn and Zimmer (2012, ch. 5) have used the medical based Centers for Disease Control's (CDC) definition of contributing risk factors for disengagement. Those factors include status and educational risk factors. Status risk factors are, for example, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and family structure. Educational risk factors are, for example, poor grades and test results and behavioural problems. In general, these factors are cumulative and tend to cluster.

Receiving or not receiving support from family, school, or other sources was often a decisive factor in a student's school engagement and predictive of school dropout (Lundahl et al., 2017; Pianta et al., 2012, ch. 17). In particular, parental involvement and family-home contact, autonomy support, and provided structure supported students' school engagement (Pianta et al., 2012, ch. 17; Pitzer & Skinner, 2017). Families remain key providers of financial and other support, although their opportunities to do so vary. According to the research, middle-class parents with higher education have more financial and social resources to contribute to supporting their child or adolescent (Järvinen, 2020; Lundahl et al., 2017).

Although in some countries the social security system aims to reduce the equality gap between families, the socio-economic status of the child or young person still plays an important role across Europe, and is closely connected to the level of education attained (Järvinen, 2020; Lundahl et al., 2017). These factors may include family circumstances such as financial problems, divorce, substance abuse, illness and death (Lundahl, et al. 2017). Also immigrants, working while studying and caring for younger siblings increased school absenteeism and eroded school success (Lundahl et al., 2017). Students facing these challenges also have greater difficulties in school transitions and are more likely to end up dropping out of school (Järvinen, 2020). One of the crucial factors in the later inclusion and exclusion of NEET (Not in Employment, Education or Training) is their willingness or unwillingness to participate in second-chance education (Järvinen,

2020). Here, social- and cultural background plays a major role such as in the value placed on education (Järvinen & Vanttaja, 2013).

Students' school engagement is strongly affected by the school practices used by the teacher and the school that to an appropriate extent challenge and enable students to develop (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5). It is also important for teachers to know that students who are cognitively and emotionally engaged often receive more positive feedback from their teachers on their behaviour or school work. Therefore, it is also easier for them to maintain engagement. Those who are not engaged receive more negative responses from their teachers. (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5; Nurmi & Kiuru, 2015.) Nurmi and Kiuru (2015) called this effect evocative impact. This also increases the risk of dropping out (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5).

Often schools also provide less special education support than they should, and rarely tackle bullying (Lundahl et al., 2017). In some countries, strong municipal policies have also led to wide local differences in the support provided (Lundahl et al., 2017). Persistent negative school experiences like bullying, learning challenges and being treated differently by peers or teachers also lower self-esteem and motivation (Lundahl et al., 2017). Greater cultural socialisation at school was reported to be an important factor in better school engagement through the school climate (Del Toro & Wang, 2021). Many studies have also noted that early childhood education programs play an important role in later academic success and well-being (Mahatmya et al., 2012, ch. 3).

Students who have not acquired sufficient social or cognitive skills before starting school, and who find it challenging, are at greater risk of disengagement (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5). Further, weaker social or motor skills have a negative impact on a child's ability to participate and thus engage to school activities (Mahatmya et al., 2012, ch. 3.) This is yet another reason to make participation accessible for all.

3. EMOTIONAL SUPPORT PROVIDED BY THE SCHOOL: PROMOTING STUDENTS' SCHOOL ENGAGEMENT

3.1. Teaching Through Interaction -Model

As a background theory for the study of teachers' school engagement methods, this study uses the TTI model developed by Hamre et al. (2013), this divides the interactional support used by teachers into emotional support, school organisational support, and instructional support. The cornerstone of effective teaching is above all the interaction between student and teacher.

Hamre et al. (2013) state that the TTI framework is based on the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS), which describes the above-mentioned aspects of student-teacher interaction: CLASS allows the quality of classroom interaction to be assessed on a seven-point scale, according to which students learn better when student-teacher interaction is good.

Table 2 summarises Pianta's, Hamre's and Mintz's (2012, p. 2) indicators of the three types of support mentioned above, listed in the dimensions column. The TTI model of organisational support consists of behavioural management, productivity and control measures to reduce negative climate. Emotional support includes building a positive climate, teacher sensitivity and regard for adolescent perspectives. On the other hand, the instructional support side emphasises instructional learning formats, content understanding, instructional dialogue, analysis and inquiry, and the quality of feedback. The dimensions are opened in the table from the perspective of the teacher as well as the student.

Table 2

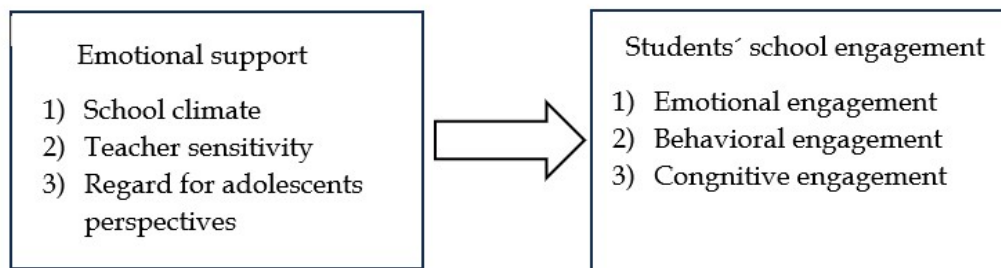
DOMAINS AND DIMENSIONS ACCORDING TO THE SECONDARY CLASS MEASURE (PIANTA, HAMRE & MINTZ, 2012)

Domains	Dimensions	
Classroom Organization	Behavior Management	<p><i>How teachers</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • encourage positive behaviors • prevent, monitor and correct misbehavior
	Productivity	<p><i>How students</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • respect routines and understand routines <p><i>How teachers</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provide activities and directions to maximize time spend to intended activity
	Lack of Negative Climate	<p><i>Expressed negativity experienced by the teachers or pupils:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disrespect, anger, hostility, aggression
Emotional Support	Positive Climate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional connection and enjoyment among teachers & students • Peer interactions
	Teacher Sensitivity	<p><i>Teachers' responsiveness to student's</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • academic needs • social & emotional needs • individuality
	Regard for Adolescent Perspectives	<p><i>How teachers meet and enable students</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • social needs & goals • developmental needs & goals • autonomy & decision-making • meaningful interaction with peers
Instructional Support	Instructional Learning Formats	<p><i>How teachers</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • engage students in facilitate activities to maximize learning opportunities
	Content Understanding	<p><i>How teachers promote</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • students understanding academic frameworks and key ideas
	Instructional Dialogue	<p><i>How teachers use</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • structured and cumulative questioning • guide discussions • urge students' understanding of content
	Analysis and Inquiry	<p><i>How teachers promote</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • higher- order thinking skills • provide opportunities for application in novel context
	Quality of Feedback	<p><i>How teachers</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • extend students' learning via their responses and participation in activities

This study is particularly interested in how emotional support provided by teachers helps to support students' school engagement (Figure 2). Emotional support includes aspects of a positive climate, teacher sensitivity, and regard for adolescent perspectives (Hamre et al., 2013). Students' school engagement is seen as a three-dimensional process involving behavioural, emotional, and cognitive engagement factors for school students.

Figure 2

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER-PROVIDED EMOTIONAL SUPPORT AND STUDENTS' SCHOOL ENGAGEMENT



Aspects of emotional support are discussed in more detail in the following subsections. These include a positive school climate, teacher sensitivity and regard for adolescents perspectives.

3.2. School climate

School climate is an important factor in student engagement, motivation, and school performance (Patrick et al., 2011). According to Wang and Eccles' (2013) research, students become more emotionally and behaviourally engaged in school when classmates and teachers create a climate that is both socially supportive and caring: The appropriate, sufficient emotional support students received regarding their personal goals was found to have an impact on their academic self-concept.

A positive school climate involves teachers having positive relationships with students (Pianta, Hamre and Mintz, 2012, p. 21). This includes both non-

verbal and verbal interactions that emphasise cordiality, fairness, and respect (Marks, 2000; Pianta, Hamre and Mintz, 2012, p. 21). A positive school climate also means that students feel safe at school (Bradshaw et al., 2014; Marks, 2000). Hamre et al. (2013), Hamre and Pianta (2005), and Pianta, Hamre and Mintz (2012, pp. 21, 24) describe that in a positive climate, the teacher talks to the students and there is a warm climate of interaction, including moments of enthusiasm and laughter: The teacher and students enjoy each other's company and the teacher gives space to the students' concerns, listens attentively, asks about them, and provides positive feedback.

