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Crisis Intervention Model Effectiveness in South Dakota City and Rural Schools

Nicole Ann Bechen

CRISIS INTERVENTION MODEL EFFECTIVENESS IN SOUTH DAKOTA CITY AND RURAL SCHOOLS

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Nicole Bechen

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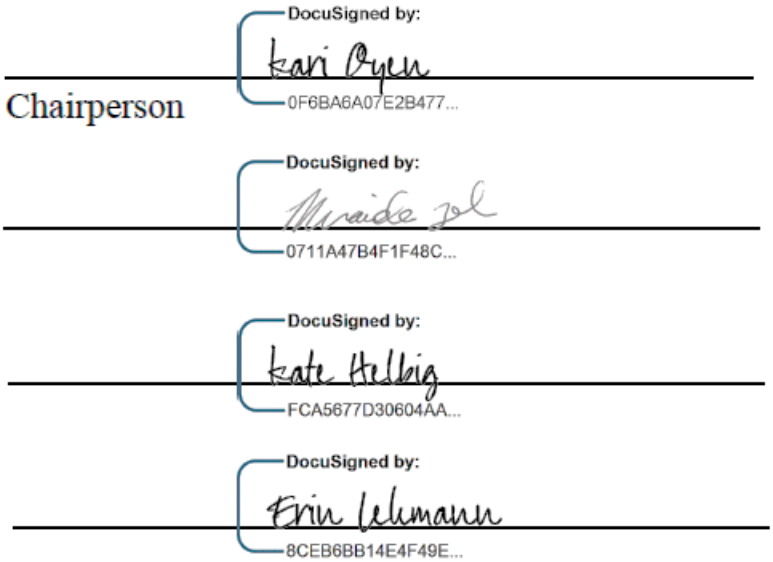

Abstract

Little information is known on crisis prevention and intervention plans in schools across South Dakota. A review of the existent literature revealed gaps within school-based crisis intervention models, their objectives, and their effectiveness in addressing the psychological and physical safety needs of students, staff, teachers, families, and community members. Gaps in understanding rural crisis response were noted. The purpose of this study was to assess whether crisis prevention and intervention plans in South Dakota schools adequately protected students, staff, families, and community members. To achieve this, a stratified random sample of 53 PreK-12 public schools in the state of South Dakota representing both rural and city schools were invited to share their school's crisis plans. Crisis intervention plans from each selected school were evaluated using a checklist from the first edition of the PREPaRE training manual, which reflects key elements needed for effective crisis prevention and response. The analysis identified common elements included in South Dakota school plans and highlighted key missing elements in rural and urban schools. Implications and discussions for further research were explored.

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Dedication

For Maddy, Travis, and my mom, this project would have been impossible without your never-ending support, encouragement, and love. Thank you for believing in me before I believed in myself.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Introduction

Schools in the United States encourage student growth in a multitude of areas, including, but not limited to, social, emotional, developmental, behavioral, and academic domains. Many schools adopted programs and schoolwide frameworks promoting student success in these areas to achieve this goal. Using an evidence-based framework or model helps school teams organize, build, and promote appropriate schoolwide initiatives that emphasize goals related to student outcomes (Scheerens & Ehren, 2016; Sugai & Horner, 2006). Well-documented research found that schools that promoted a positive, inclusive, and safe environment had higher or better academic (e.g., Ruiz et al., 2018), emotional (e.g., Arslan, 2018), behavioral (e.g., Sautner, 2008) and social (e.g., Wang & Hofkens, 2020) outcomes among their students. When developing action plans for desired outcomes, school teams often explore existing models with research supporting their effectiveness that can be utilized (Luo, 2008). Decision-makers on school teams should have access to information regarding established models that incorporate these components (Newton et al., 2009). This knowledge aids in determining the optimal allocation of school resources based on the unique needs of each student (Odden & Archibald, 2001). When devising action plans aimed at achieving specific outcomes, school teams ought to consider pre-existing models that may apply to their situation. By doing so, teams could leverage existing frameworks, methodologies, and best practices to inform their approach (Spencer et al., 2012). This approach saves time, resources, and effort that may be expended in developing a new model from scratch. Therefore, it is recommended that school teams explore and evaluate relevant models before embarking on the development of an action plan (Spencer et al., 2012). Information pertaining to identifying existing models that incorporated these components was

essential for important persons making educational decisions on school teams and who had to consider the best allocation of school resources based on individual student needs.

Multi-tiered System of Support (MTSS)

Multi-tiered system of support (MTSS) is a district and/or schoolwide educational service delivery model that provides behavioral and academic support to all students in a school. MTSS also includes meeting individual student needs and skill levels through data-driven decision-making regarding the intensity and duration of the evidence-based intervention (Radley & Dart, 2019; Utley & Obiakor, 2015). An MTSS framework is composed of a three-tiered model that provides universal (Tier 1), secondary (Tier 2), and tertiary (Tier 3) supports designed to match individual student needs (Averill et al., 2011; Institute of Medicine, 2009; McIntosh & Goodman, 2016). Universal prevention (Tier 1) encompasses all students within a school and is designed to promote academic success and positive prosocial behavior of all students (Basham et al., 2010; Rodriguez et al., 2016). Tier 1 also supports identifying early signs of behavioral and academic risk in students through universal screening measures (Barrett & Newman, 2018; Lane et al., 2014). Implementing high-quality universal supports and interventions while using high-quality assessment tools to determine what services were needed and the necessary intensity required to achieve student goals decreased the likelihood that more severe behaviors develop (Lane et al., 2013). Tier 2 supports include providing at-risk students with scientific, evidence-based interventions (Fien et al., 2021; Lembke, 2012). Tier 2 interventions include specialized group interventions for students such as social skills programs, group contingency reward systems, small group academic supports, check-in/check-out, activity schedules, and First Step to Success, among many others (Anderson & Borgeier, 2010; Mallory et al., 2021). These interventions provide cost-effective, efficient support to students who were not responding to

Tier 1 interventions and are typically conducted with multiple students simultaneously (Bruhn & McDaniel, 2021; Rodriguez et al., 2016). Considering the usefulness of Tier 2 interventions in schools is crucial since Tier 3 support requires intensive time and resources (Clark & Gilmore, 2010; Losinski et al., 2021). Tier 2 support is practical for student needs when further rigorous individualized intervention is not required (Losinski et al., 2021). Tier 3 supports are intensive individualized interventions to address a student's behavioral or academic skills gap (Berry Kuchle et al., 2015; Morten., 2020). This instruction occurs outside the classroom and is typically implemented by someone with specialized training, such as a special education teacher (Nitz et al., 2023; Solari et al., 2017). Tier 3 interventions are typically prioritized by specialized staff since the students who require these interventions need the most support and resources (Barnett et al., 2006; Barrett & Newman, 2018).

MTSS was discussed initially in an article focused on reconceptualizing prevention methods used in schools to address antisocial behavioral problems among students (Walker et al., 1996). This author highlighted a three-level intervention approach that grouped students based on their present level of need. This conceptual model for school-based prevention was discussed, and the authors stated that three types of students were identified in schools. The types of students the authors identified included students not at risk, students with elevated risk for developing antisocial behavioral problems, and students with persistent antisocial behavioral patterns and involvement in delinquent acts (Larson, 1994; Moffitt, 1994; Walker, 1994; Walker et al., 1996). While this model focused on antisocial behavior, the article discussed students along a continuum that, at one end, predicted typical, not-at-risk social behaviors and, at the other end, predicted adverse developmental outcomes, including criminality and delinquency (Hawkins, 1996; Walker, 1994). The three levels of the original model developed included

Primary Prevention (Universal Intervention), Secondary Prevention (Individualized Intervention), and Tertiary Prevention (Comprehensive Intervention) (Larson, 1994; Walker et al., 1996). Primary Prevention Strategies focused on enhancing protective factors for all students schoolwide to prevent students from becoming at risk and included interventions such as emotional literacy, explicit teaching of schoolwide rules and expectations, teaching conflict resolution, and universal schoolwide anger-management procedures (Colvin et al.,1993; Nitz et al., 2023; Reid, 1993; Walker et al., 1996). Secondary Prevention Strategies provided academic and behavioral interventions, including necessary skill development for task completion, peer mentioning, academic support, behavioral contracting, remedial reading programs, small-group social skill lessons, and specialized tutoring (Coie, 1994; Reid. 1993; Walker et al., 1996). Tertiary Prevention Strategies focused on students who displayed a persistent pattern of delinquent behavior that involved social destructiveness and violence. Interventions that addressed these concerns were individualized and involve the youth, parents, teachers, peers, and community members (if applicable) (Mayer, 1995; Moffitt, 1994). This included individualized wraparound interventions, counseling, and alternative placement (Nitz et al., 2023; Sugai & Horner, 1994; Walker et al., 1996). The model created in the 1990s had been adapted beyond the scope of antisocial delinquent behavior and was slightly different from the MTSS framework we see today. The current model differs from the original since the original model was designed to target only students at risk for antisocial behavior or those with chronic or life-course-persistent antisocial behavioral issues. The current model's aim is much broader, seeking to offer academic and behavioral assistance to all students in a school, irrespective of their initial concerns. MTSS is a model that is often discussed interchangeably with two other models in the literature: Response to Intervention (RTI) and Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS).

Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS)

The MTSS framework was further modified into Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS) and Response to Intervention (RTI). Within this area of literature, some articles used PBIS and RTI synonymously, while other articles differentiated them as separate constructs (Harlacher et al., 2014; Leonard et al., 2019). For this paper, PBIS is the behavior application of MTSS, while RTI is the academic application of MTSS. Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS) is a component of MTSS and is a prevention-oriented, collaborative problem-solving approach for teaching appropriate social skills in schools to students with various needs (Horner & Sugai, 2015; Radley & Dart, 2019). PBIS is a framework that focuses on the explicit teaching of behavioral and social expectations to students using evidence-based practices, consistent rewarding/praise of positive behavior, established consequences for problem behaviors, and making data-based decisions to evaluate program effectiveness for each student at different tiers of intervention based on their needs to achieve academically and behaviorally important outcome for all students (Horner et al., 2004; Sugai et al., 2000; Warren et al., 2006). PBIS is a prevention strategy that aims to modify the school environment by improving current procedures and systems (Bradshaw et al., 2008; Bradshaw, 2013). Systems and procedures in schools PBIS include data management, discipline, school expectations, office referral records, student expectations, and staff training (Bradshaw et al., 2008; Kennedy et al., 2009). The PBIS framework aims to prevent disruptive student behavior by devising primary (schoolwide), secondary (small group), and tertiary (individual) support levels (Bradshaw et al., 2008). Effective PBIS classroom management interventions include clearly and positively stated classroom rules and expectations, engaged and effective student instruction, consistently reinforcing appropriate student behavior, and appropriately responding to behavior violations

(Bradshaw et al., 2010; Reinke et al., 2013). Classroom rules and expectations should be developmentally appropriate for students, systematically taught in a positively stated manner, and established with three to five rules (Feinberg & VanLone, 2019). These rules should reflect schoolwide expectations to increase generalization across environments regarding appropriate behavior in various school environments (Feinberg & VanLone, 2019; Reinke et al., 2013).

In its original conception, PBIS was used to improve the effectiveness of behavioral intervention for students with behavioral disorders (Sugai & Simonsen, 2012). A grant was established during the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Act of 1997 to establish a national center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (Sugai & Simonsen, 2012). The national center was established to administer and disseminate technical information related to improving existing support for students with behavioral disorders. The National Technical Assistance (T.A.) Center on PBIS was developed and assisted in developing the schoolwide positive behavioral support framework and provided technical assistance and/or professional development to schools in the U.S. (Sugai & Simonsen, 2012). The center included resources related to the three best practices and systems (Implementation, Professional Development, and Evaluation), national leadership conferences, online-based evidence-based behavior practices, and systems, which included publications and presentations, and school/district/state implementation demonstrations (Sugai & Simonsen, 2012). PBIS was modified from being applied to only students with behavioral disorders to a schoolwide model that promoted positive behavioral outcomes for all students.

Response to Intervention (RTI)

Response to Intervention (RTI) is the practice of providing high-quality instruction to students, providing interventions matched to student needs, using their level of performance, and

utilizing learning rates over time to make educational decisions (Batsche et al., 2005; Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2011). The three main components of RTI are 1) High-quality instruction/intervention, 2) Learning rate and level of performance, and 3) Important educational decisions (Batsche et al., 2005; Kashima et al., 2009). High-quality instruction and intervention are defined as evidence-based instruction/intervention matched to student's needs and practice to produce higher learning rates (Kurns & Tilly, 2008). Learning rate and level of performance are the primary sources of data used to make ongoing educational decisions for students. The learning rate defined by RTI is students' growth in behavioral or academic competencies over time compared to previous levels of functioning (Kurns & Tilly, 2008). Level of performance is defined as a student's relative standing (achievement/performance) compared to expected performance (criterion/norm-referenced) (Kurns & Tilly, 2008). Critical educational decisions refer to the duration and intensity of interventions implemented based on individual responses to instruction across tiers (Batsche et al., 2005; Kurns & Tilly, 2008). It is vital for educators using RTI to consider the core principles when developing policies, rules, or regulations (Kashima et al., 2009).

To fully comprehend the core components of Response to Intervention (RTI), it is essential to understand the historical background that led to its inception. Originally, RTI was created as an identification model for Specific Learning Disability (SLD). It drew from various research areas, including behavioral consultation and data-based program modification (Bergan, 1977; Deno & Mirkin, 1977). The term SLD was initially used to refer to students who had specific academic difficulties but did not have intellectual disabilities (Kirk, 1962). However, the definition of SLD underwent significant changes during the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act in 2004. The new definition included a disorder in one or more of

the psychological processes involved in understanding or using language, such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, spelling, or mathematical calculations (USOE, 1977, p. 65083). The US Office of Education (USOE) also established regulations for identifying SLD, which included the ability/achievement discrepancy model. However, this model was met with controversy regarding its accuracy, over-identification, and reliability (Preston et al., 2016). These challenges led to the development of RTI as a more reliable method for identifying students who require additional support (Buffum et al., 2010). Under RTI, students were monitored through three tiers, with those who did not show meaningful academic gains being referred to a higher tier for further intervention and support (Harlacher et al., 2014). School teams needed an in-depth understanding of the core principles surrounding RTI to effectively guide implementing the practice in classrooms (Batsche et al., 2005; O'Connor & Freeman, 2012). The core principles of RTI are comprised of a variety of assumptions designed to permeate all aspects of a student's life in a school. The first two assumptions include that we can effectively teach all children and intervene early. The subsequent assumptions are to use a multi-tier model of service delivery and then use a problem-solving model to make decisions within a multi-tier model. The final assumptions include the use of research-based, scientifically validated intervention/instruction to the extent available, monitoring student progress to inform instruction, using data to make decisions, and using assessment for three different purposes (Batsche et al., 2005; Fuchs & Fuchs, 2006).

One of the many core principles in RTI titled, we can effectively teach all children, was the assumption and belief that all children could learn and that it was the responsibility of educators to identify the environmental, curricular, and instructional conditions that enabled students' ability to learn (Batsche et al., 2005; Basham et al., 2010). An additional core principle

in RTI asks educators to intervene early and address relatively small learning and behavior problems. There is strong empirical support for the effectiveness of addressing problem behaviors in K-3 through continuous progress monitoring (Batsche et al., 2005; Sameroff & Fiese, 1990). Another core principle in RTI titled Uses a multi-tier service delivery model includes differentiated (in both nature and intensity) needs-based intervention and efficient resource deployment systems designed to match instructional intervention with individual student needs (Batsche et al., 2005; Greenwood et al., 2008). The next core principle in RTI uses a problem-solving method to make decisions within a multi-tier model, addressed research-based effective methods to determine individual student needs to be used to develop and evaluate interventions appropriately (Burns et al., 2015). When used within the RTI model, the problem-solving method includes four related questions: (1) Is there an identifiable problem, and what was it? (2) Why was this problem happening? (3) What available resources are there to solve the problem? (4) Was the intervention effective in addressing the problem? (Batsche et al., 2005). This problem-solving framework effectively addresses individual student concerns, small groups of students, and all the students within a system (Albritton & Truscott, 2014; Burns & Gibbons, 2008). An additional core principle in RTI is the use of research-based, scientifically validated interventions and instruction to the extent available (Batsche et al., 2005). This principle addresses the requirement that students must be exposed to teachings and curricula that have demonstrated effectiveness for the environment and type of student (Batsche et al., 2005; Grable, 2019). According to this principle, the best opportunity educators have to implement strategies that were effective for most of the students within a school was through only research-based, scientifically validated interventions/instruction (Batsche et al., 2005; Schwierjohn, 2011). The core principle in RTI is monitoring student progress to inform instruction, and requiring

frequently administered assessments sensitive to small changes in student performance. This allows team members to determine if the intervention was effective (or not) and if changes needed to occur to maximize the impact of the intervention (Batsche et al., 2005; Stecker et al., 2008). Another core principle of RTI is using data to make decisions and looking at how students respond to intervention, including requiring consistent and ongoing data collection so that all decisions regarding instructional decisions were data-informed (Ball & Christ, 2012; Batsche et al., 2005, Basham et al., 2010). The final core principle in RTI is using assessment for three different purposes, including (1) universal screening of all students within a school to identify those who were not making behavioral or academic progress at the same rate as same-aged peers, (2) diagnostics determining student capabilities in specific behavioral and academic areas, and (3) consistent progress monitoring to determine whether the intervention implemented was effectively increasing progress in identified areas of concern (Batsche et al., 2005; Wixson & Valencia, 2011).

Across the United States, schools use frameworks like MTSS, PBIS, and RTI that promote student growth (Pettit, 2023). However, the implementation of these programs varied greatly depending on factors such as school size, demographics, and available resources (Makowski, 2016). Understanding these differences was crucial for those seeking to implement these frameworks, as it allowed them to tailor their approach to the unique needs of their school (Goodman & Bohanon, 2018). It was also vital to consider the impact of high-quality implementation fidelity on the effectiveness of programs like PBIS and other programs that should be in place within schools, such as crisis interventions and prevention programs (Flaspohler, 2012).

Consideration of Unique Influences in Schools

Educational institutions in the United States are responsible for imparting knowledge and identifying and addressing the needs of vulnerable students. To accomplish this objective, schools adopted efficacious models, such as Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) and Response to Intervention (RTI), to provide inclusive interventions for individual students, parents, teachers, and peers. It was essential to acknowledge that every school in the country was distinct and had particular circumstances that influenced its policies. Variables such as demographics, poverty levels, school locations, and cultural values played a significant role in implementing and managing interventions. Therefore, it was essential to consider these variables when defining a school's specific needs. With over 90,000 public schools operating across the United States, it was reasonable to expect significant variations in their characteristics (NCES, 2020).

Demographic Information To begin to highlight the variety of characteristics and differences we see in schools across the US, one area that can be looked at is the demographics of the students within schools. Demographics of students served varied substantially among schools in the U.S. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2022), approximately 49.5 million children enrolled in Fall 2021 in public schools in prekindergarten through grade 12. Among those students enrolled, the demographics included 22.4 million White students, 14.1 million Hispanic students, 7.4 million Black students, 2.7 million Asian students, 2.3 students of two or more races, 0.5 million American Indian/Alaska Native students, and 0.2 million Pacific Islander students (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD, 2022). Another area that illustrates the vast differences we see in schools across the US is the poverty-level experiences of students and families. One

method of classifying poverty was examining student eligibility for free or reduced-price lunches (FRPL).

Poverty The NSLP has categories for FRPL that include low-poverty schools (25.0% or less of students were eligible for FRPL), mid-low-poverty schools (25.1 to 50.0% of students were eligible for FRPL), mid-high-poverty schools (50.1 to 75.0% of students were eligible for FRPL), and high-poverty schools (75.1% or more of students were eligible for FRPL). The number of students who attended high-poverty schools in Fall 2019 was 12.3 million (CCD, 2022). The consideration of the particular locations of schools, such as suburban, town, city, township, and rural, was an essential variable in implementing various models aimed at addressing students' academic, behavioral, and social needs such as the ones mentioned earlier like MTSS, PBIS, and RTI (Irvin et al., 2012).

Location Understanding these contextual differences was vital to developing a practical approach to improving student outcomes. Incorporating location-specific considerations into education models provided a better understanding of students' unique challenges and opportunities, enabling educators to provide tailored support to meet their needs (Showalter et al., 2023). The National Center for Education Statistics had categories to define location codes which included City (Territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with population of 250,000 or more down to a population less than 100,000), Suburb (Territory outside a principal city and inside an urbanized area with population of 250,000 or more down to population less than 100,000), Town (Territory inside an urban cluster that is less than or equal to 10 miles from an urbanized area, more than 10 miles and less than or equal to 35 miles from an urbanized area, and more than 35 miles from an urbanized area), and Rural (Census-defined rural territory that is less than or equal to 5 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural

territory that is less than or equal to 2.5 miles from an urban cluster, more than 5 miles but less than or equal to 25 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural territory that is more than 2.5 miles but less than or equal to 10 miles from an urban cluster, and more than 25 miles from an urbanized area and is more than 10 miles from an urban cluster). In the 2015-2016 school year, a total of 49.3 million students attended public school; 30.2% of students were in a City school, 39.7% of students were in a Suburban school, 11.3% of students were in a Town school, and 18.7% were in a Rural School (CCD, 2015). The number of students attending rural schools increased from 2015 to 2023 from 18.7% to 29.3% (Showalter et al., 2023).

Considering the differences discussed above, it is essential to contemplate how poverty level, student race/ethnicity, and school location may be interrelated. According to the NCES (2022), in 2019, compared to the national average, there were higher percentages of Black students (45%), Hispanic students (43%), American Indian/Alaskan Native students (37%), and Pacific Islander students (25%) who attended mid-high and high-poverty schools in comparison to students of two or more races (17%), Asian students (14%), and White students (8%). The same study also found a pattern when the percentage of students attending low-poverty schools was nearly the opposite. In low-poverty schools, the percentage of students attending was highest for Asian students (40%), White students (30%), students of two or more races (24%), Pacific Islander students (12%), American Indian/Alaska Native students (8%), Hispanic students (8%), and Black students (7%) (NCES, 2022). In 2019, 40% of students in city schools were also in high-poverty schools. This percentage was higher in that location than for students in town schools (20%), suburban schools (18%), and rural schools (15%) (NCES, 2022). When looking at student demographic information, there was a higher percentage of American Indian/Alaska

Native students attending high-poverty schools in rural areas (46%) than in cities (37%) or other areas (NCES, 2022).

