AN EXAMINATION OF RESTORATIVE JUSTICE

IN THE SCHOOL SETTING

by

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SIGNATURE PAGE

else will ever know the strength of my love for you. After all, you're the only one who

knows what my heart sounds like from the inside. I love you to the moon and back.

ABSTRACT

This study explored the effects of restorative justice, which is the practice of repairing

harm between offenders and victims, in the elementary, middle, and high school setting.

Restorative justice emphasizes accountability and making amends, and involves

facilitating meetings between victims, offenders, and, for purposes of this study,

administrators, teachers, and staff. The purpose of the current study was to investigate

these restorative practices with a specific restorative model, Discipline that Restores

(DTR), as a baseline foundation. This study focused specifically on economically

disadvantaged classrooms in three west coast public school settings to better understand

restorative justice effects on grade point average, number of discipline referrals written,

faculty attitudes, and school climate. The research pointed to a potential increase in grade

point average for students who received multiple discipline referrals when using DTR.

By studying trends in grade point average, number of discipline referrlas, school climate,

and staff attitudes, the researcher gleaned information that will help administrators,

teachers, and staff understand the effects of implementing this restorative justice model in

the school setting.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Student engagement is defined as "the degree of attention, curiosity, interest, optimism, and passion that students show when they are learning or being taught, which extends to the level of motivation they have to learn and progress in their education" (Abbot, 2014, para. 1). Student engagement examines the motivating factors behind a student remaining in school. Conversely, student disengagement—defined by Adelman & Taylor (2011) as those students who become disengaged from classroom learning due to one or more causal factors and an additional factor exacerbating learning, behavior, and emotional problems—examines the motivating factors behind students' lack of bonding with school, and, often, their subsequent dropping out of school.

The concept of school bonding describes the connections students experience at their school: the extent to which they feel cared for and respected by their teachers and attached to their school, their level of participation and involvement in their school, and their commitment to the values and beliefs of the school (Oelsner, Lippold, & Greenberg, 2011). Most teachers and administrators would likely say they could easily identify students who have bonded with their school: they rarely miss school, routinely complete homework, usually follow school and classroom rules, sometimes participate in an after-school activity, appear to have a healthy level of social engagement, and, if questioned, would generally tell you they like school. Students who are disengaged are often easy to identify as well: they regularly miss school, routinely do not complete homework, look

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for ways to skirt school and classroom rules, rarely participate in an after-school activity (unless forced, as punishment), appear to have a poor level of social engagement, and, if questioned, may tell you they dislike school. Administrators and school teachers often look fondly upon their school-engaged students, and for good reason. They are easy to talk with, their parents typically do not cause much fuss, teachers can quickly grade their assignments or offer eagerly accepted guidance if they are struggling, and, in general, they do not require disciplinary action throughout the school day. In short, they are amenable. But for many teachers, the mention of the name of an unengaged student results in eye-rolling, retelling of a long list of misbehaviors, a grandiose display of the stacks of discipline referrals, and general negativity. The lengthy list of students discussed in the teacher's lounge, or after school in the hallways after a stressful day, is found in most schools. And how can the researcher speak so confidently about such generalizations? Because she was that teacher, and those difficult students were discussed in each of the schools she taught in.

Research over the past 25 years has overwhelmingly shown that early school disengagement and poor school bonding results in negative consequences such as delinquency, violence, and drug use, during middle adolescence, late adolescence, and young adulthood (Cernkovich & Giordano, 1992; Henry, Knight, & Thornberry, 2012; Henry, Thornberry, & Huizinga, 2009; Resnick et al., 1997; Simons-Morton, Crump, Haynie, & Saylor, 1999). What factors create early school disengagement and poor school bonding? According to Finn and Zimmer (2012), "Educational risk factors ('events') are educational outcomes at one age/grade that interfere with later academic achievement and educational attainment" (p. 98).

Balfanz, Herzog, and Mac Iver (2007) conducted a study to examine the indicators of student disengagement and impact of leaving the traditional school graduation path in the middle grades. Balfanz et al. created a dataset using attendance, demographic, administrative, course and credit, and test data provided by the School District of Philadelphia. The study followed 12,972 students enrolled in sixth grade in 1996–1997 over an 8-year period, 1 year beyond expected graduation. Nine variables were analyzed during the study: (a) end-of-fifth-grade test scores, (b) English courses, (c) behavior marks, (d) suspensions, (e) attendance, (f) graduation status, (g) dropout status, (h) demographic variables (such as race), and (i) special status (such as special education). Balfanz et al. identified five warning flags that predicted dropout status, all of which occurred during sixth grade: (a) attended 80% or less of school, (b) failed math, (c) failed English, (d) received an out-of-school suspension, and (e) received an unsatisfactory behavior mark in any subject on the final report card. Using these predictive flags, Balfanz et al. found that students with one or more flags had only a 29% graduation rate. According to Bridgeland, Dilulio, and Balfanz (2009), teachers and principals are often able to identify external reasons for why students drop out (e.g., lack of parental support), reflecting an understanding of the magnitude and complexity of the dropout problem, but the same teachers and principals are less likely to recognize their responsibility in the problem.

Lewis (1999) published an article examining how teachers cope with the stress of classroom discipline, which is a leading indicator of student school engagement as well as of potential dropout status. Of 19 coping strategies identified by Lewis (1999), the top three were relational in nature, seeking to better oneself through growth: (a) put effort

into my work, (b) develop a plan of action, and (c) talk to others and give support (p. 163). Teachers report the desire to implement instructional practices, classroom management techniques, and rapport building that mutually reinforce each other, but the same teachers also say they lack necessary training, and are uninformed about how to implement these strategies in the classroom (Kennedy, 2011; Tillery, Varjas, Meyers, & Collins, 2010).

While many teachers, through their academic courses or teacher preparation program, discuss theories of discipline and classroom management, research shows that most teachers address disruptive classroom episodes with measures that are punitive, rather than proactive and relationship-building (Pace, Boykins, & Davis, 2014). These punitive actions can exclude students, exasperate them, prevent them from having successful classroom experiences, retraumatize them, and recreate the school failure they have experienced before (Lewis, 2015). Research consistently indicates that solely punitive sanctions—whether in the prison setting, school setting, or community setting— may not reduce reoffenses (Choi, Green, & Gilbert, 2011). In addition to punitive actions, exclusionary actions such as in-school suspension and expulsion cause at-risk middle school students to be more likely involved in drinking, drugs, criminal activity, and antisocial behaviors (Standing, Fearon, & Dee, 2012).

Since the 1970s, restorative justice (RJ) practices have been used successfully in the legal system and have slowly made their way into the school system (Sullivan & Tifft, 2006). Research over the past 10 years of how these restorative behavior interventions are making an impact in the school system has laid the groundwork for programs such as Positive Behavior Intervention Systems (PBIS) and Discipline that

Restores (DTR). When implemented successfully, school-wide behavior intervention

programs have a statistically significant positive effect on student attendance (Freeman et

al., 2015), which increase a student's attachment to school, teachers, and the general

school population. With adequate training, restorative processes such as DTR place both

victims and offenders in roles that encourage active, interpersonal, and collaborative

problem-solving to repair damaged relationships, resulting in increased student

engagement and school bonding, reducing the current alarming dropout trends (Choi et

al., 2011).

<div align="center">Statement of the Problem</div>

One behavior management model that is experiencing success, through

documented research, is the restorative process. According to Wachtel (2012), the

International Institute for Restorative Practices (IIR) website distinguishes between the

terms *restorative practices* and *restorative justice*.

> We view restorative justice practices as a subset of restorative practices.
>
> Restorative justice practices are *reactive*, consisting of formal or informal
>
> responses to crime and other wrongdoing after it occurs. The IIRP's definition of
>
> restorative practices also includes the use of informal and formal processes that
>
> precede wrongdoing, those that proactively build relationships and a sense of
>
> community to prevent conflict and wrongdoing. (para. 3)

DTR, understudied in most school settings (Claassen & Claassen, 2008), is one

such restorative practices model. In 1982, Ron Claassen founded and directed the Victim

Offender Reconciliation Program (VORP) in Fresno, California. Then, in 2003, after

earning her teaching degree, Roxanne Claassen began implementing the paradigms she

helped develop with her husband for the VORP, in her classroom, believing that the discipline methods used in the judicial system were relevant to the discipline issues experienced in her middle school classrooms. Since 1982, the Claassens have taught DTR in classes at Fresno Pacific College (now University), sharing how individuals in victim or offender roles can work to a place of reconciliation and restored relationship.

The purpose of the current study was to investigate restorative practices, with DTR practices as a baseline foundation, in economically disadvantaged classrooms in west coast public school settings to better understand their effects on grade point average, discipline referrals, faculty attitudes, and school climate. The schools studied included grades: (a) transitional kindergarten (TK)–sixth grade, (b) kindergarten–eighth grade, and (c) ninth–12th grade.

Background

In 1647, while still under British rule, The General Court of the Massachusetts Bay Colony decreed that every town of 50 families should have an elementary school, and this is the first recorded mandate of public school education. In 1852, Massachusetts again passed an educational law, this time making education compulsory, mandating that all children would attend primary school, regardless of ability to pay. By 1917, each of the contiguous US states had followed suit, requiring mandatory education for those between the ages of 8 and 15 ("Compulsory Education Laws: Background", 2016).

Since the inception of education, discipline has existed in the school setting. Weymouth (1967) studied Philipp Emanuel von Fellenberg, a European educator whose discipline model was implemented in the United States during the 18th century. Weymouth discovered that von Fellenberg discouraged corporal punishment, but instead

suggested that encouragement and kindness reduced academic errors. What von Fellenberg believed more than 150 years ago has been researched and documented over the past 25 years, providing educators, administrators, and interested community members insight into models of discipline in the school setting. The following pages will highlight several of those discipline models, as well as models of student and teacher engagement in the classroom.

Brackett, Reyes, Rivers, Elbertson, and Salovey (2011) conducted a study to examine whether teachers who created a healthy classroom emotional climate (CEC) were more likely to develop students' feelings of connectedness, which would, in turn, develop positive classroom behavior. Participants included 63 teachers and 2,000 students from 90 fifth- and sixth-grade English language arts classrooms in 44 schools from a diverse, urban school district in the northeastern United States. Observational data was recorded in six segments, up to 30 minutes in length, in each classroom. Students were read surveys about teacher affiliation, and then colored a bubble that corresponded to their response choice. Measures included classroom climate, teacher affiliation, and conduct. As hypothesized, the observations, student surveys, and report cards collected from fifth- and sixth-grade classrooms showed a positive correlation between classroom emotional climate and student conduct. Emotionally supported classrooms reported better behaved students. The researchers suggested that students who are emotionally disconnected from school are more likely to drop out, which could be countered through the CEC model.

Freeman et al. (2015) conducted a study to determine if implementing the School-wide Positive Behavior Intervention Support (SWPBIS) plan would affect high school

dropout rates. Freeman et al. identified high schools from the National PBIS center's dataset and state-level datasets from state department websites from the years 2005–2006 and 2011–2012, resulting in an initial sample of 883 high schools from 37 states. Researchers further identified 934 middle schools, also from the National PBIS center's dataset, located in the same high school district, resulting in 1,817 middle and high schools being studied. The study examined whether implementing SWPBIS with fidelity would affect dropout rates and risk factors such as academics and attendance. Freeman et al. identified that schools that met 70% or higher SWPBIS implementation fidelity realized a more significant decrease in dropout trends in the researchers' growth model, "…indicating that schools that start with higher dropout rates have lower overall slopes indicating more decline across time" (p. 302).

The Behavior Education Program (BEP) is often paired with PBIS for greater continuity in student discipline. Hawken, MacLeod, and Rawlings (2007) conducted a study to determine the effects of implementing the BEP, a check-in, check-out system for students at risk for severe problem behavior. The study was conducted in an urban elementary school with 655 students, kindergarten through sixth grade. Approximately 432 students (66%) qualified for free and reduced lunch, and approximately 249 students (38%) were of minority background. Of the 17 students who received the BEP intervention during the school year, 13 met the criteria to be included in the study, and parental permission was granted for 12 students. Included in four groups of three students each were 10 boys, two girls, two students from minority backgrounds, and eight students who qualified for free and reduced lunch. One of the 12 students participated in the special education program for a reading disability. The dependent variable implemented

with the BEP was the total number of office discipline referrals (ODRs), which would reference a minor or major infraction. The BEP intervention was associated with an average 39% reduction in ODRs, dropping from over seven referrals a month to fewer than three.

Ultimately, however, according to Hirschfield and Gasper (2009), how a teacher manages his or her students in the classroom will have the greatest effect on student engagement and bonding. Not every student will necessarily be engaged and bonded with every teacher they encounter, but certainly techniques utilized, or not, can and do impact student learning. The researchers conducted a study to determine whether school engagement predicted delinquency, delinquency predicted engagement, or both. More than 11,000 fifth- through eighth-grade youth in inner-city Chicago participated in Comer's School Development Program Evaluation (SDP) beginning in 1992. The SDP was a whole-school reform program to improve disadvantaged academic and social climates in the elementary school setting. Approximately 95% of students were surveyed twice a year from the 1992–1993 through 1996–1997 school years using an attitudes and behavior survey that measured delinquency and cognitive and behavioral engagement, as well as a school climate survey. Based on survey results, Hirschfield and Gasper determined that disengagement from school that began in elementary school was the primary long-term social-psychological event that turned motivated students into high school dropouts. Evidence determined that delinquency had a short-term and limited impact on cognitive disengagement.

Lee, Cornell, Gregory, and Fan (2011) conducted a study to examine the association between school suspension rates and dropout rate based on school level

characteristics that impacted students most. Lee et al. hypothesized that higher

suspension rates would be predictive of higher dropout rates, based on rural versus urban

locale, and financial resources available to the participating schools. School samples were

obtained from the Virginia High School Safety Study and included schools that offered

ninth- through 12th-grade academics, awarded a high school diploma, and served

students primarily under the age of 18. Surveys were given to 7,431 ninth-grade students:

3,641 (49%) were female and 3,790 (51%) were male; and 4,682 (63%) were Caucasian,

1,635 (22%) African American, 372 (5%) Latino, 223 (3%) Asian American, 74 (1%)

American Indian, and 372 (5%) Other. Lee et al. measured through these surveys:

dropout rates, school suspension, student aggressive attitudes, and student belief in school

rules. As hypothesized, Lee at al. discovered that suspension rates were consistently

associated with high school dropout rates, and that school demographics were predictive

of the school's dropout rate. Schools that had a large minority population, students

receiving free or reduced priced meals, and fewer financial resources available

experienced higher dropout rates.

