AN EXPLORATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENTS' AND

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL SAFETY AND

THE IMPORTANCE OF SAFETY STRATEGIES

By

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To the Faculty of Washington State University:

        The members of the Committee appointed to examine the thesis of
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Abstract

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The current study was designed to explore teachers' and students' perceptions of school safety and the importance of safety strategies. The two main aims of the research were to: (1) examine the importance of safety strategies to teachers and students; and (2) investigate the association between school climate variables and major safety issues from the Safe and Responsive Schools (SRS) survey (Skiba, Simmons, Peterson, & Forde, 2006). One hundred and eighty-two students from grades 9-12 and 32 teachers participated in the current study from one high school in Northwest United States. A new quantitative measure was created for this study (using successful safety strategies and best practices identified in the current literature) to assess the perceived importance of safety strategies, entitled the Indicators of Preferences for Safety Strategies (IPSS) survey.

Overall, results indicated that teachers' and students' perceptions of school safety were significantly different. Following findings from Skiba et al. (2006), teachers' perceptions of the Connection/Climate items were significantly greater than students'. Additional results revealed that four factors emerged from the IPSS survey: Rule

Enforcement, Education, Control and Surveillance, and Counseling. Students' feelings of school safety were associated with ratings on the importance of safety strategies, such that ratings on the Connection/Climate and Incivility and Disruption scales significantly predicted the perceived importance of Rule Enforcement strategies.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

Dedication

This is dedicated to my father for countless hours of advice and

support over the last two and half years. I aspire to be a researcher,

a teacher, and someday a parent just like you.

CHATPER ONE

INTRODUCTION

> Unaware, I just did what I always do; everyday the same routine before I skate off to school. But who knew that this day wasn't like the rest, instead of taking a test I took two to the chest. Call me blind, but I didn't see it coming. Everybody was running but I couldn't hear nothing except gun blasts, it happened so fast. I don't really know this kid, even though I sit by him in class. Maybe this kid was reaching out for love. Or maybe for a moment he forgot who he was. Or maybe this kid just wanted to be hugged. – Lyrics from Youth of the Nation by Payable on Death (P.O.D.; 2002).

In the last decade much attention has been drawn to school violence and creating safer school environments due to events like the shooting at Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado during 1999. This attention has been at the national, state, and community levels and carries implications for future research within the school environment (National Research Council and Institute of Medicine [NRC], 2003).

Many governmental agencies sponsor national incentives to reduce violence and create guidelines. The national No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act has clearly stated the goals and standards of an academic environment in American schools (Werle, 2006). This incentive has also included objectives on reducing violence in schools (U.S. Department of Education [USDE], 2005). In addition to academic goals for schools, the NCLB requires each state to report school safety statistics to the public and to establish a plan for keeping schools safe (USDE, 2005). Additionally, the national health objectives from the Healthy People 2010 campaign, as outlined by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (USDHHS; 2000), ask for a reduction of school violence. A recent progress report in the Injury and Violence Prevention focus area of the Healthy People 2010 incentive showed improvement in both physical fighting and weapon carrying on school grounds for

1

adolescent violent behavior (Sondik, 2003). However, even with these initiatives, the cost of injury and violence in the United States was estimated at more than $224 billion per year including medical care and reduction in work productivity (USDHHS, 2000).

There are numerous state efforts to reduce and eliminate violent behavior and promote safety in schools. The Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC; 2001) produced individual school health guidelines regarding school violence. These guidelines outline various prevention strategies and recommendations for coordinating school health programs. Specifically, these guidelines promote improvement in school climate and provide other school services (e.g., educational programs and training) for all parties (e.g., teachers, parents, and community members) involved in schools. Specific to the state of Washington, anti-bullying/violence programs are required in each school district (Bergeson, 2005). Initial reports from an ongoing database for the Healthy People 2010 national campaign revealed that the guidelines and state requirements are addressing injury and violence prevention. CDC Wonder (2006), an outgoing database for the Healthy People 2010 initiative, has found that although there has been an increase in the number of homicides in Washington State, there has been a reduction in firearm related deaths since 2003. Although there are state requirements for reporting violent acts within schools, it is difficult to know the accuracy of these individual reports. In other words, it is possible that some schools might be more liberal or conservative in their reporting.

Clearly, there is national and state attention to school violence; however more research is needed regarding specific safety approaches and strategies. There are clear distinctions between the types of approaches to and the ways to handle school violence.

Many view violence reduction/elimination programs as essential (Olweus, 1991; Edwards, Hunt, Meyers, Grogg, & Jarrett, 2005; Knox & Roberts, 2005; Miller, Kraus, & Veltkamp, 2005; Rodney, Johnson, & Srivastava, 2005; Whitted & Dupper, 2005), whereas others value programs that support and create a safer school environment (Peterson & Skiba, 2001; Bucher & Manning, 2003; Oswald, Safran, & Johanson, 2005; Werle, 2006). Experts do agree that the most effective programs are a combination of both violence prevention/intervention and creating safer school atmospheres (Astor, Meyer, Benbenishty, Marachi, & Rosemond, 2005; Kelley, Mills, & Shuford, 2005; Whitlock, 2006).

Much of the current literature in the field focuses on the research and evaluation of individual programs and/or safety measures utilized by schools. Rarely does current research provide information that ties together all potential successful measures or strategies to reduce and prevent violence within schools. The general purpose of this research was to explore teachers' and students' perceptions of the importance of a variety of safety strategies, and the possible relationship between these preferences and perceptions of school safety. This purpose was accomplished by gathering self-reports at one high school in the State of Washington. There were two main goals of the current study:

The first goal was to examine teachers' and students' perceptions of the importance of school safety strategies identified from the current literature. To date no other research has assessed such a broad range of the violence prevention/reduction and safety strategies (i.e., surveillance, programs, and skill development) available to individual schools. Many researchers have recommended the development of a measure and encouraged new studies

examining the effects of school policies and procedures on school climate (Ma & Klinger, 2000; Peterson & Skiba, 2001). Additionally, no other research has linked perceptions of these indicators with students' and teachers' feelings of safety in schools.

The second goal was to further the work of Skiba, Simmons, Peterson, McKelvey, Forde, et al. (2004) and Skiba et al. (2006) by examining the discrepancies in school safety perceptions of teachers and students using the Safe and Responsive Schools (SRS) survey. This survey was originally developed to create a self-report that combined both school climate variables and major safety issues, which makes it a unique survey (Skiba et al., 2006).

School violence affects individuals, families, schools and communities (NRC, 2003). Violence in the school environment is a social problem that has reached international levels (Olweus, 1991), and it demands the attention of policy makers and educators alike. The current study further examined school safety by investigating the teachers' and students' perceptions of the importance of safety strategies in their schools.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature associated with this study includes a review of the myths associated

with the documentary data on school violence and safety across demographics, and the

general perceptions of school violence by individuals interested in education. An overview

of general theoretical frameworks to consider current school violence research, commonly

used terminology and the violence risk factors and outcomes is presented. Descriptions of

the protective factors and the contexts that affect school violence and safety are included

as essential components in illustrating school violence. Additionally, a review of

successful safety strategies and best practices in policies and programs will be discussed.

The question and hypotheses are based on expectations derived form the current literature.

Myths

Cited acts of school violence date back to the 1970s (Knox & Roberts, 2005).

Historically, school violence has been viewed typically in terms of aggression/bullying and

only in the last decade have violent episodes become more fatal. Despite the recent

attention due to the shift in fatalities, the number of incidences of school violence has

actually been on the decline. Youth violence has declined significantly since 1993, as seen

in arrest records, victimization data, and hospital emergency room records (USDHHS,

2001a). Healthy People 2000 reported significant reductions in fighting among adolescents

fourteen to seventeen years old in general. There has also been a drop in weapon-carrying

by adolescents fourteen to seventeen years old (USDHHS, 2001b). Although the general

belief is that violence is rising among young people, the reality is that the number of violent

acts is decreasing.

There are other myths that exist about the perpetrators of violent acts and the school structure. One such belief is that future offenders can be identified in early childhood (USDHHS, 2001a). New research has challenged this notion; it is difficult to categorize youth who will exhibit violent behavior because the characteristics differ by peer group, family and community factors (NRC, 2003). However, there are some links between bullying in elementary school and adulthood behavior. Olweus (2001) cited research stating that approximately 40% of boys who were characterized as bullies in grades six through nine had been convicted of at least three officially registered crimes by the age of twenty-four. Reportedly, between 20% and 45% of boys who are serious violent offenders at 16 to 17 years old are often seen as life-course-persistent in their developmental pathway (i.e., antisocial behavior will continue throughout adolescence and the life-course; Moffitt, 1993; USDHHS, 2001a). In other words, these behaviors are seen throughout development and not only in adolescence. Bullying and violent behavior still occur within various contexts in life-course development despite the current structure of the classroom environment.