Cultural Differences Cultural differences are influential in a school's climate, values, and available resources (Anderson, 1982; Wang & Degol, 2016). In addition to the demographic differences discussed, culture was also influenced by the specific region within the U.S. An example included cultural norms related to living on the East Coast, West Coast, the South, or the Midwest. Cultural differences between students and the teachers and staff they see around them could create severe problems with delivering effective teaching and learning methods to students (Gay, 2013; Villegas, 1988). Differences such as ethnicity, social background, socio-economic status, cultural background, available resources, and family type may exist within a school building, making it challenging to build meaningful relationships with students (Abdullah, 2009; Gay, 2013). One way to address these concerns is through culturally responsive teaching, which uses cultural characteristics, perspectives, and experiences of ethnically diverse students as channels for teaching those students more effectively (Bottiani et al., 2018; Khalifa et al., 2016). Culturally responsive teachings assume that when academic skills, knowledge, and information were presented to students within the actual lived experiences of youths, they were more personally meaningful, were learned more efficiently and thoroughly, and had a higher appeal to students (Gay, 2002; Martin, 1997). This supportive teaching strategy supported classroom instructions based on a student's cultural background and personal experiences and also addressed social attitudes and norms related to diversity, respect, and social inequity (Farinde-Wu et al., 2017; Smith-Maddox, 1998). Culturally responsive instruction rejected ideas that dominated narratives that neglected or overlooked diverse perspectives and linked students' cultural backgrounds to academic instruction. It promoted cultural awareness and acceptance for

students from linguistic and culturally diverse backgrounds (Farinde-Wu et al., 2017). Culturally responsive educators were caring and empathetic. They reflected on attitudes and beliefs related to other cultures, reflected on their cultural frames of reference, and attempted to educate themselves and become knowledgeable about other cultures (Bottiani et al., 2018; Rychly & Graves, 2012). This teaching strategy contributed to the quality of relationships among and support teachers, staff, and students.

Culture is an essential factor to consider when discussing crisis intervention (Roysircar et al., 2013). It has been documented extensively within the literature that neglecting to consider personal biases and cultural factors could adversely affect the outcome of crisis interventions. It is essential to acknowledge and understand the influence of cultural norms and personal biases on the intervention process to ensure that it is effective and culturally appropriate (Morganstein & Ursano, 2020; Pumariega & Rothe, 2003). Cultural competence training is crucial to understanding cultural factors that impact crisis interventions (Johnson et al., 2020). Recognizing the impact of stereotypes and biases that influence our perception of different cultures is also essential. Therefore, it was necessary to approach crisis interventions with an open mind and a willingness to learn about and embrace cultural diversity (Furman & Collins, 2005). While culture is incredibly influential, a complete discussion about its influence was beyond the scope of this paper. The differences discussed were not an all-inclusive list but did provide a broad overview highlighting the variations in schools across the U.S.

Factors Affecting Implementation of School-Wide Frameworks

The differences and inconsistencies discussed earlier in schools impacted the effectiveness, teacher acceptance, duration, and level of implementation of frameworks designed to improve student outcomes. This may be due to varying viewpoints, insufficient information,

resources, training, or a shortage of school staff. To address these concerns, schools could foster a positive environment by improving the school climate (Voight & Nation, 2016). These included (a) social attitudes and norms related to diversity, respect, and social inequity, (b) quality of relationships among and support of teachers, staff, and students, and (c) school safety (Domitrovich et al., 2017; Kutsyuruba et al., 2015).

To promote a positive environment, educators considered what factors affected student success. Success for students within the school environment depends on several factors, many of which educators have no control over. Some of these factors included poverty, family involvement, abuse, social skills outside the school setting, neglect, drug and alcohol use of the primary caregiver, adverse childhood experiences, family dysfunction, weak/incompetent parenting, and many others (Sokol et al., 2021; Walker et al., 1996). Another factor that was a significant indicator of student success in school was family and community involvement (Sokol et al., 2021). Family involvement was a co-constructed shared responsibility between schools, families, and communities working together to participate and actively build mutually respectful relationships (Weiss et al., 2009). Shared responsibility evoked effective and meaningful involvement between all entities, understanding that a school/school district's outreach, interactions, expectations, and partnerships affected families (Chrispeels, 1996; Weiss et al., 2009). Community involvement in schools was considered the connections between individuals, families, schools, businesses, institutions, and formal/informal organizations within a community (Sanders, 2003; Stefanski et al., 2016). Community involvement was essential for students, and community activities were designed to engage, energize, guide, and motivate students within a community to produce success (Epstein, 1995). Community involvement in schools allowed for effective school functioning, encouraged student well-being, increased economic

competitiveness, and contributed to community health and development (Maier et al., 2017; Sanders, 2003).

Family and community involvement in a student's life helps students earn higher grades, increase overall attendance, and increase motivation toward goals (NCSSLE, 2022). Educators equip themselves to foster student success, irrespective of their backgrounds, through adept classroom management, developmentally appropriate instructional approaches, and emotionally supportive teaching strategies. (Domitrovich et al., 2017; Marzano & Marzano, 2003). The individuals employed at schools often were involved in the lives of the students and families they served. This involvement was designed to help families and community members needing additional resources or support.

In many areas, schools provided resources to families and the community that would otherwise be absent. This was especially true for low-income families who had a more difficult time obtaining the resources they needed for various reasons, including services being offered at inaccessible times and locations, navigating lengthy application processes (especially for immigrant families who do not speak fluent English), no knowledge of available resources in the area, and service providers unfamiliar with cultural norms of clients (Dupper & Poertner, 1997). Resources that the school or community offered families included mental health, medical assistance, job development, education, recreation, housing, financial assistance, and child development/care (Dupper & Poertner, 1997). These resources were often necessary to ensure home, school, and community safety. Providing families in need with the necessary support requires a school to consider the safety needs of its students, their families, staff, and community members.

School Safety

Ensuring school safety was a crucial concern that needed further exploration to decrease potentially harmful student outcomes (Osher et al., 2008). According to the National Center for Safe Supportive Learning Environments, school safety involves creating a safe student environment by preventing substance use, bullying, harassment, theft, violence, and other unforeseen emergencies (NCSSLE, 2023). Similarly, the Office of Safe and Drug-Free Schools defined school safety as a safe school environment that prevents substance use, harassment, violence, and bullying based on a thorough assessment of relevant research (2011, pg. 19983). The primary objective of school safety is to provide all students with equal opportunities to grow academically, socially, and physically (Cornell et al., 2020; Morrison et al., 1994). It was essential to view school safety from a comprehensive perspective and not just as a measure to curb school violence (May 2018). Students were crucial in ensuring school safety since they were often the first to notice any concerning behavior among their peers (Espelage et al., 2022). School safety is comprised of two mechanisms: individual and group security.

The two core components of school safety were physical and psychological safety. Physical safety measures commonly included surveillance cameras, perimeter fencing, locked classroom doors, controlled building access, hall monitors, random drug/contraband sweeps, student ID cards, metal detectors, and security guards (Lamoreaux & Sulkowski, 2021). These physical safety measures were further subdivided into comprehensive categories that addressed multiple facets of safety. Physical safety involves crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED), natural surveillance, natural access control, territoriality, and physical security (Brock et al., 2016). CPTED was a globally used architectural design approach that evaluated the physical environment of a building to reduce crime and increase the quality of life (Brock et al., 2016; Cozens, 2007; Crowe & Fennelly, 2013). CPTED in a school includes the other

components of physical safety (natural surveillance, natural access control, and territoriality) and management and maintenance (Brock et al., 2016). Management and maintenance ensured that all school buildings were functioning correctly and maintained indoors and outdoors (Brock et al., 2016). Natural surveillance was another essential component of physical safety and CPTED. Natural surveillance maximized visibility through pre-planned physical features, which included organized, mechanical, or natural elements (Brock et al., 2016). Mechanical elements included surveillance cameras and adequate lighting throughout the building, whereas natural elements included placing large windows in strategic locations that allowed individuals to see potential intruders (Brock et al., 2016; Crowe & Fennelly, 2013). Natural access control was another component of physical safety and CPTED. Natural access control involved procedures and strategies designed to control who and what entered or exited the school building, which included organized, mechanical, or natural elements (Brock et al., 2016). Mechanical elements included gates, fences, and door locks, while natural elements included designed environments to control access to specific areas (Crowe & Fennelly, 2013). Territoriality was another component of physical safety and CPTED. Territoriality involved encouraging shared ownership and pride in the school, empowering students and staff to challenge incidents they observed or come forward and share any information (Brock et al., 2016; Crowe & Fennelly, 2013). Physical and psychological safety worked together to promote safety proactively and ensure school well-being.

Psychological safety encompassed various elements to improve social-emotional programming, threat and suicide assessment, school climate, prevention procedures, and mental health screenings (Brock et al., 2016; Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Social-emotional programming involves learning, a complex process used to develop interpersonal and intrapersonal skills

(Brock et al., 2016). It included a range of skills such as understanding oneself and others, recognizing various emotions, regulating emotions, showing compassion and concern for others, handling challenging situations positively, regulating attention and behavior, developing meaningful positive relationships, engaging in prosocial behaviors, and making responsible decisions (Brock et al., 2016; Denham & Brown, 2010).

Threat and suicide assessment are crucial measures used by school-based mental health professionals to assess and intervene with those who are at risk (Boccio, 2015). Suicide prevention involves educating all members of the school community on the warning signs and risk factors of youth suicide and teaching them to inquire directly about the presence of suicidal thoughts (Brock et al., 2016). If there is an indication that suicidal thoughts are present, a school-employed mental health professional completes a suicide assessment (Brock et al., 2016). Threat assessments are conducted to determine the extent to which a student poses a risk to oneself or others (Reid Meloy et al., 2012). All threats must be reported immediately so that a team can accurately determine the severity of the threat (Louvar et al., 2018). There was a further discussion below regarding suicide and threat assessments.

School climate should be assessed to determine elements of school engagement, safety, and environment (Bradshaw et al., 2014). These elements help school teams determine the psychological safety measures needed to address inadequacies in the current school climate (Brock et al., 2016). Evidence-based school prevention programs successfully increase positive outcomes while reducing a wide range of negative behaviors (Nation et al., 2003). Schools begin by conducting a needs assessment to determine what the individual community and school require (Brock et al., 2016). Schools then consider the evidence base of each potential program versus what the school needs to be successful (Brock et al., 2016). Schools currently utilize many

prevention programs, so it is essential to determine what the individual school requires before selecting one to implement (Brock et al., 2016).

Implementing evidence-based school safety procedures has been linked to improved student outcomes. These outcomes include enhanced academic performance, increased social competence, reduced need for discipline, better school attendance, and less disruptive classrooms (Osher et al., 2014). A sense of physical and emotional safety for school students was related to academic performance (Kutsyuruba et al., 2015). It is necessary to collect data on current individual school safety practices to implement effective school safety practices. This information allows the team to adjust the current plan to meet student needs better.

Successful school safety programs involve continuous and ongoing data collection, analysis, and interpretation of information relevant to a specific school (National Institute of Justice, 2020). Collecting data in one's own school or school district helps to assess the extent of the identified school problems, create awareness of issues arising in schools to the community, create plans for interventions, mobilize various school constituents, implement individualized and meaningful interventions, and conducted evaluations (Brand et al., 2008; Goertz, 1997). The data was continuously provided by groups formed to address the crisis intervention steps. This information allowed schools to assess the extent of perceived physical and psychological safety within the school (Dwyer et al., 1998). School safety went beyond eliminating physical elements of violence, such as fights or weapons (Morrison et al., 1994).

School safety addressed concerns related to school violence and other measures to protect students, such as school climate (Bradshaw et al., 2021; Kutsyuruba et al., 2015). Incorporating school safety measures helps schools respond appropriately to school violence (Klinger & Klinger, 2018). Understanding the link between school safety and school violence is essential so

that those facilitating crisis intervention and prevention measures take an educated, protective, and nurturing stance in response to school violence rather than just responding to those occurrences afterward (Mayer et al., 2021). School violence refers to any violent event against one or more people taking place at a school-related function, ranging from potentially lethal incidents such as barricades or hostage situations to injurious events such as stabbings or serious fights to lethal incidents such as school shootings (Henry, 2000; Jones, 1998; Lester et al., 2017). The methods used to handle school violence are related to ensuring the physical and psychological well-being of all those within a school. Typical procedures used to prevent school violence encompassed physical security measures designed to be visible to students, such as locked doors/bars, student resource officers, video cameras, and metal detectors, and nonphysical security measures designed to reduce school disorder, such as parking regulations, hall-passes, dress-code, visitor sign-in, and closed campus regulations (Morrison et al., 1994; Xaba, 2006). Schools need to consider the impact that some of the school safety features have on students and attempt to find a balance between physical and psychological safety to avoid overly restrictive measures that could potentially undermine students' ability to be successful in the learning environment (Edmondson, 2018; Nickerson et al., 2021).

School safety extended beyond the absence of physical and psychological harm. It includes a proactive focus on psychological safety, emphasizing risk assessment and school climate. Safety is a basic need that must be met for any individual, especially children, to achieve cognitive outcomes that result from schooling (Verdugo & Schneider, 1999). The perception of safety among students and staff alike is not an inconsequential consideration since feeling unsafe disrupts a supportive, nurturing, and positive school environment. Safety is related to a broad set of needs, including school environments that promote affiliative behavior, appropriate risk-

taking, exploration, creativity, and cooperative behavior (Gilbert, 1993). School safety is most effective when considering the impact of school climate on all those involved in facilitating school safety procedures. School climate needs to be further explored to appropriately implement successfully designated school safety procedures.

School Climate

Defining school climate was challenging since it was a social construct encompassing academic, physical, and social dimensions (Loukas, 2007). The academic dimension included monitoring students' progress, promptly holding team meetings with families, quality of instruction, and teacher expectations for student academic achievement. The physical dimension included the organization and order of classrooms, safety and comfort of students, parents, and community members, school size, the ratio of students to teachers in classrooms, appearance of school building and classrooms, and availability of resources to address student needs (Loukas, 2007). The social dimension included the degree of social comparison and competition between students, the quality of interpersonal relationships among all members of the school, the contribution of all members to decision-making, and the fair treatment of all students by teachers and staff. In summary, school climate was the pattern of individual school life experiences that reflected values, norms, teachings, practices, relationships, goals, and leadership practices (Brock et al., 2016).

School climate and safety created a positive school environment (DeAngelis & Lueken, 2020). The perceptions of students, teachers, staff, and community members about school climate influenced individual and group attitudes, behaviors, and norms (Loukas, 2007). It is crucial to consider the perspective of all stakeholders when developing policies. The unique challenges faced by each school in the US need to be considered. Schools differ in population,

size, location, funding, culture, and community involvement. They face different situations, including crises that require preparation. School safety is not a one-size-fits-all approach since no two schools or districts are the same (Brock et al., 2016). Schools must address unique concerns related to safety practices to prepare for situations that negatively impact their students. School-based crisis intervention teams help schools prepare for such situations (Poland, 1994). A review of the type of crises that may arise in schools was necessary for effective prevention and intervention.

Crisis Events

Crisis events are uncontrollable, unpredictable, and overwhelmingly negative (Brock et al., 2016). School crisis events disrupt the problem-solving and coping abilities of staff, students, and community members after an event (NEA, 2016). Crisis events take different forms, such as death, violence, and natural disasters (Sokol et al., 2021). Other examples of crisis events include outbreaks of disease, severe weather (rain, snow, wind), fires, bus crashes, medical emergencies, chemical spills, acts of war, and school shootings. These events happen in different intensities and cause various amounts of emotional, physical, and psychological damage to the people involved in the event and the families of those affected. Crisis events lead to feelings of hopelessness, reduced control, and unusual emotional reactions that disrupt psychological homeostasis in individuals (MacNeil & Topping., 2007). These events can be beyond the scope of the individual's usual coping mechanisms, especially in children, and may not be resolved without intervention. These events disrupt the functioning of the community and school (MacNeil & Topping, 2007).

Crisis events impact vulnerable populations more profoundly than others (Cutter et al., 2000). Crisis events affect students' ability to function, participate, and learn effectively (Bolnik

& Brock., 2005). This is often due to the emotional and psychological damages that occur during a crisis. When considering crisis events in schools, it is essential to remember that when working with children following a crisis, they are a vulnerable population that has unique symptoms, needs, and reactions than adults that need to be considered (Brymer et al., 2006). Considering the specific vulnerabilities of each student involved, especially those close to the actual event, is important when considering what services students will require. Those assisting students involved in crisis events should consider the emotional and physical proximity to the crisis event. Emotional proximity to an event is an immediacy to victims, knowing victims affected by the event, or a sentimental connection to the crisis location.

In contrast, physical proximity to an event was direct exposure to the event. Emotional and physical proximity to crisis events influences psychological trauma the most in children (Witte & Mosley, 2014; Huang et al., 2015). It is essential to consider these factors since students who were exposed to a traumatic event may be unable to apply their coping abilities after a situation has transpired (Huang et al., 2015). School districts that consider the impacts of emotional and physical proximity are better equipped to respond appropriately to the situation and hopefully lessen the impact of the event on the entire school population (i.e., students, staff, teachers, families, and community members) (Barclay, 2004). Students exposed to crisis events may suffer various consequences such as lower academic performance, social and emotional problems, and difficulty adjusting to their environment (Barclay, 2004).

The mental health and well-being of the survivors are affected, especially during the event's anniversary. These damages could also continue within the individuals affected by a crisis long after the physical components of an event are mended. It is important to remember

that the school is integral in mitigating the traumatic impact of various crisis events, achieved through extensive preparedness (Brock et al., 2016).

Crisis Type

Many different types of crises affect a school. The type of crisis directly impacted what kind of response was necessary. The type of crisis, the size of the event, the number of people involved, and the event's intensity all affect how a school-based crisis intervention response team should react and respond. Throughout the review, the themes discussed in crisis events were organized into three categories: Student death, violence, and natural/environmental disasters.

Student Death

Accidents/Unintentional Injuries Accidents and unintentional injuries were a leading cause of death for children between the ages of 1 through 24 (CDC, 2021). These included many deaths, such as unintentional poisoning, falls, drownings, etc. These types of deaths were very unexpected and challenging for communities/families. While crisis intervention models may not be able to help prevent these tragedies, they can help provide resources for students, families, and the community afterward. These resources included counselors, financial support, and grief counseling.

Suicide According to studies done by the National Center for Health Statistics, suicide was the second leading cause of death for individuals between the ages of 10 and 24 (Hedegaar et al., 2021). Suicide was defined as self-injurious behaviors leading to death with the intent to die because of the behavior (NIMH, 2017). While suicide affected any gender, ethnicity, or age, this act was incredibly detrimental to a school environment (Erps et al., 2020). This event's effects on the students, staff, family, and community had long-lasting impacts far beyond the actual event (Erps et al., 2020). The death of one adolescent by suicide increased the risk of

additional youth suicides since this age range was most likely to imitate suicidal behaviors (Poland et al., 2019). This was especially prevalent in smaller communities and schools where more individuals know each other (Poland et al., 2019). Areas with high numbers of suicides could be experiencing suicide contagion. Suicide contagion describes when multiple suicides occur in a defined location or short time (Centre for Suicide Prevention, 2021). These numbers were high and an area of great concern for marginalized populations that could benefit from crisis intervention plans that addressed and hopefully prevented more incidences of suicide in the future.

Natural/Environmental Disasters

Natural Disasters Natural disasters (hurricanes, tornados, flooding, earthquakes, blizzards) were challenging to predict. They caused extensive damage to cities, communities, schools, and the overall well-being of families in those areas (Rubin & Henry Falk, 2019). Hurricanes included high winds, heavy flooding, and destruction to affected areas. On average, 17.7 hurricanes hit the U.S. per decade, with six being major hurricanes (National Hurricane Center and Central Pacific Hurricane Center, 2005). Students' success in the classroom was affected after a hurricane, especially in areas with few resources or funding to rebuild schools. A study found that 55% of teachers in school districts affected by Hurricane Florence noticed a regression in the academic performance of students after the disaster (Fuller & Davis, 2021).

According to the U.S. Department of Commerce (2015), a tornado is a violently rotating column of air that touches the ground, usually accompanied by a thunderstorm. Tornadoes occurred throughout the year in the U.S., but they most frequently occurred during the spring in the Southcentral and Southeast areas of the country. The U.S. had an average of 118.8 tornadoes yearly (NOAA, 2015). There were high rates of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) in tornado

survivors, and many experienced significant mental health problems compared to other natural disasters (Evans & Oehler-Stinnett, 2006). Those at most risk during a tornado were people in mobile homes, in automobiles, vulnerable populations (infants, elderly, those with disabilities), and those who do not understand warning signs due to a language barrier (American National Red Cross, 1992).

Natural disasters affected schools included flooding, earthquakes, blizzards, and chemical spills. The negative impact of natural disaster events on families continued after the physical elements had been fixed, which could sometimes take extended periods. Schools could prepare for events such as these ahead of time by ensuring there was communication to the "outside world" on-site, coordinating with various agencies (fire, police, rescue, etc.), having a plan to release information efficiently and students to families, and plans to absorb an influx of community members after crisis (CSL, 1994).

Violence

School Violence While school shootings were not the only crisis event that could take place in schools, they were one of the most traumatic events and had a long-lasting impact beyond the initial event on students, staff, and the community (Cabral et al., 2021). According to a report published by the National Center for Education Statistics, between 2000 and 2020, the number of school shooting casualties at U.S. elementary, secondary, and private schools ranged from 11 to 75 per year (COE, 2021). There were many discrepancies in the research regarding the actual prevalence of these events, though they all indicated that school shootings were rare. Less than 2% of youth homicides occurred at schools (Cornell, 2006; CDC, 2021). When they did happen, these events were incredibly physically, emotionally, and psychologically scary. It was paramount to look at crisis intervention models that helped prepare schools for these events

to help avoid future casualties and to help all those affected by an event learn to cope and heal from the trauma they have experienced (Alexander & Harris, 2020). Long-term effects of school shootings included increased fatigue, disordered sleep, heightened startled reflexes, loss of appetite, and increased anxiety in teachers, administrators, counselors, and students (Alexander & Harris, 2020). Schools prepared in the event of a school shooting by completing continued professional development and developing plans/strategies to respond to crisis events. Developing expertise in managing crisis events took time, and those on the team with experience helped manage these events (Alexander & Harris, 2020).

Terrorism/Acts of War Schools can be directly and indirectly negatively impacted by acts of terrorism or war, depending on the situation (NACCT, 2004). They could be directly impacted if they were targeted during the act of terrorism or damaged during the event. They could be indirectly impacted if staff, students, or community members are impacted, injured, or killed during the event (NACCT, 2004).