Hamre et al. (2013), Hamre and Pianta (2005), and Pianta, Hamre and Mintz (2012, p. 58) state that a negative climate reflects negative interactions between teachers and students. They stress the importance of monitoring the intensity, frequency, and quality of negative interactions. In a negative climate, they suggest that the teacher's attitude towards students is critical and negative, and aggression and anger may also be present.

A study on transitions by Vasalampi et al. (2018) found that peer approval had a positive effect on school attendance, motivation towards school goals, and sense of autonomy. In addition, peer approval was associated with low thoughts of dropping out of school. A study by Tvedt et al. (2021) on the transition to high school found that feelings of loneliness increased during high school, especially after the beginning of the second year. According to Mehta et al. (2013), students' school engagement is also challenged by bullying. According to the OECD's (2019) PISA findings, on average, 23% of OECD students reported being bullied and 16% felt lonely. Bullying affects whether students feel safe in the school climate (Bradshaw et al., 2014). Mehta et al. (2013) found that the more common bullying was perceived, the lower the level of school engagement at both the school and individual levels.

3.3. Teacher sensitivity

Teacher sensitivity refers to the teacher's timely response to students' academic, social, and emotional needs, which involves paying attention to students' developmental and behavioural needs (Pianta, Hamre and Mintz, 2012, p. 27). Good teacher-student interactions enable teachers to support students' emotional and social functioning in the classroom (Hamre et al., 2013). Pakarinen et al.'s (2012) study on interactions also found that the quality of teaching interactions had an impact on the motivation and academic skills development of preschool-age children. As defined by Hamre et al. (2013), Hamre and Pianta (2005), and Pianta, Hamre and Mintz (2012, p. 31), a sensitive teacher pays individual attention to the child, knows the student, and is aware of the student's interests and skill level. They also state that a sensitive teacher senses the student's mood swings to provide appropriate instructional support and support to calm the student.

Nurmi (2012) found that teachers reported more closeness and fewer conflicts with students when teachers interacted with students who had higher levels of engagement and motivation than other children. Fan's (2011) study on social relationships and school motivation showed that social actors, such as teachers and peers, play an important role in students' motivation at school. Skaalviik and Skaalviik's (2013) study showed that the most significant direct correlations between motivational constructs and the structure of learning goals were found for behavioural measures of motivation, especially help-seeking behaviour. In contrast, their study revealed that the relationship between intrinsic motivation and learning goals was primarily found in students' perceptions that their teachers were emotionally supportive, meaning that they showed appreciation for students' efforts and progress in learning and responded positively to students' mistakes. Bingham and Okagaki (2012, ch. 4) stress that to support students' school engagement, teachers should always maintain positive interactions with students, as these interactions are constantly changing and dynamic.

Ettekal and Shin's (2020) study on teacher-student relationships found that the majority of students (about 59%) were warm-hearted in elementary school

but this decreased in middle school. It appears that the teacher–student relationship has a long-term effect on students’ academic success. Pakarinen et al. (2017) state that good interaction relationships affect students’ long-term attitudes towards and wishes about school, which have a positive effect on school success. Similarly, Roorda et al. (2017) found that the teacher–student relationship mattered both indirectly and directly to students’ academic success from preschool through 12th grade, and the quality of the relationship seemed to matter beyond that. In terms of school practices, this finding suggests that first-grade teachers should be aware of the importance of a good teacher–student relationship.

3.4 Regard for adolescent perspectives

Regard for adolescent perspectives influences student school engagement (Wang & Eccles, 2013). It means teachers’ take into account young people’s developmental and social goals and needs by providing a range of opportunities for student leadership and autonomy (Pianta, Hamre & Allen, 2012, ch. 17). Teachers’ respect for students can be seen in how flexibly they take into account students’ interests and points of view in classroom activities (Hamre et al., 2013; Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012, p. 35). As Pianta, Hamre and Mintz (2012, pp. 35, 38) state, to accommodate young people’s perspectives, teachers can choose teaching materials that are relevant to students, and can provide opportunities for students through lessons that emphasise that students can lead and take responsibility for issues. They also describe how teachers can provide opportunities for meaningful peer interaction between students during lessons.

According to Hamre et al. (2013), teaching is student-centred rather than teacher-centred: Excessive control challenges classroom freedom and deprives students of choice and the opportunity to pursue their own interests. Studies of children’s perspectives (Kallinen et al., 2021; Winter, 2010) have found that children feel they are not heard enough. It is important for teachers to consider adolescent perspectives because, according to Wang and Eccles (2013), if students feel that the school is optimally structured, that they have opportunities to make

choices, and that they have emotional support in learning from both their peers and teachers, they are more likely to be interested in learning and value learning more. Similarly, Kallinen's et al. (2021) study on children's well-being revealed that children have several suggestions for school-related development. The study also revealed that children consider it important that teachers are genuinely present and listen to their views and wishes.

4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Our primary aim was to find out what school practices European educators use to support students' engagement to in school. The second area of interest was teachers' thoughts about providing emotional support to support enhance their students' school engagement.

Our research questions are as following:

1. What kind of school practices do European educators use to promote students' school engagement?
2. What thoughts do teachers have about providing students' school engagement on an emotional support?

It is known that environmental factors – such as teachers – play a major role in students' engagement with school (Fredricks et al, 2004). For example, Rickert and Skinner's (2022) study on the effect of warm teacher involvement on students' school engagement found that teachers have influence on supporting students' school engagement.

5. RESEARCH METHODS

5.1. Research context

This research is a qualitative study. Qualitative research, as defined by Denzin and Lincoln (2000, p. 3), is concerned with meaning and how people see the world around them. The main purpose of qualitative research is to present the subjects' opinions and perceptions about the phenomenon under investigation (Yin & Retzlaff, 2013, p. 20), which in this study is students' school engagement. Alasuutari (2001, p. 237) claims that the goal of qualitative research is to explain the phenomenon under investigation. The aim of this research is to highlight school practices and thoughts related to students' school engagement.

This educational research was conducted in 2022 and 2023 as part of the international Erasmus+ ALL-IN ED project. The aim of the ALL-IN ED project, which ran from 2021 to 2023, was to promote students' school engagement. The project sought to identify the school practices of different educational actors in promoting students' school engagement, and to share these school practices. This is a very topical issue in view of the increasing number of school absences and the growing risk of exclusion (the Finnish Board of Education, 2020). The project was coordinated from Finland and involved Austria, Finland, Germany, Portugal, and Spain, with a partner school from each country. The role of the University of Jyväskylä was to provide up-to-date research on the topic and help build the theoretical framework for the project. One of the authors of this Master's thesis was involved in the project from the beginning as a student participant from the University of Jyväskylä.

5.2. Data description

Responses received by the summer of 2023 were included in the survey, with 103 responses from eight different countries (Table 3). Responses were collected from all educators in schools, not just teachers. Puusa and Juuti (2020, p. 59) point out that the participants in the study should be selected in such a way that they have

the most versatile knowledge about the phenomenon under study, such as based on their experiences.

Table 3

Responses from the questionnaire form.

Questionary responses	
Austria	7
Finland	52
Germany	6
Greece	1
Lithuania	1
Portugal	14
South Korea	1
Spain	21
Total	103

Of the teachers interviewed, three worked in a primary school, two in a secondary school and one in a high school. Of those interviewed, one was a classroom teachers, three were special education teachers, and two were language teachers. The interviewees had worked as teachers in different organisations for an average of 18 years. The description of the interviewees is summarized in Table 4. We limited the interviews to teachers only, as our interview questions were constructed according to Finn's (1998) theory and included questions related to teacher-student interaction.

Table 4

Study interviewees.