Mac Iver (2010) conducted a study to identify at-risk factors for Baltimore City

School dropouts. The researcher wanted to identify if these students exhibited early

warning indicators of (a) nongraduation, (b) how they differed from other graduates, (c)

how they compared by demographic group and school type, (d) how far from graduation

dropouts were in terms of credit hours, and (e) whether dropouts would consider an

alternative recovery option to complete high school. Dropouts and graduates from the

2008–2009 school year were studied and followed back in time through district records,

rather than following them at the present time. In the study, Mac Iver found that dropouts

exhibited three behavioral indicators of disengagement: poor attendance, suspensions, and course failure. Additionally, life issues related to family, finances, physical health, and mental health contributed to dropout warning indicators. From the prior school data, the researcher determined that significant interventions and preventative measures were needed in the middle grades to prevent most dropout trends.

Models for RJ abound, and research about restorative practices continues to be published. Evans and Lester (2010) studied classroom management techniques and how those techniques contributed to either suspensions or academic achievement. The researchers examined a study in which 345 teachers reported their beliefs about readiness to address behavior challenges in a school setting. Middle- and secondary-school teachers reported being significantly less able and ready to manage this type of student. Evans and Lester, in examining the data, determined that suspensions have a negative impact on academic achievement and push students into a failure cycle. This failure cycle begins with academic frustration and increased behavior problems because of those frustrations, exclusion from academic instruction because of suspensions or other exclusionary practices, cycling through the frustrations and exclusion from academic instruction, until a student drops out of school or ends up in juvenile delinquency. The researchers suggested several behavior intervention models to support classroom management: PBIS, Consistency Management and Cooperative Discipline, The Child Development Project, a responsive classroom, Peaceable Schools Movement, Positive Discipline in the Classroom, the Resolving Conflict Creatively Program, Reality Therapy, and Restorative Justice.

Lewis (2015) conducted a qualitative case study at a community day school (CDS) which examined the relationships between educators' beliefs and practices and how those relationships shaped student experiences. Lewis conducted the study at Vista Hermosa CDS, an alternative school available to expelled students, located in an urban school district in Southern California that served more than 50,000 students. During the 2008–2009 school year, semistructured interviews occurred between Lewis and all classroom teachers, 10 school administrators and staff members, four district-level administrators and 17 seventh- and eighth-grade students. Students, teachers, and administrators were asked about their behavior, experiences, practices, and school policies. The researcher determined through observations and interviews that there were two conflicting subcultures at Vista Hermosa: dominant (traditionalist) teacher culture and counseling (developmentalist) culture. The counseling culture allowed students to work through behavior problems successfully, but did not transfer back to the classroom. Because of traditionalist culture, students continued to feel excluded, exasperated, and retraumatized, recreating the school failure they experienced before coming to Vista Hermosa.

An important study to the RJ movement was conducted to explore regulating safety in schools through responsive and restorative practices (Morrison, 2003). The study sought to (a) explain the RJ approach to violence in schools, (b) highlight the theory underlying the practice of RJ, and (c) develop a responsive regulatory framework of RJ for schools. Morrison contended that violence was addressed by asking, "how evil was the action, and how much punishment did it deserve," (p. 692) whereas RJ instead asked, "what caused this action and how can it be fixed to restore the parties?" (p. 692).

Morrison developed a framework of responsive and restorative regulations in schools based on three common principles: (a) development of students' social and emotional competencies, (b) participation of the school community through the use of RJ circles, and (c) participation of the school community, parents, guardians, social workers, and others who have been affected by serious offenses in the school setting. These common principles were sustained through a pyramid of support: primary intervention, RJ circles, and RJ conferencing. At the time of the study, there had been no randomized trials to test this theory in Australia, only post conferences after the incident. However, in 2002, in Minnesota, one elementary school witnessed a 27% reduction in suspensions, and another school reduced referrals by more than half after implementing RJ.

DeWitt and DeWitt (2012) conducted a case study that analyzed the process of RJ after an instance of high school hazing, which included a follow-up study of the school seven years later. DeWitt and Dewitt hypothesized that Senge's five disciplines of organizational learning—systems thinking, personal master, mental models, building shared vision, and team learning—would be established through the RJ process. The hazing incident involved a large upper Midwestern high school in a community of more than 60,000 people. The district had a student population of 11,300 students at 16 school sites, with 2,400 of those students enrolled in 10th through 12th grade at the high school. The incident involved 11th-graders initiating ninth-graders into the high school's elite crowd. The superintendent, principal, chief of police, and county attorney generated a RJ plan for the alleged perpetrators that required offending students to be part of an educational program that would inform others students about the consequences of hazing, attend a lecture on hazing, and perform 20 hours of community service. A follow-up

survey was given to 437 junior class members seven years after the incident, which indicated that hazing had been eliminated from the school. Through the RJ model, all five of Senge's disciplines of organizational learning were met, resulting in organizational change in the school.

Additionally, Choi et al. (2011) examined qualitative research data from a case study on a Victim Offender Mediation (VOM) program located in a midsized Midwestern city in the United States. Choi et al. wanted to develop a better understanding of RJ processes, and examined four different VOM cases from the cumulative qualitative research data. The individuals observed in these cases included crime victims, youths who committed crimes and their families, and service providers such as mediators. Two cases included misdemeanor charges the VOM program commonly handled: petty theft and property vandalism. An additional two cases dealt with violent felony charges, which the VOM program did not commonly handle. Choi et al. conducted semistructured interviews and observations as the primary data collection method. Each interview lasted 1 hour and occurred in safe places such as the VOM program offices, or the participant's home. Researchers found that the youths overwhelmingly reported that the VOM experience helped them realize both the unseen effects of their crimes and the extent of the consequences of their actions.

DTR, while built on the foundation of RJ, is guided by five principals unique to this program: (a) purpose, (b) problem, (c) people, (d) process, and (e) power. According to Claassen and Claassen (2008), the overview of DTR principles are as follows:

Purpose: The purpose of DTR is to guide teachers to respond to each conflict or misbehavior in ways that are life-giving and make things as right as possible.

DTR uses each conflict and misbehavior to help students learn respect, critical thinking, and cooperative negotiation skills. DTR responses recognize and respect individual freedom while improving relationships and building community life in the classroom. Problem: DTR recognizes that rules are written to create and protect safety and fairness. DTR also recognizes that when a rule is violated, it points to the real problem. The real problem is not the rule violation but the violation of a person and/or the damage to their property People: DTR prefers that the response to the conflict or misbehavior be between the ones who were impacted by the offense. This means that DTR would prefer that when a student is disrespectful with a teacher, the student and teacher should be the primary parties involved in deciding what should be done to make things as right as possible. Process: DTR prefers that the process used to determine how to make things right include recognizing the violation/conflict, searching for agreements to restore equity and to clarify the future, and following up on the agreements. DTR recognizes that trust grows when agreements are made and kept. That is why it is so important for the primary parties between whom the violation/conflict occurred be involved in the process of making agreements to make things as right as possible. Power: DTR prefers "power with" to "power over." Power with is the kind of power where the teacher and student agree only to those ways of making things right that are life-giving, effective, and improve relationships. This does not mean that the teacher does not ever use power over, but it does mean that the teacher uses power over only in ways that are reasonable, respectful, restorative

and intended to reintegrate the misbehaving student, and only when the student is not willing to cooperate. (pp. 8–9)

School engagement, bonding, discipline, and classroom management are integral components of a student's success in the formative educational years. How each of those components is addressed, through behavior intervention models such as DTR, is the focus of this research because the use of DTR in the classroom is understudied.

Research Questions

The research questions guiding this study were:

1. What effects did implementing DTR have on student grade point average in one west coast school?

2. What effects did implementing DTR have on the number of discipline referrals in one west coast school?

3. What effects did implementing DTR have on school climate in three west coast schools?

4. What are staff attitudes toward DTR in three west coast schools?

Description of Terms

Discipline referrals. An office discipline referral is written documentation pertaining to any offense that demands formal disciplinary action such as violence or drug use. All other conflicts are handled within the classroom and utilize the "four-option model contract," in which student and teacher draw up a contract on how to address the misbehavior.

Discipline that Restores (DTR). Discipline that Restores is a step-by-step classroom discipline process designed to increase cooperation, mutual respect, and

responsibility among students and teachers. Using the RJ skills and strategies, the DTR program trains educators and administrators in the DTR process, helping them to create a more positive learning environment while actively reducing suspensions and expulsions, including those due to willful defiance (Claassen & Claassen, 2008, p. 3).

Transitional Kindergarten (TK). TK is the first year of a two-year kindergarten program that uses a modified kindergarten curriculum that is age and developmentally appropriate.

Significance of the Study

The schools represented in the study were looking for positive ways to improve discipline practices and school climate, wanting to separate themselves from zero-tolerance policies (J. Martinez, personal communication, February 4, 2016) that had begun in the late 1980s (Kang-Brown, Trone, Fratello, & Daftary-Kapur, 2013). These schools found themselves even further ahead of the game with the passing of California Assembly Bill 420 on September 27, 2014, as quoted by the American Civil Liberties Union of Northern California (2014):

California becomes the first state in the nation to eliminate suspensions for its youngest children, and all expulsions for all students for minor misbehavior such as talking back, failing to have school materials and dress code violations. Gov. Jerry Brown's signing today of AB 420 caps a landmark year for the movement away from harsh discipline policies and toward positive discipline and accountability approaches that keep children in school.

AB 420 places limits on the use of school discipline for the catch-all category known as *willful defiance*, which also includes minor school disruption. Willful

defiance accounts for 43% of suspensions issued to California students, and is the suspension offense category with the most significant racial disparities. For the next 3.5 years, the law eliminates in-school and out-of-school suspensions for children in grades K-3 for disruptive behavior currently captured in Education Code section 48900(k) and bans all expulsions for this reason. (paras. 1–2)

In response to this study, administrators, teachers, and support staff in public and private, prekindergarten through 12th-grade schools would benefit from RJ behavior interventions because students are more bonded and engaged with school, have higher grade point averages, receive fewer behavior referrals, and, ultimately, display fewer of the risk factors exhibited by those that drop out of school.

American society has hotly contested the purpose of education for centuries, "alternat[ing] between the promotion of learning for its own sake and training for specific careers" (McClellan, 2011, para. 3). And while the researcher does not seek to substantiate either side of that argument with this paper, she does seek to provide research about how best to support students behaviorally as they become effective citizens.

Process to Accomplish

In order to complete a thorough analysis of the research topic, seeking explanations and predictions that will generalize to other schools, the researcher chose a quantitative research study. The researcher used quantitative survey instruments to determine staff attitudes toward discipline in the classroom and in the school at large, as well as attitudes about school climate. Grade point averages and number of discipline referrals were analyzed quantitatively to determine trends before and after

implementation of DTR. Additionally, features of a multiple baseline design were implemented for this research. Leedy and Ormrod (2013) define a multiple baseline design as a treatment requiring at least two groups, collecting baseline data for all groups before implementation of the method, and again after implementation. With this focus in mind, the researcher collected grade point average data and behavior referral data from three distinct groups: one high school, one K-8 public school, and one TK-6 charter school.

The data for the study was collected from three west coast schools. Grandel High School, School A, was a rural high school of grades 9–12. School A was comprised of 471 students: 120 in ninth grade, 130 in 10th grade, 116 in 11th grade, and 104 in 12th grade. The total minority enrollment was 447 (95%), and 447 (100%) of the student population was economically disadvantaged. There were 26 full-time teachers. Fulton School, School B, was a suburban public school of grades K-8, with approximately 241 enrolled students. One hundred sixty-six students (69%) were economically disadvantaged; minority enrollment was approximately 171 students (71%). Thomas Charter Academy, School C, an inner-city charter school of approximately 551 students, serving TK-6th grade, had 463 minority students (84%), of which 507 (92%) were economically disadvantaged.

Survey Instruments

In order to collect data, an adapted version of the PBIS Satisfaction Survey was given to all staff members at each of the three schools. No changes were made to the PBIS Satisfaction Survey, other than to replace PBIS with DTR. The DTR Satisfaction Survey included 5-point Likert scale questions, with 5 indicating "highly satisfied," as

well as one open-ended question. Additionally, the California School Climate Survey was given to all teachers in each of the three schools. All surveys were distributed at the beginning of the 2016–2017 school year, and at the end of the second semester.

The researcher was able to collect school reported grade point average (GPA) data for all three schools one year before DTR implementation, one year post-DTR implementation, and two years post-DTR implementation, to determine what effects implementing restorative practices had on student GPA. The researcher also collected the number and type of discipline referrals per student, and copies of classroom four-option model contracts. Based on the DTR model, discipline referrals are written only for severe cases, such as violence or drugs. All other conflicts are handled within the classroom, and utilize the four-option model contract, in which student and teacher draw up a contract on how to address the misbehavior.

All staff, in all three schools, were given the DTR Satisfaction Survey, which included a 5-point Likert scale survey, with 5 representing highly satisfied. Finally, the researcher administered the California School Climate Survey to all staff at all three schools, to determine if the school climate had changed negatively or positively since implementation of DTR. All data for each of the research questions was collected one year prior to DTR implementation, one year following implementation, and two years following implementation. Though the enrollment, demographics, and teacher staff changed from year to year, the data collected remained consistent for each of the school years analyzed.

Analyses

In order to answer the first research question, what effects did implementing DTR have on student grade point average in one west coast school, the researcher collected and quantitatively analyzed grade point averages to determine trends in schools one year before DTR implementation (pre-1), one year after DTR implementation (post-1), and two years after DTR implementation (post-2). Quantitative analysis included analysis of grade point average pre-1, post-1, and post-2 implementation. A dependent t-test was utilized to demonstrate an overall difference between the means under different conditions (pre-1, post-1, and post-2).

In response to research question 2, what effects did implementing DTR have on number of discipline referrals in one west coast school, the number of discipline referrals was analyzed quantitatively to determine trends in schools one year before DTR implementation (pre-1), one year after DTR implementation (post- 1), and two years after DTR implementation (post-2). Quantitative analysis included analysis of written discipline referrals pre-1, post-1, and post-2 implementation, as well as number of discipline referrals written pre-1, post-1, and post-2 implementation. A dependent t-test was utilized to demonstrate an overall difference between the means under different conditions (pre-1, post-1, and post-2).

To determine attitudes regarding school climate, and in response to research question 3, what effects did implementing DTR have on school climate in three west coast schools, the DTR Satisfaction Survey Instrument, consisting of 24 Likert scale questions and one open-ended question, was given to all staff. In order to analyze the data, the researcher performed descriptive analysis.

Finally, to answer research question 4, what are staff attitudes toward DTR in three west coast schools, the DTR Satisfaction Survey Instrument, consisting of 24 Likert scale questions and one open-ended question, was given to all staff. In order to analyze the data, the researcher performed descriptive analysis.