America has responded to school violence problems, such as the Columbine incident in 1999, with attempts to increase safety. Mayer and Leone (1999) found that many schools now put a heavy focus on creating the perception of safety through cameras and metal detectors. However, these findings actually revealed that this type of change created an ineffective atmosphere of mistrust and resentment among the students (Mayer & Leone, 1999). A survey of mental health professionals throughout the state of Colorado

two years after the Columbine shootings, revealed approximately half of urban and suburban schools added security guards and police offered on school grounds. Conversely, less than a quarter of rural school districts made a security presence change (Crepeau-Hobson, Filaccio, & Gottfried, 2005). The addition of security guards, metal detectors, cameras, identification badges, and locked doors comprise most of the security changes on school grounds. Crepeau-Hobson et al. (2005) reported that approximately 63% of schools established tighter security procedures mostly reported in the development of a crisis plan. Although increasing security measures is seen as a positive development it does not get at the core of violence prevention. Greene (2005) suggests that schools take a more integrative approach beyond the use of safety hardware, such as some successful safety strategies or best practices that are evidence-based.

School administrators might wonder exactly what creates a safe environment if the findings on increased security presence in schools are mixed. Fox and Harding (2005) state that there is no immediate overarching blanket means to predict school violence. Furthermore, without research and evaluation there will be no immediate policy changes at the federal level, which will not transfer down to the implementation at state and community levels. Whitlock (2006) encourages parents, school officials, and researchers alike to support theoretical and empirical studies of prevention programs. Prevention efforts grounded in theory and best practices provide more predictable results and replicable procedures (Greene, 2005).

<center>Theoretical Base</center>

Many researchers have applied important frameworks, models and theories to the

<center>7</center>

study of school violence and safety. Most notably, Bronfenbrenner's ecological framework (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) and Bandura's Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) have guided research in understanding the contributions of context and potential causes of violence. Other theories have directed practitioners and educators on how to approach violence within schools.

Maslow (1954) described safety and security as one of the highest needs for an individual. Secondary only to physiological needs, Maslow explained that before higher level school achievement can be attended to, the perception of safety and security needed to be present. Olweus (1991) also described that children have a basic right to feel safe and be protected at school. Erikson (1963) illustrated the basic fundamental needs in the eight stages of his psychosocial developmental framework. The most important assets for healthy development related to safety and security as outlined by Erikson are focused on trust, attachment, and identity. The stages help to illustrate development (Erikson, 1963), which can be applied to the study school violence. Many theorists since Maslow and Erikson have added significant research to the basic needs and stages of psychosocial development that have been influential in understanding changes in society (e.g., learned behavior). The following model, framework and theory are some of the fundamental bases for violence prevention and intervention programs within schools.

Positive Youth Development Model

The Search Institutes (SI) 40 developmental assets provide an excellent review for research in adolescence (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). This private organization has become a leader regarding healthy adolescent development due to the development of a list of

personal and social developmental assets that have been used as guidelines in program

development, research and evaluation (SI, 2003). The list consists of 40 developmental

assets in eight distinct categories: support, empowerment, boundaries and expectations,

constructive use of time, commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies,

and positive identity (SI, 2003). Recent research of almost 150,000 high school seniors in

202 communities across the United States revealed percentages of youth who report being

able to use and recognize the various assets in their everyday life. Specifically, 68% of

surveyed young people reported that they experienced family support, whereas only 37%

reported experiencing support through a caring neighborhood (SI, 2003). Other findings

revealed that 72% of high school students in 12th grade experience a positive view of their

personal future, which complements the 65% that experienced achievement motivation.

Other applicable theories focused on different program approaches. Many theorists

have examined programs that are prevention-based or behavior-limiting by reducing

violence risks, while others encourage school safety by promoting positive youth

development (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, and

Hawkins (2002) broadly defined positive youth development (PYD) as a set of

recognizable features within programming where the goal is to attain certain positive

developmental objectives. Many researchers emphasize that elements of PYD are

important in prevention and intervention programs (Catalano et al., 2002; Eccles &

Gootman, 2002). Some of the features of positive youth development are fostering

resilience, self-efficacy, and belief in the future. Other objectives from this theory include

the promotion of social, emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and moral competence (Catalano

et al., 2002).

Academicians and experts from various national academies came together through national academies to discuss community programs that promote youth development in committees and forums. They concluded that there are four specific personal and social assets that facilitate positive youth development: physical development (i.e., good health habits), intellectual development (i.e., school success and good decision-making skills), psychological and emotional development (i.e., strong moral character and good mental health), and social development (i.e., commitment to civic engagement; Eccles & Gootman, 2002, pg. 6). The committees note that youth do not necessarily have to possess all assets in this theory, but having several skills serves as excellent protective factors. This theory of positive youth development is based on 50 years of empirical research and is the building block for many prevention and intervention programs (Eccles & Gootman, 2002).

Ecological Development Framework

One of the most important theories related to prevention and intervention programs (especially related to school violence) is described by the bioecological influences of the environment (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). Riner and Saywell (2002) findings suggested that examining the social ecology can be helpful in understanding the underlying variables of adolescent violence, similar to other developmental theorists. Bronfenbrenner believed that the role of context was significant in the healthy development of children and adolescents. His original ecological framework included four distinct areas: the microsystem (i.e., immediate interpersonal relations and activities), the mesosystem (i.e., interpersonal relations in different settings), the exosystem (i.e., effects to the settings

based on policy and organization), and the macrosystem (i.e., context of other systems for beliefs and values; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Bronfenbrenner described ecological transitions as when "a person's position in the ecological environment is altered as the result of a change in role, setting, or both" (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, pg. 26), which was later referred to as the chronosystem.

Bronfenbrenner (1980) explained ecology of childhood in the context of the changes in the relationship between the home, school and community. His framework is based on concerns dating over two decades ago, which are still present or enhanced in today's society. Bronfenbrenner (1980) coined the phrase "latch-key" children. These are adolescents who essentially come home to empty houses after school and live in non-traditional families (e.g., single parent or working mother). He also described "latch-key" children as those who have academic problems and contribute to delinquency. Overall, his research revealed that some adults seem to lack integration with adolescents at home, school and the community (Bronfenbrenner, 1980), which is still a problem today (USDHHS, 2000). This is a social context development issue, which Bronfenbrenner's ecological framework attempts to illustrate (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Social Learning Theory

Other well-known theories can help understand the basis for school violence. The Social Learning Theory (SLT), originally developed by Albert Bandura, can provide a theoretical frame for understanding learned human behaviors. This theorist believed that people are not born with behaviors but instead behaviors are observed and learned. Bandura (1969) described this process of observational learning in three distinct

sub-processes: attention (i.e., observing the behavior with concentration on frequency, duration and complexity), retention (i.e., the behavior is learned and often coded into the individual schemas), and reproduction (i.e., the behavior is replicated but is still affected by feedback cues, incentives and motivation).

The SLT is described in terms of interactions that are observed and modeled from others through cognitive, behavioral and environmental influences (Bandura, 1977). This belief brings forward a controversial debate about nature versus nurture, however the SLT also describes reinforcements and determinants (Bandura, 1976). Bandura (1969) found that social reinforcements were often the reactions of others in a social situation where the behavior is reproduced. However, this theorist noted that not all behaviors learned are reenacted, some learned behaviors can be retained and never repeated. Bandura (1977) described this process as modeling. Stimuli is observed, coded and is reproduced when there is the motivation to do so often in the presence of a social group or as a result of social pressures (Bandura, 1978).

Research regarding school violence programs employed the Social Learning Theory to assist in the explanation of findings that pertain to the causes and eventually the reproduction of school violence (Rodney et al., 2005). SLT is often used as a model to understanding complex behaviors and where the actions originate (Bandura, 1976). Many researchers believe violent behaviors are learned through a progression observing and being exposed to violent behaviors with the environment (Bandura, 1978). For example, Hall and Bacon (2005) developed and evaluated a violence prevention program that was grounded in the basic elements of the Social Learning Theory. These researchers designed

violence prevention curriculum that targeted improved behavior and communication skills through the main SLT ideas: modeling, reinforcing, and providing feedback (Hall & Bacon, 2005).