Psychological Effects of Crisis

While these events could have harmful physical effects on the school environment, the people involved, and the community, the psychological effects could disrupt these environments for extended periods if not addressed. Students might have shown changes in weight, personal hygiene, sleep habits, school performance, demeanor, personality, and absence of participation in preferred activities (APA, 2020). These changes looked different depending on the age of the students and the level of exposure they had to the crisis event. When considering what changes could occur; for younger children in Pre-K or Kindergarten, changes might include sleep disturbances, reluctance to attend school, loss of appetite, withdrawal from peers, or regression in behavior such as separation anxiety or thumb sucking (APA, 2020). Long-term effects

included impediments in academic, emotional, developmental, social, and cognitive functioning (Alexander & Harris, 2020). For elementary students, psychological changes included nightmares, irritable/aggressive mood, withdrawal from peers, or increased worry about friends or family. For middle or high school students, changes included eating/sleep disturbances, delinquent behavior, trouble concentrating, physical symptoms, or increased conflicts (APA, 2020). Different events had different levels of impact on the individuals involved or those who knew the individuals involved. While this information could be alarming, many schools have taken steps to prepare for these types of events.

School-Based Crisis Intervention

School-based crisis interventions are defined as interventions focused on improving the well-being of the entire school community (students, staff, family, and community members) after a crisis has occurred (Sokol et al., 2021). Many of these school-based crisis interventions include multidisciplinary crisis response teams, which were school community members. This approach has become much more prevalent in schools within the last twenty years due to the increased number of incidents seen in schools (Sokol et al., 2021).

A study published by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2016) surveyed over 700 school districts and found that 70-90% of public schools in the U.S. had some policy/practice related to crisis preparedness, response, and recovery. This was promising in that it appeared many schools were attempting to prepare for potential crisis events. Determining which crisis intervention models worked the most effectively was critical information and could help administrators spend the limited funding that schools received on effective models that addressed the school's needs and worked to minimize harm to all those within the school

community before, during, and after a crisis. Many of these models included crisis intervention response teams.

School-based crisis intervention response teams are selected members of the school faculty who had a unique understanding of the school climate, focus on the academic and social/emotional needs of students, and help prepare the school to respond to crisis events while also facilitating recovery (Brock et al., 2016). Crisis intervention response teams exist at the school, district, regional, and state levels (Office for Victims of Crime, 2003). Different types of crises indicate which teams need to be utilized and have a breakdown of those responsibilities depending on the model being used by that school district. These models help dictate roles, responsibilities, chain of command, and direction for school personnel in a crisis. School crisis response teams are essential to help facilitate a school's recovery after an event. These teams also help schools determine potential areas of liability and protect them from lawsuits. Crisis teams look very different depending on the size and location of the school. In larger schools and cities, often, these roles are filled by different staff members. In smaller settings, staff members may have to fill multiple roles to ensure all needs of the community are met. This is due to low staff numbers, fewer resources, and a lack of funding.

School Safety Teams

While similar to school crisis response teams, schools also utilize school safety teams in different capacities within the schools. School safety teams are designed to promote internal and external resiliency within their students to decrease the likelihood they will become victims of psychological trauma (Brock et al., 2016). Resiliency refers to an individual’s positive adaptation to everyday life stressors, response to challenges and setbacks, positive behavior, ability to respond effectively to significant adversity, emotional and social well-being, and ability to

respond to general life transitions (Kranzler et al., 2014). Significant adversity refers to crisis events, while life transitions include moving out to college, getting a job, or other similar examples. Schools that promote resiliency within their students encourage positive variables such as individual student strengths, positive relationships between students and teachers, a sense of fulfillment and meaning, positive emotions, and individual subjective well-being (Kranzler et al., 2014).

Building resiliency within students should be a goal within a school district's agendas, given the frequency with which children may be exposed to potentially traumatic events. There is an increased need for universal prevention programs that increase resiliency within students so that they have the social/emotional skills necessary to respond effectively to adversity (Kranzler et al., 2014). School safety teams have the opportunity to promote internal and external resiliency factors that decrease the likelihood of students becoming victims of psychological trauma (Brock et al., 2016). Internal resiliency factors include embracing a positive attitude, positive coping skills, self-esteem, self-awareness, utilizing personal strengths, regulating emotions and responses, self-confidence, self-efficacy, and feeling empathy (Brock et al., 2016; Kuperminc et al., 2020). External resiliency factors include meaningful relationships with peers, a welcoming and supportive learning environment, strong community support, positive role models, a feeling of school belonging, involvement with meaningful activities, a strong family support system, caring and prosocial peer relationships, and having encouraging home support from parent or adult (Brock et al., 2016; Kuperminc et al., 2020). Schools promote these resilience factors within their students in a few ways. The processes for implementing internal resilience strategies include using specific behavior praise, direct active teaching of specific skills, allowing students to reflect on personal decisions through critical thinking questions, and

teaching to frame negative situations as learning opportunities (Brock et al., 2016). The processes for implementing external resilience strategies included developing positive relationships with external influences that influence resilience, such as competent parents, friendships, effective support networks, and effective schools (Alvord & Grados, 2005).

School safety teams have multiple functions, including providing all school staff with the necessary training and support, collecting data while conducting evaluations to make meaningful, informed decisions, providing comprehensive school climate leadership and safety plans at the school level, making all schoolwide initiatives sustainable for ongoing use within the school, and developing a comprehensive individual school safety plan (Brock et al., 2016). The function of providing leadership has included but is not limited to developing school-level crisis response plans, offering help with data collection for vulnerability assessment at the school level, evaluating the effectiveness of the implemented prevention measures, developing the school's comprehensive safety plan, making data-driven and informed decisions, and reporting on individual safety priorities to the team (Table 5.3, Brock et al., 2016). The function of providing school staff with needed support included but is not limited to consulting concerning behavior-related safety concerns, offering resources and training for prevention programming used, providing a direct response to staff and students in a crisis, providing an effective means of communication between all members of the school population, provide resources for prevention/mitigation, and provide resources for interventions/response. Prevention and mitigation included procedures to create an inclusive, supportive, respectful, and positive school environment. Intervention and response included executing regularly planned crisis exercises and drills (Table 5.3, Brock et al., 2016). The function of supporting ongoing sustainable prevention and preparedness included but is not limited to providing necessary resources to the school crisis

response team to appropriately execute the school's crisis plans, adequately coaching and supporting staff regarding specific prevention/safety procedures, collaborating with the community members and district safety team, openness to changes and concerns regarding school safety and climate, and participating in necessary crisis planning and safety practices (Table 5.3, Brock et al., 2016). The purpose of evaluating the implementation and data collection included but was not limited to performing vulnerability and multi-hazard assessments, holding school staff members accountable for implementing prevention programs and school climate initiatives, monitoring implementation fidelity of all school safety and prevention efforts, providing explicit support and guidance to individual school teachers who are responsible for data collection and analysis, and analyze collected school data about safety and climate efforts (Table 5.3, Brock et al., 2016).

It is vital to ensure that schools' safety teams comprehensively perform their functions and appropriately collaborate with the school crisis response team. In some cases, schools may have already had a team formed that was titled something else and may only incorporate some of these functions. The members of school safety team could consist of the following team members: a School Incident Commander; section chiefs from school incident command teams, including (Planning, Operations, Logistics, and Finance); school-employed mental health professionals; Safety and security personnel (SROs); curriculum specialists, Grade-level and subject level representatives, Special education personnel, Additional representatives (teacher assistants, paraprofessionals, cafeteria staff, custodial staff, before/after school care workers), and As needed staff (student and parent representatives) (Table 5.4, Brock et al., 2016). These team members would be involved in the Incident Command System (ICS) team, with the School Incident Commander being the person designated in charge of those in the other positions listed

(Brock et al., 2016). The ICS is a standard set of procedures/processes, vocabulary, ideas, and principles utilized within an organization to facilitate crisis response activities (Brock et al., 2016).

School safety teams work cooperatively with the school's crisis response teams to monitor school safety goals and focus on protection, mitigation, and prevention while guiding the school's response and recovery. School crisis response teams are responsible for planning and mobilizing the interventions implemented to provide support. These two separate teams collaborated to provide a comprehensive effort to respond to crises within the school (Brock et al., 2016).

Best Practices for School-Based Crisis Intervention Models

For several reasons, studying the most effective approaches to crisis intervention models was critical. An article that synthesized crisis intervention and prevention information from school psychologists and nurses to recommend best practices during a crisis was utilized (Dwyer et al., 2017). For administrators, it was crucial to understand what practices had shown to be effective in the literature before selecting an intervention model to implement in schools. It was essential to create a summary of this information to make it easily accessible and to establish a knowledge base. Understanding the best practices for crisis intervention models was vital to help update outdated models that do not encompass these principles. Schools could add components that benefit their programs and ensure students' safety.

An area to consider was to foster a caring school environment (Dwyer et al., 2017)—a positive work environment allowed for better consultation, collaboration, and teamwork. When school personnel worked together collaboratively, it benefited the students and community. Working together in crises became problematic if the staff did not regularly cooperate (Dwyer et

al., 2017). Clear communication lines and trust between team members allowed for services, messages, and interventions to be facilitated quickly in times of need (Dwyer et al., 2017).

Another area to consider was establishing an organized and collaborative multidisciplinary school-based crisis response team with a framework (based on the Incident Command System) that addressed multiple elements (Brock et al., 2008). These elements included a comprehensive school crisis plan that included drills and skills to practice and test the plan, coordinate and plan with community-based emergency responders and services, assess traumatic potentials and vulnerabilities of various crisis events, protect psychological and physical safety, promote return and recovery to learning through individualized, schoolwide, and classroom-based interventions, provide care-for-the-caregiver strategies to support faculty and mental health staff, align existing service delivery models with crisis prevention and interventions, and support ongoing school climate and positive behavior (Brock et al., 2008). Consistent procedures that team members were familiar with allowed crises to be handled more efficiently and had shown in past crises to be quite effective (Dwyer et al., 2017).

Other areas to consider included the planning and preparation of crisis intervention models. This included but was not limited to professional education, establishing funds, creating a directory of resources, identifying critical support systems for mental health services, developing plans for various crisis scenarios, developing plans for post-crisis therapy groups, planning for medical assistance/response, create specific guidelines for high-risk populations, identify possible shelters, and create crisis drills for practice (Jimerson et al., 2005). Planning for crisis events allowed individuals to facilitate their roles more efficiently to minimize the impact of an event.

Evaluate Effectiveness

It may be difficult for individual schools or districts to determine whether their crisis intervention and prevention programs effectively prevented harm to their students, families, and staff. One resource available to schools is the Guide for Developing High-Quality School Emergency Operations Plans, developed by the U.S. Department of Education (2013). This guide illustrated that effective school crisis response plans include a basic plan, functional annexes, and threat-and-hazard-specific annexes (Brock et al., 2013). This publication was utilized by a multitude of various school organizations and statewide agencies and could be considered the gold standard of crisis intervention for how often it was utilized (Readiness and Emergency Management for Schools, 2023; Safe2Say South Dakota, 2023; Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2023; Office of Safe and Supportive Schools, 2013). These three components were also discussed in the PREPaRE model.

The plan mentioned in the Guide for Developing High-Quality School Emergency Operations Plans was designed to overview the school's approach to emergency operations plans before, during, and following a crisis event (USDoE, 2013). This plan was designed to be a strong foundation for the school's operations, and information was provided by the planning team (USDoE, 2013). The entire basic plan included the introductory material section, the purpose and overview section, the concepts of operations section, the organization and assignments of responsibilities, the direction, control, and coordination section, the information collection, analysis, and dissemination section, the training and exercises section, the administration, finance, and logistics section, the plan development and maintenance section, and the authorities and reference section (USDoE, 2013). It was essential to understand how each of these sections contributes to the overall basic plan for the emergency operation plan.

When designing the plan, it included introductory material that enhanced relationships with all critical persons involved in emergency operations plans (community partners, emergency medical personnel, and public health officials) and increased the ability of all members to efficiently use the plan (USDoE, 2013). The introductory material included a cover page, a promulgation document (the process that officially announces/declares a plan), a signature page, an approval and implementation page, a record of change, a record of changes, a record of distribution, and a table of contents pages (USDoE, 2013). The next section of the basic plan was the purpose and situation overview, which explained what the plan was meant to do and why it was necessary (USDoE, 2013). It included the purpose and situation overview pages. The following section of the basic plan was the concepts of operations which explained and provided an outline of the schools' overall intent with the plan to protect students, staff, and outside guests (USDoE, 2013). The next section of the basic plan for the emergency operation plan was the organization and assignments of responsibilities, which provided an overview of the organizational functions, various responsibilities, and broad roles of families, school staff, and community members during a crisis event. This included the agreements between schools and response teams regarding sharing information and resources during a crisis event (USDoE, 2013).

Functional Annexes

The PREPaRE model suggested addressing the functional annexes context, which included a variety of separate areas, including Evacuation Annex, Lockdown Annex, Shelter-in Place Annex, Accounting for All Person Annex, Communication and Warning Annex, Family Reunification Annex, Continuity of Operations (COOP) Annex, Recovery Annex, Public Health, Medical, and Mental Health Annex, Security Annex, and Threat and Hazard Specific Annexes

(USDoE, 2013). The functional annexes concentrated on the critical operations and specific action plans designed to carry out the several annexes' objectives, functions, goals, and action plans (USDoE, 2013). The various annexes were used in conjunction with the basic plan and threat-hazard-specific annexes to make a high-quality and comprehensive emergency operation plan.

The Evacuation Annex was dedicated to ensuring the safe evacuation of the school grounds and buildings during emergencies. The planning team for this annex had various objectives, functions, and goals, including evacuating students with high-need disabilities, finding alternative evacuation routes if the primary one is not available, removing all individuals from specific areas in the school during different crisis events, ensuring students know how to evacuate when not with a staff member, and safely moving everyone in the school to the assembly area from any location within the school (USDoE, 2013).

The Lockdown Annex focused on action plans designed to secure the school grounds and building during lockdown, with the primary objective of ensuring students, staff, and visitors are quickly secured away from the immediate threat. Some examples of the objectives, functions, and goals of the planning team for this annex included how to prepare for what to do when a threat reveals itself within the school building, how/and when to lock all exterior school building doors safely, and how the physical features of the school building and classrooms impact the overall safety and affect to a lockdown action plan (USDoE, 2013).

The Shelter-in-Place Annex was a plan designed to keep all individuals in a school safe in the event of external safety concerns. If necessary, students and staff may need to relocate to different areas of the building. The planning team had several objectives, functions, and goals, including how to relocate students who are not with a staff member, what supplies are needed to

meet everyone's needs (such as water), how to move students within the building when the primary route is not available, how to address the needs of students with high-need disabilities during a shelter-in-place situation, and how "safe rooms" could be helpful during crisis events (such as severe weather). (USDoE, 2013)

The Accounting for All Persons Annex focused on the action plans for maintaining/accounting for the well-being and location of all students, staff, and visitors within the school. Some examples of the objectives, functions, and goals of the planning team for this annex included how staff will report to the assembly supervisor, how staff determines the identity of all individuals in the assembly, how/when students were released, and plan for if any persons within a school cannot be located (USDoE, 2013).

The Communications and Warning Annex focused on the coordination and communication before, during, and after an emergency or disaster. Some examples of the objectives, functions, and goals of the planning team for this annex included how the school plans to communicate with all persons (students, staff, families, and community members) before, during, and after crisis event, how the school plans to handle the media, how to ensure staff members can use schools communication instruments properly, how schools will ensure effective communication to students and families of students with disabilities, how to effectively address language barrier with all persons within school and in community, how to effectively navigate technology barriers with all persons within school and in community, how impacts of event on students will be addressed to community, and how schools communication system integrates with the local disaster and response teams (USDoE, 2013).

The Family Reunification Annex was designed to reunite students with their families or guardians after a crisis event. The planning team for this annex had several objectives, functions,

and goals, including preventing students from leaving the reunification area on their own, verifying the identity of those authorized to take custody of the student, providing regular updates to families and guardians during the reunification process, informing families and guardians beforehand about the process with clearly defined roles and responsibilities, facilitating communication between the student assembly area, parent check-in, and reunification area, and protecting students, families, and community members from media coverage (USDoE, 2013).

The Continuity of Operations (COOP) Annex outlined a school and district's measures to guarantee that crucial operations persisted during an emergency and its immediate aftermath. These essential operations encompassed business services such as payroll and purchasing, internal and external communication, computer and systems support, facilities maintenance, safety and security, and continuity of teaching and learning. The planning team for this annex should consider the outlined objectives, functions, and goals. These included designing the COOP annex to be activated at any time and be sustained for up to 30 days, establishing priorities for re-establishing essential functions like school operations, and ensuring the safety and well-being of students and the learning environment. Additionally, the team should plan to provide applicable related services to students in the event of a prolonged closure (USDoE, 2013).

The Recovery Annex delineated four fundamental categories of school recovery in emergencies: academic, physical, fiscal, and emotional recovery. The planning team for this annex had several objectives, functions, and goals. These included academic, physical, fiscal, psychological, and emotional recovery. Academic recovery involved deciding when the school should close and reopen, who had the authority to make such decisions, what temporary spaces

the school could use if buildings were unavailable, and how alternate educational programming could be provided if students could not physically meet. Physical recovery involved documenting school assets, including accessible facilities, in case of damage, identifying personnel with expert knowledge of the school's assets, and determining how and where records will be accessed to verify current assets after a disaster. The school would also work with utility companies. Fiscal recovery included determining how district leadership would be included, how staff would receive timely and factual information regarding returning to work, and what sources of emergency relief funding the school could access. Psychological and emotional recovery included determining who would serve as the team leader, where counseling and psychological first aid would be provided, how teachers would create a calm and supportive environment for students, how trained counselors would be provided, and how immediate, short-, and long-term counseling needs of students, staff, and families would be addressed. The annex also covered handling commemorations, memorial activities, permanent markers, and memorial structures. The Public Health, Medical, and Mental Health annex informed the actions and plans of the Recovery annex (USDoE, 2013).

The Annex for Public Health, Medical, and Mental Health outlined the strategies the school employed to tackle emergency medical concerns such as first aid and issues related to public and mental health counseling. It was important for schools to collaborate with relevant emergency medical services, public health, mental health, law enforcement, fire department, and emergency management representatives to ensure effective coordination. The Recovery Annex specifically addressed mental health needs that arose in the aftermath of an emergency (USDoE, 2013). The planning team should consider various factors when developing its goals, objectives, and courses of action. These included identifying the role of staff members in providing first aid

during an emergency, determining the locations of emergency medical supplies like first aid kits and AEDs, and assigning responsibility for purchasing and maintaining those supplies. The team considered the staff members with relevant training or experience in first aid or CPR. Additionally, the team devised a plan for securing an adequate number of counselors in case of an emergency and established protocols for promptly sharing and reporting information about outbreaks, epidemics, or other unusual medical situations to the local health department. Finally, the team developed strategies for supporting the needs of students identified by the threat assessment team (USDoE, 2013).

The Security Annex was centered around implementing measures designed to safeguard schools against criminal threats from within or outside the institution. These measures were established as routine and ongoing efforts and were carried out in collaboration with law enforcement personnel. (USDoE, 2013). The planning team should consider certain factors when crafting its goals, objectives, and courses of action. These included how agreements with law enforcement agencies account for the presence of law enforcement officers in and around the school daily, as well as strategies for ensuring the physical security of the building (including the use of Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design [CPTED] (USDoE, 2013).

The US Department of Health (2013) described the Threat and Hazard-Specific Annexes, which described courses of action for specific and unique hazards and threats. The Threat and Hazard-Specific Annexes included Natural Hazards, Technological Hazards, Biological Hazards, Adversarial, Incidental, and Human-caused Hazards (USDoE, 2013). The Annexes for Threat and Hazard-Specific plans provided actionable strategies for dealing with specific threats and hazards. To create these plans, schools prioritized hazards identified in their assessment processes while considering federal, state, and local regulations or mandates that applied to

specific hazards. The planning teams considered all these factors when developing effective action plans for potential threats and hazards. Many natural hazards could occur, ranging from earthquakes and tornadoes to severe winds, hurricanes, and floods. Other environmental dangers include wildfires, landslides, tsunamis, and volcanic eruptions. Technological hazards also existed, such as explosions, accidental release of toxins from industrial plants, and hazardous material releases on highways and railroads (USDoE, 2013). Radiological releases from nuclear power stations, dam failures, power failures, and water failures were additional technological hazards. Biological hazards were also a concern that needed to be considered, including infectious diseases like pandemic influenza and extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis, contaminated food outbreaks like Salmonella and E. coli, and toxic materials presented in school laboratories. Human-caused threats were also possible, such as active shooters, criminal threats or actions, bomb threats, cyber-attacks, and suicide. Domestic violence and abuse, gang violence, and adversarial incidents were also potential threats to safety (USDoE, 2013).

The components described in these annexes were essential mechanisms that needed to be implemented and were required for genuinely effective crisis prevention and intervention within schools. For many schools, this information alone was insufficient to determine if crisis teams were incorporating all these efforts within their crisis plans (USDoE, 2013). School teams and staff may not have the time or resources to gather all this information in a meaningful way that everyone on the team, regardless of their knowledge surrounding crisis intervention, could understand. There were multiple methods of assessing the effectiveness of crisis intervention teams and efforts. While it does require more work for the school, it was essential for the effectiveness of the crisis plan that this information is collected (USDoE, 2013).

Needs Assessment

To effectively manage limited resources, assess effectiveness, justify required resources, and demonstrate program participation's positive and negative effects, it was crucial to examine crisis-related efforts and document school or staff accomplishments. Additionally, this helped support the need for increased funding levels and enhanced implementation and effectiveness while satisfying ethical responsibilities (Brock et al., 2016). To effectively address inquiries about school and student needs, crucial components, or procedures, implement strategies with integrity and objectives, and analyze data to achieve goals, three examination strategies should be employed - needs assessment, process analysis, and outcome evaluation (Brock et al., 2016). These examination strategies incorporated prevention, preparedness, and crisis response and recovery.