<i>Interviewees (N=6)</i>	
Countrys	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finland (3) • Spain (2) • France (1)
School levels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary school (3) • Secondary school (2) • High school (1)
Professions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Class room teacher (1) • Special education teacher (3) • Subject teacher (2)
Years of working as a teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 0-5 years (1) • 6-10 (2) • 21-25 (1) • 26-30 (1) • 31-35 (1)

In qualitative research, there is no rule for the number of interviewees (Patton, 2002, p. 87). A more important consideration is saturation (Metsämuuronen, 2006, p. 120). According to Eskola et al. (2018, p. 33), saturation occurs when interviews start to become repetitive and little new information emerges, suggesting that the research question has likely been answered sufficiently. This study contained a total of six interviews. Although this is not very large, there were clearly many similar answers in the interviews, indicating saturation.

5.3. Data collection

The data for the study consists of two sets: country-specific questionnaire data collected in and mainly for the Erasmus+ ALL-IN ED project and separate teacher interview data collected mainly for the purpose of the master's thesis and for the project, if the interviewees gave their consent. Both sets answered separate research questions. Braun and Clarke (2013) note that qualitative research uses words, written and spoken language, as research data. Hirsjärvi et al. (2013, p. 193) also state that the questionnaire is one means of collecting research material. The questionnaire data partly consists of common English-language test data collected at the beginning of the project using Google Forms, and country-specific questionnaire responses collected later via different platforms.

Country-specific questionnaires were chosen after a test run to increase the response rates, as test respondents found it easier to complete the questionnaire in their native language. However, the questions remained the same and consistent. Each project country collected responses from its own country, in consideration of country-specific regulations, and the project actors translated the responses from their own languages into English for the project and for us to use. A few responses were collected through discussion and answers written on the form at the same time, due to linguistic challenges. For Finland, the official survey data was collected using a Webropol questionnaire, where it was possible to answer the questionnaire in Finnish or English. We translated Finnish answers into English to get congruent data. The questionnaires were distributed internationally, nationally, and locally, for example via school mailing lists, school visits, social media, and educational events such as the International Network of Productive Learning Projects and Schools (INEPS) 2023. The advantage of questionnaires is that they can be used to obtain a wide variety of material, and quickly (Check & Schutt, 2012, ch. 8; Hirsjärvi et al., 2013, p. 190).

The thematic interview data was collected in 2023 and consists of interviews with six teachers from three countries: France, Finland, and Spain. The interviewed teachers were contacted from the contact information collected through

the questionnaires, international project meetings, and school visits or other collaborations. Thematic interviews served as the data collection method for the second research question. Thematic interviewing is an interactive data collection method in which the interviewees' point of view is brought out well (Hirsjärvi et al., 2009, p. 164; Hirsjärvi & Hurme, 2014, p. 48). We used thematic interviews because we wanted to deepen the insights gathered based on the questionnaire about students' school engagement. In thematic interviews it is possible to get more detailed explanations about the subject under investigation (Puusa, 2020, p. 107; Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 85).

Before conducting the thematic interviews, we created an interview frame (Appendix 1), which laid the foundation for conducting the interviews. Thematic interview questions were sent to the interviewees in advance, which gave interviewees the opportunity to think about things beforehand and write notes (Hyvärinen, 2017, p. 38). It was essential that the interview was not conducted according to a strict interview framework (Rapley, 2004, p. 18). Therefore, all interviews had the same theme but the questions varied depending on the course the interview took. The themed interview is a semi-structured data collection method, as the broad themes are the same for all interviewees (Hirsjärvi & Hurme, 2014, p. 48; Tiittula & Ruusuvuori, 2005, p. 11). Interviewers listened to the interviewees' answers carefully so we could ask suitable additional questions. This required the interviewer to actively listen to what the interviewees said, and how they answered questions (Kvale et al., 2014, p. 180; Rapley, 2004, p. 18).

With one exception, the themed interviews were conducted face-to-face. The other was conducted via Zoom. The advantage of a face-to-face interview is that there is an opportunity to use gesture language, and the interview remains conversational (Tjora & Torhell, 2012, p. 108). All themed interviews were recorded on a tape recorder because, according to Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2014, p. 75), recording the interview enables analysis of the material.

5.4. Data analysis

The data collection method for the analysis was a county-specific questionnaire and thematic interviews. The first research question asked how European educators support students' school engagement. We collected information on this question using country-specific questionnaires. The analysis was initially conducted using a data-driven content analysis approach. However, during our analysis we found that the categories fitted well with the models presented in the theoretical section, so we felt it made sense to use theory-based content analysis. Indeed, Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2009, pp. 108, 110) distinguish between these two methods of analysis: Theoretical concepts are formed in the data base in a data-driven analysis, whereas in theory-based content analysis, theoretical concepts are presented as known and ready-made.

Kananen (2008, p. 91) claimed that the goal of the theory-based content analysis described above is to start from the general and end up with individual observations of the phenomenon under study. Finn's (1989) theory was used as the theoretical framework for this study. The model includes three indicators: students' observable participation in school activities, sense of belonging to classmates and teachers, and valuing success in school-related goals. After reviewing the data, they are classified according to the framework of analysis (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2009, p. 128). Thus, the means of school engagement were initially sorted into indicators based on to this theory. The teachers' means of school engagement identified in the questionnaires were categorised by the dimension of school engagement supported by the means. The analysis concluded that the method used in the questionnaire to support school engagement is good enough if it applies to at least one indicator.

After classifying the indicators, we sorted these methods into theoretical facilitators. Finn (1989) has also identified facilitators that influence these indicators. These facilitators are divided into three groups: classroom organizational support, emotional support, and instructional support (Finn, 1989). As a background theory for studying methods of teacher engagement in schooling, we use

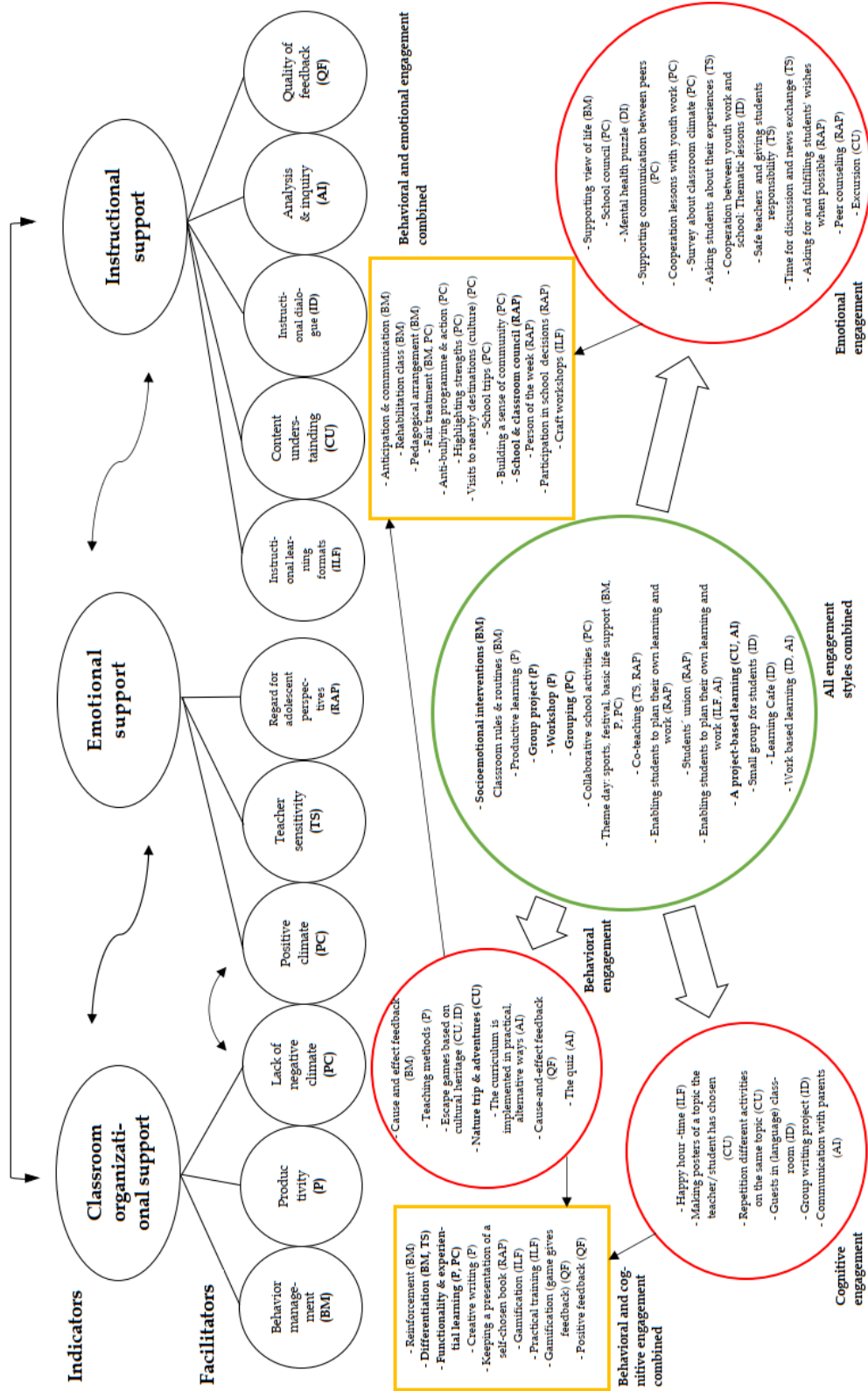
the TTI model developed by Hamre et al. (2013), which categorises the interaction support used by teachers into the three groups mentioned above. Facilitators were placed to learn what kind of support teachers provide to support school engagement.