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Teasing, Bullying, Aggression, Violence,

and Antisocial Behaviors

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Researchers often use the terms teasing, bullying, aggression and violent behaviors interchangeably. There are descriptions that can clarify these terms. Olweus (1997) described the relationship between teasing and bullying. Teasing is considered to be an action that is of a more playful, friendly nature. However, teasing can easily be seen as bullying when it becomes aggressive, repetitive, and establishes an imbalance in power (Olweus, 1997). Olweus (1991) defined a person as being bullied when "he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other persons" (pg. 413). A negative action is when there is intentionality of harm in the aggressive behavior (Olweus, 1997). Within this definition of bullying, relational aggressive behaviors are included. Crick and Grotpeter (1995) examined relational forms of aggression, behaviors in which relationships serve as the vehicle of harm. These relationally aggressive behaviors include using social exclusion as a form of retaliation, talking behind someone's back, or spreading rumors (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Olweus (1991) would describe bullying relationships as having a power imbalance, and this is also true of relationally aggressive behaviors called indirect bullying.

There is an element of physical aggression within most bullying definitions. Olweus (1991) described this as direct bullying. Typically bullies are physically stronger

<div align="center">13</div>

than most bully victims (Olweus, 1997). There is often an imbalance in strength which can create an environment where victims cannot defend themselves. Crick and Grotpeter (1995) described physical aggression as the behaviors that harm others through physical damage or the threat of such damage. These physically aggressive behaviors include hitting and pushing others, or threatening to beat others up (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Many times these types of violent behaviors can be directed towards peers and/or adults within the school setting. Staff and faculty can also experience bullying (Osborne, 2004). Many violence prevention or intervention programs ignore teachers and school staff, who also need the support (Astor et al., 2005).

Minor behavior problems, such as teasing and bullying, often lead to more violent or antisocial behaviors. Bandura (1976) labeled aggressive behaviors by the intentionality of the action or if by accident. Violent acts can have different meaning depending on the label. Nansel, Overpeck, Haynie, Ruan, and Scheidt (2003) found that general involvement in bullying (both for the bullies and targets) was associated with an increased likelihood to carry a weapon or to get into a physical fight. Additionally, bullying is more likely to concur with aggressive behavior, such as fighting (Nansel et al., 2003). Antisocial behaviors include theft, vandalism and arson, whereas physical fights are categorized as more violent behaviors (Osborne, 2004). Antisocial behaviors are more common in adolescence and adulthood (Dahlberg & Simon, 2006), than in younger children that exhibit more teasing and bullying behaviors.

Often times bullying is seen as a means of dominance establishment and maintenance in a relationship (Smokowski & Kopasz, 2005). Aggressive behaviors are

often the methods used to create this imbalance in relationships. Rose, Swenson and Waller (2004) suggested that perhaps aggressive behaviors are not necessarily damaging to relationships, but used as manipulation of the peer context to increase perceived popularity. These findings are an interesting addition to understanding bullying and aggression in the context of schools.

Greene (2005) concluded that less serious forms of aggression often lead to more serious forms of violence. Similarly, a committee commissioned by the National Research Council (NRC) to examine cases of school violence, found that teasing, bullying and aggression have led to more fatal school violence, coined by the media as rampage shooting in schools (NRC, 2003). Unfortunately, the NRC (2003) also found no set of circumstances that created a common picture or label for school violence. This is due to the fact that school-based violence comes from a complicated interplay of different demographics and contexts. Schools and communities need to recognize and understand local contributions to school violence so that interventions can be developed that fit community characteristics.

To assist in organizing the developmental pathways of teasing, bullying, aggression, violence, and antisocial behaviors, Moffitt (1993) presented a developmental theory that categorized these behaviors as life-course-persistent or adolescence-limited. Essentially, life-course-persistent antisocial behaviors are continual throughout adolescence into adulthood (Moffitt, 1993). Aggressors in childhood and adolescence are typically criminal offenders in adulthood. On the other hand, the adolescence-limited antisocial individual represents some discontinuity in behaviors due to factors such as

maturity, motivation, and reinforcement (Moffitt, 1993). This researcher maintains that antisocial behaviors in adolescence are so widespread as to be normative but still adaptive. These findings offer a possible explanation as to how violent behaviors are learned and consequently persist through development.

<center>Violence Risk Factors</center>

Osborne (2004) found that some of the risk factors of communities are focused around disorganization, poverty, crime and prejudice. Other researchers have found that availability of drugs and firearms in the community can be a documented risk factor for school violence (Hawkins, Herrenkohl, Farrington, Brewer, Catalano, et al., 2000). Miller et al. (2005) identified other risk factors for communities which were connected with school failure, and a lack of positive role modeling. Other issues in the community, such as racial prejudice, can also be identified as a risk for school violence (Osborne, 2004). This is often seen in community members and police officials.

Schools are an integrative part of individual communities. Risk factors in the school setting have to do with low achievement expectation, lack of school connectedness or commitment, and an association between lack of family support and family dysfunction (Miller et al., 2005). Other research has found that withdrawal from school or frequent transitions from school (i.e., both in and out of school and from school to another) can also be a risk factor for school violence (Hawkins et al., 2000). The school environment is a particularly interesting one in which to study violence since children and adolescents spend a large portion of their day in school. Therefore, further examination of school focused risk factors is needed in research to understand potential outcomes of violence

within schools.

Separate from the school environment, the home and family background can also hold many risk factors for violent behavior. Ryan (2005) discussed that exposure to domestic violence is often common in violent offenders. Furthermore, Olweus (1993) suggested that bullies' parents are often hostile, rejecting and indifferent to their children. Depending on the form of aggression being exhibited, some parents believe that 'boys are being boys' or 'girls are just being girls' (Crick, 1997). This is playing into stereotypes and normalizing aggressive and violent behaviors (Fox & Harding, 2005). Other risk factors of the family atmosphere related to school violence are characterized by martial conflict, lack of discipline, low stability, and parental abuse or neglect (Miller et al., 2005). Hawkins et al. (2000) identified poor family management practices and a parent-child separation as other risk factors in families. Similarly, Ryan (2005) identified disorganized adult attachment as a risk for aggressive tendencies. Also a poor quality relationship with siblings can present a wide range of risks (Ryan, 2005). Clearly, the home environment is just as important as the community and school settings to provide interventional programs for aggressive behaviors.

Some researchers have explored the biological nature of aggression and violence as another dimension of parental influence on the individual. Olweus (1991) discussed the temperament of the child, such that those who are more active and hot-headed are more likely to develop aggressive tendencies. Other research has complimented this discussion by identifying genetics and heritability aggressive traits that exemplify the nature versus nurture debate (Ryan, 2005). Furthermore, Kettl (2001) specifically found a link between

serotonin dysregulation and violent behaviors. This evidence supports the individual biological connections to aggression seen in low levels of circulating serotonin in the body and irregular neurotransmitters (Kettl, 2001). Other individual risks for future violent behaviors can be identified in the presence of early childhood maltreatment (Ryan, 2005).

Research has also identified individual social risk factors that create an etiology of violence. These are most predominantly identified through involvement in gangs, and the use of television, video games, the internet, and the general media (Kettl, 2001). Olweus (2005) identified media attention to school violence interventions as a positive influence because it brought the national and community concentration to an important area of need in the school system. However, other research has suggested that the media in the form of television is a risk factor for future violence, evidenced by the links between video games and violent behaviors (Kettl, 2001). Today video games are more life-like and less supportive of prosocial behaviors. The internet also seems to play a role as an individual risk factor simply because of the availability of desired and undesired information (Kettl, 2001).

Violence and School Safety Outcomes

Outcomes of violence can resonate throughout communities and schools. NRC (2003) described the long-lasting effects of lethal violence in school shooting communities. These incidents continue to harm the people of those communities and the general reputation of that community for years after the actual incident (NRC, 2003). From within the community, Brener, Lowry, Barrios, Simon, and Eaton (2005) reported that following school-based interventions violent related behavior decreased, however the perception of

18

school safety was affected. Students were more likely to miss class because they felt unsafe in the school environment. Specifically, there was a significant increase in female students not going to school because of safety concerns (Brener et al., 2005). Other research on school outcomes found that boys who had discipline problems in middle schools were less likely to be on the graduation track in high school (Tobin & Sugai, 1999).