The foremost objective of a needs assessment was to identify areas that required attention, enabling the development of strategies and plans that addressed these needs. This assessment was highly advantageous as it focused on gathering information within the local context, emphasizing specific contextual considerations (Cuiccio & Husby-Slater, 2018; Brock et al., 2016). For instance, systematically gathering information from teachers, students, staff, and parents and reviewing pertinent school files provided valuable insights that informed crisis prevention, preparedness, response, and recovery efforts (Elbedour et al., 2020). The reviewed files comprised information on conduct ratings on report cards, attendance records, student support referrals, discipline trends, suspensions, weapons violations, and visits to the nurse's office for injury treatment. Additionally, school-wide surveys, screeners, or questionnaires provided crucial information regarding the prevalence of behavior problems, mental health issues, bullying and victimization, student engagement, and student perception of safety (Brock et al., 2016; Witkin, 1976). In terms of prevention efforts, conducting a thorough needs

assessment could be extremely helpful in preventing crises. By systematically gathering information from students, families, teachers, and staff, schools identified the areas that required the most attention and developed effective strategies to address them (Cuiccio & Husby-Slater, 2018; Brock et al., 2016). Should areas of concern arise during a general needs assessment, it was necessary to collect additional data. Needs assessments were critical to crisis prevention as they helped identify the target population's strengths, concerns, and desired outcomes (Brock et al., 2016). When selecting appropriate programs and strategies, schools considered several factors, including the specific needs of the identified population, age, race, or ethnicity, and available resources such as staff competence and financial resources (Brock et al., 2016). Ultimately, it was important for schools to choose programs that were best suited to their unique needs. (Brock et al., 2016; MacNeil & Topping, 2007). The needs assessment was pivotal in creating a school crisis plan when considering crisis preparedness. It identified the specific crisis events that need to be addressed, such as natural disasters like tornadoes, earthquakes, hurricanes, and floods. Data was collected through various methods, including interviews, surveys, focus groups, reviewing school databases, discipline referral reports, attendance records, and examining established crisis plans and preparedness resources. The information gathered from the needs assessment was used to inform the professional development of the school crisis team. For instance, if the school was in a rural, urban, or suburban area, there were professional development implications related to collaborating with emergency response personnel. School-based professionals in rural areas may need additional training to offer a wide range of support services. In contrast, in urban areas, there may be many professionals with whom to develop collaborative relationships and contribute specific skills and services following a crisis (Capps et al., 2021). Moreover, the needs assessment data should be used to develop culturally responsive

plans (CSAT, 2014). For example, if the school has a large population of students and families who speak a specific language, the needs assessment should identify bilingual responders, interpreters, and translated materials (CSAT, 2014). The process should also establish partnerships with local emergency response agencies and professionals and identify non-partner community agencies and professionals that require further collaboration and communication (CDC, 2011). A needs assessment should be used with a process analysis and outcome evaluation (Brock et al., 2016).

The primary goal of process analysis was to comprehensively understand the tasks performed and the individuals responsible for them during a crisis. It aimed to assess whether these activities aligned with the established plans, also called treatment integrity, formative assessments, or procedural integrity (Brock et al., 2016). Process analysis emphasizes collecting data about the specific actions taken. Approaches to gathering this information usually involve surveys, questionnaires, systematic observations regarding the implementation of strategies, or focus groups (Brock et al., 2016). This type of analysis yielded valuable insights into areas that required additional professional development (Brock et al., 2016). The information obtained from process analysis played a critical role in interpreting the outcome evaluation results (Brock et al., 2016). After identifying the areas of greatest need and selecting specific programs or strategies, the next step was to prepare and implement them. Prior to implementation, it is crucial to identify the critical components of these programs or strategies to assess their systematic implementation. One way to accomplish this was by developing a brief checklist that outlined the essential elements, which were helpful during implementation as they promoted procedural integrity and provided valuable information for process analysis (Brock et al., 2016). Understanding the prevention efforts and who carried them out was also vital in interpreting the

outcome evaluation results since the implementation fidelity may be linked to the outcomes. For instance, if the process analysis revealed that specific individuals did not implement the program's key components or strategies, the outcomes of the students they worked with could be adjusted accordingly (Brock et al., 2016). Crisis preparedness could also be considered to ensure that school crisis plans were clear and all participants understood their responsibilities. A process analysis of crisis preparedness should be conducted. A crucial element of preparedness was developing a detailed crisis plan with outlined strategies and critical components for response. This process analysis involved thoroughly reviewing the school's crisis plan and conducting formal exercises or drills before an actual crisis event (Brock et al., 2016; Schonfeld et al., 2020). Crisis response and recovery should also be considered, as it was crucial to assess the response and recovery process to ensure it was in line with established plans and other relevant factors (Brock et al., 2016; Mutch, 2014). Schools could consider a designated individual to record daily response and recovery actions for each crisis responder, as this documentation aided in a systematic review of the crisis response and recovery processes. Gathering data from focus groups conducted after the immediate crisis response, interviews with school community members, and crisis response debriefings can be helpful (Brock et al., 2016).

The purpose of an outcome evaluation, also called a summative evaluation, was to assess the effectiveness of crisis prevention, preparedness, response, and recovery measures. Each objective must be clearly defined and quantifiable (Brock et al., 2016). Various assessment methods were available, including surveys, questionnaires, systematic observations regarding the implementation of strategies, focus groups, and reviews of archival records. A baseline evaluation was recommended to assess outcomes (Brock et al., 2016). This could be achieved by analyzing data readily available in the school's archival records, such as discipline referrals,

attendance records, school-wide screeners used for needs assessment, or reports of student-inflicted injuries. The school's crisis plans included measurable objectives for each crisis prevention, preparedness, response, and recovery activities (Brock et al., 2016). Proficiency in data management and analysis, such as basic statistics, and the ability to generate figures, summary tables, and charts were essential for evaluating outcomes in this type of assessment (Brock et al., 2016). Evaluating whether crisis prevention objectives have been met was a crucial step, and outcome evaluation played a vital role in this process. To ensure success in prevention activities, it was essential to identify specific outcomes and appropriate measures in the crisis plan (Brock et al., 2016). Typical outcomes related to prevention efforts included aggression, student attendance, problem behaviors, delinquency, social skills, violence, school grades, discipline, office discipline referrals, or social competence abilities. Based on the outcome evaluation, prevention efforts shifted to other areas of need, sustained positive outcomes, or addressed issues related to implementation integrity through further professional development (Brock et al., 2016). When evaluating a school's crisis preparedness by outcome evaluations, conducting a comprehensive assessment of their crisis plans and team infrastructure was essential to ensure they were in line with best practices (Wiśniewski, 2022). Furthermore, it was crucial to regularly review all crisis preparedness materials, including plans, procedures, policies, communication documents, and handouts, on an annual basis to uphold a state of preparedness (Aspiranti et al., 2011; Brock et al., 2016). Conducting an outcome evaluation served the vital purpose of assessing the efficacy of crisis response and recovery efforts toward achieving specific objectives (MacNeil & Topping, 2007). These objectives involved evaluating students' and staff's adaptability and scrutinizing student access to supported services (Brock et al., 2016).

It was imperative to establish unambiguous objectives and outcomes beforehand, which enabled the formulation of effective strategies to accomplish them.

Comparing Rural versus City Crisis Plans

It was of utmost importance to make distinctions between crisis intervention and prevention literature resources for rural versus more urban school districts. This was due to several critical reasons that need to be considered. For instance, more limited accessibility to emergency providers was a crucial factor that needs to be considered (MacNeil & Topping, 2007). Similarly, access to healthcare services was another crucial factor that could play a significant role in emergencies and was essential to ensure that both rural schools had the necessary resources available in the case of a crisis (Allen et al., 2003; Showalter et al., 2023).

Furthermore, mental health professionals and support services were also essential components that could be more limited in availability in a rural setting (Graves et al., 2023; Showalter et al., 2023). Additionally, emergency supplies such as water, food, and communication devices were critical resources that needed to be allocated to ensure appropriate response during a crisis (Allen et al., 2003).

In rural schools, coordination of multiple crisis intervention or response components was particularly challenging (Allen et al., 2003). This could specifically be difficult when individuals in a rural setting have multiple responsibilities or roles to play during a crisis event. Moreover, resources allocated to crisis intervention and prevention plans, including funding and community resources, were crucial factors that needed consideration (Allen et al., 2003). Lack of public transportation was also a significant obstacle that impacted rural schools' capacity to respond effectively to crisis events (Showalter et al., 2023).

Several crisis events in South Dakota highlight the importance of crisis intervention and prevention procedures. Recent events include the leaders of a South Dakota tribe declaring a state of emergency on the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation due to rampant crimes such as gun violence, drug offenses, and rapes. This is partially because there are 33 officers in charge of responding to over 100,000 emergency calls across 5,400 square miles (Ahmed, 2023). Weather events also affect the state of South Dakota, with tornadoes, hail, damaging winds, supercell thunderstorms, blizzards, and flooding happening all over the state (US Department of Commerce, 2024).

While the current evaluation methods were accurate, the sheer amount of information could be daunting for crisis prevention teams tasked with assessing their plans. A more straightforward yet equally effective measure should enable all school crisis teams to evaluate their plans. In this current study, the state of South Dakota was examined explicitly since it is a rural populated area with less research focused on improving crisis intervention outcomes. Research into crisis intervention models in rural school communities was limited. While models existed, it was difficult to determine their effectiveness. This current study aimed to expand on information related to rural school communities, specifically in South Dakota. The South Dakota Department of Health (2021) found that suicide was the leading cause of death among individuals ages 10-19, and those numbers were increasing. Between 2011 and 2020, over 1600 suicides were reported in S.D., with the highest numbers among the Native American population within S.D. (South Dakota Department of Health, 2021). The present statistics were concerning and suggest the need for focused research into crisis intervention models currently employed in South Dakota. We needed to address the issue at hand with a comprehensive approach to ensure the safety and well-being of the affected individuals. Therefore, it was recommended that a

detailed study be conducted to identify the underlying causes and potential remedies for the alarming trend. This research enabled us to develop and implement evidence-based interventions that provided practical support to those in need and helped prevent future crises.

Gaps in the Literature

Improving school-based crisis intervention requires extensive research to address schools' numerous challenges. One such challenge is to evaluate the current intervention models employed in schools. Evaluating these models is essential to ensure the safety and well-being of students, staff, and community members. It enables us to determine if the models in place are effective in preventing and responding to crisis events. Additionally, we must consider special populations, such as rural versus urban populations, and factor in culturally specific interventions following a crisis. Therefore, we must conduct thorough evaluations of intervention models and tailor them to meet the needs of diverse populations.

There is no one-size-fits-all approach when it comes to planning and implementing interventions in schools during crisis events. The strategies utilized may vary depending on different factors, such as whether the school is rural or urban. Rural schools, in particular, face unique challenges that require special consideration. For instance, rural school districts may lack the resources to provide funding or training for crisis preparedness to faculty, staff, and students' families (Kruger, 2018). This means that staff members may not be adequately equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge to respond effectively to a crisis. Moreover, staff members in rural areas are often responsible for multiple roles within the crisis intervention team, which can strain their capacity to respond in an emergency. Another challenge that rural schools face is limited access to mental health and physical hospital or clinic locations. This could make it difficult for crisis team staff to refer students, staff, and community members who require

assistance with appropriate healthcare facilities (Werth et al., 2010). As a result, rural schools need to develop alternative strategies to ensure that their students and staff receive the support they need during a crisis. Apart from the issues discussed earlier regarding rural schools, it is equally important to delve further into culturally responsive crisis intervention strategies. More extensive research is needed in this area to address the unique needs of diverse populations effectively during times of crisis.

As the need for culturally responsive practices for students continues to grow, it has become increasingly apparent that these practices must also extend to crisis intervention. However, evaluating the effectiveness of a crisis plan remains a challenge. To achieve a better understanding, exploring various methods for measuring effectiveness and engaging in further discussion is crucial.

Current Study

The objective of this present study was to investigate the variances in crisis intervention strategies utilized by schools in South Dakota. The primary aim was to assist rural schools in detecting deficiencies in their current crisis plans. To accomplish this, a random sample of several schools' crisis plans was selected and evaluated by comparing all plans against (Table 1) *Figure 17.1: Examining Crisis Plan Preparedness from School Crisis Prevention and Intervention: The PREPaRE Model, 2009.* This approach enabled the researchers to pinpoint the specific aspects where the schools' crisis plans are inadequate or comprehensive.

Research Questions

An exploratory chi-square analysis was conducted on the randomly selected group of crisis intervention plans from schools in South Dakota with the locale code of Rural or City (Table 2) and compared to the utilized selected checklist. The effectiveness of these plans was

evaluated against a checklist (Table 1) broken down into four categories, as discussed above. Based on this information, is there a statistically significant difference between rural and urban schools concerning the components included in school crisis plans, as measured by a chi-square test of independence?

Hypothesis

Based on all the available information, researchers expected to find that South Dakota schools located in "City" geographical areas would meet more criteria on the checklist being utilized (Table 1) than schools located in "Rural" geographical areas. This was due to schools in rural areas typically not having or utilizing as many resources as those in more urbanized areas. Results from this study reported deidentified information and included what components of crisis intervention and prevention plans are and are not included in rural/city geographical areas. This information can allow crisis teams in other areas in South Dakota to build on their current plans in order to incorporate crisis intervention plans that are more effective and can hopefully address the statistics outlined earlier regarding youth deaths in South Dakota.

The null hypothesis in this case was Ho: Rural and City school crisis intervention plans contain no significant differences. The alternative hypothesis was Ha: Rural and City school crisis intervention plans contain significant differences.

Methods

Random Sampling Procedure

For the current study, the researchers systematically collected data. They created a comprehensive spreadsheet of all the individual schools within the state of South Dakota, the school district they are a part of, the category of location (rural, town, suburb, city), and their locale classification. This information was gathered by consulting publicly available data on the

Census website. The Census used NCES's classification system, which divided school districts into twelve categories, each with three subtypes. Table 2 lists the school districts in South Dakota and their Locale classification category. This study's definitions of rural and urban areas were based on the Education Demographics and Geographic Estimates. This included four categories: rural, town, suburb, and city. Each category had three subcategories: remote, distant, and fringe. Rural areas included Fringe (41), which was rural territory within 5 miles of an urbanized area or within 2.5 miles of an urban cluster; Distant (42), which was rural territory more than 5 miles but less than or equal to 25 miles from an urbanized area or more than 2.5 miles but less than or equal to 10 miles from an urban cluster; and Remote (43), which was rural territory more than 25 miles from an urbanized area and more than 10 miles from an urban cluster. Town areas included Fringe (31), which was territory inside an urban cluster within 10 miles of an urbanized area; Distant (32), which was territory inside an urban cluster more than 10 miles but less than or equal to 35 miles from an urbanized area; and Remote (33), which was territory inside an urban cluster more than 35 miles from an urbanized area. Suburban areas included Large (21), which was territory within an urbanized area with a population of 250,000 or more but outside a principal city; Midsize (22), which was territory within an urbanized area with a population less than 250,000 and greater than or equal to 100,000 but outside a principal city; and Small (23), which was territory within an urbanized area with a population less than 100,000 but outside a principal city. City areas included Large (11), which was territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with a population of 250,000 or more; Midsize (12), which was territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with a population less than 250,000 and greater than or equal to 100,000; and Small (13), which was territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with a population less than 100,000. For this study,

only school districts categorized as Rural or City were used to compare crisis plans. Based on the information presented in Table 2, there were 149 school districts in South Dakota, with a total of 710 individual schools, which are classified into different categories discussed above. Out of these, two districts with 74 individual schools fell under the City category, 1 district under Suburb, 20 districts under Town, and 124 districts with 514 individual schools under Rural. Further, there was 1 Midsize City (12) district, 1 Small City (13) district, 1 Midsize Suburban (22) district, 2 Fringe Town districts, 6 Distant Town districts, 13 Remote Town districts, 4 Fringe Rural districts, 27 Distant Rural districts, and 94 Remote Rural districts. To break this information down further, there were 47 Midsize City individual schools, 27 Small City individual schools, 4 Midsize Suburban individual schools, 13 Fringe Town individual schools, 24 Distant Town individual schools, 81 Remote Town individual schools, 34 Fringe Rural individual schools, 102 Distant Rural individual schools, and 378 Remote Rural individual schools.

Determining Sample Size

An adequate sample size was calculated by use of G*Power 3.1, a priori power analysis sample size calculator (Alpha level was set at .05, Power (1-β) = .95, number of degrees of freedom was at 5 (critical features). Expected coefficient was set at .7 (large effect)) (Becker, 2000). Based on this calculation, a sample size of 41 was required in order to have adequate power to preform an analysis. A random sample was obtained to obtain meaningful results for schools in South Dakota. According to information collected in Table 2, approximately 588 schools met the eligibility requirements for being identified as having a city or rural locale code. Of those 588 schools, 74 were in urbanized areas, while 514 were in rural areas. A true random sample required an equal proportion of city and rural schools. For city schools, 74 schools

compared to the total of 588 was equal to 0.12585 or approximately 12.5%. For rural schools, 514 schools compared to the total of 588 was equal to 0.87415 or approximately 87%. This means that the random sample included a sample of 0.12585 city schools and a sample of 0.87415 rural schools. The sample for city schools (0.12585) required the intended number of plans of 53 to be 6.670068 or rounded to 7. The sample for rural schools (0.87415) required the intended number of plans of 53 to be 46.32993 or rounded down to 46.

Random Sample

A random sample generator was utilized to obtain a random sample of 7 city schools and 46 rural schools for a total random sample of 53 South Dakota schools. The random sample generator used in this case was Research Randomizer, located at www.randomizer.org. All schools with locale codes corresponding to City or Rural were inputted into an Excel sheet and assigned a number. For city schools, each school was assigned a number 1 through 74. For rural schools, each school was assigned a number 1 through 514. The random generator assigned the numbers 16, 40, 42, 48, 56, 72, and 73 for city schools. The random generator assigned the numbers 2, 9, 14, 30, 45, 54, 60, 64, 78, 92, 111, 122, 129, 132, 141, 143, 151, 172, 176, 198, 208, 211, 236, 239, 262, 288, 289, 292, 302, 320, 334,339, 348, 360, 361, 372, 380, 389, 393, 401, 403, 436, 447, 458, 476, 497 for rural schools. The schools in South Dakota that were randomly selected with the locale code consistent with city and rural identification were those assigned to the abovementioned numbers. A resampling procedure was utilized during this study for rural schools, which included a random sampler being utilized again with the sample of rural South Dakota schools minus the schools already sampled in the first random sampling procedure. For rural schools, each school was assigned a number 1 through 468, and the random generator assigned the numbers 4, 10, 15, 19, 22, 41, 58, 62, 64, 66, 68, 93, 97, 106, 112, 135, 151, 162,

163, 172, 178, 179, 190, 201, 216, 221, 232, 242, 250, 262, 291, 295, 314, 316, 328, 330, 358, 366, 369, 400, 413, 420, 421, 435, 442, 443. The schools in South Dakota that were randomly selected with the locale code consistent with a rural identification were those assigned to the abovementioned numbers.

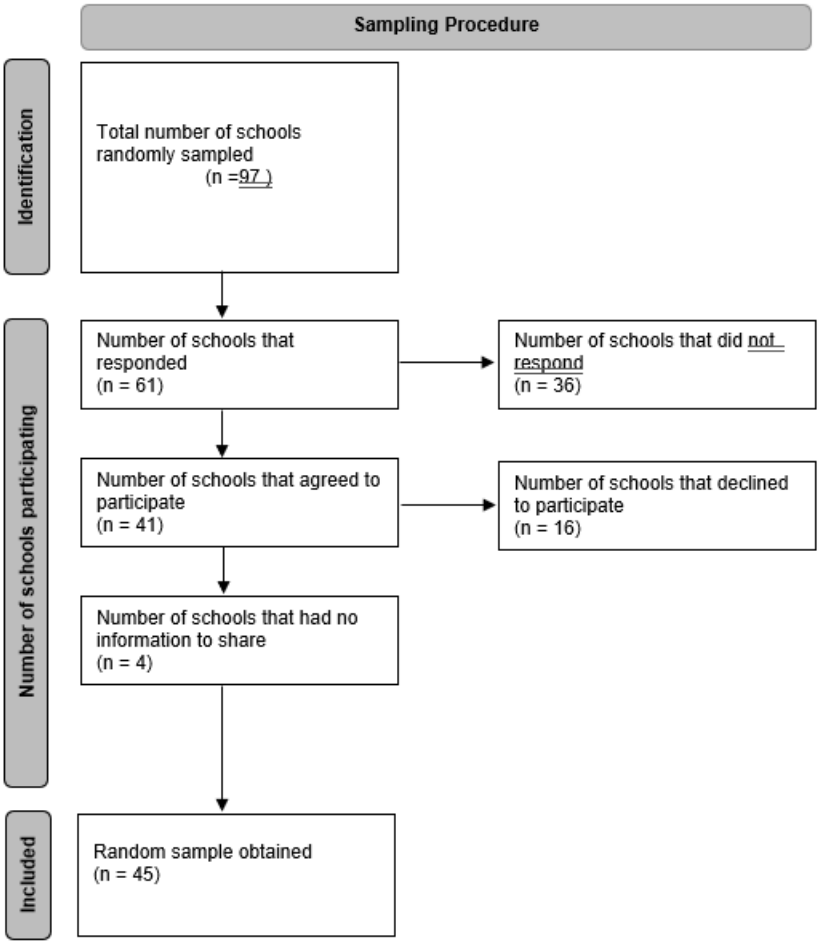
School Recruitment

Individual schools were randomly selected from a list containing all South Dakota schools located within a rural or city locale code to obtain a truly randomized sample of schools from South Dakota whose crisis intervention plans were analyzed for this study. The researchers then went to publicly available sources to find contact information for each superintendent, building principal, administration assistant, office secretary, school counselor, mental health professional, or risk manager managing that school's crisis information. All this information was compiled into an Excel sheet available to students and primary investigators.

After the random sampling was completed, the researchers compiled the contact information for each selected school. The information acquired included the individual school superintendent's name, phone number, and email, as well as the principal’s name, phone number, and email. All information was found on a publicly available website, the South Dakota Department of Education, at https://doe.sd.gov. This website included all publicly available information on all South Dakota public schools. Figure 2 includes the total number of schools sampled, the number that declined to participate, and the number of schools that agreed to participate in the study.