The analysis described above is summarised in Figure 3. The coloured circles and rectangles in the table represent the indicators. The green circle summarises the school practices that can support all three forms of engagement simultaneously: emotional, cognitive, and behavioural. The red circles show the school practices that can support a particular aspect of school engagement. The yellow squares show the school practices that support two aspects of school engagement concurrently. The abbreviations following the school practice indicate the type of support or facilitators represented by these school practices. For example, the abbreviation TS indicates that the school practice in question reflects the teacher's sensitivity.

Figure 3

ANALYSIS 1: PARTICIPATION-IDENTIFICATION & TTI - ENGAGING PRACTICES CLASSIFICATION

Reading instructions: At the top of the figure are school engagement styles (Finn, 1989) and their facilitators (Hamre et al. 2013). The arrows show the relationship between them. Below, are practices fitted in both theories: green circle in the centre = practices that support every engagement style, two yellow squares = practices that support two engagement style and two red circles = practices that support one engagement style. The thin arrows between these patterns indicate which styles of engagement the practices support.



The second research question asked what thoughts teachers have about promoting school engagement on an emotional level. We collected answers to this question via a thematic interview. The first stage of analysis was interview transcription: when the spoken text is transformed into written text (Ruusuvuori, 2010, p. 424). At this stage, we familiarised ourselves with the data in its entirety for the purpose of analysis.

We also analysed the data using theory-based content analysis. According to the TTI model, the top categories were school climate, teacher-student interaction and taking young people's perspectives into account. In line with the research question, we wanted to gain insight into teachers' thoughts on these forms of emotional support. Thus, three more specific perspectives on each form of emotional support emerged as subcategories. These were the meaning of each form of support, the means of building that support, and the challenges of using that form of support. These points of interest emerged via on theory. For the subcategories, we collected case-specific reduced expressions from the transcripts. These supported the descriptions of this theory-based content analysis. Grönfors (1985, p. 161) also states that theory-based content analysis enables the descriptions of the material. The top categories, subcategories and simplified answers formed in the analysis can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5

Analysis upperclass, subcategory and simplified answer

Upper class	Subcategory	Simplified answer
School climate	Definition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students are happy to come • Everyone is well and can be themselves • A common agenda
	School practices of creation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listening, lots of discussion and use of humour • Giving positive feedback • Avoiding negativity & teaching good behavior
	Challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Challenges between teacher and student: Lack of social skills, trust building • Background challenges: Challenges of the work community, families and school ideology
Teacher sensitivity	Importance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher's responsibility for interaction • Security as a prerequisite for interaction
	School practices of creation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher as a conversationalist, an observer of feelings • Consideration of motivation and individuality in teaching
	Challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Background challenges: learning challenges, home background/negativity of families/ expectations of the institution • Situational challenges: fatigue, hurry, equipment dependencies
Regard for adolescent perspectives	Importance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interaction becomes easier • Students learn: flexibility, tolerance of disagreement, self-confidence and self-esteem
	School practices of creation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Everyone is consulted and issues are implemented as far as possible • Original ways of expressing opinion: debating, voting, student council externalisation, artistic expression
	Challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student-related challenges: ways of presentation, shyness, lack of sense of responsibility, unwillingness to contribute, pleasing friends • Situational challenges: rush, unworkable ideas • Background challenges: negative climate, adult attitudes, institutional framework

Figure 3 and Table 3 present the condensed results produced by the analysis of our study. The contents of these tables are discussed in more detail, with citations, in the results chapter.

5.5. Ethical solutions

Ethical principles were considered throughout the research process. The Research Ethics Advisory Board (TENK, 2023) emphasizes that the starting point of individual research should be the participants' trust in science and researchers. Participation in this study was completely voluntary. A link to the survey information sheet and the privacy notice was attached to the questionnaire. The research information and data protection notice were also pointed out to interviewees. During the research process, the privacy of the research participants – such as personal information and any identifying information – must be protected (Vilkka, 2018, p. 170). This was done during this research process.

The theme interviews were recorded using a tape recorder. A professional interpreter was also present, which increases the reliability of the interviews. The use of a professional interpreter was necessary as the interviewer and the interviewee did not speak the same language. It was also ensured that other people could not listen to the interviews as they were being conducted. Both the analysis of the country-specific questionnaires and the thematic interviews are securely stored in university's secure cloud service. In the analysis table made from the questionnaires, no information identifying the respondents was entered at any point. Regarding the themed interview, direct identification information was removed as a protective measure during transcription. This is how a pseudo-synonymized data set was created, which enables identification by coding and the inclusion of new information in data sets. The quotations in the profit share also do not contain identifying information. Omitting identifying information is justified because the interview group was small. Further, we overwrote the recordings when we had finished with them, so they no longer exist. The research material will be destroyed from the university's secure cloud service as soon as the thesis will be completed.

6. FINDINGS

6.1. Educators' school practices to promote students' school engagement

The questionnaire revealed that school practices that increase behavioural engagement, or students' observable participation in school activities, emphasised the use of alternative approaches such as different ways of implementing curriculum objectives and different teaching methods. Giving feedback on students' performance and the organisation of different events were also highlighted in the area of behavioural engagement. These events and excursions were clearly the most prominent ways in which educators sought to increase their students' behavioural engagement. These school practices used by educators included classroom organisation support and behavioural management tools, as well as the use of productivity. In addition to classroom organizational support, the types of support educators used were located in facilitators of instructional support. These included support for content understanding, instructional dialogue, analysis and inquiry, and quality of feedback. The practices described above are described in the following two quotes:

'When a student is removed from a lesson, someone has time to talk to them and make sure they understand why this happened.'

'Young people are engaged in team-building games and learn about local cultural and historic heritage through escape games outdoors.'

School practices used by educators to support students' emotional engagement emphasised different types of conversations, such as asking students about their news and aspirations. In addition to facilitating teacher-student interaction, educators reported that they tried to promote interaction between students. Educators also reported that they enabled students to be heard in certain situations, such as by maintaining a student council. Further, educators reported that they take care of students' well-being by, for example, using a mental health puzzle

and addressing life skills. Connecting with home was also seen as a factor that could support students' emotional engagement with school. These school practices that educators described as supporting emotional engagement fall mainly under the facilitators of emotional support category, which included creating a positive climate, teacher sensitivity, and regard for adolescents' perspectives. However, school practices were also included in the facilitators of instructional support. These included support for content understanding and the use of interactive dialogue. Responses were also ranked from facilitators of classroom organisation support to behavioural management. The above-mentioned issues become clear from the following quotes:

'Each pupil is treated as an individual, their thoughts and wishes are asked and their answers are listened to carefully. These ideas and wishes are taken into account in practical activities as far as possible.'

'In their own subject, they try to give pupils as much control as possible over how they learn and do best. The aim is for pupils to discover their own strengths and the ways in which they can best fulfil themselves.'

'We use time to grouping our students when school starts in the autumn. For example we go to camps, we take afternoons with youth organisation and we do many activities with our own class.'