There are also outcomes of violence that are seen in families and individuals. Some researchers have suggested that children might be predisposed to anatomical responses to fear and aggression based on parental influences (Bayley & Anderson, 2006). Specifically, there is often a physiological change in the body (e.g., faster heart rate and increased breathing) when some people sense danger. Violence can also influence family social outcomes, such as increased mental health and behavioral problems (Dahlberg & Simon, 2006). This illustrates a connection that researchers have been interested in: external behavior (bullying and teasing) and internalizing behaviors. Paul (2005) found that Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD), Conduct Disorder (CD) and Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) are all contributors to violent behaviors (i.e., externalizing). Children and adolescents that present internalizing behaviors often create a complex picture for prevention (Miller et al., 2005), because of the links with parents. Furthermore, the impact of external behavior can be more problematic and create excessive stress which can be manifested in various forms of internal behaviors. Crick, Ostov, and Werner (2006) found that children who exhibit co-morbid relational and physical behaviors are at an increased risk for adjustment problems such as internalizing difficulties. Many researchers have found that externalizing behaviors can effect

internalizing outcomes.

The promotion of school safety also produces outcomes important to schools. Skiba et al. (2004) found that school climate was more critical than delinquency when predicting feelings of safety. Creating safer school environments can lead to better student academics and parental involvement (Peterson & Skiba, 2001). Researchers have also suggested that programs that change the school environment (i.e., focusing on school safety) should be considered as violence prevention programs to maximize outcomes. Peterson and Skiba (2001) suggested that often times programs take the 'can't hurt' attitude, thus implementing programs that are not understood or researched. Most believe that implementing programs can only have positive outcomes, but school safety supporters advocate programs that are better understood in changing the school climate (Peterson & Skiba, 2001).

Protective Factors

Aspects of school climate and attachment/connectedness are of interest for school administrators. School officials have begun to attend to the students' perception of safety and feelings of connection within the school context (Karcher, 2004). Greene (2005) emphasized school climate as having a large impact on the nature and scope of school violence. The school and classroom climate affects how strongly the students feel attached to their school. Other researchers have described the school climate as an essential part of the adolescent academic culture (Smokowski & Kopasz, 2005). Students need to feel safe and comfortable during breaks, in classrooms, and around the school grounds. Rodney et al. (2005) supported the idea that positive school attachment can help protect adolescents

20

from harmful influences and prepare them to make good decisions regarding their academic success and personal welfare.

One study of school connectedness examined four developmental supports: meaningful roles, safety, creative engagement, and academic engagement (Whitlock, 2006). Using surveys and focus groups, these researchers found that the age of the participants was significantly associated with the perceived developmental support and connectedness, such that younger adolescents reported higher levels of both dimensions. Whitlock (2006) also found that one positive adult relationship can contribute to feelings of connectedness at school. Additionally, these relationships can affect youth perceptions of the school climate. Teachers can create a school climate that is a protective factor for youth. Fox and Harding (2005) support this finding, and suggest that teachers should consistently use developmental supports, such as those outlined by Whitlock (2006) to combat an organization of deviance (i.e., reducing the normalizing violent behaviors).

Other research has also examined school climate and connectedness. Oswald et al. (2005) conducted a five-week study examining Positive Behavior Supports (PBS) to reduce violence and aggression on school grounds. The goal of the study was to increase school attachment/connectedness by changing the school climate in recognizing and addressing violent behaviors. All school personnel were trained in this curriculum and were more than usually present during passing periods in the hallways and other non-classroom activities to address negative behavior. The findings were consistent with improved feelings of school attachment and connectedness in pre and post-test surveys. Oswald et al. (2005) found perceptions of safer school environments when all school

personnel work together for a common goal. Karcher (2004) supported this finding by suggesting that connectedness is different for each adolescent, but most interventions can be successful with consist adult involvement. In this case study, the school climate affected school attachment/connectedness which was a protective factor for adolescents in reducing school violence. Additionally, Shumow and Lomax (2001) encouraged schools to focus on climate and less on implementing safety measures such as metal detectors or locker searches.

One of the most effective efforts for protecting youth from violent behaviors is involvement in sports and extracurricular activities (Rodney et al., 2005). These researchers suggested that involvement in organized activities can be a booster for better social skills and increased academic performance. Other research has provided mixed results regarding activity involvement. Eccles and Barber (1999) found that different extracurricular activities produced different benefits and risks. Individual prosocial behaviors were linked with positive educational paths and lower rates of risky behavior. However, participation in team sports was associated with higher rates of risky behavior, including drinking alcohol (Eccles & Barber, 1999).

Violence on school grounds also extends beyond youth to the spectators of sport activities. This is another essential element to examine in relation to learned aggressive behavior. Stover (2006) discussed the increase of violent incidents at sporting events involving students, parents and community members. School officials are struggling to develop safer environments at sport activities through programs and interventions (Stover, 2006). Whitlock (2006) supported positive behavior outside of the classroom because it is

22

connected to the school climate. Connectedness can be traced to all socializing domains affiliated with the school environment. More research is needed for interventional strategies on violence reduction at sporting events.

It is important for educators and parents alike to be sensitive to the needs and concerns of young people. In numerous case studies, researchers have found that adults were unaware of the problems facing young people in recent times (NRC, 2003). In order to have effective intervention strategies, adults need to bridge the gaps between the new generations of youth and today's adults. Werle (2006) supported this statement by suggesting adult involvement at all levels of the intervention, so that they are equal participants with the youth and not just teachers. Stone and Isaacs (2002) supported the need for anonymous reporting that builds confidence in youth and creates a listening environment. This research surveyed school counselors on their amount of true confidentiality with students. The findings were supportive for the use of anonymous reporting with adults and students (Stone & Isaacs, 2002). Overall, the role of positive adults is an essential protective factor for youth.

<center>Climate Characteristics</center>

Communities

In the early 1990's acts of school violence was concentrated mainly in the inner-city schools. In the late 1990's, attention has been drawn to suburban and rural schools in a new form of school violence (NRC, 2003). This committee commissioned by the National Research Council to study community cases of school shootings found that in the inner-city incidents of violence, there were specific grievances between individuals

<center>23</center>

that the school and community could not identify. In contrast, the suburban and rural

school violence seemed to focus around a broader and more abstract threat that was often

exaggerated (NRC, 2003). Crepeau-Hobson et al. (2005) added that urban communities

were significantly more likely to offer emotional educational programs than suburban or

rural communities, and smaller schools were less likely to offer peer counseling. Smith and

Smith (2006) reported distrust in communities where schools are located from a population

of school teachers who left urban high schools. Additionally, students from urban

communities are often seen as socially dysfunctional or misunderstood when they relocate

to suburban or rural communities (Smith & Smith, 2006).

Schools

Fox and Harding (2005) reported that there is an assumption when school shootings

occur that teachers and other staff members are to blame. Often it is assumed that the staff

is responsible for fatal violence in the school setting. Crepeau-Hobson et al. (2005) added

to these findings by surveying mental health professionals throughout the state of Colorado

two years after the Columbine shootings. The professionals at larger schools reported that

a lack of money and district support was a problem, as compared with smaller schools.

NRC (2003) also reported financial problems in the targeted case study of school shootings.

The obstacles described by teachers were more likely reported in urban and suburban

schools than in rural schools (Crepeau-Hobson et al., 2005).

There are often basic distinctions in the types of programs offered by the school or

community approach. In a meta-analysis review of school-based programs, Wilson, Lipsey,

and Derzon (2003) found that intervention effects were found in practices that were routine

24

in schools. In other words, programs that were built into the school curriculum and supported by all stakeholders produced greater effects. Additionally, Wilson et al. (2003) found that many school-based violence prevention programs do not necessarily prevent more violence from occurring, but instead reduce the levels that are already present. Other research has found that communities offer unique features for youth programming (Eccles & Gootman, 2002). Many community-based programs are designed with drop-in activities that are for adolescents as well as their families. Eccles and Gootman (2002) also concluded that community programs can often be larger in scale and therefore more substantial outreach. Larson, Walker, and Pearce (2005) concluded that despite the approach to the intervention, programs need to focus on youth culture and have a developmental framework accounting for varying factors.