Summary

As stated previously, school engagement, bonding, discipline, and classroom management are integral components of a student's success in the formative educational years (Brackett et al., 2011; Bridgeland et al., 2009; Hirschfield & Gasper, 2009; Lee et al., 2011; Lewis, 1999; Lewis, 2015; Mac Iver, 2010). The way in which each of those components is addressed, through behavior intervention models such as DTR, continues to be the focus of many schools around the country (Choi et al., 2011; DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Evans & Lester, 2010; Freeman et al., 2015; Hawken et al., 2007; Morrison, 2003). With the passing of laws like California Assembly Bill 420, school districts, administrators, and teaching staff are seeking ways to address discipline in the classroom. Many models for RJ abound, and research about restorative practices and behavior modification programs continues to be published at an increasing rate, a sampling of which is included in the following pages.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

In order to better understand the development and implications of the RJ model, this chapter includes an examination of a timeline of education in the United States beginning in 1647, providing the reader with a thorough analysis of the leading educational theories at the time, as well as important legal implications that affected both teachers and students. Second, the background of punitive discipline in the classroom will be discussed, as well as the implications of that discipline to students within those classrooms. Third, because most of the research regarding RJ is found within the prison setting, successes and failures of this work will be explored. Fourth, RJ practices in the classroom setting will be identified, and, finally, a discussion will be provided about how those practices are affecting empathy and forgiveness.

A History of Education in the United States

Sass (n.d.) developed an extensive timeline of education in the United States, a portion of which is exerpted on the following pages to give the reader a background of public education and prevailing learning and behavior management theories since 1635.

1635: The first Latin Grammar School (Boston Latin School) is established. Latin Grammar Schools are designed for sons of certain social classes who are destined for leadership positions in church, state, or the courts.

1635: The first free school in Virginia opens. However, education in the Southern colonies is more typically provided at home by parents or tutors.

1647: The Massachusetts Law of 1647, also known as the Old Deluder Satan Act, is passed. It decrees that every town of at least 50 families hire a schoolmaster who would teach the town's children to read and write and that all towns of at least 100 families should have a Latin grammar school master who will prepare students to attend Harvard College.

1690: John Locke publishes his *Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, which conveys his belief that the human mind is a tabula rasa, or blank slate, at birth and knowledge is derived through experience, rather than innate ideas as was believed by many at that time. Locke's views concerning the mind and learning greatly influence American education.

1693: John Locke's *Some Thoughts Concerning Education* is published, describing his views on educating upper class boys to be moral, rationally thinking, and reflective "young gentlemen." His ideas regarding educating the masses are conveyed in *On Working Schools,* published in 1697, which focused on the importance of developing a work ethic.

1710: Christopher Dock, a Mennonite and one of Pennsylvania's most famous educators, arrives from Germany and later opens a school in Montgomery County, PA. Dock's book, *Schul-Ordnung* (meaning school management), published in 1770, is the first book about teaching that is printed in colonial America. Typical of those in the middle colonies, schools in Pennsylvania are

established not only by the Mennonites, but by the Quakers and other religious groups as well.

1734: Christian Wolff describes the human mind as consisting of powers or faculties. Called Faculty Psychology, this doctrine holds that the mind can best be developed through "mental discipline" or tedious drill and repetition of basic skills and the eventual study of abstract subjects such as classical philosophy, literature, and languages. This viewpoint greatly influences American education throughout the 19th century and beyond.

1762: Swiss-born Jean-Jacques Rousseau's book, *Emile*, *ou l'education,* which describes his views on education, is published. Rousseau's ideas on the importance of early childhood education are in sharp contrast with the prevailing views of his time and influence not only contemporary philosophers, but also 20th-century American philosopher and educational reformer John Dewey.

1779: Thomas Jefferson proposes a two-track educational system, with different tracks for "the laboring and the learned."

1787: The Northwest Ordinance is enacted by the Confederation Congress. It provides a plan for western expansion and bans slavery in new states. Specifically recognizing the importance of education, Act 3 of the document begins, "Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." Perhaps of more practical importance, it stipulates that a section of land in every township of each new state be reserved for the support of education.

1791: The Bill of Rights is passed by the first Congress of the new United States. No mention is made of education in any of the amendments. However, the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution states that powers not delegated to the federal government "are reserved to the States, respectively, or to the people." Thus, education becomes a function of the state rather than the federal government.

1827: The state of Massachusetts passes a law requiring towns of more than 500 families to have a public high school open to all students.

1837: Horace Mann becomes Secretary of the newly formed Massachusetts State Board of Education. A visionary educator and proponent of public (or free) schools, Mann works tirelessly for increased funding of public schools and better training for teachers. As Editor of the *Common School Journal,* his belief in the importance of free, universal public education gains a national audience.

1852: Massachusetts enacts the first mandatory attendance law. By 1885, 16 states have compulsory-attendance laws, but most of those laws are sporadically enforced at best. All states have them by 1918.

1856: The first kindergarten in the United States is started in Watertown, Wisconsin, founded by Margarethe Schurz. Four years later, Elizabeth Palmer Peabody opens the first formal kindergarten in Boston, MA.

1867: The Department of Education is created in order to help states establish effective school systems.

1913: Edward Lee Thorndike's book, *Educational Psychology: The Psychology of Learning,* is published. It describes his theory that human learning involves habit formation, or connections between stimuli (or "situations" as Thorndike preferred

to call them) and responses (Connectionism). He believes that such connections are strengthened by repetition ("Law of Exercise") and achieving satisfying consequences ("Law of Effect"). These ideas, which contradict traditional faculty psychology and mental discipline, come to dominate American educational psychology for much of the 20th century and greatly influence American educational practice.

1916: John Dewey's *Democracy and Education. An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education* is published. Dewey's views help advance the ideas of the "progressive education movement." An outgrowth of the progressive political movement, progressive education seeks to make schools more effective agents of democracy.

1916: The Bureau of Educational Experiments is founded in New York City by Lucy Sprague Mitchell with the purpose of studying child development and children's learning.

1919: The Progressive Education Association is founded with the goal of reforming American education.

1924: Max Wertheimer describes the principles of Gestalt Theory to the Kant Society in Berlin. Gestalt Theory, with its emphasis on learning through insight and grasping the whole concept, becomes important later in the 20th century in the development of cognitive views of learning and teaching.

1929: Jean Piaget's *The Child's Conception of the World* is published. His theory of cognitive development becomes an important influence in American developmental psychology and education.

1929: The Great Depression begins with the stock market crash in October. The U.S. economy is devastated. Public education funding suffers greatly, resulting in school closings, teacher layoffs, and lower salaries.

1953: Burrhus Frederic (B.F.) Skinner's *Science and Human Behavior* is published. His form of behaviorism (operant conditioning), which emphasizes changes in behavior due to reinforcement, becomes widely accepted and influences many aspects of American education.

1956: The *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals; Handbook I: Cognitive Domain* is published. Often referred to simply as "Bloom's Taxonomy" because of its primary author, Benjamin S. Bloom, the document actually has four coauthors (M. D. Engelhart, E. J. Furst, W. H. Hill, and David Krathwohl).

1962: First published in 1934, Lev Vygotsky's book, *Thought and Language,* is introduced to the English-speaking world. Though he lives to be only 38, Vygotsky's ideas regarding the social nature of learning provide important foundational principles for contemporary social constructivist theories. He is perhaps best known for his concept of "Zone of Proximal Development."

1966: Jerome Bruner's *Toward a Theory of Instruction* is published. His views regarding learning help to popularize the cognitive learning theory as an alternative to behaviorism.

1968: The Bilingual Education Act, also known as Title VII, becomes law. After many years of controversy, the law is repealed in 2002 and replaced by the No Child Left Behind Act.

1969: Herbert R. Kohl's book, *The Open Classroom,* helps to promote open education, an approach emphasizing student-centered classrooms and active, holistic learning. The conservative back-to-the-basics movement of the 1970s begins at least partially as a backlash against open education.

1970: In his controversial book, *Deschooling Society,* Ivan Illich sharply criticizes traditional schools and calls for the end of compulsory school attendance.

1970: Jean Piaget's book, *The Science of Education,* is published. His Learning Cycle model helps to popularize discovery-based teaching approaches, particularly in the sciences.

1975: *Newsweek's* December 8 cover story, "Why Johnny Can't Write," heats up the debate about national literacy and gives impetus to the back-to-the-basics movement.

1982: Madeline C. Hunter's book, *Mastery Teaching*, is published. Her teaching model becomes widely used as teachers throughout the country attend her workshops and become "Hunterized."

1983: The report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, A Nation at Risk, calls for sweeping reforms in public education and teacher training. Among their recommendations is a forward-looking call for expanding high school requirements to include the study of computer science.

1993: Jacqueline and Martin Brooks' *In Search of Understanding: The Case for Constructivist Classrooms* is published. It is one many books and articles describing constructivism, a view that learning best occurs through active construction of knowledge rather than its passive reception. Constructivist

learning theory, with roots such as the work of Dewey, Bruner, Piaget, and Vygotsky, becomes extremely popular in the 1990s.

1993: The Massachusetts Education Reform Act requires a common curriculum and statewide tests (Massachusetts Comprehensive Assessment System). As has often been the case, other states follow Massachusetts' lead and implement similar, high-stakes testing programs.

1994: The Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) is signed into law by President Bill Clinton on January 25th. It. reauthorizes the ESEA of 1965 and includes reforms for Title I; increased funding for bilingual and immigrant education; and provisions for public charter schools, drop-out prevention, and educational technology.

1995: Georgia becomes the first state to offer universal preschool to all four-year-olds whose parents choose to enroll them.

1996: James Banks' book, *Multicultural Education: Transformative Knowledge and Action,* makes an important contribution to the growing body of scholarship regarding multiculturalism in education.

2000: Diane Ravitch's book, *Left Back: A Century of Failed School Reforms*, criticizes progressive educational policies and argues for a more traditional, academically-oriented education. Her views, which are reminiscent of the "back to the basics" movement of the late 1970s and 1980s, are representative of the current conservative trend in education and the nation at large.

2001: The controversial No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) is approved by Congress and signed into law by President George W. Bush on January 8, 2002.

The law, which reauthorizes the ESEA of 1965 and replaces the Bilingual

Education Act of 1968, mandates high-stakes student testing, holds schools

accountable for student achievement levels, and provides penalties for schools

that do not make adequate yearly progress toward meeting the goals of NCLB.

2007: Both the House and Senate pass the Fiscal Year 2008 Labor-HHS-

Education appropriation bill, which includes reauthorization of the NCLB Act.

However, the bill is vetoed by President Bush because it exceeds his budget

request. Attempts to override the veto fall short.

2009: The American Reinvestment and Recovery Act of 2009 provides more than

90-billion dollars for education, nearly half of which goes to local school districts

to prevent layoffs and for school modernization and repair. The act includes the

Race to the Top initiative, a $4.35 billion program designed to induce reform in

K-12 education.

2009: The Common Core State Standards Initiative, "a state-led effort

coordinated by the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices

(NGA Center) and the Council of Chief State School Officers," is launched.

2010: With the U.S. economy mired in the "great recession" and unemployment

remaining high, states have massive budget deficits. Many teachers face layoffs.

2011: President Barack Obama announces on September 23 that the U.S.

Department of Education is inviting each State educational agency to request

flexibility regarding some requirements of the NCLB Act.

2012: President Barack Obama announces on February 9 that applications seeking

waivers from some of the requirements of the NCLB law were approved.

2013: On May 22, the Chicago Board of Education votes to close 50 schools, the largest mass closing in U.S. history. Mayor Rahm Emanuel and CPS officials claim the closures are not only necessary to reduce costs, but will also improve educational quality. Other cities, including Detroit, Philadelphia, and Washington, DC, have also recently closed large numbers of public schools.

2013: The School District of Philadelphia announces on June 7 that it will cut nearly 4,000 employees, including 676 teachers as well as many administrators and guidance counselors.

2013: On Friday, June 14, the Chicago Public Schools announce that they will be laying off 663 employees, including 420 teachers. A month later, they lay off another 2,100 employees including more than 1,000 teachers. CPS blames the layoffs on "the state's failure to enact pension reform."

2013: The most recent results of the Program for International Student Assessment, released December 2, 2013, show that the achievement of U.S. teenagers continues to lag behind that of their counterparts in other developed countries, particularly those in Asia.

2014: President Barack Obama signs the $1.1 trillion bipartisan budget bill on January 17. The bill restores some, but not all, of the cuts to federal education programs that resulted from sequestration. It is the first budget to be agreed to by our government since 2009.

2014: On March 24, Indiana Governor Mike Pence signs legislation withdrawing the state from the Core Standards. Indiana becomes the first state to do so.

However, aspects of the Common Core may still be included in Indiana's new standards.

2014: In the case of Vergara v. California, the Superior Court of the State of California rules that laws regarding teacher tenure, seniority rights and dismissal are unconstitutional. California is not the only state where attempts are being made to weaken or eliminate teacher tenure protections.

2014: More teacher layoffs in Chicago. CPS announces on June 26 that its latest round of layoffs will total than 1,000 employees, including approximately 550 teachers.

2015: President Obama joins the "too-much-testing" movement as his new plan calls for limiting "standardized testing to no more than 2% of class time."

2015: On December 9, the U.S. Senate votes 85-12 to approve the Every Student Succeeds Act, and President Obama signs it into law on December 10. This latest version of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) replaces NCLB and allows more state control in judging school quality. (paras 1-5)

Punitive Discipline in the Classroom

As early as 1883, teachers used punitive discipline to address disruptive behaviors in the classroom. During the same year, in the Norwich Township of Franklin County, Ohio, the President of the Board of Education signed a document enacting the following rules for discipline:

1st – Teachers will be held responsible for the order, attention and deportment of their pupils under their respective charges, and they will be sustained by the Local Directors and Board of Education in all proper and legal means to secure the

same. 2nd – Pupils may be detained at any recess or not exceeding fifteen minutes

after the hour for closing the afternoon session, when the teacher deems such

detention necessary, for the commitment of lessons or for the enforcement of

discipline. 3rd – Whenever it shall become necessary for teachers to resort to

corporal punishment, the same shall not be inflicted upon head or hands of the

pupil. 4th – When parents are dissatisfied with the treatment of their children,

teachers shall not allow them to make their complaints in the presence of the

scholars, but shall respectfully bear them in private, and, if necessary, refer them

to the local directors. ("Education in the 1800's," 2007, para. 3)

From losing recess, to wearing a dunce cap, to having knuckles rapped by a ruler,

to writing "I will not..." 100 times on the chalkboard, teachers have been doling out

punishment to students for centuries in an effort to change their behavior. The timeline

according to "Education in the 1800's" (2007) displays the many philosophical beliefs of

educators through the centuries, from learning being established at birth, as published by

Locke, to Thorndike's belief that learning is established through repetition and rote

memorization. How students learn, how they behave at school, how they are disciplined

for transgressions, and how they navigate their many years of education, has been a focus

of the education world for more than 300 years. That said, discipline and how it is

handled remains a concern to the general public.