Among the school practices that support cognitive engagement, the use of different meaningful ways of working emerged, such as making posters, pedagogy, and repeating the same topic in different ways. The importance of students taking responsibility for their own learning was also highlighted. Educators also mentioned the use of external visitors. These school practices were only included in the facilitators of teaching support category, which included the use of instructional learning formats, support for content understanding, use of instructional dialogue, and analysis and inquiry. The above practices are described in the following quotes:

'Students are given a moment, some have the opportunity to make decisions about how they use that time, for example use it for assessment purposes, how they want, have the opportunity to improve their grade.'

'Guests in (language) classroom: students get to work with different guests and work within their own skill level = meaningful learning experience, valuing small successes, joy of learning.'

The questionnaire responses also revealed school practices used by educators that can support the two forms of engagement: behavioural engagement and cognitive engagement. These emphasised individualisation, such as differentiation and positive feedback. Additionally, school practices showed that experiential and activity-based approaches were used, with educators designing lessons that considered students' skill levels and individual interests, such as gamification for individuality and creative writing. In these school practices that supported behavioural and cognitive engagement, all facilitators of classroom organisation support were evident in the model we used, which are behavioural management tools and the use of productivity. The instructional school practices also found all the facilitators of emotional support, which are creating a positive climate, teacher sensitivity, and regard for adolescent perspectives. School practices were also found in the facilitators of the forms of instructional support, which are the use of instructional learning styles and the quality of feedback. The practices described above are described in the following two quotes:

'The teacher designs games that work for different types of learning needs, every student is involved and they get feedback.'

'Supporting students' writing motivation by making writing more fun indecipherable words.'

Responses also indicated that educators have school practices in place that can support not only behavioural but also emotional engagement. These school practices emphasised pedagogical solutions related to supporting students to stay in school, such as teaching anticipation and managing unpleasant emotions. They also highlighted school practices related to students' well-being in school, such as the use of an anti-bullying program and seating arrangements made with a pedagogical goal of supporting students' sense of security. Educators also used community-building teaching methods, such as using friend lessons, deciding on school-related matters, and organizing joint workshops and excursions. The school practices used by teachers described above illustrate all the forms of support in the model we used. The school practices were in the facilitators of class-

room organisation support on behaviour management techniques and in the facilitators of emotional support on creating a positive climate and regard for adolescent perspectives. School practices were also placed in the facilitator of instructional support category, which was the use of an instructional learning approach. The above practices are described in the following three quotes:

‘All parties know how to act. Common rules of the game and information about them among the staff, followed by information for children.’

‘Well-being in the school is supported preventively so that bullying situations do not arise. In the daily school life, the inclusion and grouping of each student, as well as being heard and seen, are especially taken into account.’

‘Every week, an intermediate class can be arranged as a friend break, which the adults plan with the students. The goal is to practice friendship skills and strengthen belonging to a group.’

The questionnaire showed that educators are using school practices that can support all three forms of engagement, or indicators, simultaneously; that is, behavioural engagement, emotional engagement, and cognitive engagement. Such school practices that support all three forms of engagement emphasised the creation of a social structure and a sense of community in the classroom, such as the creation of common classroom rules and grouping. Additionally, school practices highlighted an emphasis on collaboration in various forms, such as the use of group work and practical learning, and on enabling different forms of student empowerment, such as the opportunity to design their own learning and to maintain a student council. The practices described above fall under the classroom organizational facilitators of support, which are behavioral management and productivity. This productivity was the most common facilitator in these practices to enhance all forms of school engagement. In addition, practices were ranked under the facilitators of emotional support, which were positive climate, teacher sensitivity and regard for adolescent's opinions. Practices were also ranked under the facilitators of instructional support, which are analysis and inquiry, instructional learning formats and instructional dialogue. The practices described above are described in the following quotes:

'The students plan together and discuss the rules according to which the behavior is respectful to the friend. Own activities are evaluated according to the goals.'

'Their learning is based on their practical activities and experience gained at a certain practical site they choose. Practical activities and learning in another way helps students to raise their learning motivation, attending school, gaining certificate of basic education.'

In general, educators have several school practices at their disposal to support students' school engagement. Most of the students' school engagement practices provided by educators were suitable for supporting behavioural, emotional, and cognitive engagement. Different forms of support were emphasised in the school practices used by educators, depending on which forms of students' school engagement the school practice supported.

6.2. Teachers' thoughts of providing emotional support

Based on the interviews, all interviewees agreed on the importance of a positive school climate. Teachers defined this as a place where everyone can feel good about coming, is accepting, and where everyone is allowed to be themselves. A key element of this goal was that the whole school community has a shared understanding that everyone is doing their part to contribute positively to the school climate. Teachers said this shared perception includes treating everyone with respect and speaking to everyone in a friendly manner.

'The kind where students, teachers and other staff feel good coming every morning and everyone feels accepted as they are.'

'Everyone will be seen and heard and we have a common understanding of what we are doing here.'

The interviews revealed several ways in which it is possible to support the creation or maintenance of a positive climate. According to the teachers, a positive school climate can be built by being genuinely present with the children. Teachers saw it as essential that school staff genuinely listen to what students have to say. Teachers considered a key aspect as being the maintenance of regular discussions. Teachers also felt that the use of humour contributes to a positive school climate, and that giving positive feedback was a good way to promote a positive

climate. However, teachers saw it as essential that positive feedback was appropriate in order to contribute to this goal.

'The keyword is meeting and listening to a person.'

Teachers also felt that avoiding competition had a positive impact on a positive climate by avoiding comparisons between students. Behavioural factors also emerged from the interviews. First, teachers considered it essential to consciously practise good behaviour with students. In addition to teaching, teachers felt it is important to address students' misbehaviour immediately, thus demonstrating that it will not be tolerated in school. A prerequisite for good behaviour was identified as teachers ensuring that students are aware of the school rules and trying to get them to commit to following them.

'Everyone knows what is expected of them, in other words they are aware of the school's common rules.'

The teachers felt that creating or maintaining a positive school climate is challenged by many things. First, students' weak social skills and weak self-regulation were seen as factors that challenge a positive climate. The second challenge was trust building, and the interviews revealed that building trust with some students may take a long time.

'The deep backgrounds of the school environment are influenced by people's different self-regulation skills.'

'At the beginning there is no trust, so it has to be gradually built - its like step by step work.'

The teachers also highlighted the background challenges to the school climate brought by the working environment. Based on what the teachers said, a negative working environment is reflected in the school climate. Unpleasant treatment of colleagues and the inability to commit to acting in accordance with the school's common rules were the most negative aspects of working environment. The school climate is also negatively affected if the student's guardians have a negative attitude towards the school. Further, an impression that the school allows teachers to make all the decisions may challenge the creation of a positive climate.

'How could the children be flourishing if they can see that adults around them are stressed and nervous.'

'Parents do not necessarily see the importance of school, especially for children in special classes.'

Overall, teachers attach importance to creating and maintaining a positive climate as part of emotional support. Definitions of a positive climate emphasised the importance of each person feeling accepted in school and of each taking responsibility for creating and maintaining a positive climate. Teachers identified genuine presence, listening, humour, positive feedback, dealing with bad behaviour immediately, and reiterating the school rules as the tools for building a positive climate. However, creating and maintaining a positive atmosphere was challenged by many factors. Challenges between teacher and student were caused by insufficient social skills and building trust. Background challenges included workplace challenges and family and school perceptions.

As well as maintaining a positive school climate, teachers felt it was important for them to be sensitive in their interactions and to consider the students as individuals. In their descriptions of sensitive interaction, teachers highlighted the fact that they have an interactional responsibility in the school. The basic condition for sensitive interaction is that the child experiences a sense of security.

'In the interaction between teacher and student, meeting the individual is the key to everything.'

'When children don't necessarily have good interaction skills, adults should have even more and remember their own interaction responsibility.'

According to the teachers, the most important thing is to pay attention to the students every day. The teachers felt it was important that students are taken into account, such as when arriving at and leaving school, and that students are asked what they are doing and offered the opportunity for one-on-one conversations. Teachers also felt it was essential that students' emotions were given space, both during and outside of classes. If the teachers see negative emotional states, they feel it is essential to discuss the feeling with the students, and what could be done

about it. It was important to them to be sensitive conversationalists and observers of emotions.