Figure 2

Example of Total Number of School’s Sampled



Categories of Checklist

The checklist may be difficult to comprehend because each question must be analyzed individually. In addition, to reduce the amount of error introduced into the study, the analysis included breaking the checklist down into four categories related to the questions being asked in the checklist. According to the U.S. Department of Education's Practical Information on Crisis Planning: A Guide For Schools and Communities, information related to crisis intervention and prevention can be broken down into mitigation and prevention, preparedness, response, and recovery. This guide stated that Mitigation and Prevention addressed the measures that school districts and individual schools took to minimize or eliminate hazards to life and property (2007). This entailed undertaking actions to reduce the need for response rather than merely enhancing

the capacity to respond. Tasks related to this goal included establishing communication channels with community emergency responders to identify local hazards, scrutinizing the last safety audit to evaluate the school building or grounds, ascertaining the individual or group responsible for overseeing violence prevention strategies within the school, soliciting feedback from staff during the crisis planning process, examining incident data, identifying significant issues in the school concerning student crime and violence, assessing the school's response to these issues, and conducting an evaluation to determine how the problem affected vulnerability to specific areas. (USDoE, 2016). The guide illustrated that Preparedness included an underlying emphasis on devising a plan to address the situation in which the worst-case scenario arose (USDoE, 2007). This translates to effective crisis management necessitating sound planning and prompt, well-coordinated, and efficient responses. Tasks required to accomplish this goal involved undertaking several tasks, including but not limited to ascertaining the crisis management strategies currently in place in the district, school, and community, identifying all the stakeholders involved in the crisis management plan, devising communication protocols for all significant parties, including students, staff, families, and media, creating systems to account for all students during a crisis, gathering pertinent information about the school facility, such as maps and the location of utility shutoffs, and recognizing the essential equipment required to aid staff during a crisis. (USDoE, 2016). The guide mentioned that response involves steps taken during a crisis event (USDoE, 2007). This translated to adhering to the crisis plan and leveraging the existing preparations to manage the situation effectively. The tasks required to do this included determining the presence of a crisis event, identifying the type of crisis event, activating an incident management system, ascertaining the appropriate response (evacuation, reverse evacuation, lockdown, or shelter-in-place), ensuring continuous communication among all

designated staff, identifying key persons who need to be informed (staff, students, families, and the community), monitoring the provision of emergency first aid to the injured, and determining if additional equipment and supplies are necessary. Effective execution of these tasks was crucial to ensuring the safety and security of all individuals involved in the crisis. (USDoE, 2016). The guide stated that Recovery pertained to restoring the learning and teaching environment after a crisis (USDoE, 2007). This pertained to the expedited process of resuming academic activities and restoring a school's physical facilities. The tasks to complete included resuming learning activities as soon as possible, restoring the physical plant and the community, evaluating how the staff is assessing the emotional impact of the crisis on students, identifying the follow-up interventions that are available to all those potentially affected, including students, staff, first responders, families, and community members. Additionally, debriefing sessions with staff and first responders needed to be conducted, curricular activities that address the crisis need to be assessed, and adequate time for recovery needs to be allocated. Furthermore, planning how anniversaries of events were commemorated was necessary, and the information gained from the crisis needed to be captured and incorporated into revisions or training programs. (USDoE, 2016).

Breakdown of Checklist into Categories

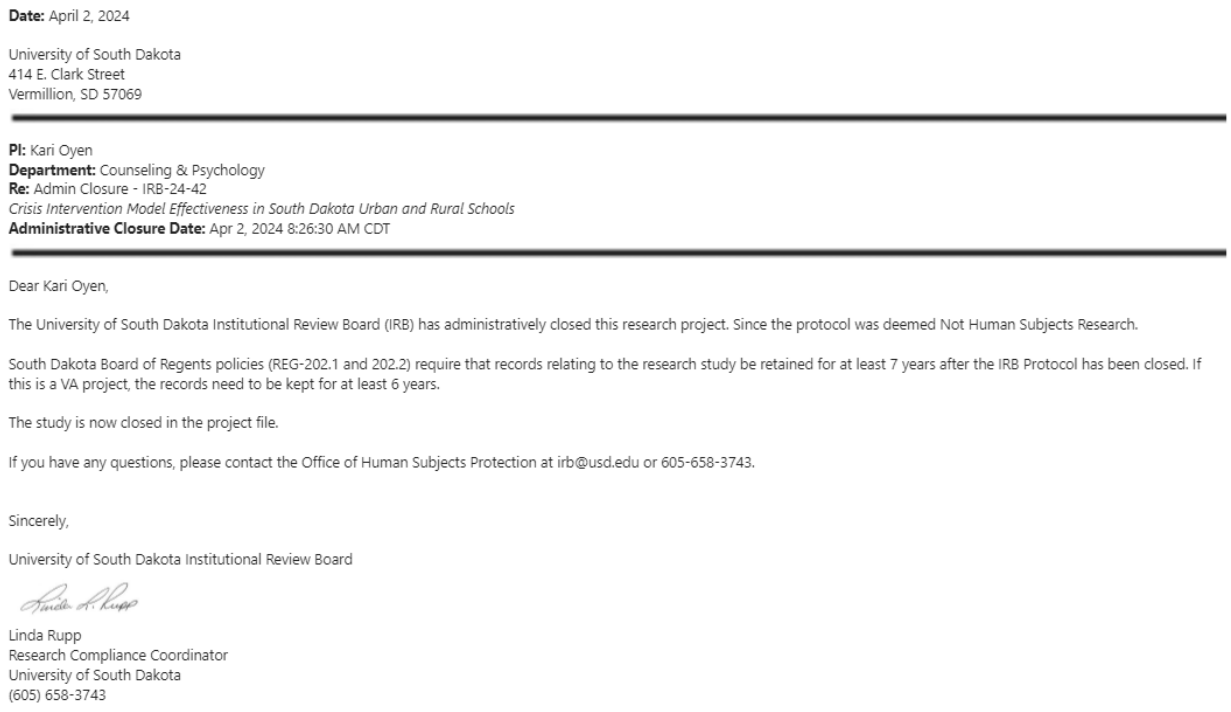
The researchers took the checklist in Table 1 into the four categories defined above mitigation and prevention, preparedness, response, and recovery. The questions were put into each category based on the type of question and the component of crisis intervention under which the question was most appropriately assigned. The questions from the checklist that were included in the mitigation and prevention category are “Include clear discipline codes with consistent reinforcement?”, “Require staff to have emergency numbers posted by their phones?”

"Require an annual review of physical safety of the building(s)?" and "Allow for other responders outside the school to access blueprints and floor plans?". The questions from the checklist that were included in the preparedness category are "Was the crisis plan developed in cooperation with all stakeholders (Checkmark: police, fire, rescues, community agencies, parents, students, hospitals, and community members)?", "Include a mission statement?", "Require regular crisis drills?", "Include a fully stocked and updated crisis box/cart that can be immediately accessed?" "Clearly identify leaders that fulfill positions within the ICS?; Incident commander, Planning & intelligence section, Operations section, Logistics section, Finance section", "Include requirements for responding to the needs of special needs students?.", and "Have policies/procedures for responding to suicide and suicide contagion issues?". The questions from the checklist that were included in the response category are "Provide sufficient communication during emergencies (e.g., walkie-talkies, multiple phone lines)?", "Identify area(s) where students, staff, parents, and caregivers should reunite in an emergency?", "Provide clear bus routes and an adequate fleet of buses for transporting students to reunion area or other necessary locations?", "Consider how to obtain and effectively use volunteer support?", "Include a policy on verifying facts before releasing them to the public?", "Include a timely and effective means for informing parents and the community of new information?", and "Include a defined policy and system for swiftly and reliably responding to media queries that is managed by two or fewer individuals?". The questions from the checklist that were included in the recovery category are "Clearly stated chain of command (Incident Command System)?", "Consider alternative sites for conducting school if the building is destroyed or unusable?", "Designate safe areas for staff and students to receive help before, during, and after school?", "Allow students to obtain assistance from additional support staff and community-based professionals?", and "Have

policies/procedures for responding to requests for memorials or anniversaries of an event?". In summary, there were four questions from the checklist in the mitigation and prevention category, seven questions from the checklist in the preparedness category, seven questions from the checklist in the response category, and five questions from the checklist in the recovery category.

IRB

The researchers were able to determine that IRB was not needed for this project due to an email received by the dissertation chairman and researcher on 04/02/2024, which indicated that The University of South Dakota Institutional Review Board had rendered the decision that this project did not qualify as human research therefore, IRB approval was not required to collect data and completed an analysis on the data collected as seen in Figure 1.



Date: April 2, 2024

University of South Dakota
414 E. Clark Street
Vermillion, SD 57069

PI: Kari Oyen
Department: Counseling & Psychology
Re: Admin Closure - IRB-24-42
Crisis Intervention Model Effectiveness in South Dakota Urban and Rural Schools
Administrative Closure Date: Apr 2, 2024 8:26:30 AM CDT

Dear Kari Oyen,

The University of South Dakota Institutional Review Board (IRB) has administratively closed this research project. Since the protocol was deemed Not Human Subjects Research.

South Dakota Board of Regents policies (REG-202.1 and 202.2) require that records relating to the research study be retained for at least 7 years after the IRB Protocol has been closed. If this is a VA project, the records need to be kept for at least 6 years.

The study is now closed in the project file.

If you have any questions, please contact the Office of Human Subjects Protection at irb@usd.edu or 605-658-3743.

Sincerely,

University of South Dakota Institutional Review Board

Linda Rupp
Research Compliance Coordinator
University of South Dakota
(605) 658-3743

Figure 1. Example of Internal Review Board (IRB) Information. This figure shows the information the research team received regarding the fact that IRB approval was not required to complete the current study.

Data Collection Procedures

The researchers reached out to the designated crisis team liaison or risk management coordinator and principal in the individual with a deadline to collect the plans by May of 2024. The school year in South Dakota ended in May, and with potential personnel changes (superintendent/principals), this was the latest data collection date. The message conveyed was included in Table 3 and was approved by the dissertation chairperson. The procedures for acquiring data for this study involved multiple steps. Step one included sending the email (Table 3) to each school's principal and superintendent/point of contact. Step two involved action if there has been no response within five days or one school week, with an additional email included in Table 4 will be sent to the same contacts. This email reiterated the information sent in the first email and encouraged the principal and superintendent to reach out if they have questions. Step three depended on email response; if a response of “yes” was received, the superintendent was sent the email included in Table 6 and received a phone call from the researchers if requested. If a phone call was requested, the researchers answered the superintendent's questions about the study and what would be done with the information collected. The researchers obtained verbal consent from the superintendent regarding involvement in this study. If a " no " response was received, the researchers sent the email in Table 5. They asked if any questions or information could be left out that would result in the superintendent or principal voluntarily choosing to be a part of the current study. Step four was carried out if no response was received within three days following the second email sent; the researchers sent the email in Table 3 to different contacts at the school, such as administrative assistants, school counselors, or office sectaries. The researchers then determined that a resampling procedure was required since an adequate number of plans was not obtained.

Data Extraction Procedures

Once information was received from any school, it was de-identified and entered into an Excel document, which was password-protected to ensure confidentiality. The researchers reviewed each crisis plan and used the Table 1 checklist to determine whether all necessary components were present. For each item on the checklist, the researchers provided a reason for selecting "yes" or "no." This process was completed for every crisis plan included in the study by May 2024.

Coding Procedures

Coding procedures were necessary for establishing reliability requirements. They served to determine a benchmark for the maximum allowable random measurement error, with higher reliability indicating lower measurement error (What Works Clearinghouse, & American Institutes for Research (AIR), 2020). These criteria have been determined by The What Works Clearinghouse (WWC), which specifically addressed the need for credible information by identifying existing research on education interventions, assessing the quality of this research, and summarizing and disseminating the evidence from studies that meet WWC standards (What Works Clearinghouse, & American Institutes for Research (AIR), 2020). The internal consistency and test-retest reliability assessment helped identify measurement errors resulting from poorly worded questions. Conversely, the measurement errors that arose from coder judgment were captured through inter-rater reliability assessment (What Works Clearinghouse (ED), & American Institutes for Research (AIR), 2020). Despite not introducing any bias, this random error substantially reduced precision and decreased the probability of detecting a real impact, should such an impact exist (What Works Clearinghouse (ED), & American Institutes for Research (AIR), 2020). This procedure dictated that each outcome, or category, was

measured by more than one assessor, with inter-assessor agreement collected with 20% of data points in each condition that met minimal thresholds. In this study, the researcher, who served as the primary coder, systematically coded all the acquired crisis intervention and prevention plans and answered each of the 23 questions included on the checklist. In addition, the guidelines indicated that the percentage of agreement between raters should have been 80% or 0.80. An additional evidence-based system for reporting information, Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA), indicated that the study reported the number of reviewers who screened each record and whether multiple reviewers worked independently at each stage of screening or not. This also included any processes used to resolve disagreements between screeners (Page et al., 2020). It was also recommended that it was reported how many reviewers collected data from each report and whether they worked together or not through this process (Page et al., 2020). The demographic information for the primary and secondary coder included two female Caucasian school psychology graduate students between the ages of 20 and 30.

The primary coder went through all acquired crisis intervention and prevention plans and systematically coded each plan by answering each question within the checklist. Further, to ensure reliability requirements were met, a secondary coder independently evaluated 20% of the total crisis intervention plans (n = 9). The primary coder trained the secondary coder by verbally describing the 23-item checklist and corresponding operational definitions. The secondary coder was provided with three crisis plans found online that are not included in the South Dakota sample of crisis intervention plans. The secondary coder independently evaluated these three plans according to the 23-question checklist. The secondary coder's responses compared to the primary coder's responses. Corrective feedback was provided for items not consistently scored,

and a rationale was provided detailing why an item was scored in a certain way. A minimum of 90% interrater agreement was required on 3 sample plans before the secondary coder could score independently, which was obtained in the current study. If the secondary coder fell below 80% of agreement, a retraining session would have been implemented where a conversation was held about what items were being coded inconsistently and clarified/reviewed operational definitions. A retraining session was not required since 90% of the interrater agreement was found with the 3 sample crisis plans between the primary and secondary coder.

Operational Definitions for Checklist

The checklist from Table 1 included 24 individual questions used to code the collected crisis intervention plans. The first question on the checklist was, “Was the crisis plan developed in cooperation with all stakeholders? Checkmark: (police, fire, rescue, community agencies, parents, students, hospitals, community members)”. The operational definition for question one was to mark any person listed in the crisis intervention and prevention included in the question (police, fire, rescue, community agencies, parents, students, hospitals, community members) as someone who was listed within the plan or reported in the email sent who assisted, participated, or contributed to the crisis intervention or prevention plan.

The second question on the checklist was, “Does the plan include a mission statement?”. The operation definition for question two was to mark “yes” if a concise and straightforward statement that encapsulates the fundamental reason for the existence of the crisis intervention and prevention plan, its guiding principles and beliefs, as well as its long-term objectives and aspirations, was included in the plan. The responder marked “no” if no statement met this criterion included in the crisis intervention and prevention plan.

The third question on the checklist was, “Does the plan include clear discipline codes with consistent reinforcement?”. The operational definition for question three was to mark “yes” if there were examples within the crisis intervention and prevention plan that outline the standards of behavior and the responses expected from students/staff, as well as the plan outlining what actions will take place when standards are and are not met. The responder marked “no” if there were no standards with clear expectations that meet this criterion included in the crisis intervention and prevention plan.

The fourth question on the checklist was, “Provide sufficient communication during emergencies (e.g., walkie-talkies, multiple phone lines)?”. The operational definition for question four was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan mentions the use of any communication device between staff during an emergency event. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of utilizing communication devices during emergencies.

The fifth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan require staff to have emergency numbers posted by their phones?”. The operational definition for question four was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan mentions requiring staff members within a school to have a posted sign of essential phone numbers near their phones in the classroom in case of emergencies. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention requiring staff to have significant phone numbers listed by their classroom phone.

The sixth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan clearly state the chain of command (Incident Command System)?”. The operational definition for question six was to mark “yes” as the crisis intervention and prevention plan clearly states an orderly line of authority within the organization's ranks, with lower levels subordinate to and connected to

higher levels and the order of this organization. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of an Incident Command System meeting this question's criterion.

The seventh question on the checklist was, “Does the plan identify leaders that fulfill positions within the ICS (Incident commander, Planning and intelligence section, Operations section, Logistics section, and Finance section)?”. The operational definition for question seven was to mark “yes” to each position if the responsibility listed is included for any role identified in a crisis intervention and prevention plan. The incident commander was defined as a position within a crisis intervention and prevention plan, responsible for managing the entire incident, ensuring the safety of all individuals involved, providing information services to internal and external stakeholders, and establishing and maintaining communication with other agencies participating in the incident. This essential role required excellent leadership skills, strategic planning, and practical decision-making abilities. The planning and intelligence section included information regarding the responsibility of assessing the situation and resources available, evaluating them, and processing the information to develop action plans. The operations section included information regarding managing the entirety of the ICS. The logistics sections included information related to disseminating information, providing off-incident resources, identifying anticipated and known incident services and support requirements, and requesting additional resources as needed. The finance section included responsibilities related to monitoring the costs of a crisis incident by providing accounting, procurement, time recording, and cost analyses. The responder marked “no” to each of the included positions if there was no mention of a role within the crisis intervention and prevention plan that was accountable for the responsibilities listed above in each position.

The eighth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan require regular crisis drills?”. The operational definition for question eight was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan requires that the school’s population practice crisis intervention procedures such as fire drills, tornado drills, active shooter drills, or any measure where students act out the plan put in place during a non-emergency event. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of practicing crisis drills in the crisis intervention and prevention plan.

The ninth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan include a fully stocked and updated crisis box/cart that can be immediately accused?”. The operations definition for question nine was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan mentions the utilization of a box, cart, or kit that holds supplies needed during an emergency, such as a first aid kit, flashlights, communication devices, or any other materials pertinent to responding to a crisis event. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of utilizing a crisis kit within the crisis plan.

The tenth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan require an annual review of the physical safety of the building(s)?”. The operational definition for question ten was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan requires at least one review per year of potential physical safety measures within the school, such as the use of locking doors, guest entry, or other physical measures that contribute to the overall safety of the building. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of annually reviewing the physical safety features of the school building.

The eleventh question on the checklist was, “Does the plan allow for other responders outside the school to access blueprints and floor plans?". The operational definition for question eleven was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan mentions sending

personnel outside of the immediate school building a copy of the blueprint of the school so that if a crisis were to occur, the respondents would be aware of the physical layout of the school building. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of sharing a copy of the school blueprint with outside personnel who could respond to a crisis event.

The twelfth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan include requirements for responding to the needs of special needs students?”. The operational definition for question twelve was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan mentioned incorporating specific procedures for responding to a crisis event for individuals with disabilities within the school who may not be able to respond to a crisis event in the same manner that a general education student may respond. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of utilizing specific procedures for special populations within the school building.

The thirteenth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan identify the area(s) where students, staff, parents, and caregivers should reunite in an emergency?”. The operational definition for question thirteen was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan mentioned that all individuals within a school should reunite at a predetermined location if a crisis event required the school population to evacuate the school building. This included where the students should go if a crisis event required evacuation and where parents should reunite with their children following a crisis event. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of a predetermined location for the school population to evacuate.

The fourteenth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan provide clear bus routes and an adequate fleet of buses for transporting students to the reunion area or other necessary locations?”. The operational definition for question fourteen was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan mentioned utilizing a set of buses for transportation purposes in

case a crisis event requires the school population to evacuate. This included predetermining where the buses were coming from and the routes those buses would utilize in case of an emergency. The responder marked “no” if there were no mention of using buses during a crisis event or the routes they would use to evacuate the school population safely.

The fifteenth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan consider how to obtain and effectively use volunteer support?”. The operational definition for question fifteen was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan had guidelines for obtaining volunteers to assist during a crisis event and the procedures that volunteers should follow to appropriately assist rather than hinder resolving problems during a crisis event. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of obtaining or using volunteer support during a crisis event within the crisis intervention and prevention plan.

The sixteenth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan include a policy on verifying facts before releasing them to the public?”. The operational definition for question sixteen was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan included procedures for crisis team members to verify crucial detailed information about a crisis event before releasing information to the public. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of verifying information before release to the public during and after a crisis event.

The seventeenth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan include a timely and effective means for informing parents and the community of new information?”. The operational definition for question seventeen was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan has procedures in place for communicating updated information to the parents and community members of students during a crisis event within a school. The responder marked “no” if no

mention of how the crisis team would get updated information to necessary parties during a crisis event.

The eighteenth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan include a defined policy and system for swiftly and reliably responding to media queries managed by two or fewer individuals?”. The operational definition for question eighteen was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan specifically mentioned the responsibility of one or two individuals responsible for responding to questions asked by the community or media following a crisis event. The responder marked “no” if the responsibility for responding to an event was not the responsibility of one or two individuals on a crisis response team within the crisis plan.

The nineteenth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan consider alternative sites for conducting school if the building is destroyed or unusable?”. The operational definition for question nineteen was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan had a plan for utilizing an alternative site for school if a crisis event occurred and did not allow the school population to return to the typical setting. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of an alternative location for school following a crisis event within the crisis intervention and prevention plan.

The twentieth question on the checklist was, “Does the plan designate safe areas for staff and students to receive help before, during, and after school?”. The operational definition for question twenty was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan had guidelines for staff and students to receive assistance following a crisis event. This included receiving mental health services, counseling, or medical assistance before, during, and after school following a crisis. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of a location or time for

students and staff to receive assistance as outlined above in the crisis intervention and prevention plan.

The twenty-first question on the checklist was, “Does the plan allow students to obtain assistance from additional support staff and community-based professionals?”. The operational definition for question twenty-one was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan had guidelines for utilizing outside mental health, first responders, or other community-based professionals following a crisis event for those in the school population affected by the event. The responder marked “no” if there were no mentions of using resources outside the school to help those impacted by a crisis event.

The twenty-second question on the checklist was, “Does the plan have policies/procedures for responding to requests for memorials or anniversaries of an event?”. The operational definition for question twenty-two was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan mentions specific guidelines in place for responding to requests for a memorial or anniversary of a previous crisis event that impacted the school population. The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of specific guidelines for responding to requests for a memorial or anniversary event following a crisis within the crisis intervention or prevention plan.

The twenty-third question on the checklist was, “Does the plan have policies/procedures for responding to suicide and suicide contagion issues?”. The operational definition for question twenty-three was to mark “yes” if the crisis intervention and prevention plan included specific procedures for managing a crisis event related to suicide or suicide contagion within a school. This included how/when school resumed, the resources allocated to those affected by the event, and the messages conveyed to students, families, and community members following the event.

The responder marked “no” if there was no mention of utilizing procedures specifically for suicide or suicide contagion in the crisis plan.

Data Analysis

To examine the relations between the categorical variables and what specific components of crisis intervention plans were missing in rural school districts compared to city school districts, the researchers analyzed the data using four chi-square regression equations to analyze the relations between components of crisis intervention and whether a school was in a rural versus city geographical area. Each chi-square test corresponded to one of the four categories used to organize the checklist. The dependent variable in this case was the number of “yes” and “no” checked in Table 1 for each collected crisis plan.