During most of its 22-year existence, the Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's

Attitudes Toward the Public Schools has identified lack of discipline as the most serious

problem facing the nation's educational system. Many educators and students are also

gravely concerned about disorder and danger in school environments, and with good

reason: The Harvard Education Letter (1987), as referenced in Cotton (1990), stated that almost three percent of teachers and students, and one to two percent of teachers and students in rural schools, are robbed or physically attacked. Additionally, nearly 17,000 students, per month, require medical attention for serious medical injuries. School staff, students, and parents are calling attention to secondary problems such as drug use, cheating, insubordination, truancy, and intimidation, which is resulting in almost two million suspensions per year. In addition, according to Cotton, American classrooms are often plagued by subsequent misbehaviors which disrupt the flow of classroom activities and interfere with learning. "Approximately one-half of all classroom time is taken up with activities other than instruction, and discipline problems are responsible for a significant portion of this lost instructional time" (p. 1).

Because "School discipline has not followed a linear path, as attitudes toward corporal punishment and other, non-physical approaches have shifted back and forth" (Compulsory Education Laws: Background, 2016), there has been little to no agreement on how discipline should be addressed. For every argument to implement a behavior management program there is an equally compelling reason to not implement the program. For every child that thrives under a specific teaching style, there is a child that withers. For every law that is passed to deal with heinous acts on school grounds, there is a law passed to keep government out of school. However, research is beginning to identify those classroom management strategies, behavior management strategies, and discipline strategies that are helping students succeed not only in school, but also after they graduate, affording them the opportunity to succeed outside the boundaries of the classroom. The following pages will review the most recent literature on these issues,

helping the reader identify strengths and weaknesses within the current education system, as it relates to discipline.

<div align="center">Identifying Students at Risk</div>

According to Nachtigal (2016):

Twenty years ago, when a student was disruptive in a classroom, there was a fair chance she would be asked to leave, with orders to head to the office. Nowadays, teachers are working to cut back on those office referrals, in an effort to keep students in the classroom and learning. (p. 1)

Research has shown that classroom discipline, when handled punitively, can lead to disengagement. Henry et al. (2012) conducted a study to determine if school disengagement was an early predictor of negative consequences later in life. Henry et al. used data from the Rochester Youth Development Study, begun in 1988 with 1,000 seventh- and eighth-grade students. The researchers focused on data from 12 interviews, comparing the school disengagement warning index, which is comprised of five components: standardized test scores, attendance, failing one or more core subjects, one or more suspensions, and grade retention. They compared the index to high school dropout status, self-reported offending and police data, and whether or not problem alcohol and drug use was reported. Overwhelmingly, the research showed that early school disengagement results in negative consequences during middle adolescence, late adolescence, and young adulthood. The research was limited by not including variables such as attention seeking, impulse actions, and learning disabilities.

In 2012, Irby conducted an ethnographic content analysis (ECA) study to understand if school organizations changed such that students get into deeper trouble now

than in the past. Irby collected district-wide codes of conduct from the School District of

Philadelphia for the periods 1990–1991 through 2008–2009. During the time of the study,

the School District of Philadelphia, served almost 170,000 students, with approximately

85%, or 144,500, students of racial and/or ethnic minorities. Black or African American

students consisted of 62%, or 105,400. The ECA Irby employed analyzed numeric,

format, visual, and narrative aspects of codes to determine how corrective actions

changed over the past 15 years. Irby concluded that corrective actions changed in three

common ways: (a) additions, (b) eliminations, and (c) reordering, which suggested that

the School District of Philadelphia disciplined more punitively than in the past. When

additional corrective actions were developed, this led to a "piling on" of disciplinary

action. After the additions were reduced or eliminated, it led to more severe disciplinary

measures being implemented. This led to a reordering of misbehavior and created a tiered

system in which discipline could be ordered.

> For example, "discuss incident with student" usually precedes "assign student to
>
> detention" which precedes "suspend student for from one to five days" and
>
> "recommend for expulsion." Without deleting or adding corrective actions,
>
> reordering modifies what responses should happen in what order. (p. 13)

In addition to the three common changes, Irby also determined that changes in personnel,

locations of discipline, and more sophisticated procedures and programs deepened the

discipline net, necessitating more students being punished, which administrators tried to

reduce by doling out stiffer disciplinary measures.

Rocque (2010), similarly to Irby, conducted a study to examine race and

discipline but focused the research in the elementary school setting, obtaining data for

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28,634 students in 45 elementary schools located in one Virginia county during the 2005–2006 school year. The data included official school records, teacher reports on individual students, demographic, and disciplinary data. In studying race and discipline, Rocque also included socioeconomic status, race, special education status, gender, academic performance, and student behavior. The data showed that while 5% of White students received an office referral, 14% of African American students and 6% of Hispanic students received an office referral, suggesting evidence of bias in American schools. Due to the evidence in the study, Rocque suggested that certain groups are more likely to be considered deviant, regardless of behavior. The study concluded that the disparity in school disciplinary practices could not be explained by school effects, student behavior, gender, socioeconomic status, grades, age, or special education, further suggesting that racial disparity is in part driven by bias from school officials.

Skiba et al. (2011) also examined racial and ethnic gaps in ODRs and administrative discipline decisions. Data was collected from 272 K–sixth grade schools and 92 sixth–9th grade schools. Each school participated in School-wide Positive Behavior Supports (SWPBS) for at least one year. SWPBS was not relevant to the study, but because these schools systematically reported problem behaviors that result in ODRs, as well as disciplinary action taken, Skiba et al. were able to examine data that reported both pieces of information. Skiba et al. determined that African American and Latino students were disproportionately represented in both ODRs and discipline decisions. African American students had twice the odds in elementary school, and four times the odds at the middle school level, to receive an ODR, as compared to White students. Hispanic students had significantly more referrals at the middle school level, but

significantly fewer referrals at the elementary level. Both groups of students had significantly higher levels of suspension than White students. Socioeconomic disadvantages could result in the higher rates of ODRs given to African American and Latino students, but would require further research.

Additionally, Skiba, Peterson, and Williams (1997) conducted a study to examine disciplinary practices in urban middle schools in two Midwestern districts. Study I data was taken from the 1995–1996 disciplinary records of 11,001 students from 19 middle schools in a large urban school district in the Midwest. 4,620 students were White, 6,161 African American, 132 Latino, 77 Asian American, and 11 Native American. Of the 11,001 participants in Study I, 4,521 students had disciplinary contact, accounting for 17,045 office referrals. Study II participants were from one middle school in a Midwestern city public school. Of the 610 students, 56 were African American, nine Asian American, five Hispanic American and three Native American. During the 1995–1996 school year, 846 office referrals were made, resulting in approximately 4.6 referrals each day. Both studies suggested that a large percentage of the student population, approximately 40%, received an office referral. The study also indicated that punitive responses are not likely to have much effect on reducing developmentally appropriate middle school behaviors.

In 2004, Farmer, Goforth, Clemmer, and Thompson conducted a multimethod study to assess academic, behavioral, and social characteristics in seventh- and eighth-grade grade students. The study took place in a rural county in one of the poorest southern states within the United States. Participants were chosen from 12 classrooms of a self-contained middle school that educated seventh- and eighth-grade students. A group

of 259 students agreed to participate, composed of 83 boys and 176 girls, all African American. More than 248 students (96%) qualified for free and reduced lunch. Teachers completed an Interpersonal Competence Scale—Teacher (ICS-T) survey, in which they rated students in their class according to subscales: (a) aggressive, (b) popularity, (c) academic, (d) affiliative, (e) Olympian, and (f) internalizing. Another teacher measure included eight items: (a) attention problems, (b) class leadership, (c) hyperactive, (d) bullied by peers, (e) manipulates, (f) friendships, (g) bullies peers, and (h) participates in extracurricular activities. Finally, peer interpersonal assessments were given to each participant to rank their classmates. The results of the study suggested that early adolescence discipline problems were linked to major and minor offenses identified in students through the teacher and student surveys, especially in boys with regard to bullying and aggression.

In 2011, Lee et al. conducted a study to examine the association between school suspension rates and dropout rate based on school level characteristics that impact students most. Lee et al. hypothesized that higher suspension rates would be predictive of higher dropout rates, based on rural versus urban locale, and financial resources available to the participating schools. School samples were obtained from the Virginia High School Safety Study (VHSSS) and included schools that offered 9–12 grade academics, a high school diploma, and served students primarily under the age of 18. Surveys were given to 7,431 ninth grade students; 3,641 (49%) were female and 3,790 (51%) male; 4,682 (63%) were Caucasian, 1,635 (22%) African American, 372 (5%) Latino, 223 (3%) Asian American, 74 (1%) American Indian, and 372 (5%) Other. Lee et al. measured through these surveys: dropout rates, school suspension, student aggressive attitudes, and student

belief in school rules. As hypothesized, Lee at al. discovered that suspension rates were consistently associated with high school dropout rates, and school demographics were predictive of the school's dropout rate. Schools that had a large minority population, had students receiving free or reduced priced meals, and had fewer financial resources available, experienced higher dropout rates.

Lessard et al. (2007) conducted a study to describe how dropouts experienced their educational journeys. As part of a larger study, 808 participants were contacted twice per year since 1996 to answer several questions about their educational journeys, two of which included whether they had received their diploma, and whether they were still in school. If both questions were answered negatively, they were considered dropouts. Of the 92 students identified as dropouts, 80 (36 females, 44 males) agreed to participate in the study. All dropouts were between the ages of 17 and 21 during the study. Data was collected through personal interviews, which included open-ended questions about the participant's experience with other students and school personnel. Lessard et al. discovered four steps to a dropout's journey: (a) setting the stage, (b) teetering, (c) ending the journey, and (d) dropping out. The researchers also identified a number of factors that contributed to this journey: (a) aggression, (b) low school performance, (c) grade retention, (d) negative teacher relationships, and (e) family turmoil.

In 2010, Mac Iver conducted a study to identify at-risk factors for Baltimore City School dropouts. Mac Iver wanted to identify if these students exhibited early warning indicators of (a) non-graduation, (b) how they differed from other graduates, (c) how they compared by demographic group and school type, (d) how far from graduation dropouts

were in terms of credit hours, and (e) whether dropouts would consider an alternative recovery option to complete high school. Dropouts and graduates from the 2008–2009 school year were studied and followed back in time through district records, rather than following them at the present time. In her study, Mac Iver found that dropouts exhibited three behavioral indicators of disengagement: poor attendance, suspensions, and course failure. Additionally, life issues related to family, finances, physical health, and mental health contributed to dropout warning indicators. From the prior school data, Mac Iver determined that significant interventions and preventative measures were needed in the middle grades to prevent most dropout trends.

Hirschfield and Gasper (2009) also conducted a study to determine whether school engagement predicts delinquency, delinquency predicts engagement, or both. Over 11,000 fifth- through eighth-grade youth in inner-city Chicago participated in Comer's School Development Program Evaluation (SDP) beginning in 1992. The SDP was a whole-school reform program to improve disadvantaged academic and social climates in the elementary school setting. Approximately 95% of students were surveyed twice a year from the 1992–1993 through 1996–1997 school years using an attitudes and behavior survey which measured delinquency and cognitive and behavioral engagement, as well as a school climate survey. Based on survey results, Hirschfield and Gasper determined that disengagement from school, which began in elementary school, was the primary long-term social-psychological event that turned motivated students into high school dropouts. Evidence determined that delinquency had a short-term and limited impact on cognitive disengagement. Future research should be conducted in middle class and suburban schools, as well as middle and high schools. In addition, research should

"systematically examine mediation. Parental and peer relationships, aspirations, strain, and achievement merit consideration as mediators of the impact on disengagement and delinquency" (Hirschfield & Gasper, p. 18).

In 1992, Cernkovich and Giordano conducted a study to examine the impact of school bonding among black and white youths, and the effect of school bonding on delinquent behavior. Because students who attend school are more likely to exhibit higher levels of school bonding, Cernkovich and Giordano obtained a cross-section of youths between the ages of 12 and 19, geographically dispersed throughout neighborhoods in the metropolitan area of Toledo, Ohio. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with 942 adolescents, 480 female and 462 male. Approximately 424 participants were White, the remaining nonwhites predominately Black. Participants were asked how many times they had committed a delinquent act in the past year, answering questions from a modified version of Elliott and Ageton's self-report delinquency scale. This scale represented 27 delinquent behaviors, from truancy to cheating on tests and rape. In addition, participants also answered, on a scale of 1–5, seven school-bonding questions relating to (a) school attachment, (b) attachment to teachers, (c) school commitment, (d) perceived risk of arrest, (e) school involvement, (f) parental communication, and (g) perceived opportunity. From their results, Cernkovich and Giordano determined that school bonding and delinquency involvement was substantially the same, regardless of ethnicity.

<center>Classroom Management and Interventions</center>

Much of classroom discipline has focused on "zero-tolerance" policies, which make punishments swift and harsh for misbehaviors that include bringing a weapon to

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school, using drugs or alcohol on school grounds, or threatening physical harm to another student or staff member. In 2011, Kennedy researched how classroom dynamics, including discipline, shape a middle school student's experiences. Kennedy studied seven teachers that taught in a Community Day School (CDS) for students that have been expelled from a traditional classroom setting for committing zero tolerance offenses. Seven teachers at a single California middle school were observed on three core applications—care, curriculum, and classroom management—to determine how any combination of these applications would affect classroom dynamics. Two teachers were described as rapport builders, two teachers were described as curriculum builders, and three teachers were described as blamers. Through her qualitative analysis of classroom observations, Kennedy was able to predict which students were more likely to succeed in which classroom environment. Kennedy's observations allowed her to develop four recommendations for classroom teachers:

> Assess…curriculum, casework, and classroom management in classroom
> dynamics; look for reasons behind students' behavior; emphasize relationships by
> being personally involved, but not taking students' behavior personally; apply
> "withiitness," transparent expectations, and consistency to instruction, classroom
> management, and relationship building. (p. 8)

Kennedy further suggested that administrators look for ways to align the three common core expectations with her four recommendations to determine effectiveness with students who are in need of guidance beyond the traditional classroom setting.

In 2012, Kennedy-Lewis conducted a multiple case study approach to describe how connections between curriculum, casework, and classroom management affect

marginalized students enrolled in an urban Community Day School (CDS). CDSs serve students who are expelled from comprehensive schools, in compliance with California mandate AB 922. Data was collected from Vista Hermosa Community Day School (VHCDS), which served approximately 100 students throughout the given school year. Kennedy-Lewis focused the research on two groups of seventh-grade students, though interviews took place with eighth-grade students as well. All nine teachers at VHCDS, and all the administrators, counselors, and support staff agreed to participate. Observations occurred in each classroom for 10 hours each. Semistructured interviews lasted 60-90 minutes for adults, and 20-45 minutes for students. Document analysis of students' cumulative records also occurred as part of the study's findings. The study suggested that CDS teachers need high-quality professional development tailored to the CDS context, which included casework, curriculum, and classroom management in order to boost student achievement and encourage behavior modification.