'I strive to say something to every student every day.'

'I always ask if there is such a thing as something that can be told publicly or if it is a matter that needs to be told personally.'

Teachers also mentioned factors related to motivation as the building blocks of sensitive interaction. These included presenting the topics of the lessons in an interesting way and enabling experiences of success. Teachers also raised the importance of positive feedback. The interviews also brought up factors related to the individual teaching of students. These included giving personal instructions instead of general ones, and teaching learning strategies that help students cope better in their studies.

'Encouraging is especially important, at least for a child with whom everything has not gone smoothly.'

'I have noticed that giving general instructions is not useful, but each student must be told individually, at least in this small group.'

According to the interviews, teachers also find many things challenging in creating and maintaining sensitive interaction. Background challenges came up in the answers, which included students' learning difficulties, which are heightened by lack of support and low motivation. The underlying challenges were perceived to be if the student has a weak home background and if the student's parents have a negative attitude towards the school. Institutional and familial expectations towards the teacher were also mentioned as a background challenge. Situation-specific challenges also emerged, such as the rush of everyday school life, fatigue, and students' addictions to devices.

'It is impossible to create bond with all the student.'

In general, teachers also considered their sensitivity, which is part of emotional support, to be important. The teacher's responsibility for interaction and the prerequisite for safety were emphasised. A sensitive teacher is genuinely present in

the interaction and considers the student's individuality in terms of motivation and learning. Background challenges to a sensitive teacher's work were students' learning difficulties, a challenging home background, the parents' and school's expectations of the teacher's work, and situational challenges such as fatigue, busyness, and students' addiction to devices.

Interviews also revealed that teachers feel it is important to have regard for adolescents' perspectives. This was highlighted because valuing perspectives was also perceived to facilitate interaction. Teachers also described that students learn many skills when their perspectives are heard, including flexibility and tolerance of disagreement. Teachers also felt that students often learn to trust and value themselves when their perspectives are valued.

'If students feel that their perspectives don't matter, they won't be able to put in enough effort and their own progress and learning will suffer.'

The interviews revealed that teachers felt the best way to discover students' views and wishes was to talk to them one-on-one. Teachers described that they try as much as possible to fulfil students' wishes in relation to school life. They felt it was particularly important to listen to students' perspectives in conflict situations. Although one-on-one discussion was perceived as the best way to get students' views across, other methods were also mentioned, including voting and student councils. The idea of externalising perspectives and artistic expression was also raised.

'Mostly those kind of individual student meetings, but sometimes we vote on traditional issues.'

Teachers identified several factors that they perceived to challenge the inclusion of students' views. Challenges related to student characteristics or skills were identified, including a lack of expression, shyness, lack of responsibility, and unwillingness to learn. Another perceived challenge is that students do not know how to influence school affairs. The fact that students suggest things because they want to please their friends was also seen as a challenge.

'It is important to build a bridge of trust so that the student no longer thinks: I don't like the teacher.'

'Unfortunately, there are many pupils who do not dare to say or express their point of view, or it could be that they do not know how to do it yet'

Situational factors also emerged, such as being in a hurry and students' ideas not being feasible to enact in a school context. There were also background challenges, such as a negative climate and the negative attitudes of adults towards giving students a voice. Another challenge was the institutional framework, or the fact that not everything can be done in a school context because of the necessity to adhere to regulations and the curriculum.

'There are certain regulations in school and a power structure. The attitudes of the adults influence whether the pupils dare to implement and decide, because the adult bears the final responsibility for it anyway.'

In general, teachers also consider it important to have regard for adolescent perspectives, which is part of emotional support. Teachers emphasised that every student's perspective is considered as much as possible. To clarify perspectives, teachers use different methods, such as debating, voting, a student council, and artistic expression. Many factors challenged regard for adolescent perspectives, such as challenges caused by the students, including students' different ways of expressing their opinions, shyness, lack of a sense of responsibility, reluctance to have influence, and the desire to please friends. Situation-specific challenge factors were the rush of daily life and proposals unsuitable for the school context. Background challenges were also a negative climate, the attitudes of adults, and the institutional framework.

The results showed that teachers consider emotional support to be important; in other words, the teacher's sensitivity, creation of a positive atmosphere, and regard for adolescents' perspectives. Teachers have several ways of providing emotional support but they feel that providing emotional support can be challenging.

7. DISCUSSION

7.1. Conclusions

The aim of this study was to examine students' school engagement from the perspective of European educators. Our goal was to find out what kind of school practices educators use to support students' school engagement, and what teachers think about providing emotional support. Finn's (1989) school engagement theory and Hamre et al.'s (2013) TTI model were used as background theories for the analysis. Overall, the results indicated that the majority of teacher-provided student engagement practices were suitable for supporting all dimensions of school engagement in the PI model. These included emotional engagement, behavioral engagement and cognitive engagement. In school practices based on the TTI model, different forms of support for students' school engagement were emphasised, depending on which form(s) of students' school participation the school practice supported. Regarding the provision of emotional support, it can be observed that teachers consider the emotional support of the TTI model to be important; that is, the sensitivity of the teacher, the creation of a positive climate, and regard for adolescent perspectives. The forms of emotional support used by teachers have many similarities with the TTI model. Despite teachers using different emotional support school practices of the TTI model, they found providing emotional support somewhat challenging.

By examining the results of our first research question, we see that teachers and educators use varied means to influence students' school engagement. This is good, as students who are engaged in school are also more likely to remain so (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5; Nurmi & Kiuru, 2015). Teachers and educators use practices to address one, two, or all three types of engagement. Many practices theoretically support all engagement styles in Finn's (1989) PI theory, which is optimal, because although engagement styles have different outcomes, they all support and activate each other (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5). Additionally, some practices aimed to support two of the three engagement styles. A notable finding

here is that some practices supported both behavioural and emotional engagement, and behavioural and cognitive engagement, but no practices supported emotional and cognitive engagement without also supporting behavioural engagement. One explanation for this could be that behavioural engagement is easier for the educator to spot, while emotional and cognitive processes may remain unnoticed or be given less of the teacher's attention. As our analysis was based entirely on what teachers had reported about their practices, this may be one reason why no congruent practices were found between cognitive and emotional engagement alone. Finn and Zimmer (2012, ch. 5) describe emotional engagement as an output of early behaviour patterns and external motivators that, over time, become internalised. This may be one explanation for the co-occurrence of these engagement styles in this study.

Some of these classification groups exhibited several similar types of activities, which we combined. The behavioural engagement practices were particularly prominent in nature trips and various forms of adventure. In both behavioural and emotional engagement, school and classroom activities were particularly prominent. In terms of behavioural and cognitive engagement, differentiation and functional and experiential learning were especially prominent. For all three styles of engagement, socio-emotional interventions, group projects, workshops, group activities, and project-based learning were particularly prominent. Teachers can support school engagement through their own activities, especially by taking into account the different needs of pupils and by differentiating activities (Lundahl et al., 2017), supporting students' autonomy and broader development (such as socio-emotional or motor development), enabling participation for all (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, ch. 5; Mahatmya et al., 2012, ch. 3), seeking to prevent bullying (Lundahl et al., 2017), and taking a multifaceted approach to cultural socialisation (Del Toro & Wang, 2021).

In addition to the PI model, the practices were combined with the TTI theory. Among the practices that support behavioural engagement, the content understanding (CU) facilitator was highlighted; that is, how students understand theories and key issues (Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012). This facilitator included

learning about cultural heritage through escape room play, field trips, and adventures. Among the practices that supported emotional engagement, the PC facilitator, in other words positive climate/lack of negative climate, was highlighted. This refers, among other things, to the emotional connection between teacher and students, and peer interaction (Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, et al., 2012). This facilitator was included in student council activities, peer support, co-curricular lessons with youth work, and school climate surveys. Among the practices that support cognitive engagement, the CU facilitator and the instructional dialogue (ID) facilitator (the way the teacher guides the lesson and promotes students' understanding of the content) (Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012), were highlighted. CU involved repeating what was learned in class and creating a poster on the topic with students. ID included, for example, group projects and receiving school visitors.