Families

Newman (2004) suggested that family problems have been among the most dominant explanations for school violence. Teachers reported that children who develop violent behaviors are perceived to have similar family backgrounds. The common characteristics of these families include divorce, frequent relocation, or a lack of positive connection (Newman, 2004). The climate characteristics are shifting and changing, and it is imperative that prevention, intervention, evaluation, and research efforts continue to advance. Programs that are implemented with these climate characteristics in mind will be helpful in combating school violence and establishing practices that are best in the different climates.

Successful Strategies and Best Practices

25

Astor et al. (2005) described the more effective school-based intervention programs as using bottom-up processing. That is best illustrated in programs that are creative and adaptive per the context. In contrast, most prevention programs that focus on school violence are top-down processing (i.e., same program for every school; Astor et al., 2005). The use of bottom-up processing is often used in evaluation studies when researchers are encouraged to have an active-reactive-adaptive philosophy (Patton, 1997). The utilization-focused evaluation considers the varying aspects of individuals, families, schools and communities. Patton (1997) believed that the most effective evaluations are the ones that are adaptive to different programs and different needs of the programs. Similarly, intervention programs need to be flexible to varying contexts.

Lutzker, Wyatt, and Corso (2006) discussed the fidelity and training in successfully practiced programs. Successful programs need to have a procedure to implement all program protocol in the best manner. Also it is essential that all researchers are trained and are responsible for implementation (Lutzker et al., 2006). Oswald et al. (2005) used a series of training sessions with teachers in attempts to maintain fidelity when implementing a positive behavior support program to reduce school hallway violence. However, training on fidelity and accurate implementation is infrequently an integrative part of program development (Olweus, 2005). In an overview of whole-school antibullying programs, Smith, Schneider, Smith, and Ananiadou (2004) found that most programs are not implemented based on fidelity, but instead modified due to local conditions. These researchers found this often leaves school professionals unable to replicate the implementation of the program, thus affect the success of the program (Smith et al., 2004).

26

Miller et al. (2005) encourages clinicians to recommend three different levels of prevention and intervention approaches for reducing negative behavior in their programming. These three levels (i.e., primary, secondary, and tertiary) of intervention are critical in the School Crisis Response Model (Knox & Roberts, 2005), and other programs. These strategies often vary by program, but the general concept is the same. The primary prevention is often at a community-level (Knox & Roberts, 2005), and specifically is responsible for creating safe and responsive school environment (Skiba et al., 2004). The secondary prevention level generally encompasses families and schools (Miller et al., 2005), and is used for early identification and intervention (Skiba et al., 2004). Finally, the tertiary intervention requires active involvement through the curriculum (Miller et al., 2005), and essentially effective responses to the undesired behavior (Skiba et al., 2004). In other words, effective programs need to replicate prevention at all three levels of this model. Overall, this practice in strategically organizing the levels of intervention is used through various successful safety strategies.

Policies

Much school violence literature encourages schools to develop and update crisis response plans. Astor et al. (2005) reported that over 50% of schools have a violence crisis intervention. Additionally, Crepeau-Hobson et al. (2005) found that the development of a school crisis plan was the most common aspect of an increase in violence prevention measures at the surveyed schools. Often times the implementation of a crisis plan is easier and more cost effective than implementing an educational curriculum or other programs. Knox and Roberts (2005) specifically examined crisis intervention and crisis team models

within schools. These researchers encourage school officials to develop a plan that can be utilized at all levels (e.g., classroom, school, district, and community). Miller et al. (2005) also encourages plans that have stages and levels. Crisis plans typically identify team leaders, management coordinators and media directors (Knox & Roberts, 2005). The team leaders can direct students, while the media director manages communication between the outside media and school. Despite the intervention or prevention program for school violence, the use of a crisis plan is very important for schools.

One of the most noteworthy and controversial violence prevention model consists of the use of zero-tolerance policies. Most of these sets of policies began in national incentives, such as the No Child Left Behind act (NRC, 2003). The basic approach is to follow school rules without exception having zero-tolerance for certain behaviors. Bucher and Manning (2003) suggest that schools should not completely rely on the zero-tolerance policies, but instead use them to build upon in making better school rules. For schools to completely rely on the zero-tolerance policies means implementing and approaching all school rules without exception. Fox and Harding (2005) warns that these policies will have unintended consequences. These researchers believe that this type of intervention and prevention will create a culture in public schools where administrators have to be cut-throat. Stereotypes are more likely and furthermore an unexpected outcome (Fox & Harding, 2005).

Programs

Other researchers support different types of intervention programs designed using specific models. For example, Rodney et al. (2005) evaluated the Family and Community

Violence Program (FCVP) which was designed around the public health model and the

Social Learning Theory. This program was more effective at a younger age, thus lending

support for early interventions (Rodney et al., 2005). Other prevention models are based

around education and positive youth development. Miller et al. (2005) evaluated a

character education program in a rural community in conjunction with a summer camp.

These ideas also support peace-building efforts, which teach peace-related activities

focused around getting along and effectively communicating with peers. The positive

youth development model seeks to support and build skills among young people (Eccles

& Gootman, 2002; Miller et al., 2005). Finally, notable violence intervention and

prevention programs are often based around psychology supports. Kelley et al. (2005)

evaluated a program that was based on the mind, consciousness and thought to prevent

violence. Some researchers and school officials believe that positive thoughts lead to

healthy functioning (Kelley et al., 2005). Overall, there are many models for programs

have been shown effective in various contexts. However, if a program does not seem ideal

for intervention other researchers have outlined simple suggestions for making schools

safer, such as physical environmental design and establishing collaborations with

communities members (Bucher & Manning, 2003).

Whitted and Dupper (2005) and Astor et al. (2005) highlight some of the successful

practices for school safety programs and bullying/violence prevention programs. One

successful curriculum-based program called *Second Step* teaches problem solving, anger

management, and empathy skills (Astor et al., 2005), which is based on the

social-cognition model (Edwards et al., 2005). Research has found that students are less

29

physically aggressive after the *Second Step* program (Astor et al., 2005). One specific

study used qualitative interviews with students to find ages and grades that were most

effective at utilizing anger management skills (Edwards et al., 2005). The results indicated

that the higher the grade in school (i.e., increasing age) the more likely students were to

make gains in being able to control feelings of anger. Edwards et al. (2005) also found that

there was reliability between the peer-reports and teacher-reports, which suggests that the

adults who teach the curriculum see the same improvements as the adolescents involved in

the program. Interestingly, teachers reported that students use the program skills at home

and in the community. However, this was not reported by the student participants

(Edwards et al., 2005).

Many research and evaluation studies have been supportive of the positive effects

of the Olweus Bullying Prevention program (Olweus, 1991; Olweus, 1993; Olweus, 1997;

Olweus, 2001; Solbery & Olweus, 2003; Astor et al., 2005; Olweus, 2005; Smokowski &

Kopasz, 2005; Whitted & Dupper, 2005; Werle, 2006). Olweus (2001) cited recent

program evaluation research by the U.S. office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency

Prevention that found the Olweus Bullying Prevention program as one of the top 25

violence prevention programs, and of 10 programs that satisfied criteria for a model

program or best practice. Originally developed and evaluated in Norway, this best practice

program has been used and researched in Australia, Canada, Japan, the United Kingdom

and the United States (Olweus, 2001). The program was first developed in the 1970s and

has been gaining world-wide support since (Olweus, 1991).

In the beginning, the program created a definition of bullying that was limited by

direct aggression, but now has been expanded to include indirect (i.e., relational aggression) and verbal aggressive behaviors (Olweus, 1991). The early evaluation studies highlighted the seriousness of bullying and the effects on everyone involved in the school environment. The Olweus Bullying Prevention program has helped create profiles of bullies and victims that have been an essential addition to numerous other violence intervention and prevention programs (Olweus, 1993). Additionally, the program evaluations have helped in understanding how teachers and parents are an integrative part of programs.

The Olweus Bullying Prevention program is designed to produce effects at three levels: individual, class, and school (Olweus, 1993). The program recognizes that the school environment is directly related to the home environment. The curriculum includes a video, focus group materials and surveys for students. In addition, parents received a folder of information about the program, and school personnel a booklet of information to promote awareness and involvement (Olweus, 1991). Through this curriculum there are four distinct characteristics and goals of the program: to increase bullying awareness, to teach parents and teachers about the behaviors and consequences, to assist in developing clear school rules, and finally to provide development supports that help protect victims (Olweus, 1993). Overall, the program works towards a whole-school policy approach that is supported by all school faculty and staff. The program aims at being integrated at all levels of the school, family and community (Olweus, 1993). The typical evaluation for schools that implement the program is not experimental, but correlational with a program evaluation focus (Olweus, 1997).