Dotterer and Lowe (2010) conducted a multi-method study to assess behavioral and psychological engagement in the classroom. Dotterer and Lowe hypothesized that school engagement would predict student academic achievement. Data was taken from a 1991 comprehensive longitudinal study that included 1,364 students from 10 states across the United States. Dotterer and Lowe utilized data collected between and 2005 that included 1,014 children in fifth grade. The majority of participants (781) were White and 233 were African American. Female participants totaled 511, and male participants totaled 503. The study utilized multiple methods of data collection, which included standardized assessment, observation, and self-report. Behavioral engagement was assessed with the Classroom Observation System–5th Grade, and academic achievement

was assessed with the Woodcock Johnson Psychoeducational Battery—Revised (WJ-R). Dotterer and Lowe found that classroom context (instructional quality, social/emotional climate, and teacher-child conflict) had a significant and positive impact on both psychological and behavioral engagement. Students who exhibited psychological and behavioral engagement in the classroom were more likely to perform higher on the WJ-R standardized tests. However, further research should be conducted on diverse groups of learners, not just traditional classroom settings.

In 2014, Predy, McIntosh, and Frank conducted a study to examine how ODRs written during the first three months of the school year would predict the number of ODRs written at the end of the school year. The study included 401,852 students from 593 public middle schools (sixth to eighth grade) in the United States, obtained from archived records from the School Wide Information System (SWIS) for the 2009–2010 school year. Of the schools in the study, 136 were considered urban, 201 suburban, 100 small town, and 154 rural. Average student enrollment was 677 students, with 325 (48%) of students receiving free and reduced lunch, 395 (58.3%) White, 276 (40.7%) nonwhite, and the remaining 7 (1%) not reported. ODRs in all schools for the 2009–2010 school year was 403,172, received by 118,582 students, an average of three ODRs per student. Predy et al. examined the appropriateness of ODRs as an early indicator for identifying students requiring additional behavioral supports. While the ODRs were mildly predictive of total ODRs a student received, the type of referral received, specifically defiance, was a more accurate indicator in predicting six or more ODRs by the end of the school year.

Evans and Lester (2010) studied classroom management techniques, and how those techniques contributed to either suspensions or academic achievement. The researchers examined a study in which 345 teachers reported their beliefs about readiness to address behavior challenges in a school setting. Middle- and secondary-school teachers reported being significantly less able and ready to manage this type of student. Evans and Lester, in examining the data, determined that suspensions have a negative impact on academic achievement, and push students in a failure cycle. This failure cycle begins with academic frustration and increased behavior problems because of those frustrations, exclusion from academic instruction because of suspensions or other exclusionary practices, cycling through the frustrations and exclusion from academic instruction, until a student drops out of school or ends up in juvenile delinquency. Evans and Lester suggested several behavior intervention models to support classroom management: Positive Behavior Intervention Support (PBIS), Consistency Management and Cooperative Discipline (CMCD), The Child Development Project (CDP), a responsive classroom, Peaceable Schools Movement, Positive Discipline in the Classroom, Resolving Conflict Creatively Program (RCCP), Reality Therapy, and Restorative Justice.

Lewis (2015) conducted a qualitative case study at a community day school (CDS) which examined the relationships between educators' beliefs and practices and how those relationships shaped student experiences. Lewis conducted the study at Vista Hermosa CDS, an alternative school available to expelled students, located in an urban school district in Southern California that served more than 50,000 students. During the 2008–2009 school year, semistructured interviews occurred between Lewis and all

classroom teachers, 10 school administrators and staff members, four district-level

administrators and 17 seventh- and eighth-grade students. Students, teachers, and

administrators were asked about their behavior, experiences, practices, and school

policies. Lewis determined through her observations and interviews that there were two

conflicting subcultures at Vista Hermosa: dominant (traditionalist) teacher culture and

counseling (developmentalist) culture. The counseling culture allowed students to work

through behavior problems successfully, but did not transfer back to the classroom.

Because of traditionalist culture, students continued to feel excluded, exasperated, and

retraumatized, recreating the school failure they experienced before coming to Vista

Hermosa.

<div align="center">Restorative Justice in the Prison Setting</div>

In order to better understand the history of RJ, and its slow movement into the

classroom setting, one must first begin with RJ in the prison setting—where most of the

research has occurred the past several decades. RJ, in its purest form as a nonjudicial and

nonlegal approach to criminal action, is not a new idea, but rather one that has seen a

reemergence in the criminal justice sector starting in the 1970s. According to the

Abbotsford Restorative Justice and Advocacy Association:

> The first recognized case of Restorative Justice in Canada was documented in
>
> Elmira, Ontario, in 1974. After two young offenders vandalized 22 properties in a
>
> small Ontario town, the assigned probation officer, Mark Yantzi, and a Mennonite
>
> prison support worker, Dave Worth, asked the judge for permission to arrange for
>
> the two offenders to meet with the victims of the vandalism in order to see if
>
> reparations could be made. News of the success of this new (yet centuries old)

approach quickly spread. Soon, Victim Offender Reconciliation Programs, using

approaches based on concepts of responsibility, healing and reconciliation, were

being created across Canada, in the United States and in Europe. These programs

helped open the door to a more formal recognition of traditional approaches used

in Aboriginal communities in Canada, New Zealand and Australia. Soon

innovative programs developed that were based on Aboriginal ways of dealing

with harms between individuals and within the community, grounded in values of

respect, responsibility, community and healing. The movement to design and

recognize approaches to justice that focus on addressing the harm caused by crime

has now become a world-wide phenomenon. Howard Zehr, leading writer in this

field, also points out that the modern field of Restorative Justice did develop in

the 1970's from case experiments in several communities with a proportionately

sizable Mennonite population. Seeking to apply their faith as well as their peace

perspective to the harsh world of criminal justice, Mennonites and other

practitioners (in Ontario, Canada, and later in Indiana, U.S.A.) experimented with

victim-offender encounters that led to programs in these communities and later

became models for programs around the world. Restorative justice theory

developed initially from these particular efforts. (2010, paras. 1–3)

The rise of victim-offender reconciliation was documented by MacKenzie (2000)

when the researcher assessed evidence about programs implemented under controlled

conditions within the prison system and identified three distinct areas: what works, what

does not work, and what is promising. Of eight areas MacKenzie identified as working,

one such identifying factor discussed rehabilitation programs that included particular characteristics. These characteristics included:

> Substantial meaningful contact between the treatment personnel and the participant, …address[ed] the characteristics of offenders that are associated with criminal activities and can be changed, and…of sufficient integrity to endure that what is delivered is consistent with the planned design. (p. 464)

RJ models, when implemented correctly, adhere to these characteristics, increasing the success of victim/offender reconciliation.

Dhami, Mantle and Fox (2009) found that, when the goals of RJ and imprisonment were focused on rehabilitation, the two constructs were compatible. For example, RJ and imprisonment attempt to address the core issue of, and rehabilitate that, behavior; RJ and prisons work to promote social reintegration, as well as mend damaged relationships caused by misbehavior; RJ and prisons are centered around governed conduct—who speaks, and when (p. 435). The behaviors that prisons would like to instill in inmates, such as ownership for actions, a sense of understanding of the impact to victims, psychological and emotional healing, valuing time by using it positively and effectively, are all addressed within the context of RJ. Dhami et al. recognized, however, that not all prison systems are alike, and not all attributes of rehabilitation align with RJ. "Imprisonment isolates offenders from victims and communities, while RJ attempts to draw them together to begin reconciliation and reintegration" (p. 436). Prisons are regimented and controlled, while RJ promotes autonomy. The delay between a crime and imprisonment can be lengthy, while RJ works to resolve conflict swiftly.

Dhami et al. (2014) precisely summed up the principles and goals of RJ in prison, and the value of restorative work:

Beyond offering an opportunity for mediation between victims and offenders, the goals of RJ in prison should include: helping prisoners take responsibility for their actions, recognize the harm they have caused, develop an awareness of victims' needs, and provide them with an opportunity to make amends to victims and give back to their communities; helping victims, families and communities communicate their needs to the offender, and develop an awareness of how the prison is assisting the offender in rehabilitation; strengthening mutually beneficial ties between the prison and community, so that the community becomes aware of the prison's work and can aid in the reintegration and resettlement of prisoners, and maintaining the prisoners' family ties; and by creating a prison system and culture that humanizes prisoners, gives them a decent standard of living, keeps them safe and secure, provides them with opportunities to transform themselves by using their time productively, promotes positive interactions between staff and prisoners, and resolves conflicts using alternative dispute resolution techniques. (pp. 437-438)

While the goal of RJ is to provide an opportunity for mediation between the victim and offender, RJ is not always a replacement for consequences. Tsui (2014) recounted the story of the Streufert family and their participation in the RJ process, focusing research on the healing, rather than punitive, effects of RJ:

In June of 1991, eighteen-year-old college freshman Carin Streufert was visiting her hometown of Grand Rapids, Minnesota, for her summer vacation. After a trip

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to a local pancake house with friends, Streufert departed on foot at approximately

2:45 a.m. to walk home alone. Sometime in the course of her travels, Streufert

was abducted, raped, and murdered, leaving behind her grief-stricken parents,

Don and Mary Streufert. Although Carin Streufert's killers were eventually

convicted and sentenced to life in prison for their brutal crime, her parents felt

compelled to search beyond the traditional models of punishment to facilitate

their own healing. Rather than settling for retribution, the Streuferts focused on

forgiveness and turned toward restorative justice practices and principles as a

means toward that end. The Streuferts founded an organization to address and

reduce violence, began holding forgiveness workshops with other victims of

crime, and even visited their daughter's murderers in prison. Through this

process, the family found a way to prevent anger from controlling their future,

despite knowing that forgiveness could never change their past. The Streuferts say

they have forgiven their daughter's killers, but they still believe that the two men

responsible for their daughter's death should remain in prison. (paras 1-3)

Tsui argues that traditional methods of punishment, especially for juvenile

offenders, often fail to address the core issue in these cases—victim satisfaction.

According to Tsui (2014), there are "three methods established as 'hallmarks of

restorative justice':" (a) victim-offender mediation, a practice that allows a victim to

voluntarily face the offender in a secure space with a trained mediator; (b) group

conferencing, which brings together the victim and the offender, as well as the friends,

family, and other key supporters of both parties; and (c) peacemaking or sentencing

circles, a method based on the circle approach to create safe spaces for issues such as

dialogue regarding sentencing, addressing internal conflict in detention facilities, or aiding in transition and integration (pp. 638–640).

Tsui (2014) claimed that "The United States has the highest rate of incarceration in the world" (p. 641), and argued that RJ would address, and therefore reduce, criminal detention, especially in the juvenile sector. Tsui found that restored offenders are less likely to recidivate, restorative programming may be more cost-efficient than traditional incarceration, juveniles are more likely to be restored, and otherwise absent victim input is included. Counter-balancing these efforts however, Tsui noted possible barriers to implementing RJ practices: lack of community cohesion, a perception of RJ as "soft," pressure on policy makers to be tough on crime, lack of knowledge and exposure to RJ, and shortage of resources (pp. 653-659). However, as success stories continue to be shared in RJ research, and communities become more educated concerning this research, the implications for reducing recidivism abound.

<div align="center">Restorative Justice in the Classroom Setting</div>

RJ has slowly begun to make its way into the classroom, aided by California's governor signing AB 420, on September 27, 2014. According to Public Counsel (2014):

> AB 420 places limits on the use of school discipline for the catch-all category known as "willful defiance," which also includes minor school disruption. Willful defiance accounts for 43% of suspensions issued to California students, and is the suspension offense category with the most significant racial disparities. For the next 3.5 years, the law eliminates in-school and out-of-school suspensions for children in grades K-3 for disruptive behavior currently captured in Education Code section 48900(k) and bans all expulsions for this reason. The bill was co-

sponsored by Public Counsel, Children Now, Fight Crime Invest in Kids, and the

ACLU of California and supported by a statewide coalition of organizations.

(para. 2)

AB 420 has forced administrators and staff to look for alternative discipline

measures to suspension and expulsion, leading them to behavior management models

such as DTR, PBIS and similar positive-reinforcement programs.

Standing et al. (2012) conducted an action research study that investigated the

value of restorative practice for one male subject in a mixed secondary school located in

the United Kingdom. The subject was selected because he represented typical

exclusionary behaviors that the government was trying to address: male, between the

ages of 13 and 14; identified as being at risk for getting involved in drinking, drugs,

criminal activity; and anti-social behaviors. Standing et al. also had a previous

relationship with the subject because the subject had participated in one of the first

restorative conferences Standing et al. had facilitated. The student's teachers, as well as

support staff within the classroom, agreed to log incidents of behavior, whether good or

bad, on the school computer system, utilizing common language taught to the entire

school staff at a training session on May 18, 2010. Incidents of behavior were logged for

four weeks, resulting in two opportunities for restorative conversations with the subject,

but because of a physical altercation with another group of students, the subject was

suspended from school during the fourth week of the study.

Freeman et al. (2015) conducted a study to determine if implementing the School-

wide Positive Behavior Intervention Support (SWPBIS) plan would affect high school

dropout rates. Freeman et al. identified high schools from the National PBIS center's

dataset, and state-level datasets from state department websites, from the years 2005–

2006 and 2011–2012, resulting in an initial sample of 883 high schools from 37 states.

Researchers further identified 934 middle schools, also from the National PBIS center's

dataset, located in the same high school district, resulting in 1,817 middle and high

schools studied. The study examined whether implementing SWPBIS with fidelity would

affect dropout rates and risk factors such as academics and attendance. Freeman et al

identified that schools that met 70% or higher SWPBIS implementation fidelity realized a

more significant decrease in dropout trends in the researchers' growth model, "indicating

that schools that start with higher dropout rates have lower overall slopes indicating more

decline across time" (p. 302). The authors suggested further research across racial/ethnic

groups and socioeconomic levels to determine how SWPBIS affected these differing

groups of students.