Among the practices that support both behavioural and emotional engagement, the PC facilitator was also highlighted. These practices included fairness for all, anti-bullying programmes, highlighting students' strengths, cultural education, school trips, and grouping. Among the practices supporting both behavioural and cognitive engagement, the behavioural management (BM) facilitator was highlighted. This is how teachers support positive and expected behaviour and how they correct undesirable behaviour (Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012). Also important was the productivity (P) facilitator, which combines how the teacher has designed activities and instructions to maximize productivity and how students understand and respect the structures provided (Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012). Behavioural management included reinforcement and differentiation. Conversely, productivity was here considered to be linked to functional and experiential learning and creative writing. Among the practices supporting all three engagement styles, the P facilitator was the most prominent. In this section, productivity was combined with productive learning, group projects, workshops, and theme days.

The second research question focused on teachers' thoughts about providing emotional support to enhance students' school engagement. What

emerged from the interviews was the teachers' view that a positive climate could be defined as students feeling good about coming to school because of an accepting climate. In the words of teachers, this requires the whole school community to have a goal towards respectful behaviour. Similarly, Marks (2000) and Pianta, Hamre & Mintz (2012, p. 24) state that the definition of a positive climate includes respect in the school. The teachers considered genuine presence and active listening to be the cornerstones of building a positive climate. According to them, this was made possible primarily through one-on-one discussions. They also said they use humour and positive feedback to build a positive climate. The same issues emerge from the TTI model. Active listening, asking questions, using humour, and giving positive feedback are key ways in which teachers can build a positive school climate (Hamre, et al., 2013; Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012, p. 21). A positive climate also includes students feeling safe at school (Bradshaw et al., 2014; Marks, 2000). Teachers said that they built a sense of security in such a way that they immediately intervene if students exhibit bad behaviour, and emphasize compliance with the school's common rules.

The teachers felt that creating a positive school climate is challenged first by building trust, and then by weak social skills and self-regulation. The social challenges in question can also be related to school bullying. Bullying is a factor that challenges students' school engagement (Mehta et al., 2013), which also affects the sense of security (Bradshaw, et al., 2014). According to the teachers' descriptions, creating a positive school climate is also challenged by the challenges of the work community, which includes unfair treatment between adults and non-commitment to the rules. Although good interaction between teachers and students creates a positive school climate (Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012, p. 21), based on the results, it is also important that teachers pay equal attention to positive interaction between colleagues.

In their description of a sensitive teacher, the teachers emphasised that each child should be seen and treated as an individual. According to Pianta et al. (2012), a sensitive teacher considers individuality and takes into account the aca-

ademic, social, and emotional needs of the student. Providing individualised support requires the teacher to be aware of the student's interests and abilities (Hamre et al., 2013; Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012, p. 31). Providing individualised support also likely to increase students' sense of security, which was also reflected in teachers' responses. According to the teachers, security is a prerequisite for sensitive interaction.

Individual attention involves not only actively asking what is happening but also observing and paying attention to students' feelings, according to the teachers. They highlighted discussing feelings as an essential aspect of individual attention. The same issue is also raised in the TTI model. Indeed, a sensitive teacher senses students' moods and provides reassurance in the face of negative emotions (Hamre et al., 2013; Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012, p. 27). Teachers mentioned that when dealing with negative emotions, it is crucial to discuss with students how to overcome them, and fostering motivation is part of sensitive interaction. Likewise, Fan (2011) concluded that social factors, such as a warm and supportive relationship between teachers and students, influence students' motivation in school. Teachers described using varied and individualised teaching methods, allowing students to experience success, and providing positive feedback as ways to support students' school motivation as part of sensitive interactions.

Roorda et al. (2017) state that it is very important for teachers to be aware of how central a good teacher-student interaction relationship is. Teachers should also be aware of factors that challenge the sensitive teacher-student interaction relationship. By becoming aware of challenging factors, teachers can think of ways they can minimise or eliminate them. In this study, teachers reported many challenging factors in creating sensitive interactions, including students' learning difficulties, lack of support, weak motivation, challenging home conditions, parents' negative attitudes towards the school, and unrealistic expectations of the teacher. Conversely, situation-specific challenges were busyness, fatigue, and students' addictions to devices.

Teachers also described how they have regard for adolescent perspectives in their interactions. The same is stated in the TTI model. Adolescent perspectives are held in regard by providing opportunities for them to have their own say, which supports students' autonomy (Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012, p. 38). According to Hamre et al. (2013) and Pianta, Hamre & Mintz (2012, p. 35), flexibility is required for teachers to have regard for adolescent perspectives. In contrast, teachers reported that students' flexibility also develops when their perspectives are held in regard. Teachers also described that, in addition to flexibility, students' ability to tolerate uncertainty and conscientiousness increases when teachers value their perspectives.

Having regard for adolescent perspectives also involves acting on their interests and wishes (Hamre et al., 2013; Pianta, Hamre & Mintz, 2012, p. 35). Teachers also mentioned that they try to meet their students' wishes for school life as much as possible. As well as one-on-one discussions, teachers used other means to learn about students' aspirations. These included voting and student councils. Kalli et al. (2021) found that students have many suggestions regarding school. Pianta, Hamre & Mintz (2012, p. 35) claim that teachers can consider students' wishes in terms of teaching materials and teaching methods, for example.

As with sensitive interaction, the teachers found having regard for adolescent perspectives to be challenging in many ways, including the diversity of the students and their differences in interaction skills, such as lack of expression, shyness, lack of sense of responsibility, and insecurity about their own ideas. Teachers also described situation-specific challenges, which were the rush of daily life and the students' wishes that were not suitable for school. The teachers also mentioned background challenges, which were a negative climate and a negative attitude towards the realisation of the students' wishes. The negativity arises, among other reasons, from the fact that teachers feel they are not able to consider every issue within the framework of the school year due to the large number of issues. The challenges described above may lead to students not being heard enough. Similarly, in studies on children's perspectives, Kallinen et al. (2021) and Winter (2010) found that children feel they are not heard enough.

Despite the challenges, it is important for teachers to do their best to have regard for adolescent perspectives, as this way they can influence students' school engagement and, indirectly, their learning. Wang and Eccles (2013) state that having regard for adolescent perspectives promotes engagement in school, so that students are more likely to be interested in studying and find studying meaningful in terms of their lives. According to Kallinen et al. (2021), students themselves also wish that the important people in their lives, such as teachers, would listen to their views and wishes more.

7.2. Reliability of the research and further research

The most important requirement of scientific research is reliability, which can be assessed through validity (Metsämuuronen, 2009, p. 74). Validity refers to the ability of a research method to measure exactly what it is intended to measure (Hirsjärvi et al., 2009, p. 23; Metsämuuronen, 2009, p. 74). The aim of this study was to find out what methods European educators use to support students' school engagement. Educators were asked to describe their school practices in the form of a questionnaire. Teachers only were selected for the thematic interviews, to describe their provision of emotional support to enhance students' school engagement.

According to Hirsjärvi and Hurmi (1995, p. 129), the content validity of the data is not good if the researcher does not formulate the questions in the thematic areas: The questions should achieve the desired meanings. Our questionnaire included many different questions, which may have contributed to the quality of the responses. Conversely, the interview questions were carefully thought through, drawing on the background theory of our study (TTI). The interview framework we created was also pre-tested. No changes were made to the interview framework based on the pre-testing. The reliability of the results related to the first research question may be affected by the fact that the answers were translated by a person who spoke the language of the interviewee as their

native language. The reliability of the research may also be affected by the accuracy of the interview transcription (Hirsjärvi & Hurme, 1995, p. 130). The interview material was listened to carefully and transcribed word for word, considering the preservation of anonymity at this stage of data compilation.

Eskola and Suoranta (2008, pp. 210–211) and Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2014, p. 189) state that when data are analysed qualitatively, the most far-reaching aspects of the traditional definition of reliability concern the quality of the data. In qualitative research, reliability has more to do with the practices of the researcher than with the responses of the subjects. However, it is notable that the answers from some were clearly longer and more detailed than those of others. Reliability is fundamentally affected by how accurately and reliably the researcher analyses the research data; what matters for reliability is whether the whole data is used to answer the research questions (Hirsjärvi & Hurme, 2014, p. 60). The data in this study was reviewed by two researchers. This increases confidence that all relevant research material has been used. The analysis was also conducted in collaboration with the people involved in the ALL-IN ED project, whose feedback has informed the development of our analysis. This investigator triangulation can be seen to improve the analysis (Cohen et al., 2011, ch. 10; Eskola & Suoranta, 2008). Therefore, the analysis was conducted several times to ensure the analysis is as accurate as possible. We conducted independent analyses that fitted the theories we used.