Evaluations of the Olweus Bullying Prevention program have consistently reduced bullying behaviors across genders and school grades (Olweus, 1991). Other outcomes of the program include positive changes in attitude, a decrease in antisocial behavior (e.g., vandalism and theft at school), and an overall positive change in the school social environment. Olweus (2005) suggests that the program needs implementation evaluation, to address issues of fidelity. Also more longitudinal evaluation is needed as the program progresses into the 21st Century of changing school violence trends.

Many programs, including the Olweus Bullying Prevention program, utilize the peer-led approach to teaching violence prevention in schools. Greene (2005) identified other peer-led programs across the country. Most violence prevention programs are adult-led and taught through direct involvement. Larson et al. (2005) encouraged youth-driven programs because it gives youth the experience of ownership toward the direction of the program and activities. Additionally, Greene (2005) noted that most peer-led programs are peace oriented and have a component of peer mediation and/or counseling. Whitted and Dupper (2005) found that student-level interventions were mostly designed to increase social competence by developing skills and changing attitudes. Many other intervention programs have considered using peer-teaching, peer-mediation, and/or peer-counseling in their curriculum (Edwards et al., 2005).

One prevention program, *STOP the Violence,* focuses on student-led activities to recognize, report, and reduce violent behaviors at school. This program was developed by and is conducted through the youth leadership organization, Family, Career, and Community Leaders of America (FCCLA; 2006). The FCCLA organization is a

co-curricular organization that is an integrated part of the Family and Consumer Sciences (FCS) programs (FCCLA, 2006). The acronym STOP (Students Taking On Prevention) highlights the bottom-up nature of this program. *STOP the Violence* provides young people with the attitudes, skills, and resources to address school violence prevention (Carpenter, 2006). The program has two levels of training that are peer-led. The first level is suggested for grades six through nine, and helps students identify youth violence in their school and community. Similarly, the second level is suggested for grades ten through twelve and encourages the students to create projects to reduce violence in their school and community (Carpenter, 2006).

Current Study

The State of Washington requires each school district to teach students about harassment and bullying (Bergeson, 2005). This is one requirement of the NCLB act for each state in the United States (USDE, 2005). Research in the last decade has found success and failure in various approaches for schools to prevent bullying and violent behavior (Olweus, 1991; Peterson & Skiba, 2001; Bucher & Manning, 2003; NRC, 2003; Astor et al., 2005; Edwards et al., 2005; Kelley et al., 2005; Knox & Roberts, 2005; Miller et al., 2005; Olweus, 2005; Oswald et al., 2005; Rodney et al., 2005; Whitted & Dupper, 2005; Werle, 2006; Whitlock, 2006). Skiba and Peterson (2000) reported a small list of the school security and preventive measures and how often they are published in articles during the 1990's. The findings revealed a significant number of classroom behavior management and conflict resolution programs (Skiba & Peterson, 2000). Professionals involved in education have a general understanding of the various prevention efforts and

indicators of school safety in different contexts (e.g., family environment and school climate) which are commonly linked to certain programs. However, there is a need for a comprehensive list of all the successful safety strategies and violence prevention best practices (Peterson & Skiba, 2001), that can potentially be associated with varying educational contexts and multiple informants associated with the school environment. This would allow for all the different dimensions of prevention to be reported on in one survey, which in other research on school safety has yielded interesting results (Skiba et al., 2006).

Although very little research has directly examined the perspectives of students and teachers on violence prevention, some studies have investigated parents and students. Shumow and Lomax (2001) found that school safety perceptions were mediated by various demographic characteristics, such as ethnicity and socioeconomic status. For example, Caucasian parents rated their adolescents' schools as safer than African American parents. Interestingly, parents and students did agree on reports of school safety (Shumow & Lomax, 2001). Caucasian adolescents were more likely to report feeling safer at their school than African American adolescents.

Other researchers have examined both teacher and student perspectives. Hall and Bacon (2005) found that teacher and student perspectives of a school-based prevention program were in agreement. Both teachers and students reported that students from the treatment school had better social skills as a result of the program (Hall & Bacon, 2005). Both teacher-reports and student-reports found a significant change in students' behavior post-program, however the scope of this study did not specifically examine discrepancies in feelings between teachers and students.

Most notably, the recent data on teachers' and students' perceptions of school safety has revealed significant discrepancies (Skiba et al., 2006). Students had significantly lower ratings than teachers on the connection/climate scale. This scale contained items describing the degree of connections students feel with the school and their consequent perception of responsiveness in the school environment (Skiba et al., 2006). The teacher and student discrepancies were greater than 40 percent, such that teachers always rated the climate better than students. Skiba et al. (2006) also found that students rated dangerous or disruptive behavior (i.e., fighting, robbery and theft) higher than teachers. Clearly teachers and students do not perceive indicators of school safety in the same way.

Questions and Hypotheses

The general purpose of this research was to explore teachers' and students' preferences for school-wide safety measures and the possible relationship between these preferences and perceptions of school safety. Broadly, what are teachers' and students' feelings about school violence prevention strategies and school safety? The following sub-questions and hypotheses that frame the current study:

Q1: Similar to findings by Skiba et al. (2006), are there discrepancies between teacher and student perceptions of school safety (SRS survey)?

> **H1:** Student-reported perceptions of school safety will be significantly lower than teachers on the school Connection/Climate scale (Skiba et al., 2006).

> **H2:** Student-reported perceptions of dangerous or disruptive behavior will be significantly higher than teacher-reported perceptions (Skiba et al., 2006).

Q2: How are the student perceptions about the importance of safety strategies (Indicators of Preferences for School Safety [IPSS] survey) categorized?

> **H3:** Specific factors will emerge into the following categories: surveillance, mental health, programs, activities, behavior management, policies/procedures, and skill development.

Q3: Are there gender differences among the student reports of the school safety (SRS survey) and the perceived importance of safety strategies (IPSS survey)?

Q4: How are students' feelings of school safety (SRS survey) related to the perceived importance of various safety strategies (IPSS survey)? That is, do students who differ in perceptions of school safety believe that different school safety strategies are important in schools?

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

In this chapter a description of the participants, instruments, and procedure for the current study are explained in detail. A quantitative design was utilized to further explore research by Skiba and colleagues (2004) on perceptions of school safety, and to pilot a new measure of student and adult attitudes towards the importance of various safety strategies.

Participants

One hundred and eighty-two students and 32 teachers from one high school in the Northwest United States participated in this current study. Demographics for the sample are presented in Table 1 for students and Table 2 for teachers. Overall, the student sample represented grades 9-12, and was approximately equal in gender representation (95 girls and 84 boys). The students reported 89% Caucasian background, while the next largest representation (3.4%) reported "other" background. Similar trends are reflected in the teachers' ethnic backgrounds, 90.6% Caucasian. However, teachers were not similar in gender representation (25 females and 7 males).

School staff (e.g., the librarian and school counselor) were encouraged to participate if they knew the school's policies and procedures, and regularly interacted with the students. Principals were excluded from this definition because they completed a longer survey not included in the current study. For the duration of this write-up, school staff (excluding principals) will be referred to as teachers because the same reports were completed by each adult participant.