In 2008, Muscott, Mann, and LeBrun conducted a study to determine the effects

of implementing Positive Behavior Interventions Supports (PBIS) in early-childhood

programs and K-12 schools across the state of New Hampshire for the 2003–2004 and

2004–2005 school years. Invitations were sent to the administrative staff of every public

school in the state for a 2-day PBIS event with the express intent of determining

readiness to implement PBIS in their schools. The 26 schools that accepted the invitation

and attended the event were accepted into the study. An additional two high schools with

the highest dropout rates in the state were also included in the study, totaling 28 schools

examined for the study. Muscott et al. utilized three tools to measure fidelity of

implementation: the School-wide Evaluation Tool (SET), Universal Team Checklist

(UTC), and Effective Behavioral Support Survey (EBS). Schools that scored 80% or

higher on the SET, which measured implementation fidelity, 80% or higher on the UTC, which measured a faculty's belief that interventions were already in place, and 50% or higher on the EBS, which measured whether PBIS improved behavior interventions, were considered on target for implementation fidelity. Two schools dropped out of the study, and two did not report data, but the remaining 24 schools achieved mathematical gains in state testing.

In 2010, Nelson, Young, Young, and Cox conducted a study to determine the use of praise notes to evaluate Positive Behavior Support (PBS) focused objectives and their effect on ODRs. This school was in its third year of implementing the PBS model. Participants included 70 teachers and 1,809 sixth- and seventh-grade students at secondary schools in the western part of the United States. The study took place over two years, during which time teachers were to write praise notes to students who exemplified schoolwide PBS goals. Teachers were instructed on how to effectively praise students as part of a 2-day training on PBS initiatives at the beginning of the school year. Over the course of the 2-year study, 14,527 praise notes were written, and 2,143 ODRs were recorded. Based on the findings, as the number of praise notes written increased, ODRs decreased. Additionally, as praise notes increased among students who had received at least one ODR, their rates of ODRs decreased as well. Because of the descriptive nature of the study, it was difficult to determine causal relations. Teacher skills in responding to negative behavior, administrator response to ODRs, and effects of reporting could have contributed to the results.

Netzel and Eber (2003) conducted a study to determine the effects of PBIS implementation in an urban elementary school in the Midwest. The Waukegen School

District's goal was to reduce the incidences of problem behaviors that led to detentions, suspensions, expulsions, and high rates of referrals to special education, and chose North Elementary School (NES) as its pilot school because of its high levels of each these factors. Comprised of approximately 600 students, 576 (96%) of whom were minority status and 408 (68%) of whom were eligible for free and reduced lunch, 59 (9.8%) students received at least one suspension during the 1998–1999 school year, accounting for 117 documented out-of-school suspensions. A PBIS Leadership Team took part in a 2-day training by the statewide PBIS Initiative. PBIS overviews were provided to the building staff through staff meetings during the first year, but school-wide implementation did not occur until year two. Scripts, action plans, "Gotcha" rewards, and a single referral form were introduced in year two, resulting in a 22% reduction in overall suspensions from 1998–1999 to 1999–2000. Referrals to the special education program decreased as well, once problem behaviors were reduced.

In 2007, Hawken, MacLeod, and Rawlings conducted a study to determine the effects of implementing the Behavior Education Program (BEP), a check-in, check-out system for students at risk for severe problem behavior. The study was conducted in an urban elementary school with 655 students, kindergarten through sixth grade. Approximately 432 students, 66%, qualified for free and reduced lunch, and approximately 249 students, 38%, were of minority background. Of the 17 students who received the BEP intervention during the school year, 13 met the criteria to be included in the study, and parental permission was granted for 12 students. Included in four groups of three students each were 10 boys, two girls, two students from minority backgrounds, and eight students who qualified for free and reduced lunch. One of the 12 students

participated in the special education program for a reading disability. The dependent variable implemented with the BEP was the total number of ODRs, which would reference a minor or major infraction. The BEP intervention was associated with an average 39% reduction in ODRs, dropping from over seven referrals a month to fewer than three.

Pace et al. (2014) conducted a study to determine self-efficacy levels after implementing a proactive classroom management model intervention for teachers whose students displayed disruptive behaviors. The management model for intervention was introduced in five phases:

1. A prephase in which the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale was administered, as well as a demographic survey and program evaluation form

2. A Microsoft PowerPoint presentation that introduced developmental stages for children, common student disruptive behaviors and teacher responses, effects of those responses, and common stressors

3. A self-evaluation activity that explored teacher emotions, and their effects on others

4. A PowerPoint presentation discussing safety techniques in the event of a crisis

5. A readministration of the TSES long form

Based on the survey results, many teachers address disruptive classroom episodes with punitive rather than proactive relationship-building measures, compromising teacher self-efficacy levels. Pace et al. (2014) suggested that as teachers acquire the skills necessary to implement proactive measures they will in turn realize higher self-efficacy levels. The findings supported the need for proactive classroom management training and implementation.

In 2011, Brackett et al. conducted a study to examine if teachers who created a healthy classroom emotional climate (CEC) were more likely to develop students' feelings of connectedness, which would, in turn, develop positive classroom behavior. Participants included 63 teachers and 2,000 students from 90 fifth- and sixth-grade English language arts (ELA) classrooms in 44 schools from a diverse, urban school district in the northeastern United States. Observational data was recorded in six segments, up to 30 minutes in length, in each classroom. Students were read surveys about teacher affiliation, and then colored a bubble that corresponded to their response choice. Measures included classroom climate, teacher affiliation, and conduct. As hypothesized, observations, student surveys, and report cards collected from fifth- and sixth-grade classrooms showed a positive correlation between classroom emotional climate and student conduct. Emotionally supported classrooms reported more behaved students. The researchers suggested that students emotionally disconnected from school are more likely to drop out, which could be countered through the CEC model.

Research continues to show that school bonding is an essential component to effective discipline, which the restorative model seeks to establish. Due to the community nature of restorative discipline, school bonding is often a natural commodity of the model. In 1992, Cernkovich and Giordano conducted a study to examine the impact of school bonding among black and white youths, and the effect of school bonding on delinquent behavior. Because students who attend school are more likely to exhibit higher levels of school bonding, Cernkovich and Giordano obtained a cross-section of youths between the ages of 12 and 19 geographically dispersed throughout neighborhoods in the metropolitan area of Toledo, Ohio. Face-to-face interviews were

conducted with 942 adolescents, 480 female and 462 male. Approximately 424

participants were White, with the remaining nonwhites predominately Black. Participants

were asked how many times they had committed a delinquent act in the past year,

answering questions from a modified version of Elliott and Ageton's self-report

delinquency scale. This scale represented 27 delinquent behaviors, from truancy to

cheating on tests and rape. In addition, participants also answered, on a scale of 1–5,

seven school-bonding questions relating to (a) school attachment, (b) attachment to

teachers, (c) school commitment, (d) perceived risk of arrest, (e) school involvement, (f)

parental communication, and (g) perceived opportunity. From their results, Cernkovich

and Giordano determined that school bonding and delinquency involvement was

substantially the same, regardless of ethnicity. These results, therefore, suggest further

research to examine "how cultural and interpersonal relations in the family and among

peers influence school bonding, and, in turn, delinquency" (Cernkovich & Giordano, p.

284).

   DeWitt and DeWitt (2012) conducted a case study that analyzed the process of RJ

after an instance of high school hazing that occurred in 2005, which included a follow-up

study of the school seven years later, in 2012. DeWitt and Dewitt hypothesized that

Senge's five disciplines of organizational learning—systems thinking, personal master,

mental models, building shared vision, and team learning—would be established through

the RJ process. The hazing incident involved a large upper Midwestern high school in a

community of over 60,000 people. The district had a student populations of 11,300

students at 16 school sites, with 2,400 of those students enrolled in 10th through 12th

grade at the high school. The incident involved 11th graders initiating ninth graders into

the high school's elite crowd. The Superintendent, Principal, Chief of Police, and County Attorney generated an RJ plan for the alleged perpetrators which required offending students to be part of an educational program that would inform others students about the consequences of hazing, attend a lecture on hazing, and perform 20 hours of community service. A follow-up survey was given to 437 junior class members seven years after the incident, and results indicated that hazing had been eliminated from the school. Through the RJ model, all five of Senge's disciplines of organizational learning were met, resulting in organizational change in the school. Future research of RJ practices should occur in other organizations.

In 2011, Choi et al. examined qualitative research data from a case study on a Victim Offender Mediation (VOM) program located in a midsized Midwestern city in the United States. Choi et al. wanted to develop a better understanding of RJ processes, and examined four different VOM cases from the cumulative qualitative research data. The individuals observed in these cases included crime victims, youths who had committed crimes and their families, and service providers such as mediators. Two cases included misdemeanor charges the VOM program commonly handled: petty theft and property vandalism. An additional two cases dealt with violent felony charges, which the VOM program did not commonly handle. Choi et al. conducted semistructured interviews and observations as the primary data collection method. Each interview lasted one hour and occurred in safe places such as the VOM program offices or the participant's home. Researchers found that the youths overwhelmingly reported that the VOM experience helped them realize both the unseen effects of their crimes and the extent of the consequences of their actions. The authors suggested future research regarding how and

why restorative dialogue processes work between victim and offender, and how remorse and empathy should be taught to offenders so they may express themselves in socially appropriate ways to their victims.

Conclusion

While the concept of RJ has been around for decades, the push to introduce its concepts in the classroom is fundamentally new. As literature emerges, including those studies found within this research, highlighting the ineffectiveness of punitive discipline, opportunity is created to implement student-autonomous models such as DTR.

Summary

Understanding how the DTR model has worked within the framework of the prison setting allows those in the education field to adapt the model in a way that works for their school environment, highlighting successes and improvements in a way that continues to contribute to the literature currently available. This research endeavors to contribute to the literature currently circulating regarding RJ and its use in the school setting.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In order to better understand the impact of DTR in the classroom, as well as its effects on school climate and staff attitudes, it was necessary to explore different facets of the program impact in a variety of settings. Because behavior management techniques used in the classroom are a necessary part of school bonding, it was important to consider the effects of DTR in the classroom, as well as the entirety of the school.

In an effort to better understand the impact of DTR in the classroom and school setting, the researcher identified four key research questions:

1. What effects did implementing DTR have on student grade point average in one west coast school?

2. What effects did implementing DTR have on the number of discipline referrals in one west coast school?

3. What effects did implementing DTR have on school climate in three west coast schools?

4. What are staff attitudes toward DTR in three west coast schools?

Research Design

In order to complete a thorough analysis of the research topic, seeking explanations and predictions that will generalize to other schools, the researcher chose a quantitative research design that included one qualitative, open-ended question. The

researcher used quantitative survey instruments to determine staff attitudes toward

discipline in the classroom and in the school at-large, as well as attitudes about school

climate. Grade point averages and number of discipline referrals were analyzed

quantitatively to determine trends before and after implementation of DTR. Additionally,

features of a multiple baseline design were implemented for this research. Leedy and

Ormrod (2013) define a multiple baseline design as a treatment requiring at least two

groups, collecting baseline data for all groups before implementation of the method, and

again after implementation. With this focus in mind, the researcher collected grade point

average data and behavior referral data from three distinct groups: one high school, one

K–8 public school, and one TK–6 charter school.

In order to collect data, an adapted version of the Positive Behavior Interventions

& Supports (PBIS) Satisfaction Survey was given to all staff members at each of the

three schools. Found on the program's website, the following text further explains PBIS:

One of the foremost advances in schoolwide discipline is the emphasis on

schoolwide systems of support that include proactive strategies for defining,

teaching, and supporting appropriate student behaviors to create positive school

environments. Instead of using a piecemeal approach of individual behavioral

management plans, a continuum of positive behavior support for all students

within a school is implemented in areas including the classroom and non-

classroom settings (such as hallways, buses, and restrooms). Positive behavior

support is an application of a behaviorally-based systems approach to enhance the

capacity of schools, families, and communities to design effective environments

that improve the link between research-validated practices and the environments

in which teaching and learning occurs. Attention is focused on creating and sustaining Tier 1 supports (universal), Tier 2 supports (targeted group), and Tier 3 supports (individual) systems of support that improve lifestyle results (personal, health, social, family, work, recreation) for all children and youth by making targeted behaviors less effective, efficient, and relevant, and desired behavior more functional. (OSEP Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports, 2017, para. 1)

The website also explained why it is important to focus on teaching positive social behaviors:

Frequently, the question is asked, "Why should I have to teach kids to be good? They already know what they are supposed to do. Why can I not just expect good behavior?" In the infamous words of a TV personality, "How is that working out for you?" In the past, schoolwide discipline has focused mainly on reacting to specific student misbehavior by implementing punishment-based strategies including reprimands, loss of privileges, office referrals, suspensions, and expulsions. Research has shown that the implementation of punishment, especially when it is used inconsistently and in the absence of other positive strategies, is ineffective. Introducing, modeling, and reinforcing positive social behavior is an important step of a student's educational experience. Teaching behavioral expectations and rewarding students for following them is a much more positive approach than waiting for misbehavior to occur before responding. The purpose of schoolwide PBIS is to establish a climate in which appropriate behavior is the norm. (para. 2)

Lastly, a systems approach in schoolwide PBIS is explained:

An organization is a group of individuals who behave together to achieve a

common goal. Systems are needed to support the collective use of best practices

by individuals within the organization. The schoolwide PBIS process emphasizes

the creation of systems that support the adoption and durable implementation of

evidence-based practices and procedures, and fit within on-going school reform

efforts. An interactive approach that includes opportunities to correct and improve

four key elements is used in schoolwide PBIS focusing on: 1) Outcomes, 2) Data,

3) Practices, and 4) Systems. Each of these key elements works together to build a

sustainable system. (para. 3)

No changes were made to the PBIS Satisfaction Survey, other than to replace

PBIS with DTR. The DTR Satisfaction Survey included 5-point Likert scale questions,

with 5 indicating strongly agree, 4 indicating agree, 3 indicating not sure, 2 indicating

disagree and 1 indicating strongly disagree. as well as one open-ended question. The

DTR satisfaction survey was distributed at the beginning of the 2016–2017 school year.

After obtaining signed permission from school principals, all staff in all three

schools were given the DTR Satisfaction Survey via an online survey, sent to school

principals on August 17, 2016. Surveys commenced being answered on August 30, 2016

and concluded being answered on March 2, 2017. Eighty-two staff members from all

three schools completed the survey, but since the survey was sent out anonymously, the

researcher was unable to verify individual percentages from each school that completed

the survey. Finally, the researcher analyzed data from the 2014 and 2016 California

School Climate Survey, given to all staff at Grandel High School, obtained in a report

from a secretary with the Cal-School Climate, Health & Learning Survey (Cal-SCHLS) Regional Center with Duerr Evaluation Resources, to determine if the school climate had changed negatively or positively since implementation of DTR. Though the enrollment, demographics, and teaching staff changed from year to year, the data collected remained consistent for each of the school years analyzed.

Participants

Points of data for the study were collected from three west coast schools. Grandel High School, School A, a public high school since 1909, served grades 9–12. Enrollment was approximately 465 students, comprised of 237 (51%) male and 228 (49%) female. The total minority enrollment is 442 (95%) students, and 100% of the student population was economically disadvantaged, meaning they received free or reduced breakfast and lunch during school hours. Grandel High School was one of two high schools in the district. There were 26 full-time teachers.