Data collection procedures started on 04/02/2024 when the researchers sent the email in Table 3 to each of the randomly selected schools in the study. The email sent to each school included the superintendent, building principal, and the dissertation chairman being CC’d. The researchers sent the initial email to all schools on 04/02/2024 and 04/03/2024. For each school that responded with a copy of their crisis intervention and prevention plan, an email was sent back that included the email in Table 6. For each school that responded to the initial email and declined to participate in the study, the schools then received the email included in Table 5. On 04/08/2024, the researchers sent an additional email to all schools that had not responded to the initial email in Table 4, which included the superintendent, building principal, and the dissertation chairman being CC’d. The same procedures outlined above were utilized depending on whether the recipient responded with a plan or declined to participate. On 04/12/2024, the researchers sent a final additional email to all schools that had not responded to the initial or follow-up email included in Table 4 or 5, which included additional personnel within the

building that could potentially provide this information in addition to the dissertation chairman being CC'd. This includes administrative assistants, school counselors, risk-assessment managers, or the office secretary. The same procedures outlined above were utilized depending on whether the recipient responded with a plan or declined to participate. Following these emails, the researchers obtained 22 crisis plans, including the city schools' crisis intervention and prevention plans.

A resampling procedure for rural schools was then completed in order to attempt to obtain an adequate number of crisis intervention and prevention plans to run an analysis. The researchers had obtained adequate city school crisis plans, so the resampling procedure included only rural schools. Data collection procedures for the resampling started on 04/26/2024 when the researchers sent the email in Table 3 to each of the randomly selected rural schools in the study. For each school that responded with a copy of their crisis intervention and prevention plan, an email was sent back that included the email in Table 6. For each school that responded to the initial email and declined to participate in the study, the schools then received the email included in Table 5. On 05/02/2024, the researchers sent an additional email to all schools that had not responded to the initial email in Table 4, including the superintendent, building principal, and the dissertation chairman being CC'd. The same procedures outlined above were utilized depending on whether the recipient responded with a plan or declined to participate. On 05/07/2024, the researchers sent a final additional email to all schools that had not responded to the initial or follow-up email in Table 4 or 5, which included additional personnel within the building that could provide this information and the dissertation chairman being CC'd. This includes administrative assistants, school counselors, risk-assessment managers, or the office secretary. The same procedures outlined above were utilized depending on whether the recipient responded

with a plan or declined to participate. Following these emails, the researchers obtained 23 crisis plans from rural schools.

Results

The researchers obtained 45 crisis intervention and prevention plans from randomly selected individual schools in South Dakota with a locale classification code of City or Rural. Of the collected plans, 38 were from rural schools, while seven were from city schools.

Descriptive Statistics

The following information was gathered from the 45 crisis intervention and prevention plans collected during this study. Within the checklist utilized for this study, for question 1 (Was the crisis plan developed in cooperation with all stakeholders?), 6 of the 39 collected crisis plans met the criteria to checkmark all the stakeholders listed. By locale, 0% of rural schools (n = 0) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) developed crisis plans in cooperation with key stakeholders.

For question 2 (Include a mission statement?), 30 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 15 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 60.5% of rural schools (n = 23) and 100% of city schools (n = 7) included a mission statement.

For question 3 (Include clear discipline codes with consistent reinforcement?), 2 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 43 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 5.3% of rural schools (n = 2) and 0% of city schools (n = 0) included a clear discipline code with consistent reinforcement.

For question 4 (Provide sufficient communication during emergencies?), 17 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 28 of

the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 26.3% of rural schools (n = 10) and 100% of city schools (n = 7) included providing sufficient communication during emergencies.

For question 5 (Require staff to have emergency numbers posted on their phones?), 9 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES.” In comparison, 36 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 7.9% of rural schools (n = 3) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included requiring staff to have emergency numbers posted by their phones.

For question 6 (Clearly stated chain of command (Incident Command System)?), 30 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 15 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 60.5% of rural schools (n = 23) and 100% of city schools (n = 7) included crisis plans that clearly stated the chain of command (Incident Command System).

For question 7 (Clearly identify leaders that fulfill positions within the ICS?), 11 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES.” In comparison, 34 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 13.2% of rural schools (n = 5) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included identified leaders who fulfilled positions within the ICS.

For question 7a ("Incident commander"), 17 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES.” In comparison, 28 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 28.9% of rural schools (n = 11) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included a position within the ICS titled Incident Commander.

For question 7b ("Planning and Intelligence Section"), 10 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 35 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 10.5% of rural schools (n = 4) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included a position within the ICS titled the Planning and Intelligence section.

For question 7c ("Operations Section"), 10 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES.” In comparison, 35 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 10.5% of rural schools (n = 4) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included a position within the ICS titled the Operations section.

For question 7d ("Logistics Section"), 10 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES.” In comparison, 35 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 10.5% of rural schools (n = 4) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included a position within the ICS titled the Logistics section.

For question 7e ("Finance Section"), 10 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 35 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 10.5% of rural schools (n = 4) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included a position within the ICS titled the Finance section.

For question 8 (Require regular crisis drills?), 18 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 27 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 31.6% of rural schools (n = 12) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included procedures that required crisis drills.

For question 9 (Include a fully stocked and updated crisis box that can be immediately accessed?), 17 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 28 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 28.9% of rural schools (n = 11) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included a fully stocked and updated crisis box/cart that could be immediately accessed.

For question 10 (Require an annual review of physical safety of the building(s)?), 9 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 36 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 7.9% of rural schools (n = 3) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included a required annual review of the physical safety of the building.

For question 11 (Allow for other responders outside the school to access blueprints and floor plans?), 6 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 39 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 0% of rural schools (n = 0) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included allowing for responders outside of the building to access blueprints and floor plans of the school.

For question 12 (Include requirements for responding to the needs of special needs students?), 18 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES.” In comparison, 27 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 28.9% of rural schools (n = 11) and 100% of city schools (n = 7) included requirements for responding to special needs students.

For question 13 (Identify area(s) where students, staff, parents, and caregivers should reunite in an emergency?), 21 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES”, while 24 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established

criteria and were marked “NO”. By locale, 36.8% of rural schools (n = 14) and 100% of city schools (n = 7) included identified areas where students, staff, parents, and caregivers could reunite in an emergency.

For question 14 (Provide clear bus routes and an adequate fleet of buses for transporting students to reunion area or other necessary locations?), 10 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES”, while 35 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO”. By locale, 10.5% of rural schools (n = 4) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included providing clear bus routes and an adequate fleet of buses for transporting students to the reunion area or other necessary locations.

For question 15 (Consider how to obtain and effectively use volunteer support?), 12 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES”, while 33 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO”. By locale, 15.8% of rural schools (n = 6) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included considerations regarding how to obtain and effectively utilize volunteer support.

For question 16 (Include a policy on verifying facts before releasing them to the public?), 16 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES”, while 29 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO”. By locale, 26.3% of rural schools (n = 10) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included developing a policy on verifying facts before releasing information to the public.

For question 17 (Include a timely and effective means for informing parents and the community of new information?), 13 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES.” In comparison, 32 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 18.4% of rural schools (n = 7) and 85.7%

of city schools (n = 6) included a timely and effective means for informing parents and the community of new information.

For question 18 (Include a defined policy and system for swiftly and reliably responding to media queries that two or fewer individuals manage?), 33 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked "YES." In contrast, 12 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked "NO." By locale, 71.1% of rural schools (n = 27) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included a defined policy and system for swiftly and reliably responding to media queries managed by two or fewer individuals.

For question 19 (Consider alternative sites for conducting school if the building is destroyed or unusable?), 14 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked "YES," while 31 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked "NO." By locale, 21.1% of rural schools (n = 8) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included alternative sites for conducting school if the building is destroyed or unusable.

For question 20 (Designate safe areas for staff and students to receive help before, during, and after school?), 6 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked "YES." In comparison, 39 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked "NO." By locale, 0% of rural schools (n = 0) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included designated safe areas for staff and students to receive help before, during, and after school.

For question 21 (Allow students to obtain assistance from additional support staff and community-based professionals?), 19 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked "YES," while 26 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established

criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 34.2% of rural schools (n = 13) and 85.7% of city schools (n = 6) included policies or procedures that allowed students to obtain assistance from additional support staff and community-based professionals.

For question 22 (Have policies/procedures for responding to requests for memorials or anniversaries of an event?), 11 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES.” In comparison, 34 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 28.9% of rural schools (n = 11) and 0% of city schools (n = 0) included policies/procedures for responding to requests for memorials or anniversaries of an event.

For question 23 (Have policies/procedures for responding to suicide and suicide contagion issues?), 15 of the 45 crisis plans met the previously established criteria for inclusion to be marked “YES,” while 30 of the 45 crisis plans did not meet the established criteria and were marked “NO.” By locale, 21.1% of rural schools (n = 8) and 100% of city schools (n = 7) included policies/procedures for responding to suicide and suicide contagion issues.

Table 7 illustrates the proportion of schools from each category that included components from the question and the corresponding percentage.

Table 7

Proportions of Categories (Rural vs City) and Percentages of Included Components from Checklist

Question in Checklist	Category	
Question	Rural	City
1 (developed with stakeholders)	(n = 0, 0%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
2 (mission statement)	(n = 23, 60.5%)	(n = 7, 100%)
3 (discipline code)	(n = 2, 5.3%)	(n = 0, 0%)
4 (sufficient communication)	(n = 10, 26.3%)	(n = 7, 100%)
5 (emergency numbers)	(n = 3, 7.9%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
6 (Incident Command System)	(n = 23, 60.5%)	(n = 7, 100%)

7 (positions in ICS)	(n = 5, 13.2%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
7(i.) (incident commander)	(n = 11, 28.9%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
7(ii.) (planning and intelligence)	(n = 4, 10.5%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
7(iii.) (operations)	(n = 4, 10.5%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
7(iv.) (logistics)	(n = 4, 10.5%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
7(v.) (finance)	(n = 4, 10.5%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
8 (crisis drills)	(n = 12, 31.6%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
9 (crisis box/cart)	(n = 11, 28.9%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
10 (annual review)	(n = 3, 7.9%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
11 (blueprints/floorplans)	(n = 0, 0%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
12 (students with disabilities)	(n = 11, 28.9%)	(n = 7, 100%)
13 (reunification location)	(n = 14, 36.8%)	(n = 7, 100%)
14 (busses and routes)	(n = 4, 10.5%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
15 (volunteer support)	(n = 4, 10.5%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
16 (verifying information)	(n = 10, 26.3%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
17 (informing parents)	(n = 7, 18.4%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
18 (media queries)	(n = 27, 71.1%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
19 (alternative school location)	(n = 8, 21.1%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
20 (location to receive help)	(n = 0, 0%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
21 (assistance from professionals)	(n = 13, 34.2%)	(n = 6, 85.7%)
22 (memorials/anniversaries)	(n = 11, 28.9%)	(n = 0, 0%)
23 (suicide/suicide contagion)	(n = 8, 21.1%)	(n = 7, 100%)

Inter-observer agreement As mentioned above, the inter-observer agreement (IOA) procedure required collecting 20% of data points in each condition to meet the minimal thresholds. In this study, the researcher, who served as the primary coder, systematically coded all data acquired from each of the 45 crisis intervention and prevention plans and answered each of the 23 questions on the checklist. Guidelines for consistent IOA agreement indicated that the percentage of agreement between raters should be 80% or 0.80. In this case, the secondary coder was responsible for coding nine plans, which accounted for 20% of the 45 plans collected overall. A random sampler generator was utilized to obtain a random sample of 9 crisis plans from the total number collected in this study. In this case, the random sample obtained included crisis plans 4, 11, 12, 14, 15, 22, 23, 31, and 33. The secondary coder was taught coding procedures utilizing the operational definitions for each question on the checklist. The secondary

coder was provided with three examples of crisis intervention and prevention plans and instructed to code the material independently in an Excel sheet provided by the primary coder to learn proper coding procedures. A minimum of 90% interrater agreement was found between the practice crisis intervention and prevention plans.

After the training session, the primary coder shared a password-protected folder that included the current study's randomly sampled crisis intervention and prevention plans. The plans were labeled with the assigned numbers (4, 11, 12, 14, 15, 22, 23, 31, and 33), and any identifying information was removed before the secondary coder obtained access to the information. The secondary coder independently coded all nine crisis intervention and prevention plans in a password-protected Excel sheet that the primary coder provided. After coding independently, the secondary coder sent the Excel sheet back to the primary coder, who calculated the number of discrepancies in each plan in order to calculate the IOA agreement percentage. Each plan that was coded by the second coder was compared to the original coded responses of the primary coder, and the discrepancy was put in a fraction format. For example, for crisis plan number 4, there was one discrepancy among the 28 coded items, so the fraction of IOA agreement for that plan was 27 of 28 or 0.96. This procedure was repeated for all 9 crisis intervention and prevention plans. After the decimal was determined for each plan, the 9 decimal places were added together (8.14) and then divided by the total number of plans (9), which resulted in an IOA agreement level of 0.904 or 90.1%, which met the minimum requirement of 0.80 or 80% IOA agreement between coders.

Table 8

Inter-observer Agreement Decimals and Percentage Overall

Crisis Plan Number	IOA Agreement
4	27/28 = 0.96

11	28/28 = 1.00
12	24/28 = 0.86
14	26/28 = 0.93
15	23/28 = 0.82
22	25/28 = 0.89
23	24/28 = 0.86
31	26/28 = 0.93
33	25/28 = 0.89
Total	8.14/9 = 0.91

Note: This table shows the decimal place obtained from comparing the primary and secondary coders' overall agreement for each of the 28 independently coded items of the 23-question checklist and the overall IOA agreement percentage obtained.

Chi-square Regression Analysis

An exploratory chi-square analysis was completed to determine what variances exist in the collected sample of crisis intervention and prevention plans. In this case, the null hypothesis was that Ho: Rural and City school crisis intervention plans contain no significant differences, and the alternative hypothesis was that Ha: Rural and City school crisis intervention plans contain significant differences. The decision rule was if the p-value is less than the cut-off point of 0.05 significance level, reject the null hypothesis.

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relations between the type of school category (rural vs. city) and whether mitigation and prevention components were included in the school's crisis intervention and prevention plans that were sampled. The relation between these variables was statistically significant, X^2 (df = 1, N = 180) = 66.65, p = 0.0001. City schools were significantly more likely than rural schools to have components in their crisis intervention and prevention plan related to mitigation and prevention.

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relations between the type of school category (rural vs. city) and whether preparedness components were included in

the school's crisis intervention and prevention plans that were sampled. The relation between these variables was statistically significant, X^2 (df = 1, N = 540) = 151.17, p = 0.0001. City schools were significantly more likely than rural schools to have components related to preparedness in their crisis intervention and prevention plan.

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relations between the type of school category (rural vs. city) and whether response components were included in the school's crisis intervention and prevention plans that were sampled. The relation between these variables was statistically significant: X^2 (df = 1, N = 315) = 63.77, p = 0.0001. City schools were significantly more likely than rural schools to have components related to response in their crisis intervention and prevention plans.

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relations between the type of school category (rural vs. city) and whether recovery components were included in the school's crisis intervention and prevention plans that were sampled. The relation between these variables was statistically significant, X^2 (df = 1, N = 225) = 23.28, p = 0.0001. City schools were significantly more likely than rural schools to have components in their crisis intervention and prevention plan related to recovery.

Table 9 illustrates the results of the chi-square regression analysis mentioned above. It includes chi-square analysis contingency tables separated by the four categories mentioned above.

Table 9

Chi-Square Contingency Tables: Observed and Expected Values of Each Category

Category: Mitigation and Prevention			
Classification	Yes	No	Total
Rural	8 (*21.96*)	144 (*130.05*)	152
Urban	18 (*4.05*)	10 (*23.96*)	28

Total	26	154	180
X^2		=66.65	
Category: Prepared-ness			
Classification	Yes	No	Total
Rural	97 (*145.25*)	359 (*310.76*)	456
Urban	75 (*26.76*)	9 (*57.24*)	84
Total	172	368	540
X^2		=151.17	
Category: Response			
Classification	Yes	No	Total
Rural	78 (*103.02*)	188 (*162.98*)	266
Urban	44 (*18.98*)	5 (*30.02*)	49
Total	122	193	315
X^2		=63.77	
Category: Recovery			
Classification	Yes	No	Total
Rural	55 (*67.56*)	135 (*122.44*)	190
Urban	25 (*12.44*)	10 (*25.56*)	35
Total	80	145	225
X^2		=23.28	

Note: The italicized scores indicate the expected values (Ei), while the ones to the left indicate the observed values (O_i) for each category. The sum for each row and column is included as well. Below the table is the X^2 output. The degrees of freedom (df= (rows – 1) x (columns – 1)) can also be calculated with Table 9, which resulted in 1 degree of freedom for each category.

The calculations for how X^2 was determined were included in Table 10.

Table 10

The equation for the Calculation of X^2 for Each Category

Category	$\chi^2 = \sum(O_i - E_i)^2/E_i$	X^2
Mitigation and Prevention	8.87 + 1.49 + 48.15 +8.13	=66.65***
Preparedness	16.02 + 7.49 + 86.99 + 40.66	=151.17***

Response	6.08 + 3.84 + 32.99 + 20.85	=63.77***
Recovery	2.33 + 1.29 + 12.67 +6.99	=23.28***

*Note. ***p<0.001*

Based on the established $\alpha = .05$ criterion, we reject the null hypothesis for all four categories. We conclude that statistically significant differences exist between the components utilized in their crisis intervention and prevention plans. The statistically significant differences indicate that city schools included more components than rural schools across all four analysis domains.

Discussion

The outcomes of the present study suggest diverse potential conclusions. Among these, it can be inferred that the current state of crisis intervention in rural areas in South Dakota, in some cases, lacks comprehensiveness in addressing possible adverse outcomes for students since components are missing from the current plans in place that are necessary to achieve this goal. Further research is necessary to examine the causes of such shortcomings and to establish practical measures to mitigate them. This study addresses potential areas where crisis intervention and prevention plans in South Dakota require improvement.

Development of Crisis Plans

Effective management of crises in schools is essential for ensuring the safety and well-being of students, teachers, and other stakeholders. One critical area that requires attention is creating crisis plans involving a diverse population. The literature well-documents the importance of essential persons' involvement in school crisis intervention or prevention plans. Therefore, school leaders should prioritize creating crisis plans that include community members, hospitals, community agencies, police, fire and rescue, students, and parents. The

current study identified six crisis plans that addressed this recommendation. All of these plans were from schools located in cities. For schools in South Dakota that are creating or updating crisis intervention plans, it is crucial to consider who is developing the plan and how to include others potentially outside of the school setting since they could potentially be involved if a crisis event were to occur. Creating a crisis intervention and prevention plan with entities in the community is particularly important for schools in rural areas where there may be a lack of resources available to respond appropriately to a crisis. By involving others responsible for responding to these events, schools can increase the possibility of mitigating adverse outcomes for those involved in the crisis. Effective crisis management in schools requires leaders to depend on communication with essential persons, which could be facilitated through their inclusion in the planning process. Therefore, school leaders must prioritize creating crisis plans involving a diverse population to manage potential crises effectively. This also relates to allowing outside personnel from the building access to blueprints or floor plans to more effectively address crisis events that could arise in the school building. The current study found that roughly 30% of the sampled rural schools included this consideration in their crisis intervention and prevention plan. This could significantly impact the ability of outside agencies responsible for responding to a crisis to assist those in a school during a crisis quickly.

Incident Command System (ICS)

Integrating an Incident Command System (ICS) could significantly enhance the current crisis intervention and prevention plans in South Dakota. The current study found that 60% of rural schools have a clearly defined ICS. This information indicates that while many schools have considered its implementation, a significant proportion still needs to include this critical component in their crisis intervention and prevention procedures. As mentioned above, the ICS

is a multidisciplinary, collaborative crisis response team operating within a structured framework that accommodates diverse roles, such as Planning, Operations, Logistics, and Finance. Employing this system within a crisis intervention and prevention framework offers several advantages, primarily because other emergency personnel and agencies are familiar with the language and knowledge utilized within the ICS framework. Given that these organizations are likely to be involved in potential crisis events within schools, all individuals responding to a crisis must use the same infrastructure. Establishing a structure or system to facilitate prevention, response, and recovery of crisis events permits schools to proactively mitigate adverse outcomes for students, staff, and families. Schools may struggle to respond effectively to a crisis without such structures, leading to negative consequences for those involved in the school or the community. Therefore, incorporating an ICS into the crisis intervention and prevention plans in South Dakota may be wise for schools in South Dakota that do not currently have this system. Doing so may help schools respond more effectively to crises, limit adverse outcomes, and enable a more coordinated and efficient response to any potential crisis.

Positions in ICS

As mentioned above, the current study examining crisis intervention and prevention plans found that of the 45 sampled schools, 30 explicitly identified a chain of command within their crisis intervention and prevention program. A small percentage of these plans identified the leaders who would hold the positions within that system. These positions include the Incident Commander, Planning and Intelligence Section, Operations Section, Logistics Section, and Finance Section, which are critical in accounting for all aspects that must be considered while addressing crisis intervention and prevention for crisis events. The current study further shows that 10.5% of rural schools in South Dakota have explicitly defined these positions, but this

figure does not include the Incident Commander role. This lack of clarity around who is responsible for what during a crisis can seriously affect the prevention, response, and recovery of various crisis events that may impact schools. It is, therefore, highly advisable that rural schools in South Dakota take the necessary steps to incorporate these positions within their ICS or crisis intervention system and team. By doing so, schools can benefit from better planning, communication, and execution of response and recovery strategies during crisis events. With designated leaders in place, schools can ensure that all the necessary responsibilities are accounted for and that everyone involved knows their role in keeping students and staff safe during a crisis.

Vulnerable Populations

Schools must prioritize the needs of vulnerable populations during a crisis event. This group is especially susceptible to harm and may need the ability to respond appropriately during different crises. Hence, schools need to take special care and attention when implementing crisis intervention procedures to ensure that students with disabilities are kept safe and supported during such events. The current study found that approximately 30% of schools in rural areas have established proper procedures or guidelines to assist students with disabilities during a crisis. This information highlights the critical need for rural schools in South Dakota to consider effective measures to support and protect students with disabilities during crisis events. Schools must ensure that students with disabilities can access the necessary resources and accommodations during such times. This may include providing clear and concise instructions, assigning a designated staff member to assist students with disabilities, and ensuring that evacuation plans include all students, including those with disabilities. By taking these steps,

schools can help create a safer and more secure environment for all students, especially those who are most vulnerable.

Considerations of Suicide

It is necessary to consider procedures and policies within the crisis intervention and prevention plan concerning suicide and suicide contagion. According to a recent study, about 20% of schools in rural areas have considered procedures for handling and managing suicide and suicide contagion. In South Dakota, suicide was found to be the leading cause of death among individuals between the ages of 10 and 19, with the highest numbers among the Native American population (South Dakota Department of Health, 2021). This information highlights a significant discrepancy between prevention and response efforts being implemented in schools and one of the leading causes of death for students. Therefore, it is imperative to increase efforts in the development and implementation of robust suicide prevention and response policies and procedures to ensure the safety and well-being of students.