The reliability of research results is also affected by the reality of the results (Metsämuuronen, 2009, p. 74). In qualitative studies, there is always a risk that respondents give answers that deviate from reality and are generally socially acceptable, which may negatively affect the reliability of the results (Hirsjärvi & Hurme, 2014, pp. 35, 189). When assessing the reliability of the results, it is important to realise that the interviewees in this study came from different cultural backgrounds. Curricular and country-specific differences are likely to influence the school practices of students' school engagement provided by educators. This aspect could be considered in future studies. In addition to cultural differences, the respondents came from different educational and professional backgrounds,

which may also have contributed to the results of the study. Namely more than half of participants were special education teachers. Thus, one could surmise that they have particular knowledge about how to support students' attendance at school, which includes the topic of our research: supporting students' school engagement.

It is also essential to note that educators' own perceptions of the means of school engagement they used do not necessarily reflect how good their school practice is in the wider context. Therefore, the results of this study on students' school engagement may not reflect the actual situation. Conversely, reliability is enhanced by the presentation of the rationale for the classification and the conclusions drawn from the results (Hirsjärvi et al., 2013, p. 232). Finn's (1989) model of involvement (PI) combined with Hamre et al.'s (2013) model of interactive support (TTI) serves to support the analysis of the data in this study, as well as supporting the conclusions.

This study aims to raise thoughts about how educators and teachers can support their students' engagement in school and offers concrete practices for this. During the ALL-IN ED project, a website tool listing practices was also created, where the classification we made is also used. This study focused particularly on emotional support. A potential topic of research could be to further explore teachers' perceptions of behavioural and cognitive support. In addition, how teachers evaluate their own school practices in relation to students' school engagement could be explored. Further research on students' school engagement is needed, as this study itself suggests that students' school engagement is a strong pillar of both learning and well-being.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix 1

Questionnaire questions

ALL-IN ED engaging practices

The present questionnaire is intended for Teachers and Educators, from any subject or area, and aims to collect information about "Engaging Practices", as part of the All-in Ed Erasmus+ Project. If you give permission for your name or school contact details to be published, your student engagement practices may be published on the project website all-in-ed.com. Educational Sciences students from University of Jyväskylä (Finland) will conduct research on the project, including a thesis, the results of which will be available to all teachers and educators. The material may also be used for scientific articles and presentations.

It takes about 10 minutes to complete the survey. If you have more than one practice, you can fill in multiple forms.

Your answer is valuable and we appreciate your participation. Thank you for your time and cooperation!

If you have any questions about the project or the research, please feel free to send us a message: allinedsocial@gmail.com

All-in Ed's transnational team

* Indicates required question

1. My answers may be used in research (Your name will not be published. You can * read the [Research Notification and Privacy Notice](#))

Mark only one oval.

Yes

No

2. I have read and accept the [Project's Privacy Policy](#) and I consent that All-in ED * project uses my data as specified in it.

Mark only one oval.

I agree

3. You can publish my engaging school practices anonymously on the project's website <https://www.all-in-ed.com/> *

Mark only one oval.

Yes

No

4. My engaging school practices can be published with my school's contact information *

Mark only one oval.

Yes

No

5. You can contact me for a possible interview. (The interview is used as part of the research material. Your name will not be published) *

Mark only one oval.

Yes

No

CONTACT INFORMATION

6. First name *

7. Surname *

8. Email

9. Country *

10. Name of your educational institution *

IDENTIFYING ENGAGING PRACTICES

Share here engaging practices that, in your professional experience, foster your students' SCHOOL ENGAGEMENT.

By school engagement we mean students' observable participation in school activities, sense of belonging to classmates and teachers, and valuing success in school-related goals.

PLEASE USE ONE FORM, FOR EACH PRACTICE THAT YOU WANT TO SHARE.

11. Name the practice that fosters students' school engagement. *

12. Implemented by... *

Mark only one oval.

Teachers

Other education professionals

University students

Parents

Other: _____

13. Age group *

Tick all that apply.

- <3
- 3-5
- 6-8
- 9-11
- 12-14
- 15-16
- >16

14. Target *

Tick all that apply.

- Single student-centred
- Group-centred
- Class-centred
- Whole school approach
- Local approach
- National approach
- International approach
- Other: _____

15. Subjects involved *

Tick all that apply.

- Languages
- Maths
- Science and Technology
- Social Science
- Arts
- Physical Education
- Social competences
- Digital skills
- Cross-curricular
- Other: _____

16. Does your practice include ICT? *

Mark only one oval.

Yes

No

17. Describe the practice that fosters students' school engagement *

18. Do you want to share any link of your practice? (Please, add it here)

ALL-IN?

19. Can any student access this practice if it is applied? *

Mark only one oval.

Yes

No

20. (If not) Why?

21. Can you assure a meaningful participation for every student? *

Mark only one oval.

Yes

No

22. (If yes) How?

23. (If not) Why?

24. Do you get support to implement this practice? *

Mark only one oval.

Yes

No

25. (If yes) What kind of support? From whom?

26. (If not) Why?

For the next questions use a scale from 1 to 5

1 not really

2 only a little

3 to some extent

4 rather much

5 a lot

27. Does the practice promote students' observable participation in school-related activities? *

Mark only one oval.

Not really

1

2

3

4

5

A lot

28. How? *

29. Does the practice promote students' sense of belonging to classmates, teachers and school? *

Mark only one oval.

Not really

1

2

3

4

5

A lot

30. How? *

31. Does the practice promote students giving value to success in school-related goals? *

Mark only one oval.

Not really

1

2

3

4

5

A lot

32. How? *

THANK YOU VERY MUCH! :)

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Google Forms

Appendix 2

Interview questions

Research question: What are teachers' perceptions of supporting school engagement emotionally at school and how they promote (= school practice) this.

Before interview	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purpose of Erasmus+ ALL-IN ED project: <i>The Erasmus ALL-IN ED project is collecting information from teachers on good school practices that engage students in school.</i> • Research notification • Privacy notice
At the start of the interview	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research authorization • Definition of school engagement: <i>School engagement is a complex phenomenon, which can be thought of in terms of three types of engagement. Behavioural engagement includes participation in school activities. Emotional engagement includes both positive and negative reactions to school. Cognitive engagement includes the desire to learn and to put effort into challenging subjects (Finn, 1989; Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004, 60).</i> • Structure of the interview
Background questions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What is your educational background? (for example classroom teacher, special education teacher, subject teacher) 2. How long have you worked as a teacher? 3. How old students have you worked with during your career?
School climate	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What do you perceive as a positive school climate? 2. What do you do as a teacher or educator to promote a positive school climate? 3. What do you think is the best way to improve the school climate? And why? 4. Do you see any factors that challenge the promotion of a positive school climate? If yes, what are they? And why?
Teacher-student relationship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Definition of sensitive: <i>The sensitive teacher pays individual attention to the child. He knows the students and is aware of the student's interests and ability levels and can relate these to the support the student needs. The sensitive teacher also senses the student's mood swings. (Hamre & Pianta, 2005, 957). Thus, the teacher's sensitivity is reflected in his/her interactions.</i> 1. What do you think is the importance of sensitive interactions between teacher and students? 2. How do you seek to influence this interaction? 3. What do you think is the best way to create a sensitive interaction with students? And why? 4. Do you see any factors that challenge the creation of a sensitive interaction? If yes, what are they? And why?

<p>Regard for Adolescent perspectives</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What do you think is the importance of valuing students' own perspectives? 2. What are the ways in which young people's own perspectives are valued at school? 3. What are the means of making this visible? What have you done in concrete terms? 4. What do you think is important in valuing student' own perspectives? 5. Do you see any factors that challenge students' ability to express their perspectives at school? If yes, what are they? And why?
<p>At the end & feedback</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Would you like to add something? • Do you have any feedback on this interview?