Fulton School, School B, was a suburban public school of grades K-8 opened in 2013. School B was comprised of 199 students pre-DTR implementation, 249 students one year postimplementation, and 301 students two years postimplementation. Sixty-nine percent of students were economically disadvantaged and minority enrollment was approximately 71%.

Thomas Charter Academy, School C, founded in 1972, an inner-city charter school of approximately 84% minority students, of which 92% were economically disadvantaged, served TK–sixth grade. The school was comprised of 662 students pre-DTR implementation, 589 students one year postimplementation, and 516 students two years postimplementation.

Data Collection

After obtaining the necessary permission from each of the school principals, the survey was distributed through Survey Gizmo to each staff member's email by the principal. Fulton School completed the survey between August 30, 2016, and September 12, 2016. Despite several follow-up emails, obtaining results from Grandel High School and Thomas Charter Academy proved more difficult, and the researcher flew to California to personally administer the survey on March 1–2, 2017.

In working with the secretaries at each school, the researcher was able to collect school-reported grade point average (GPA) data for schools A and C one year before DTR implementation, one year post-DTR implementation, and two years post-DTR implementation, to determine what effects implementing restorative practices had on student GPA.

The DTR staff attitude survey was distributed to the principal at each of the three schools on August 17, 2016. Staff from Fulton School commenced answering the survey beginning August 30, 2016. Despite more than a dozen follow-up emails to Grandel and Thomas Charter Academy, the researcher was unable to obtain survey results without personally flying back to California to administer the survey. On March 1, 2017, the DTR survey was again sent to staff, but this time during a staff meeting at which the researcher was present, and 22 staff members completed the survey. The researcher then drove to Thomas Charter Academy on March 2, 2017, and met with each grade level during their team planning time to sit with each team as they completed the survey. During these team planning times, 24 staff members from Thomas Charter Academy completed the survey.

The researcher also collected the number and type of discipline referrals per student, and copies of classroom four-option model contracts. This data was collected from each principal based on discipline referrals that had been recorded within their school's disciplinary system. Based on the DTR model, discipline referrals are written only for severe cases, such as violence or drugs. All other conflicts are handled within the classroom, and utilize the four-option model contract, in which student and teacher draw up a contract on how to address the misbehavior.

Analytical Methods

Wanting to complete a thorough analysis of the research topic, as well as seek explanations and predictions that would generalize to other schools, the researcher chose a quantitative research study. The researcher chose quantitative survey instruments to determine staff attitudes toward discipline in the classroom and in the school-at-large, as well as attitudes about school climate. Data from these instruments were descriptively analyzed. Grade point averages and number of discipline referrals were analyzed quantitatively to determine trends before and after implementation of DTR. Keeping this focus at the forefront, the researcher attempted to collect grade point average data and behavior referral data from three distinct groups: one high school, one K–8 public school, and one TK–6 charter school.

Due to the schools recording GPA differently, (i.e. on a 1–5 scale versus traditional 0–4.00 scale), or incomplete referral data, GPA data and behavior referral data could only be collected from one school: Grandel High School. Additionally, one school has utilized DTR from the inception of their school, so pre-DTR and post-DTR data was not attainable.

The grade point average and behavior referral data was collected from one west coast school, and the school climate and staff attitude data for the study was collected from three west coast schools.

Survey Instruments

In order to collect data, an adapted version of the PBIS Satisfaction Survey was given to all staff members at each of the three schools. The researcher was able to collect school reported grade point average (GPA) data for one school, Grandel High School, one year before DTR implementation, one year post DTR implementation, and two years post DTR implementation, to determine what effects implementing restorative practices had on student GPA.

Also collected by the researcher was the number of discipline referrals per student for Grandel High School. Based on the DTR model, discipline referrals are only written for severe cases, such as violence or drugs. All other conflicts are handled within the classroom, and utilize the four-option model contract, in which student and teacher draw up a contract on how to address the misbehavior.

In all three schools, all staff were asked to complete the DTR Satisfaction Survey, which included a 5-point Likert scale survey, ranging from 1 (highly dissatisfied) to 5 (highly satisfied). To determine if negative or positive changes to school climate occurred after implementation of DTR, the survey results were analyzed quantitatively for changes from pre implementation to post implementation. Though the enrollment, demographics, and teaching staff changed from year to year, the data collected remained consistent for each of the school years analyzed.

Limitations

School engagement, bonding, discipline, and classroom management are integral components of a student's success in the formative educational years (Brackett et al., 2011; Bridgeland et al., 2009; Hirschfield & Gasper, 2009; Lee et al., 2011; Lewis, 1999; Lewis, 2015; Mac Iver, 2010). How each of those components is addressed, through behavior intervention models such as DTR, continues to be the focus of many schools around the country (Choi et al., 2011; DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Evans & Lester, 2010; Freeman et al., 2015; Hawken et al., 2007; Morrison, 2003). With the passing of laws like California Assembly Bill 420, school districts, administrators, and teaching staff are seeking ways to address discipline in the classroom. This information could be used as evidence for change in schools looking for positive ways to improve discipline practices and school climate, especially as demand increases for administrators to seek ways to separate current discipline practices from zero-tolerance policies.

However, limitations occurred within this study, including having only two schools from which to extract data, as well as not having enough representation for respective grade levels. Future research would benefit from surveying schools across the country that have implemented DTR, as well as studying schools with varied socioeconomic demographics.

Summary

In order to obtain a full and accurate depiction of the impact of implementing DTR in the classroom and school-wide setting, the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative elements. The picture that emerged is one full of possibility and exploration, which will be discussed in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Each of the schools represented in the study were looking for positive ways to

improve discipline practices and school climate, wanting to separate themselves from

zero-tolerance policies (J. Martinez, personal communication, February 4, 2016) that had

begun in the late 1980s (Kang-Brown et al., 2013). These schools found themselves even

further ahead of the game with the passing of California Assembly Bill 420 on September

27, 2014, as quoted by the American Civil Liberties Union of Northern California (2014):

> California becomes the first state in the nation to eliminate suspensions for its
>
> youngest children, and all expulsions for all students for minor misbehavior such
>
> as talking back, failing to have school materials and dress code violations. Gov.
>
> Jerry Brown's signing today of AB 420 caps a landmark year for the movement
>
> away from harsh discipline policies and toward positive discipline and
>
> accountability approaches that keep children in school. AB 420 places limits on
>
> the use of school discipline for the catch-all category known as "willful defiance,"
>
> which also includes minor school disruption. Willful defiance accounts for 43%
>
> of suspensions issued to California students, and is the suspension offense
>
> category with the most significant racial disparities. For the next 3.5 years, the
>
> law eliminates in-school and out-of-school suspensions for children in grades K-3

for disruptive behavior currently captured in Education Code section 48900(k) and bans all expulsions for this reason. (paras. 1-2)

As research has consistently demonstrated, administrators, teachers, and support staff in public and private, prekindergarten through 12th grade schools could benefit from RJ behavior interventions because students are more bonded and engaged with school, have higher grade point averages, receive fewer behavior referrals, and, ultimately, display fewer of the risk factors exhibited by those that drop out of school.

American society has hotly contested the purpose of education for centuries, "…alternat[ing] between the promotion of learning for its own sake and training for specific careers" (McClellan, 2011, para. 3). And while this paper does not seek to substantiate either side of that argument, it does seek to provide research about how best to support students behaviorally, as they become effective citizens.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of the current study was to investigate restorative practices, with Discipline that Restores (DTR) practices as a baseline foundation, in economically disadvantaged classrooms in west coast public school settings to better understand their effects on grade point average, discipline referrals, faculty attitudes, and school climate. The schools studied included grades: (a) TK–sixth grade, (b) kindergarten–eighth grade, and (c) ninth–12th grade.

Research Questions

The research questions guiding this study were:

1. What effects did implementing DTR have on student grade point average in one west coast school?

2. What effects did implementing DTR have on the number of discipline referrals in one west coast school?

3. What effects did implementing DTR have on school climate in three west coast schools?

4. What are staff attitudes toward DTR in three west coast schools?

Methods

The researcher chose a quantitative research study, utilizing quantitative survey instruments to determine staff attitudes toward discipline in the classroom and in the school-at-large, as well as attitudes about school climate. Grade point averages, as well as the number of discipline referrals written by staff, were analyzed quantitatively to determine trends before and after implementation of DTR. Additionally, features of a multiple baseline design were utilized. A multiple baseline design includes a treatment requiring at least two groups, collecting baseline data for all groups before implementation of the method, and again after implementation. The researcher attempted to collect grade point average data and behavior referral data from three school groups: one high school, one K-8 public school, and one TK (transitional kindergarten)-6 charter school. However, due to the schools recording GPA differently, or incomplete referral data, this information could ultimately be culled from only one school: Grandel High School. Additionally, because one school had utilized DTR from the inception of their school, the researcher could not analyze pre-DTR data.

The grade point average and behavior referral data was collected from one west coast school, and the school climate and staff attitude data for the study was collected from three west coast schools.

Survey Instruments

An adapted version of the PBIS Satisfaction Survey was given to all staff members at each of the three schools. The DTR Satisfaction Survey included a 5-point Likert scale survey ranging from 1 (highly dissatisfied) to 5 (highly satisfied), as well as one qualitative, open-ended question. This survey was used to determine if the school climate had changed negatively or positively since implementation of DTR.

Analyses

In order to answer the first research question, what effects did implementing DTR have on student grade point average in one west coast school, the researcher collected and quantitatively analyzed grade point averages to determine trends in schools one year before DTR implementation (pre-1), one year after DTR implementation (post-1), and two years after DTR implementation (post-2). Quantitative analysis included analysis of grade point average pre-1, post-1, and post-2 implementation. A dependent t-test was utilized to demonstrate an overall difference between the means under different conditions (pre-1, post-1, and post-2).

In response to research question 2, what effects did implementing DTR have on number of discipline referrals in one west coast school, the number of discipline referrals was analyzed quantitatively to determine trends in schools one year before DTR implementation (pre-1), one year after DTR implementation (post-1), and two years after DTR implementation (post-2). Quantitative analysis included analysis of written discipline referrals pre-1, post-1, and post-2 implementation, as well as number of discipline referrals written pre-1, post-1, and post-2 implementation. A dependent t-test

was utilized to demonstrate an overall difference between the means under different conditions (pre-1, post-1, and post-2).

To determine attitudes regarding school climate, and in response to research question 3, what effects did implementing DTR have on school climate in three west coast schools, the DTR Satisfaction Survey Instrument, consisting of 24 Likert scale questions and one open-ended question, was given to all staff. In order to analyze the data, the researcher performed descriptive analysis.

Finally, to answer research question 4, what are staff attitudes toward DTR in three west coast schools, the DTR Satisfaction Survey Instrument, consisting of 24 Likert scale questions and one open-ended question, was given to all staff. In order to analyze the data, the researcher performed descriptive analysis.

Findings

Research Question 1

In order to determine if there was an increase in GPA pre-DTR implementation, to post-DTR implementation, a *t*-test was performed comparing time-1 to time-2. The mean GPA for students that were in ninth grade, the year before DTR was implemented, was 3.02. The mean GPA for the same students, then in 10th grade the year DTR was implemented, was 2.93. The mean GPA for the same students, then in 11th grade, one year after DTR was implemented, was 2.94. Degrees of freedom over time-1 was 79, and the Pearson Correlation indicated 0.921, with a *p*-value of 0.005. While this indicated statistical significance, it was not in the direction of increased, but rather decreased, overall GPA. Subsequently, the same statistical significance was found over time-2, with degrees of freedom again being 79, a Pearson Correlation of 0.884, and a *p*-value of

0.023. Table 1 shows the GPA trends at Grandel one year after DTR implementation, and

Table 2 shows the GPA trends two years after DTR implementation.

Table 1

Grandel High School GPA Trends One Year after DTR Implementation

Variable	9th grade	10th grade
Mean	3.014875	2.931875
Variance	0.5466354272	0.4775825158
Observations	80.0	80.0
Pearson Correlation	0.9211984898	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	79.0	
t Stat	2.579046939	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.005881524474	
t Critical one-tail	1.664371409	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.01176304895	
t Critical two-tail	1.99045021	

Table 2

Grandel High School GPA Trends Two Years after DTR Implementation

Variable	9th grade	11th grade
Mean	3.014875	2.9365
Variance	0.5466354272	0.3938407595
Observations	80.0	80.0
Pearson Correlation	0.8841368106	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	79.0	
t Stat	2.023517604	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.02320072998	
t Critical one-tail	1.664371409	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.04640145995	
t Critical two-tail	1.99045021	

Research Question 2

　　　　Though the finding from time-1 and time-2 did not show an increase in overall GPA after DTR had been implemented at Grandel High School, there was an increase in GPA for students who received office referrals the year before DTR was implemented. Nine out of 10 students who received office referrals the year before DTR was implemented showed an increase in GPA the year DTR was implemented, and the year following DTR implementation. However, because the sample size was so small, additional research must be conducted to determine if DTR positively affects those

students that receive office referrals during their school career. Table 3 shows how DTR implementation affected GPA for students who received office referrals.

Table 3

Grandel High School GPA Trends of Students Receiving Office Referrals Pre- and Post-DTR Implementation

Student	10th grade GPA	11th grade GPA	12th grade GPA
1	1.59	2.11	2.30
2	1.88	1.85	2.09
3	1.94	1.66	1.63
4	3.13	3.29	3.35
5	3.06	3.28	3.48
6	1.77	1.84	Moved schools
7	2.47	2.50	Graduated
8	1.98	2.23	Graduated
9	2.44	2.72	Graduated
10	2.92	3.00	Graduated

Research Question 3

Descriptive analysis was rendered most effective for the DTR Satisfaction Survey. Overall, teachers felt that DTR had a positive effect on school climate, reporting that the implementation of DTR has resulted in a decrease in discipline referrals, greater respect by students for other students, and increased autonomy in student choice. The

results of teachers' opinions about the impact of DTR on school climate are shown in Appendix A.

Research Question 4

On a Likert Scale of 1 to 5, teachers reported an overall mean of 4 in their support of DTR implementation in their school. An overall mean of 4 was reported in satisfaction of DTR expectations (in the classroom, hallway, cafeteria, and restroom), satisfaction in DTR consequences (four options model, contracts, mediation), satisfaction in ease of documentation (contracts, referrals, and mediation notes), and satisfaction in administrative support for DTR. Appendix B shows a breakdown of teachers' support for DTR implementation in their school.

Teachers reported a mean score of 2 in feeling like they were regularly communicated to regarding updates to processes and procedures with DTR (see Appendix C). And while teachers felt that there was a decrease in discipline referrals, they did not feel like there was a significant decrease. Teachers also reported a mean score of 2 when asked if they were consistently teaching DTR expectations and consequences.