Reunification Locations

In developing crisis intervention and prevention plans for schools, careful consideration of the logistics related to reunification locations and transportation to these predetermined sites is essential. Reunification locations for emergencies should be identified to reunite students, staff, parents, and caregivers. The confidentiality of these locations should be maintained until a crisis response team can effectively communicate the reunification procedures to parents and caregivers. The current study revealed that 37% of rural schools in the sampled group had identified a reunification location in their crisis intervention and prevention plans. Establishing predetermined locations allows for swift and efficient responses by crisis response teams during events necessitating the relocation of students from school premises to a secure site. Advance

consideration of factors such as safe student release procedures to parents or caregivers, sufficient space at an alternate location for all students, 24/7 accessibility for reunification purposes, and transportation arrangements to the reunification site is crucial. These considerations would pose significant challenges for crisis response teams during an emergency and could adversely affect students if swift relocation is not achieved. In addition, this involves establishing clear and well-defined bus routes and ensuring that ample buses are available to swiftly transport students to designated reunion areas or other essential locations in the event of a crisis. The current study found that 10.5% of the rural schools included in the obtained sample had incorporated these transportation procedures into their crisis intervention and prevention plans. Nevertheless, it is imperative to carefully integrate these policies and procedures to facilitate a well-coordinated response and minimize potential adverse outcomes for students and staff during a crisis. Adequate transportation resources would enable students to reunite with their parents or caregivers promptly and efficiently. Failing to account for this critical aspect could lead to confusion and uncertainty regarding where parents or caregivers should go to be reunited with their child after a crisis.

Future Directions

The present research study provides valuable insights into the components included in the current crisis intervention and prevention plans across South Dakota. However, future research could explore crisis intervention plans from more urbanized regions within the state, such as the Sioux Falls School District or Rapid City School District. The present study collected only a limited number of plans from such areas, which restricts the number of conclusions that can be drawn regarding crisis intervention and preparedness in more significant regions within the state. Urbanized regions have a considerably larger population of students, staff, and community

members, which implies that crisis events could potentially impact a larger group of individuals than in rural areas. Therefore, it is recommended that future research be conducted on crisis intervention plans in urbanized regions to provide a more comprehensive understanding of crisis preparedness and intervention strategies in the Midwest region of the US.

One promising area of research that requires further exploration involves the collection of a more comprehensive sample of crisis plans from the state of South Dakota. By increasing the sample size, the conclusions drawn from the data would have a more substantial empirical basis, as there would be a more significant amount of information to draw from. Furthermore, expanding the research to include crisis plan data from other states with larger rural populations would be worthwhile. This approach would enable the study to account for the unique circumstances of rural populations across different regions of the United States. Such an expansion would be particularly beneficial for schools in rural areas, considering the various factors that contribute to the diversity observed in these communities. Overall, a more extensive and inclusive approach to data collection would help develop a more comprehensive understanding of crisis planning in rural areas, ultimately leading to more effective strategies for handling emergencies in these communities.

Implications drawn from this data should be considered in addition to the limitations to avoid overemphasizing conclusions. The most significant implication of this research would be that additional research needs to be completed on crisis intervention and preparedness in rural areas across the US, specifically in South Dakota.

Limitations

One of the limitations of the current study is that the information gathered regarding rural schools pertains only to South Dakota and may not apply to other rural regions in the United

States. Although an adequate sample size was determined for this study, the information collected is from a tiny subset of South Dakota schools. It may not accurately reflect the conditions faced by other schools within the state. Additionally, the crisis plans collected for the study represent a small fraction of all crisis plans for rural schools nationwide. As a result, researchers cannot determine the extent to which the findings of this study apply to schools outside of South Dakota, which limits the usefulness of the information to other researchers.

Another limitation of the study is the small sample size used compared to the total number of schools in South Dakota and the number of rural schools in the United States. Research indicates that small sample sizes can compromise the validity of study findings. Small sample sizes can increase the error rate, reduce statistical power, and lead to conclusions based on potentially inaccurate information. Moreover, research conducted with a small sample size may waste valuable resources for researchers. A small sample size within a study can increase the possibility of error rate, include low statistical power, waste valuable resources for researchers, and draw conclusions with potentially inaccurate information (Faber & Fonseca, 2014). Therefore, the findings of this study should be interpreted with caution.

Utilizing the selected checklist to evaluate the adequacy of obtained crisis intervention plans constitutes a limitation. This checklist lacks comprehensiveness in its coverage of the necessary components of a crisis intervention and prevention plan. While it offers a systematic approach for addressing the vast amount of information required for a school crisis intervention and prevention plan, it can lead to the omission of critical elements. For example, specific crisis event management plans like accidents, suicide, natural disasters, school violence, terrorism, and acts of war may be excluded. These specific plans are crucial for appropriate response during a

crisis event. Hence, there is a need to develop specific procedures for various emergencies to ensure an effective response from those in charge. These procedures may include scripts for staff to use when communicating with students, parents, or other parties involved in a crisis. Furthermore, training staff within the building to address all the abovementioned emergencies is crucial. Practicing for an event before its occurrence can lead to fewer adverse outcomes for students, staff, and families within the school district if a crisis occurs. Immediate action responses such as calling 911, evacuation, lockdown, secure campus, shelter in place, and drop/cover/hold on should also be included in the plan to ensure the safety of all individuals within the school building. The checklist failed to mention the inclusion of maps, evacuation routes, or procedures for staff responding to the situation to use during an event. While there was a question asking about outside responders having access to a blueprint or floor plans, there was no mention of having maps of evacuation routes in the plan for those responding in the building to use. Similarly, while the checklist asked about policies or procedures for responding to suicide and suicide contagion issues, the question did not differentiate between policies related to suicide and suicide contagion. Thus, many of the plans mentioned information related to suicide, but many did not mention suicide contagion. If there had been two separate questions for these events, there would have been significantly more plans that had policies or procedures for responding to the suicide of a student or staff member.

It is important to note that the method used to collect crisis plan information in some city schools has certain limitations that should be acknowledged. Although some schools agreed to allow researchers to physically view the plan and gather data rather than submitting a copy for review, this approach posed challenges to the data collection process. While it provided valuable data and information, the researcher could not review the crisis plan as thoroughly as they could

have if they had a copy. This meant that they were unable to revisit the plan at a later time to verify the accuracy of coding procedures. Furthermore, these plans could not be used for inter-observer agreement (IOA) purposes, as no copy was available for a second coder to reference.

An additional area of limitation in the current study was the utilization of a chi-square regression analysis. While information from a chi-square analysis can be significant, a chi-square statistical test cannot determine causality between variables; it can only infer if two variables are related (McHugh, 2013). Chi-square statistical tests are also sensitive to sample size, especially in cases where the sample size is too small or large, which could inflate or deflate potential results that are found (Bewick et al., 2003; McHugh, 2013). This is particularly relevant for large sample sizes that utilize 20 or more independent or dependent variables (Bewick et al., 2003; McHugh, 2013). An additional limitation is that researchers can only utilize chi-square tests with categorical data, not ordinal or continuous data, which limits the type of analyses that can be completed (Bewick et al., 2003; McHugh, 2013).

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Appendices

Table 1

Checklist

Examining Crisis Plan Preparedness		
1. Was the crisis plan developed in cooperation with all stakeholders? (Checkmark) _____ police _____fire _____ rescue _____ community agencies _____ parents _____ students _____ hospitals _____ community members		
Does the plan…	**Check "yes" or "no"**	
2. Include a mission statement?	Yes	No
3. Include clear discipline codes with consistent reinforcement?	Yes	No
4. Provide sufficient communication during emergencies (e.g., walkie-talkies, multiple phone lines)?	Yes	No
5. Require staff to have emergency numbers posted by their phones?	Yes	No
6. Clearly stated chain of command (Incident Command System)?	Yes	No
7. Clearly identify leaders that fulfill positions within the ICS? a) Incident commander b) Planning & intelligence section c) Operations section d) Logistics section e) Finance section	Yes Yes Yes Yes Yes Yes	No No No No No No
8. Require regular crisis drills?	Yes	No
9. Include a fully stocked and updated crisis box/cart that can be immediately accused?	Yes	No
10. Require an annual review of physical safety of the building(s)?	Yes	No
11. "Allow for other responders outside the school to access blueprints and floor plans?" ("WS1 Handout 15: Evaluating Crisis Plan Preparedness")	Yes	No
12. Include requirements for responding to the needs of special needs students?	Yes	No
13. Identify area(s) where students, staff, parents, and caregivers should reunite in an emergency?	Yes	No
14. Provide clear bus routes and an adequate fleet of buses for transporting students to reunion area or other necessary locations?	Yes	No
15. Consider how to obtain and effectively use volunteer support?	Yes	No
16. Include a policy on verifying facts before releasing them to the public?	Yes	No

17. Include a timely and effective means for informing parents and the community of new information?	Yes	No
18. Include a defined policy and system for swiftly and reliably responding to media queries that is managed by two or fewer individuals?	Yes	No
19. Consider alternative sites for conducting school if the building is destroyed or unusable?	Yes	No
20. Designate safe areas for staff and students to receive help before, during, and after school?	Yes	No
21. Allow students to obtain assistance from additional support staff and community-based professionals?	Yes	No
22. Have policies/procedures for responding to request for memorials or anniversaries of an event?	Yes	No
23. Have policies/procedures for responding to suicide and suicide contagion issues?	Yes	No

Table 2

National Center for Educational Statistics (Common Core of Data)

South Dakota School District	Name of South Dakota Schools	Locale Number	Category
Aberdeen 06-1	C.C. Lee Elementary - 05	33	Town
	Central High School - 01	33	Town
	Holgate Middle School - 02	33	Town
	JDC - 88	33	Town
	Lincoln Elementary - 08	33	Town
	May Overby Elementary - 09	33	Town
	Mike Miller Elementary - 07	33	Town
	New Beginnings - 89	33	Town
	O.M. Tiffany Elementary - 11	33	Town
	Simmons Elementary - 10	33	Town
	Simmons Middle School - 03	33	Town
Agar-Blunt-Onida 58-3	Blunt Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Onida Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Sully Buttes High School - 07	43	Rural
	Sully Buttes Middle School - 06	43	Rural
Alcester-Hudson 61-1	Alcester-Hudson Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Alcester-Hudson High School - 01	43	Rural
	Alcester-Hudson Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
	Alcester-Hudson Preschool - 05	43	Rural
Andes Central 11-1	Andes Central Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Andes Central High School - 01	43	Rural
	Andes Central Middle School - 04	43	Rural
	Lakeview Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
Arlington 38-1	Arlington Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Arlington High School - 01	43	Rural
	Arlington Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
	Arlington Preschool - 04	43	Rural
Armour 21-1	Armour Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Armour High School - 01	43	Rural
	Armour Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Avon 04-1	Avon Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Avon High School - 01	43	Rural
	Avon Middle School - 05	43	Rural
	Avon Preschool - 06	43	Rural
Baltic 49-1	Baltic Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Baltic High School - 01	42	Rural
	Baltic Middle School - 03	42	Rural

Belle Fourche 09-1	Belle Fourche Education Connection - 09	33	Town
	Belle Fourche High School - 01	33	Town
	Belle Fourche Middle School - 07	33	Town
	North Park Elementary - 08	33	Town
	South Park Elementary - 03	33	Town
Bennett County 03-1	Bennett County Elementary School - 03	43	Rural
	Bennett County High School - 01	43	Rural
	Bennett County Middle School - 06	43	Rural
Beresford 61-2	Beresford Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Beresford High School - 01	43	Rural
	Beresford Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Big Stone City 25-1	Big Stone City Elementary - 01	42	Rural
	Big Stone City Middle School - 03	42	Rural
	Contract - 02	42	Rural
Bison 52-1	Bison Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Bison High School - 01	43	Rural
	Bison Jr. High - 04	43	Rural
Bon Homme 04-2	Bon Homme High School - 01	43	Rural
	Bon Homme Middle School - 02	43	Rural
	Bon Homme Preschool - 08	43	Rural
	Dawson Colony School - 20	43	Rural
	Hutterische Colony Elementary - 18	43	Rural
	Springfield Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Tyndall Elementary - 04	43	Rural
Bowdle 22-1	Bowdle Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Bowdle High School - 01	43	Rural
	Bowdle Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
	Bowdle Preschool - 04	43	Rural
Brandon Valley 49-2	Brandon Elementary - 03	31	Town
	Brandon Valley High School - 01	31	Town
	Brandon Valley Intermediate - 07	31	Town
	Brandon Valley Middle School - 02	31	Town
	Fred Assam Elementary - 06	31	Town
	Inspiration Elementary - 08	31	Town
	Robert Bennis Elementary - 05	31	Town
	Valley Springs Elementary - 04	31	Town
Bridgewater-Emery 30-3	Bridgewater-Emery Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Bridgewater-Emery High School - 01	43	Rural
	Bridgewater-Emery Middle School - 04	43	Rural
Britton-Hecla 45-4	Britton-Hecla Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Britton-Hecla High School - 01	43	Rural
	Britton-Hecla Middle School - 03	43	Rural

	Sunset Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Sunset Colony High School - 06	43	Rural
	Westwood Rural Elementary - 05	43	Rural
Brookings 05-1	Brookings High School - 01	33	Town
	Camelot Intermediate - 06	33	Town
	Dakota Prairie Elementary - 07	33	Town
	George S. Mickelson Middle School - 02	33	Town
	Hillcrest Elementary - 04	33	Town
	Medary Elementary - 05	33	Town
Burke 26-2	Burke Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Burke High School - 01	43	Rural
	Burke Middle School - 04	43	Rural
Canistota 43-1	Canistota Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Canistota High School - 01	42	Rural
	Canistota Middle School - 03	42	Rural
Canton 41-1	Canton High School - 01	32	Town
	Canton Middle School - 04	32	Town
	Lawrence Elementary - 02	32	Town
Castlewood 28-1	Castlewood Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Castlewood High School - 01	43	Rural
	Castlewood Middle School - 03	43	Rural
	Claremont Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
Centerville 60-1	Centerville Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Centerville High School - 01	43	Rural
	Centerville Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Chamberlain 07-1	Chamberlain Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Chamberlain High School - 01	43	Rural
	Chamberlain Jr. High - 02	43	Rural
Chester Area 39-1	Chester Area Cyber School - 92	42	Rural
	Chester Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Chester High School - 01	42	Rural
	Chester Middle School - 03	42	Rural
	Gracevale Colony - 07	42	Rural
	High Plains - 06	42	Rural
	Rustic Acres Elementary - 04	42	Rural
Clark 12-2	Clark Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Clark High School - 01	43	Rural
	Clark Middle School - 03	43	Rural
	Fordham Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Hillcrest Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	Silver Lake Colony - 07	43	Rural
Colman-Egan 50-5	Colman Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Colman-Egan High School - 01	43	Rural

	Colman-Egan Jr. High - 02	43	Rural
Colome Consolidated 59-3	Colome Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Colome High School - 01	42	Rural
	Colome Middle School - 03	42	Rural
Corsica-Stickney 21-3	Corsica-Stickney Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Corsica-Stickney High School - 01	43	Rural
	Corsica-Stickney Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
Custer 16-1	A.C.E. High Academy - 06	42	Rural
	Custer Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Custer High School - 01	42	Rural
	Custer Jr. High - 05	42	Rural
	Hermosa Elementary - 04	42	Rural
	Hermosa Middle School - 07	42	Rural
Dakota Valley 61-8	Dakota Valley Elementary - 02	22	Suburb
	Dakota Valley High School - 01	22	Suburb
	Dakota Valley Middle School - 03	22	Suburb
	Dakota Valley Upper Elementary - 04	22	Suburb
De Smet 38-2	De Smet High School - 01	43	Rural
	De Smet Middle School - 03	43	Rural
	Laura Ingalls Wilder Elementary - 02	43	Rural
Dell Rapids 49-3	Dell Rapids Elementary - 02	32	Town
	Dell Rapids High School - 01	32	Town
	Dell Rapids Middle School - 03	32	Town
Deubrook Area 05-6	Deubrook Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Deubrook High School - 01	43	Rural
	Deubrook Jr. High - 02	43	Rural
	Norfeld Colony Elementary - 07	43	Rural
	Red Willow Colony School - 09	43	Rural
Deuel 19-4	Clear Lake Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Clear Lake Middle School - 04	43	Rural
	Deuel High School - 01	43	Rural
Doland 56-2	Camrose Colony Elementary - 06	43	Rural
	Clark Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	Doland Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Doland High School - 01	43	Rural
	Doland Jr. High - 02	43	Rural
	Hillside Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Hillside Colony High School - 07	43	Rural
Douglas 51-1	Douglas High School - 03	31	Town
	Douglas Middle School - 01	31	Town
	Douglas Preschool - 08	31	Town
	Patriot Elementary - 06	31	Town

	Vandenberg Elementary - 02	31	Town
Dupree 64-2	Dupree Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Dupree High School - 01	43	Rural
	Dupree Jr. High - 04	43	Rural
Eagle Butte 20-1	E.A.G.L.E. Center - 09	41	Rural
	E.A.G.L.E. Center High School - 07	41	Rural
	Eagle Butte High School - 01	41	Rural
	Eagle Butte Jr. High - 06	41	Rural
	Eagle Butte Primary - 02	41	Rural
	Eagle Butte Upper Elementary - 03	41	Rural
Edgemont 23-1	Edgemont Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Edgemont High School - 01	43	Rural
Edmunds Central 22-5	Boulder Colony School - 06	43	Rural
	Edmunds Central Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	Edmunds Central High School - 01	43	Rural
	Edmunds Central Middle School - 02	43	Rural
Elk Mountain 16-2	Elk Mountain Elementary - 01	43	Rural
	Elk Mountain High School - 04	43	Rural
Elk Point-Jefferson 61-7	Elk Point-Jefferson Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Elk Point-Jefferson High School - 01	42	Rural
	Elk Point-Jefferson Middle School - 03	42	Rural
Elkton 05-3	Elkton Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Elkton High School - 01	43	Rural
	Elkton Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
	Newdale Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Rolland Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
Estelline 28-2	Estelline Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Estelline High School - 01	43	Rural
	Estelline Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Ethan 17-1	Ethan Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Ethan High School - 01	42	Rural
	Ethan Jr. High - 03	42	Rural
Eureka 44-1	Eureka Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Eureka High School - 01	43	Rural
	Eureka Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
Faith 46-2	Faith Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Faith High School - 01	43	Rural
	Faith Jr. High - 06	43	Rural
	Maurine Elementary - 04	43	Rural
Faulkton Area Schools 24-4	Blumengard Colony Elementary - 06	43	Rural
	Brentwood Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural

	Brentwood Colony Virtual High School - 92	43	Rural
	Faulkton Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Faulkton High School - 01	43	Rural
	Faulkton Middle School - 08	43	Rural
	Thunderbird Colony Elementary - 10	43	Rural
Flandreau 50-3	Flandreau Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Flandreau High School - 01	43	Rural
	Flandreau Middle School - 03	43	Rural
	Pleasant Valley Colony Elementary - 06	43	Rural
Florence 14-1	Florence Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Florence High School - 01	42	Rural
	Florence Middle School - 03	42	Rural
Frederick Area 06-2	Frederick Area Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Frederick Area Middle School - 03	43	Rural
	Frederick High School - 01	43	Rural
Freeman 33-1	Freeman Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Freeman High School - 01	43	Rural
	Freeman Jr. High - 05	43	Rural
	Tschetter Colony Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Wolf Creek Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
Garretson 49-4	Garretson Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Garretson High School - 01	42	Rural
	Garretson Middle School - 03	42	Rural
Gayville-Volin 63-1	Gayville-Volin Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Gayville-Volin High School - 01	42	Rural
	Gayville-Volin Middle School - 03	42	Rural
Gettysburg 53-1	Gettysburg Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Gettysburg High School - 01	43	Rural
	Gettysburg Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Gregory 26-4	Gregory Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Gregory High School - 01	43	Rural
	Gregory Jr. High - 04	43	Rural
Groton Area 06-6	Groton Area Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Groton Area High School - 01	43	Rural
	Groton Area Middle School - 04	43	Rural
Haakon 27-1	Milesville Elementary - 08	43	Rural
	Philip Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Philip High School - 01	43	Rural
	Philip Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
Hamlin 28-3	Hamlin Elementary - 09	43	Rural
	Hamlin High School - 01	43	Rural
	Hamlin Middle School - 02	43	Rural

Hanson 30-1	Hanson Colony Alternative High School - 07	43	Rural
	Hanson Elementary - 06	43	Rural
	Hanson High School - 01	43	Rural
	Hanson Middle School - 02	43	Rural
	Millbrook Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Oaklane Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
Harding County 31-1	Buffalo Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Harding County High School - 01	43	Rural
	Harding County Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Harrisburg 41-2	Adventure Elementary - 10	41	Rural
	Endeavor Elementary - 07	41	Rural
	Explorer Elementary - 04	41	Rural
	Freedom Elementary - 06	41	Rural
	Harrisburg East Middle School - 11	41	Rural
	Harrisburg High School - 01	41	Rural
	Harrisburg North Middle School - 08	41	Rural
	Harrisburg South Middle School - 03	41	Rural
	Horizon Elementary - 09	41	Rural
	Journey Elementary - 05	41	Rural
	Liberty Elementary - 02	41	Rural
Henry 14-2	Henry Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Henry High School - 01	43	Rural
	Henry Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Herreid 10-1	Herreid Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Herreid High School - 01	43	Rural
	Herreid Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Highmore-Harrold 34-2	Highmore Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Highmore High School - 01	43	Rural
	Highmore Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
Hill City 51-2	Hill City Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Hill City High School - 01	42	Rural
	Hill City Middle School - 04	42	Rural
Hitchcock-Tulare 56-6	Glendale Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Hitchcock-Tulare Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	Hitchcock-Tulare High School - 01	43	Rural
	Hitchcock-Tulare Jr. High - 02	43	Rural
	Spink Colony Elementary - 03	43	Rural
Hot Springs 23-2	Hot Springs Elementary - 02	33	Town
	Hot Springs High School - 01	33	Town
	Hot Springs Middle School - 06	33	Town
Hoven 53-2	Hoven Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Hoven High School - 01	43	Rural