Table 1

Student-Reported Demographic Characteristics

Variable	Response Choices	%
Gender	Boys	46.9
	Girls	53.1
Age	13	0.6
	14	25.6
	15	20.0
	16	20.6
	17	22.2
	18	10.6
	19	0.6
Grade Level	9	33.9
	10	19.8
	11	20.3
	12	26.0
Race	White, Non Hispanic	88.8
	African American	0.6
	Hispanic	1.7
	Native American	1.1
	Asian or Pacific Islander	2.2
	Biracial/Multiracial	2.2
	Other	3.4
Years at this school	1	35.0
	2	15.0
	3	13.9
	4 or more	36.1
Transportation to school	School Bus	35.0
	Walk	5.1
	Car	58.2
	Other	1.7
Academic grades	All A's	13.6
	A's & B's	55.1
	B's	6.3
	B's & C's	18.2
	C's	3.4
	C's & D's	2.8
	D's	0.6
	D's & F's	0

Table 2

Teacher-Reported Demographic Characteristics

Variable	Response Choices	%
Gender	Male	21.9
	Female	78.1
Age	21-25	12.5
	26-30	12.5
	31-35	6.3
	36-40	3.1
	41-45	12.5
	46-50	9.4
	51-55	34.4
	56-60	9.4
	60 +	0
Race	White, Non Hispanic	90.6
	African American	0
	Hispanic	0
	Native American	0
	Asian or Pacific Islander	3.1
	Biracial/Multiracial	0
	Other	6.3
Years at this school	1	18.8
	2	6.3
	3	6.3
	4 or more	68.8

Recruitment for student participation involved obtaining permission from several gatekeepers: school administrators, teachers, parents and students. Teachers' willingness to distribute parental consent forms and donate class time for survey administration was necessary. Some teachers declined participation in these aspects of data collection, thus reducing the total number of students given an opportunity to participate. It is unclear if other teachers opted not to distribute the parental forms, or if none of the parents returned the consent forms. However, of the parental consents returned only 4% chose not to allow their adolescents to participate in the current study. Seven students returned a parental

consent form alerting the researchers they were eighteen years of age or older and could participate. Every student who had parental consent and was present on the day of data collection (11 students absent with parental consent), assented to participating in the project. Similarly, all teachers who completed the survey returned a consent form as well. Of the entire student population at this high school, 33% of students participated.

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

Two surveys were used in the current study that were combined into one instrument for teachers and students: the Safe and Responsive Schools (SRS) survey (Skiba et al., 2004), and the Indicators of Preferences for School Safety (IPSS) survey. Some minor wording differences exist between teacher and student versions of the SRS survey to reflect the roles and experiences of different groups within the school (see Skiba et al., 2006).

The Safe and Responsive Schools (SRS) Survey was developed to assess self-reports of both serious violence and school climate (Skiba et al., 2004). This instrument uses psychometric approaches to scale development, and is considered appropriate for small-scale research such as the current study (Sharkey, Furlong, & Yetter, 2006). The original surveys were developed with a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Skiba et al. (2004) reported a principal components analysis revealing four distinct scales that accounted for 51.67% for the shared-variance: Connection/Climate, Incivility and Disruption, Personal Safety, and Delinquency/Major Safety. High reliabilities in the scales were found: most notably alphas ranging from 0.83 (Incivility and Disruption) to 0.94 (Connection/Climate; Skiba et al.,

2004). Due to error in reproducing the survey items, the current study included a subset of items from the original SRS survey scales. A total of ten items were inadvertently eliminated from the student survey. Nine of the items came from three of the four scales: Connection/Climate (5 items), Personal Safety (1 item), and Delinquency/Major Safety (3 items); and one from a list of additional items not included in the original scales described by Skiba et al. (2004). Only items that both teachers and students responded to were included in the current study. Refer to Appendix A for the student version and Appendix B for the teacher version of the SRS survey.

Many researchers have recommended the development of a measure and encouraged new studies examining the effects of school policies and procedures on school climate (Ma & Klinger, 2000; Peterson & Skiba, 2001). The Indicators of Preferences for School Safety (IPSS) survey was developed for this study to assess the perceived importance of safety strategies used in schools. The list of strategies included in the survey was compiled from current literature (Juvonen, 2001; Young, Autry, Lee, Messemer, Roach, et al. 2002; Astor et al., 2005; Crepeau-Hobson et al., 2005; Edwards et al., 2005; Greene, 2005; Knox & Roberts, 2005; Whitted & Dupper, 2005), as a means to better understand the perceived importance of policies, procedures, and other strategies that address school safety. A total of 27 items were included; some with probes or short definitions as needed (e.g., Literacy education – media interpretation to understand the messages conveyed through media). The IPSS survey was developed with a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (unimportant) to 5 (important), and in accordance with effective survey design guidelines regarding item order and response scales (Dillman,

2000). Only one version of this survey was created for both students and teachers (refer to Appendix C). Additionally, qualitative questions were included in the surveys to help assess and refine this survey for later use. These data were not analyzed during the current study because of the sample size and scope of the current project.

The current study is lacking methodological triangulation, such that only survey data are being utilized. Many schools have not found a consistent definition, and furthermore accurate method of reporting violent and disruptive behavior. Therefore the current study examines perceptions.

Procedure

Schools were contacted for participation in the State of Washington based on two criteria: had previously completed a state-sponsored FCCLA *STOP the Violence* program training, and planned to implement this program during the 2006-2007 academic school year. One high school in Eastern Washington was selected based on faculty commitment, time availability, and funding. Consistent with approved procedures (see Appendix E for IRB approval memorandums), consent was received through adult gatekeepers, as previously described (see Appendix D for all assent and consent forms). One date was arranged to complete the student and teacher questionnaires. Trained research assistants (e.g., both high school students and graduate students) administered the student surveys and collected the teacher surveys (see Appendix F for script from research assistant training). Any teacher surveys not collected at this time were later mailed to the researcher. Finally, to recognize the participants' involvement, students were given a pencil promoting the *STOP the Violence* program. Individual classrooms with high parental consent return

rates participated in a pizza party arranged by the school administrators. Teachers and administrators involved in the study were monetarily compensated.

In summary, participants in the current study comprised a student and teacher sample from one high school. Two surveys were utilized following approved procedures by university review boards and school administrators. The survey data provided an opportunity to explore perceptions of school safety strategies, and school safety.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

In this chapter, the preliminary analyses and results from the research questions of the current study will be described in detail. Subheadings are used to organize preliminary results and individual research question results.

Preliminary Analyses

The internal consistencies were calculated on the four scales identified from the SRS survey (Skiba et al., 2004; Skiba et al., 2006) for student and teacher reports in the current study, respectively: Connection/Climate (9 items; $\alpha = 0.87, 0.80$), Incivility and Disruption (6 items; $\alpha = 0.78, 0.70$), Personal Safety (2 items; $\alpha = 0.77, 0.83$), and Delinquency/Major Safety (5 items; $\alpha = 0.74, 0.38$). Based on preliminary analyses for the current study, the Delinquency/Major Safety items from the SRS survey were run individually and not as a scale due to low alpha for the teacher reports. The means of the SRS survey items and scales for student and teacher reports are presented in Tables 3 and 4, respectively.

Table 3

Student Mean Ratings on Scales and Items from the Safe and Responsive School (SRS)

Survey by Factor

Factors and Items	Mean	SD	N
Connection/Climate (*Cronbach's α = 0.87*)	3.72	0.63	182
I am getting a good education at this school	3.94	0.80	181
I am generally treated fairly at this school	3.94	0.82	181
I feel that I belong at this school	3.69	1.05	179
I am proud of this school	3.79	0.92	180
Teachers enjoy teaching here	3.91	0.79	181
Teachers listen carefully to what I have to say	3.63	0.88	181
I feel comfortable telling a teacher or an administrator about potential violence	3.64	1.04	179
Teachers work hard to make every student successful	3.68	0.88	179
Students enjoy learning here	3.23	0.82	181
Incivility & Disruption (*Cronbach's α = 0.78*)	3.06	0.65	182
Physical fighting or conflicts happen regularly at school	2.21	0.82	181
Threats by one student against another are common at school	2.46	0.96	181
Students regularly cheat on tests or assignments	3.15	0.99	181
Some students are regularly hassled by other students	3.22	0.96	179
Arguments among students are common at school	3.63	0.93	181
Name calling, insults, or teasing happen regularly at school	3.71	0.93	181
Personal Safety (*Cronbach's α = 0.77*)	4.10	0.71	181
I feel safe in my classroom	4.24	0.70	181
Overall, I feel that this school is a safe school	3.96	0.86	181
Delinquency/Major Safety (*Cronbach's α = 0.74*)	2.91	0.75	182
I have seen a knife at school (not including a cafeteria knife)	2.28	1.18	181
Students use alcohol or drugs at school	4.04	0.75	181
I have seen students with drugs or alcohol at school	2.59	1.29	178
Robbery or theft of school property over $10 in value is common	2.96	1.03	181
Students use drugs or alcohol outside of school	2.66	1.05	181

Table 4

Teacher Mean Ratings on Scales and Items from the Safe and Responsive School (SRS)