<div align="center">Conclusions</div>

DTR did not have an immediate effect on overall student-body GPA, but trends did indicate that GPA increased for students who received office referrals. Students who receive office referrals are often given out of school suspension or expulsion, resulting in an obvious decrease in classroom academic time. Trends would indicate that keeping students in school, rather than administering out of school suspensions or expulsions, could increase overall GPA for those affected students.

Teachers feel that, overall, DTR has had a positive impact on student behavior, and also believe there is an overall increase in students respecting other students. Teachers responded that overall, they were satisfied by the long-term effects of DTR, which include a decrease in discipline referrals, greater respect in the school, and autonomy in student choice.

Implications and Recommendations

As demand increases for administrators to seek ways to separate current discipline practices from zero-tolerance policies, decision makers are looking for positive ways to improve discipline practices and school climates. The information gleaned from this research could be used as evidence for change. Based on DTR survey results, schools implementing DTR could recognize positive impacts in student behavior, student respect, number of discipline referrals written, and student autonomy.

Future research would benefit from surveying schools across the country that have implemented DTR, as well as studying schools with varied socioeconomic demographics. Additional research studying how schools decide to implement DTR as a means to address disciplinary issues, also researching the impact of that implementation, as well as the effect of DTR on student-teacher relationships, would each be timely and beneficial to the restorative justice field.

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APPENDIX A

School Climate Analysis

School Climate Analysis

School	Variable	Overall, I feel that DTR has had a positive impact on student behavior.	I believe that DTR has helped improve students' attitudes toward school.	I believe DTR has helped improve students' respectfulness toward others.	I am satisfied with our school's long-term DTR incentives.
Grandel High School	*N* - Valid	22	21	21	22
	N - Missing	0	1	1	0
	Mean	3.41	3.29	3.38	3.23
	Std. Error of Mean	0.194	0.171	0.146	0.218
	Median	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.5
	Mode[a]	4.0	3.0	4.0	4.0
	Std. Deviation	0.908	0.784	0.669	1.020
	Variance	0.825	0.614	0.448	1.041
	Skewness	-0.123	0.112	-0.626	-0.501
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.491	0.501	0.501	0.491
	Kurtosis	-0.696	-0.157	-0.498	-0.591
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.953	0.972	0.972	0.953
	Range	3.0	3.0	2.0	4.0
	Minimum	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.0
	Maximum	5.0	5.0	4.0	5.0
Fulton School	*N* - Valid	36	36	36	35
	N - Missing	0	0	0	1
	Mean	3.92	3.44	3.69	3.86
	Std. Error of Mean	0.161	0.166	0.168	0.206
	Median	4.0	3.5	4.0	4.0
	Mode[a]	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
	Std. Deviation	0.967	0.998	1.009	1.216
	Variance	0.936	0.997	1.018	1.479
	Skewness	-0.829	-0.294	-0.568	-1.168

School	Variable	Overall, I feel that DTR has had a positive impact on student behavior.	I believe that DTR has helped improve students' attitudes toward school.	I believe DTR has helped improve students' respectfulness toward others.	I am satisfied with our school's long-term DTR incentives.
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.393	0.393	0.393	0.398
	Kurtosis	0.884	-0.256	0.098	0.668
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.768	0.768	0.768	0.778
	Range	4	4	4	4
	Minimum	1	1	1	1
	Maximum	5	5	5	5
Thomas Charter Academy	N - Valid	24	24	24	24
	N - Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean	2.920	2.71	2.50	2.63
	Std. Error of Mean	0.255	0.165	0.181	0.232
	Median	3.0	3.0	2.0	3.0
	Mode[a]	4.0	3.0	2.0	4.0
	Std. Deviation	1.248	0.806	0.885	1.135
	Variance	1.558	0.650	0.783	1.288
	Skewness	-0.415	0.062	0.411	-0.143
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.472	0.472	0.472	0.472
	Kurtosis	-1.089	-0.500	-0.531	-1.362
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.918	0.918	0.918	0.918
	Range	4	3	3	3
	Minimum	1	1	1	1
	Maximum	5	4	4	4

[a] Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

APPENDIX B

DTR Implementation Analysis

DTR Implementation Analysis

School	Variable	I am satisfied with the DTR expectations.	I am satisfied with the DTR consequences.	I believe the DTR data tracking system is easy and efficient.	I am satisfied with my school's administrative support for DTR.
Grandel High School	*N* - Valid	22	21	22	22
	N - Missing	0	1	0	0
	Mean	3.27	3.29	3.00	3.59
	Std. Error of Mean	0.188	0.230	0.228	0.215
	Median	3.0	4.0	3.0	4.0
	Mode[a]	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
	Std. Deviation	0.883	1.056	1.069	1.008
	Variance	0.779	1.114	1.143	1.015
	Skewness	-0.140	-1.202	-0.772	-0.888
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.491	0.501	0.491	0.491
	Kurtosis	-0.915	0.092	-0.569	0.864
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.953	0.972	0.953	0.953
	Range	3	3	3	4
	Minimum	2	1	1	1
	Maximum	5	4	4	5
Fulton School	*N* - Valid	35	36	36	36
	N - Missing	1	0	0	0
	Mean	3.63	3.58	3.14	3.86
	Std. Error of Mean	0.188	0.166	0.174	0.144
	Median	4.0	4.0	3.0	4.0
	Mode[a]	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
	Std. Deviation	1.114	0.996	1.046	0.867
	Variance	1.240	0.993	1.094	0.752
	Skewness	-0.818	-0.886	0.025	-1.112

School	Variable	I am satisfied with the DTR expectations.	I am satisfied with the DTR consequences.	I believe the DTR data tracking system is easy and efficient.	I am satisfied with my school's administrative support for DTR.
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.398	0.393	0.393	0.393
	Kurtosis	0.129	0.972	-0.953	2.407
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.778	0.768	0.768	0.768
	Range	4	4	4	4
	Minimum	1	1	1	1
	Maximum	5	5	5	5
Thomas Charter Academy	N - Valid	24	24	24	24
	N - Missing	0	0	0	0
	Mean	3.04	2.92	2.75	2.75
	Std. Error of Mean	0.221	0.216	0.227	0.219
	Median	3.5	3.0	2.5	3.0
	Mode[a]	4.0	2.0	2.0	3.0
	Std. Deviation	1.083	1.060	1.113	1.073
	Variance	1.172	1.123	1.239	1.152
	Skewness	-0.537	-0.061	-0.077	0.086
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.472	0.472	0.472	0.472
	Kurtosis	-1.252	-0.731	-1.487	-0.533
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.918	0.918	0.918	0.918
	Range	3	4	3	4
	Minimum	1	1	1	1
	Maximum	4	5	4	5

[a] Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

APPENDIX C

Analysis of Areas for DTR Growth

Analysis of Areas for DTR Growth

School	Variable	I consistently teach DTR expectations/ consequences to my students.	I believe DTR has helped decrease student discipline problems significantly at my school.	I feel that teachers and staff are regularly updated or informed of DTR procedures and processes.
Grandel High School	N - Valid	22	22	22
	N - Missing	0	0	0
	Mean	2.91	3.18	2.68
	Std. Error of Mean	0.196	0.224	0.222
	Median	3.0	3.0	3.0
	Mode[a]	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Std. Deviation	0.921	1.053	1.041
	Variance	0.848	1.108	1.084
	Skewness	-0.209	0.412	-0.118
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.491	0.491	0.491
	Kurtosis	-1.017	-0.968	-1.126
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.953	0.953	0.953
	Range	3	3	3
	Minimum	1	2	1
	Maximum	4	5	4
Fulton School	N - Valid	36	35	36
	N - Missing	0	1	0
	Mean	4.14	3.49	3.78
	Std. Error of Mean	0.114	0.185	0.144
	Median	4.0	3.0	4.0
	Mode[a]	4.0	3.0	4.0
	Std. Deviation	0.683	1.095	0.866
	Variance	0.466	1.198	0.749
	Skewness	-0.751	-0.389	-0.659

School	Variable	I consistently teach DTR expectations/ consequences to my students.	I believe DTR has helped decrease student discipline problems significantly at my school.	I feel that teachers and staff are regularly updated or informed of DTR procedures and processes.
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.393	0.398	0.393
	Kurtosis	1.645	-0.127	0.084
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.768	0.778	0.768
	Range	3	4	3
	Minimum	2	1	2
	Maximum	5	5	5
Thomas Charter Academy	N - Valid	24	24	24
	N - Missing	0	0	0
	Mean	3.63	2.42	2.54
	Std. Error of Mean	0.189	0.199	0.199
	Median	4.0	2.0	2.0
	Mode[a]	4.0	2.0	2.0
	Std. Deviation	0.924	0.974	0.977
	Variance	0.853	0.949	0.955
	Skewness	-0.942	0.255	0.178
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.472	0.472	0.472
	Kurtosis	-0.140	-0.788	-0.915
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.918	0.918	0.918
	Range	3	3	3
	Minimum	2	1	1
	Maximum	5	4	4

[a] Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

APPENDIX D

DTR Satisfaction Survey Instrument

DTR Satisfaction Survey Instrument
Please read each question and circle the response that closely matches your feelings. All responses and information will be kept confidential. Thank you for participating in this survey.

1. Overall, I feel that DTR has had a positive impact on student behavior.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

2. Overall, I feel that DTR has had a positive impact on teacher/staff behavior.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

3. I am satisfied with the DTR expectations (classroom, hallway, cafeteria, and restroom).
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

4. I am satisfied with the DTR consequences (verbal/written warnings, loss of privileges, parental contact, office referrals, etc.).
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

5. I am satisfied with our school's short term DTR incentives (tangible rewards, prizes, etc.).
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

6. I am satisfied with our school's long term DTR incentives (behavior celebrations/parties at the end of grading periods).
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

7. I believe the DTR data tracking system (major/minor offences, office discipline referrals, daily behavior reports, etc.) is easy and efficient.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

8. I am satisfied with my school's administrative support for DTR.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

9. I am satisfied with the plans and decisions of my school's DTR team.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

10. I consistently teach DTR expectations/consequences to my students.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

11. I consistently model DTR expectations for my students.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

12. I consistently reward students using the DTR reward system in place at my school.
Strongly disagree   Disagree   Not Sure   Agree   Strongly Agree

13. I feel that DTR rewards students displaying positive behavior at an appropriate rate.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

14. I feel that DTR punishes students displaying negative behavior at an appropriate rate.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

15. I believe that DTR has helped decrease student discipline problems significantly at my school.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

16. I believe that DTR has helped improve students' attitudes toward school.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

17. I believe DTR has helped to improve students' respectfulness toward others.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

18. I believe DTR has helped to improve relationships among students and adults at my school.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

19. I believe DTR has helped improve safety throughout the school.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

20. I feel that teachers' perceptions/opinions were considered before DTR was implemented at our school.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

21. I am satisfied with the training I received on DTR expectations, consequences, and the referral process.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

22. As a teacher, I have made preparations on my own in order to implement DTR.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

23. I feel that teachers' perceptions/opinions are considered now that DTR has been implemented at our school.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

24. I feel that teachers and staff are regularly updated or informed of DTR procedures and processes.
Strongly disagree   **Disagree**   **Not Sure**   **Agree**   **Strongly Agree**

25. What additional thoughts or concerns about DTR do you have?

_____

_____

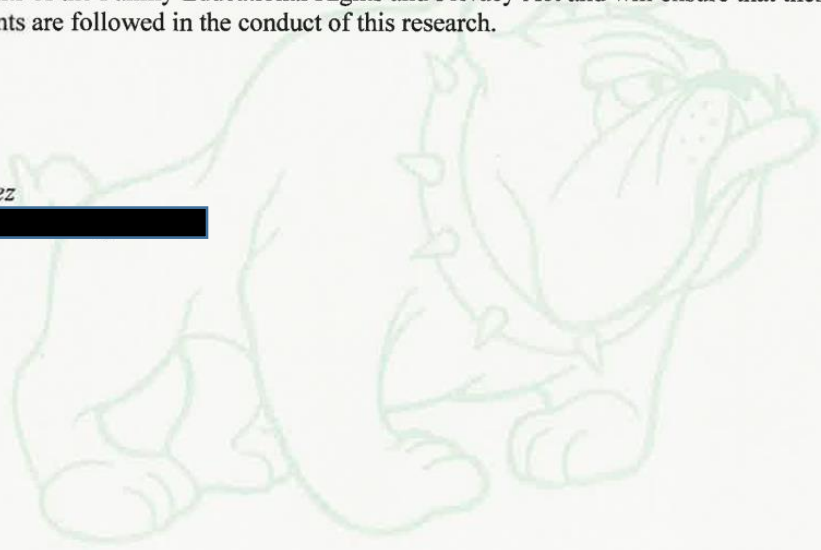APPENDIX E

Research Approval from School A

March 11, 2016

Dear Institutional Review Board:

The purpose of this letter is to inform you that I give Sara Terrill permission to conduct the research titled *An Examination of Discipline that Restores in the School Setting* at ███████ ██████████ I understand that this research requires providing student data, to include grade point average and office discipline referrals, but will in no way provide identifying student information. In addition, I understand that a web-based survey will be given to school staff four times throughout the 2016-2017 school year: once at the beginning of each semester, and once at the end of each semester. This also serves as assurance that this school complies with requirements of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act and will ensure that these requirements are followed in the conduct of this research.

Sincerely,

Javier Martinez
Principal ████████████

APPENDIX F

Research Approval from School B

March 28, 2016

Dear Institutional Review Board:

The purpose of this letter is to inform you that I give Sara Terrill permission to conduct the research titled *An Examination of Discipline that Restores in the School Setting* at ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ I understand that this research requires providing student data, to include grade point average and office discipline referrals, but will in no way provide identifying student information. In addition, I understand that a web-based survey will be given to school staff four times throughout the 2016-2017 school year: once at the beginning of each semester, and once at the end of each semester. This also serves as assurance that this school complies with requirements of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act and will ensure that these requirements are followed in the conduct of this research.

Respectfully,

Dr. Christine Montanez, Head of School

APPENDIX G

Research Approval from School C

March 11, 2016

Dear Institutional Review Board:

The purpose of this letter is to inform you that I give Sara Terrill permission to conduct the research titled *An Examination of Discipline that Restores in the School Setting* at ████████████████████ I understand that this research requires providing student data, to include grade point average and office discipline referrals, but will in no way provide identifying student information. In addition, I understand that a web-based survey will be given to school staff four times throughout the 2016-2017 school year: once at the beginning of each semester, and once at the end of each semester. This also serves as assurance that this school complies with requirements of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act and will ensure that these requirements are followed in the conduct of this research.

Sincerely,

From the Desk of
Executive Director/Principal
Rodolfo Garcia

"Each one Teach One, Each one Reach one",