	Hoven Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
Howard 48-3	Howard Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Howard High School - 01	43	Rural
	Howard Jr. High - 05	43	Rural
	Shannon Colony Elementary - 08	43	Rural
Huron 02-2	Buchanan K-1 Center - 18	33	Town
	Huron Colony Elementary - 13	33	Town
	Huron High School - 01	33	Town
	Huron Middle School - 02	33	Town
	JDC - 88	33	Town
	Madison 2-3 Center - 19	33	Town
	McKinley Learning Center - 05	33	Town
	Our Home ASAP - 12	33	Town
	Our Home Rediscovery - 77	33	Town
	Riverside Colony Elementary - 15	33	Town
	Washington 4-5 Center - 20	33	Town
Ipswich Public 22-6	Deerfield Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	Ipswich Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Ipswich High School - 01	43	Rural
	Ipswich Middle School - 04	43	Rural
	Pembrook Colony Elementary - 06	43	Rural
	Rosette Colony Elementary - 03	43	Rural
Irene-Wakonda 13-3	Irene-Wakonda Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Irene-Wakonda High School - 01	43	Rural
	Irene-Wakonda Jr. High - 04	43	Rural
Iroquois 02-3	Iroquois Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Iroquois High School - 01	43	Rural
	Iroquois Middle School - 02	43	Rural
	Pearl Creek Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
Jones County 37-3	Jones County Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Jones County High School - 01	43	Rural
	Jones County Middle School - 04	43	Rural
Kadoka Area 35-2	Interior Elementary - 09	43	Rural
	Kadoka Area High School - 01	43	Rural
	Kadoka Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Kadoka Middle School - 03	43	Rural
	Longvalley Elementary - 10	43	Rural
	Midland Elementary - 11	43	Rural
Kimball 07-2	Grass Ranch Colony Elementary - 13	43	Rural
	Grass Ranch Colony High School - 15	43	Rural
	Kimball Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Kimball High School - 01	43	Rural
	Kimball Middle School - 04	43	Rural

Lake Preston 38-3	Lake Preston Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Lake Preston High School - 01	43	Rural
	Lake Preston Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Langford Area 45-5	Langford Area Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Langford Area High School - 01	43	Rural
	Langford Area Middle School - 03	43	Rural
	Newport Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
Lead-Deadwood 40-1	Lead-Deadwood Career & Technical Education - 10	32	Town
	Lead-Deadwood Elementary - 03	32	Town
	Lead-Deadwood High School - 01	32	Town
	Lead-Deadwood Middle School - 02	32	Town
Lemmon 52-4	Lemmon Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Lemmon High School - 01	43	Rural
	Lemmon Jr. High - 06	43	Rural
Lennox 41-4	Lennox Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Lennox High School - 01	42	Rural
	Lennox Intermediate - 09	42	Rural
	Lennox Jr. High - 08	42	Rural
	Worthing Elementary - 05	42	Rural
Leola 44-2	Grassland Colony Elementary - 06	43	Rural
	Leola Alternative School - 07	43	Rural
	Leola Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Leola High School - 01	43	Rural
	Leola Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
	Long Lake Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	Spring Creek Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
Lyman 42-1	Lyman Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Lyman High School - 01	43	Rural
	Lyman Middle School - 02	43	Rural
Madison Central 39-2	Madison Elementary - 07	32	Town
	Madison High School - 01	32	Town
	Madison Middle School - 02	32	Town
Marion 60-3	Marion Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Marion High School - 01	42	Rural
	Marion Middle School - 03	42	Rural
McCook Central 43-7	Goldenview Colony School - 04	43	Rural
	McCook Central Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	McCook Central High School - 01	43	Rural
	McCook Central Middle School - 03	43	Rural
McIntosh 15-1	McIntosh Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	McIntosh High School - 01	43	Rural
	McIntosh Middle School - 03	43	Rural

McLaughlin 15-2	McLaughlin Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	McLaughlin High School - 01	43	Rural
	McLaughlin Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Meade 46-1	Atall Elementary - 17	41	Rural
	Central Meade County School - 09	41	Rural
	Elm Springs Elementary - 13	41	Rural
	Hereford Elementary - 08	41	Rural
	Opal Elementary - 15	41	Rural
	Piedmont Valley Elementary - 05	41	Rural
	Stagebarn Middle School - 10	41	Rural
	Sturgis Brown High School - 01	41	Rural
	Sturgis Elementary - 03	41	Rural
	Sturgis Williams Middle School - 02	41	Rural
	Whitewood Elementary - 04	41	Rural
Menno 33-2	Jamesville Colony Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Maxwell Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Menno Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Menno High School - 01	43	Rural
	Menno Middle School - 05	43	Rural
Milbank 25-4	Blue Sky Colony - 04	33	Town
	Milbank Elementary School - 03	33	Town
	Milbank High School - 01	33	Town
	Milbank Middle School - 02	33	Town
Miller 29-4	Miller Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Miller High School - 01	43	Rural
	Miller Jr. High - 04	43	Rural
	Miller Skillbuilders PK - 05	43	Rural
	Millerdale Colony Elementary - 11	43	Rural
Mitchell 17-2	Abbott House Elementary - 06	33	Town
	Abbott House High School - 07	33	Town
	Gertie Belle Rogers Elementary - 04	33	Town
	L.B. Williams Elementary - 03	33	Town
	Longfellow Elementary - 05	33	Town
	Mitchell High School - 01	33	Town
	Mitchell Middle School - 02	33	Town
	Rockport Colony Elementary - 10	33	Town
	Rosedale Colony Elementary - 11	33	Town
Mobridge-Pollock 62-6	Freeman Davis Elementary - 03	33	Town
	Mobridge High School - 01	33	Town
	Mobridge Middle School - 02	33	Town
	Mobridge Upper Elementary - 04	33	Town
Montrose 43-2	Montrose Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Montrose High School - 01	42	Rural

	Montrose Middle School - 03	42	Rural
	Orland Colony Elementary - 04	42	Rural
Mount Vernon 17-3	Mount Vernon Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Mount Vernon High School - 01	42	Rural
	Mount Vernon Middle School - 03	42	Rural
New Underwood 51-3	New Underwood Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	New Underwood High School - 01	42	Rural
	New Underwood Middle School - 04	42	Rural
Newell 09-2	Newell Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Newell High School - 01	43	Rural
	Newell Middle School - 04	43	Rural
Northwestern Area 56-7	Hutterville Colony Elementary - 06	43	Rural
	iSucceed - 92	43	Rural
	iSucceed Middle School - 93	43	Rural
	Northwestern Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Northwestern High School - 01	43	Rural
	Northwestern Middle School - 02	43	Rural
Oelrichs 23-3	Oelrichs Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Oelrichs High School - 01	43	Rural
	Oelrichs Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
Oglala Lakota County 65-1	Batesland School - 01	42	Rural
	Lakota Tech High School - 10	42	Rural
	Oglala Lakota County Virtual High School - 92	42	Rural
	Red Shirt School - 04	42	Rural
	Rockyford School - 03	42	Rural
	Wolf Creek School - 02	42	Rural
Oldham-Ramona-Rutland 39-6	Camridge Colony School - 04	42	Rural
	Oldham-Ramona-Rutland Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Oldham-Ramona-Rutland High School - 01	42	Rural
	Oldham-Ramona-Rutland Jr. High - 03	42	Rural
	Spring Lake Colony Elementary - 05	42	Rural
	Spring Lake Colony High School - 06	42	Rural
Parker 60-4	Parker Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Parker High School - 01	42	Rural
	Parker Jr. High - 03	42	Rural
Parkston 33-3	New Elm Spring Colony Elementary - 08	43	Rural
	Old Elm Spring Colony Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Our Home - 88	43	Rural
	Parkston Elementary - 02	43	Rural

	Parkston High School - 01	43	Rural
	Parkston Middle School - 05	43	Rural
	Parkston Virtual School - 92	43	Rural
Pierre 32-2	Buchanan Elementary - 03	33	Town
	Georgia Morse Middle School - 02	33	Town
	Jefferson Elementary - 06	33	Town
	Kennedy Elementary - 08	33	Town
	Pierre JDC - 88	33	Town
	T.F. Riggs High School - 01	33	Town
Plankinton 01-1	Aurora Plains Academy High School - 05	43	Rural
	Aurora Plains Academy Middle School - 04	43	Rural
	Dakota Reach - 06	43	Rural
	Dakota Reach Middle School - 07	43	Rural
	Plankinton Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Plankinton High School - 01	43	Rural
	Plankinton Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
Platte-Geddes 11-5	Cedar Grove Colony Elementary - 14	43	Rural
	Platte - Geddes Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Platte - Geddes High School - 01	43	Rural
	Platte - Geddes Jr. High - 03	43	Rural
	Platte Colony Elementary - 10	43	Rural
Rapid City Area 51-4	Black Hawk Elementary - 03	13	City
	Canyon Lake Elementary - 04	13	City
	Central High School - 41	13	City
	Corral Drive Elementary - 21	13	City
	East Middle School - 30	13	City
	General Beadle Elementary - 01	13	City
	Grandview Elementary - 06	13	City
	Horace Mann Elementary - 07	13	City
	JDC - 88	13	City
	Jefferson Building - 64	13	City
	Knollwood Heights Elementary - 08	13	City
	Lincoln Building - 44	13	City
	Meadowbrook Elementary - 10	13	City
	North Middle School - 35	13	City
	Pinedale Elementary - 11	13	City
	Rapid City Online High School - 92	13	City
	Rapid Valley Elementary - 12	13	City
	Robbinsdale Elementary - 14	13	City
	South Canyon Elementary - 15	13	City
	South Middle School - 36	13	City
	South Park Elementary - 16	13	City

	Southwest Middle School - 38	13	City
	Stevens High School - 42	13	City
	Valley View Elementary - 13	13	City
	Wellfully - 65	13	City
	West Middle School - 37	13	City
	Woodrow Wilson Elementary - 17	13	City
Redfield 56-4	Redfield Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Redfield High School - 01	43	Rural
	Redfield Middle School - 02	43	Rural
	Redfield Virtual School - 92	43	Rural
	Turtle Creek Elementary School - 06	43	Rural
	Turtle Creek High School - 04	43	Rural
Rosholt 54-4	Rosholt Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Rosholt High School - 01	43	Rural
	Rosholt Middle School - 04	43	Rural
	White Rock Colony Elementary - 03	43	Rural
Rutland 39-4	Camridge Colony School - 04	42	Rural
	Rutland Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Rutland High School - 01	42	Rural
	Rutland Jr. High - 03	42	Rural
Sanborn Central 55-5	Sanborn Central Elementary - 06	43	Rural
	Sanborn Central High School - 01	43	Rural
	Sanborn Central Middle School - 02	43	Rural
	Upland Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
Scotland 04-3	Scotland Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Scotland High School - 01	43	Rural
	Scotland Middle School - 05	43	Rural
Selby Area 62-5	Selby Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Selby High School - 01	43	Rural
	Selby Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Sioux Falls 49-5	All City Elementary - 50	12	City
	Anne Sullivan Elementary - 20	12	City
	ARISE Shelter Care - 71	12	City
	Avera Adolescent Addiction Care Program - 81	12	City
	Avera Behavioral Health Program - 82	12	City
	Axtell Park Middle School - 47	12	City
	Ben Reifel Middle School - 68	12	City
	Birth to Three Program - 33	12	City
	Bridges at Horace Mann - 52	12	City
	Challenge Center - 51	12	City
	Cleveland Elementary - 14	12	City
	Community Campus - 41	12	City

	CTE - 37	12	City
	Discovery Elementary - 26	12	City
	Edison Middle School - 06	12	City
	Elementary Immersion Center - 43	12	City
	Eugene Field A+ Elementary - 16	12	City
	Garfield Elementary - 19	12	City
	George McGovern Middle School - 09	12	City
	Harvey Dunn Elementary - 54	12	City
	Hawthorne Elementary - 56	12	City
	Hayward Elementary - 38	12	City
	JDC - 61	12	City
	Jefferson High School - 67	12	City
	John F. Kennedy Elementary - 57	12	City
	John Harris Elementary - 23	12	City
	Laura B. Anderson Elementary - 10	12	City
	Laura Wilder Elementary - 31	12	City
	Lincoln High School - 02	12	City
	Lowell Elementary - 28	12	City
	Memorial Middle School - 04	12	City
	Oscar Howe Elementary - 58	12	City
	Patrick Henry Middle School - 07	12	City
	R.F. Pettigrew Elementary - 17	12	City
	Renberg Elementary - 42	12	City
	Robert Frost Elementary - 18	12	City
	Roosevelt High School - 03	12	City
	Rosa Parks Elementary - 15	12	City
	Sonia Sotomayor Elementary - 65	12	City
	South Dakota Penitentiary - 64	12	City
	Structured Teaching - 12	12	City
	Summit Oaks-Residential - 48	12	City
	Susan B. Anthony Elementary - 66	12	City
	Terry Redlin Elementary - 11	12	City
	The Learning Lab Early Childhood - 74	12	City
	Washington High School - 01	12	City
	Whittier Middle School - 08	12	City
Sioux Valley 05-5	Sioux Valley Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Sioux Valley High School - 01	42	Rural
	Sioux Valley Middle School - 04	42	Rural
Sisseton 54-2	Sisseton High School - 01	43	Rural
	Sisseton Middle School - 02	43	Rural
	Westside Elementary - 03	43	Rural
Smee 15-3	Wakpala Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Wakpala High School - 01	42	Rural

	Wakpala Middle School - 04	42	Rural
South Central 26-5	South Central Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Whole Grade Sharing with Burke - 04	43	Rural
Spearfish 40-2	Creekside Elementary - 07	32	Town
	Mountain View Elementary - 08	32	Town
	Spearfish Academy at Canyon Hills Elementary - 09	32	Town
	Spearfish Academy at Canyon Hills High School - 10	32	Town
	Spearfish High School - 01	32	Town
	Spearfish Middle School - 05	32	Town
	West Elementary - 03	32	Town
Stanley County 57-1	Cheyenne Elementary - 06	33	Town
	Stanley County Elementary - 08	33	Town
	Stanley County High School - 01	33	Town
	Stanley County Middle School - 02	33	Town
Summit 54-6	Summit Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Summit High School - 01	43	Rural
Tea Area 41-5	Tea Area Frontier Elementary - 05	41	Rural
	Tea Area High School - 03	41	Rural
	Tea Area Legacy Elementary - 01	41	Rural
	Tea Area Middle School - 02	41	Rural
	Tea Area Preschool - 07	41	Rural
	Tea Area Venture Elementary - 06	41	Rural
Timber Lake 20-3	Timber Lake Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Timber Lake High School - 01	43	Rural
	Timber Lake Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Todd County 66-1	He Dog Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	JDC - Wanbli Wiconi Tipi - 88	43	Rural
	Klein Elementary - 08	43	Rural
	Lakeview Elementary - 09	43	Rural
	Littleburg Elementary - 12	43	Rural
	O'Kreek Elementary - 14	43	Rural
	Resource Center - 11	43	Rural
	Rosebud Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Spring Creek Elementary - 07	43	Rural
	Todd County Achievement High School - 17	43	Rural
	Todd County Achievement Middle School - 18	43	Rural
	Todd County Elementary - 16	43	Rural
	Todd County High School - 01	43	Rural
	Todd County Middle School - 10	43	Rural

Tripp-Delmont 33-5	Clearfield Colony Elementary - 07	43	Rural
	Greenwood Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	Tripp Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Tripp-Delmont High School - 01	43	Rural
	Tripp-Delmont Jr. High - 02	43	Rural
Tri-Valley 49-6	Tri-Valley Elementary in Colton - 02	42	Rural
	Tri-Valley Elementary in Crooks - 04	42	Rural
	Tri-Valley High School - 01	42	Rural
	Tri-Valley Intermediate School - 03	42	Rural
Vermillion 13-1	Austin Elementary - 03	32	Town
	Jolley Elementary - 04	32	Town
	Vermillion High School - 01	32	Town
	Vermillion Middle School - 02	32	Town
Viborg-Hurley 60-6	Cameron Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Viborg-Hurley Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Viborg-Hurley High School - 01	43	Rural
	Viborg-Hurley Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Wagner Community 11-4	Early Learning Center - 04	43	Rural
	Wagner Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Wagner High School - 01	43	Rural
	Wagner Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Wall 51-5	Wall Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Wall High School - 01	43	Rural
	Wall Middle School - 06	43	Rural
Warner 06-5	Warner Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Warner High School - 01	42	Rural
	Warner Middle School - 03	42	Rural
Watertown 14-4	Jefferson Elementary - 09	33	Town
	Lincoln Elementary - 05	33	Town
	McKinley Elementary - 06	33	Town
	Mellette Elementary - 07	33	Town
	Roosevelt Elementary - 08	33	Town
	Sunrise Colony - 15	33	Town
	Watertown High School - 01	33	Town
	Watertown Intermediate School - 13	33	Town
	Watertown Middle School - 02	33	Town
Waubay 18-3	Waubay Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Waubay High School - 01	43	Rural
	Waubay Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Waverly 14-5	Waverly-South Shore Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	Waverly-South Shore High School - 01	42	Rural
	Waverly-South Shore Middle School - 03	42	Rural

Webster Area 18-5	Webster Area Elementary - 03	43	Rural
	Webster Area High School - 01	43	Rural
	Webster Area Middle School - 02	43	Rural
Wessington Springs 36-2	Spring Valley Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	Wessington Springs Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Wessington Springs Elementary Cyber School - 94	43	Rural
	Wessington Springs High School - 01	43	Rural
	Wessington Springs High School Cyber School - 92	43	Rural
	Wessington Springs Jr. High - 04	43	Rural
	Wessington Springs Middle School Cyber School - 93	43	Rural
West Central 49-7	Brighter Transition Youth Treatment Center - 07	42	Rural
	Falls Academy - 08	42	Rural
	West Central Hartford Elementary - 05	42	Rural
	West Central High School - 01	42	Rural
	West Central Humboldt Elementary - 02	42	Rural
	West Central Middle School - 04	42	Rural
White Lake 01-3	White Lake Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	White Lake High School - 01	43	Rural
	White Lake Middle School - 03	43	Rural
White River 47-1	Norris Elementary - 08	43	Rural
	White River Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	White River High School - 01	43	Rural
	White River Middle School - 04	43	Rural
Willow Lake 12-3	Collins Colony Elementary - 06	43	Rural
	Mayfield Colony Elementary - 04	43	Rural
	Shamrock Colony Elementary - 05	43	Rural
	Willow Lake Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Willow Lake High School - 01	43	Rural
	Willow Lake Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Wilmot 54-7	Wilmot Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Wilmot High School - 01	43	Rural
	Wilmot Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Winner 59-2	Winner Elementary - 04	33	Town
	Winner High School - 01	33	Town
	Winner Middle School - 02	33	Town
Wolsey-Wessington 02-6	Wolsey-Wessington Elementary - 02	43	Rural
	Wolsey-Wessington High School - 01	43	Rural
	Wolsey-Wessington Middle School - 03	43	Rural
Woonsocket 55-4	Woonsocket Elementary - 03	43	Rural

	Woonsocket High School - 01	43	Rural
Yankton 63-3	Beadle Elementary - 03	33	Town
	Lincoln Elementary - 04	33	Town
	Stewart Elementary - 05	33	Town
	Webster Elementary - 06	33	Town
	Yankton High School - 01	33	Town
	Yankton Middle School - 02	33	Town

Table 3

Email to Superintendents & Principals

Subject: Request for Crisis Intervention Plan

Dear [Superintendent's & Principal's Name],

I hope you are having a great spring semester! My name is Nicole Bechen, and I am a Ph.D. School Psychology graduate student at the University of South Dakota. I am currently engaged in research and conducting a study on crisis prevention and intervention plans in South Dakota schools. The study aims to gain a comprehensive understanding of the existing crisis intervention and prevention strategies implemented in our rural state.

To gain this understanding, I am writing to request a copy of your school's, XX crisis intervention and prevention plan. Your plan will serve as a primary source for my research, and I intend to use it to identify best practices and areas of improvement in crisis intervention and prevention planning. If it is not already written in the plan, please include the details of individuals involved in writing the plan, such as school staff, parents, students, community agencies or members, police, fire, or other resources in the community.

I understand that the crisis intervention and prevention plan is a vital document for your school district, and I assure you that all information shared will be kept confidential. Once we receive your plan, the school's identity (and any other identifiers) will be immediately removed and de-identified. I appreciate that this is sensitive information that cannot be distributed without your consent. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw at any time.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions or require additional information about my research. If you wish to participate in the study, kindly email me at nicole.a.hall@coyotes.usd.edu.

I am also aware that crisis intervention plans may contain information related to youth suicide. If you should need it, please reach out to the list of resources below to seek assistance. (South Dakota Suicide Prevention: Call 988 or visit https://sdsuicideprevention.org/; International Association for Suicide Prevention: Text 741741 or visit crisistextline.org)

Thank you for your valuable time and consideration. I look forward to your response.

Sincerely,

Nicole Bechen

School Psychology Intern

CORE Educational Cooperative, &

Kari Oyen, PhD, LP, NCSP

Program Director & Associate Professor of School Psychology

The University of South Dakota

Table 4

Additional Email to Schools (if required)

Dear [Superintendent's & Principal's Name],

I hope this email finds you well. I am reaching out again to touch base with you regarding the email I sent 5 days ago inquiring about your school's crisis intervention and prevention plan. I want to reiterate that sending this plan is completely voluntary, and all information sent will be deidentified and kept confidential. This information will be used to help South Dakota schools improve upon the current crisis plans that exist in our state.

If you have any questions or would like to talk to a researcher on the phone regarding this information, please reach out to the contact information listed below. We are happy to answer any questions that would allow you to participate in this study willingly.

Thank you for your consideration,

Sincerely,

Nicole Bechen

School Psychology Intern

CORE Educational Cooperative, &

Kari Oyen, PhD, LP, NCSP

Program Director & Associate Professor of School Psychology

The University of South Dakota

Table 5

Response for Not Participating

Dear [Superintendent's & Principal's Name],

I want to thank you for taking the time to respond to my email and consider your participation in this study. I understand that the information we are requesting from you is quite sensitive and is not for public consumption. We understand that you are not currently in a position to release this information to us at this time.

If there is anything that we can do to acquire part of your crisis intervention or prevention plan that does not include sensitive information, such as reunification locations or contact information of important persons, please let us know. We are not attempting to gain access to this specific information, we are researching whether or not crisis plans include this information at all. We understand this information is critical and cannot be released at all. Thank you for taking the time to consider our request, we appreciate the time you have given us. If you have any questions or decide that you would like to voluntarily participate in this study.

Thank you,

Nicole Bechen

School Psychology Intern

CORE Educational Cooperative, &

Kari Oyen, PhD, LP, NCSP

Program Director & Associate Professor of School Psychology

The University of South Dakota

Table 6

Response to Participating

Dear [Superintendent's & Principal's Name],

Thank you for your participation in this study. We appreciate your contributions to our understanding of school crisis prevention and response in SD. As indicated in our email, now that we have received your plan, your school's identity (and any other identifiers) have been removed and de-identified for the purpose of our research. Thank you again for your contributions to this important work.

Thank you,

Nicole Bechen

School Psychology Intern

CORE Educational Cooperative, &

Kari Oyen, PhD, LP, NCSP

Program Director & Associate Professor of School Psychology

The University of South Dakota