Survey by Factor

Factors and Items	Mean	SD	N
Connection/Climate (*Cronbach's α = 0.80*)	4.21	0.39	32
Most students are getting a good education at this school	4.41	0.67	32
Students are generally treated fairly at this school	4.25	0.51	32
I feel that I belong at this school	4.31	0.69	32
I am proud of this school	4.53	0.67	32
Teachers enjoy teaching here	4.47	0.57	32
Teachers listen carefully to what students have to say	4.06	0.67	32
Students feel comfortable telling a teacher or an administrator about potential violence	3.72	0.63	32
Teachers work hard to make every student successful	4.41	0.62	32
Students enjoy learning here	3.72	0.58	32
Incivility & Disruption (*Cronbach's α = 0.70*)	2.71	0.49	32
Physical fighting or conflicts happen regularly at school	1.84	0.68	32
Threats by one student against another are common at school	2.44	0.88	32
Students regularly cheat on tests or assignments	2.97	0.78	32
Some students are regularly hassled by other students	3.34	0.70	32
Arguments among students are common at school	2.59	0.80	32
Name calling, insults, or teasing happen regularly at school	3.09	0.82	32
Personal Safety (*Cronbach's α = 0.83*)	4.50	0.49	32
I feel safe in my classrooms	4.58	0.56	31
Overall, I feel that this school is a safe school	4.44	0.50	32
Delinquency/Major Safety (*Cronbach's α = 0.38*)	2.56	0.47	32
I have seen a knife at school (not including a cafeteria knife)	1.44	0.76	32
Students use alcohol or drugs at school	2.81	0.98	31
I have seen students with drugs or alcohol at school	1.59	0.98	32
Robbery or theft of school property over $10 in value is common	2.97	1.00	32
Students use drugs or alcohol outside of school	4.00	0.57	32

Further explanation is needed regarding the reported alphas from the SRS survey in the current study. One item was removed from the Incivility and Disruption scale (groups of students cause problems or conflicts at school), and from the Personal Safety scale (I have seen a gun at school this year) due to low reliabilities that resulted when these items were included in analyses of the teacher reports. First, the item removed from the Incivility

and Disruption scale conceptually differed from other items in the scale. The other items from this scale were individually-based (e.g., threats by one student against another are common at school) and do not refer to groups or cliques of students. Students and teachers might operationalize "groups" differently or differ in their understanding of peer groups. Second, regarding the Personal Safety scale, Skiba et al. (2004) designed most of these items to begin with "I feel . . ." phrasing. The item removed was specific to seeing a weapon at school, and did not conceptually fit with the Personal Safety scale. Moreover, this item had limited variance in this sample (students: $M = 1.29$, $SD = 0.59$; teachers: $M = 1.19$, $SD = 0.60$).

<div align="center">Perceptions of School Safety Discrepancies</div>

Similar to findings by Skiba et al. (2006), the first research question in the current study concerned discrepancies between teacher and student perceptions of school safety, from the SRS survey. To test question one, two separate MANOVAs were computed where the independent variable was the informant (i.e., teacher versus student): one using the three reliable scales across informants from the SRS survey (Connection/Climate, Incivility and Disruption, and Personal Safety), and one using the Delinquency/Major Safety items individually. All scale scores were calculated using unit weighting.

For the first MANOVA, the multivariate effect for informant was significant, $F(3, 209) = 6.99$, $p < 0.001$. A follow-up univariate ANOVA for the Connection/Climate scale was significant, $F(1, 212) = 18.27$, $p < 0.001$. Examination of the cell means revealed that teachers agreed with Connection/Climate items ($M = 4.21$, $SD = 0.39$), more than students ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 0.63$). Additional univariate ANOVAs were significant for Incivility and

Disruption, $F(1, 212) = 8.80, p < 0.01$, and Personal Safety, $F(1, 211) = 9.62, p < 0.01$. The cell means revealed that students agreed with Incivility and Disruption items ($M = 3.06, SD = 0.65$), more than teachers ($M = 2.71, SD = 0.49$), whereas teachers agreed with "I feel . . ." items ($M = 4.50, SD = 0.49$) from the Personal Safety scale more than students ($M = 4.10, SD = 0.71$).

For the second MANOVA, the Delinquency/Major Safety individual items were used due to the low Cronbach alpha for teacher reports. The multivariate effect for informant was significant, $F(5, 202) = 8.01, p < 0.001$. Follow-up univariate ANOVAs revealed that two items were significant: "I have seen a knife at school (not including a cafeteria knife)," $F(1, 211) = 15.06, p < 0.001$, and "I have seen students with drugs or alcohol at school," $F(1, 208) = 17.24, p < 0.001$. The cell means revealed that students agreed with the "I have seen a knife at school (not including a cafeteria knife)" item ($M = 2.28, SD = 1.18$), more than teachers ($M = 1.44, SD = 0.76$). Additionally, for the "I have seen students with drugs or alcohol at school" item, examination of cell means revealed that students agreed ($M = 2.59, SD = 1.29$), more than teachers ($M = 1.59, SD = 0.98$).

The Structure of Safety Strategies Perceptions

For the current study, the second research question concerned categorizing perceptions of the importance of safety strategies. Using student-reported data from the Indicators of Preferences for School Safety (IPSS) survey, a principal components analysis with a varimax rotation was performed to identify the underlying processes that distinguish students' perceptions of the importance of that strategy at their school. Following an examination of the scree plot, four factors emerged that accounted for 50.72% of the shared

variance. Using loadings ≥ 0.49, each item from the IPSS survey loaded on one factor, and seven items did not load on any of the four factors. All items and loadings are listed in Table 5, including the four factor names.

Internal consistencies were calculated for these four factors using student responses: Rule Enforcement (6 items; $\alpha = 0.81$), Education (5 items; $\alpha = 0.82$), Control and Surveillance (5 items; $\alpha = 0.77$), and Counseling (4 items; $\alpha = 0.72$). The relative contributions of the four factors are presented in Figure 1. The strongest contribution to the overall scale was the Rule Enforcement scale, accounting for approximately 31% of the shared variance. Counseling was the last factor to emerge and accounted for approximately 5% of the overall variance of the survey. Refer to Table 6 for student mean ratings of the individual items for each factor that emerged from the IPSS survey.

Because there were not enough teachers to conduct a principal components analysis on the teacher reports, the factors that emerged from student reports on the safety strategies (IPSS) survey were applied to the teacher data. Cronbach alphas were calculated: Rule Enforcement (6 items; $\alpha = 0.63$), Education (5 items; $\alpha = 0.75$), Control and Surveillance (5 items; $\alpha = 0.76$), and Counseling (4 items; $\alpha = 0.60$). Using these four factors, the reliability of teacher ratings were acceptable given the small number of subjects and survey items per factor.

Table 5

Student Factor Loading from the Principal Components Analysis of the Indicators of

Preferences for School Safety (IPSS) Survey by Factor

Factors and Items	Loading
Rule Enforcement (*Cronbach's α = 0.81*)	
Adult presence around the school between classes, before and after school	.71
Consistent classroom management	.68
Zero-tolerance policies	.68
Teachers and administrators who enforce conduct/behavioral rules in the hallways (i.e., correct bad behavior) between classes	.65
Teachers and administrators who enforce conduct/behavioral rules before/after school	.60
Literacy education (i.e., media interpretation) -- to understand the messages conveyed through media	.55
Education (*Cronbach's α = 0.82*)	
A guest speaker (i.e., peer or adult) to help students learn about others' experiences with violence/bullying	.77
A video discussing how to prevent violence/bullying	.71
Instruction about how to report violence/bullying	.63
Prevention curriculum (i.e., STOP the Violence, PeaceBuilders, Second Step, PATHS, etc.) implemented with all students	.61
Instruction about how and when to intervene in violent/bullying situations at school	.49
Control & Surveillance (*Cronbach's α = 0.77*)	
Tighter security procedures	.81
Personal item searches (i.e., locker and backpack)	.69
Metal detectors (e.g., walk-through and/or wand) at the entrances to school	.68
Stricter disciplinary procedures	.65
Video surveillance	.58
Counseling (*Cronbach's α = 0.72*)	
Instruction about confidentiality procedures at school	.65
Instruction about how to recognize of warning signs that come before violent behavior	.57
Adult-run counseling/conflict mediation	.55
More mental health providers at school	.49
Items that did not load on the four factors	
Peer counseling/conflict mediation	
A variety of extracurricular opportunities (i.e., sports and clubs, etc.)	
A crisis plan (i.e., preparation such as a crisis team or emergency procedures)	
Security guard/law enforcement officer	
A student dress code	
Social/Life skill training	
Character education	

Figure 1

Student Reported Relative Importance of the Indicators of Preferences for School Safety (IPSS) Survey by Factor. Percentages Represent the Shared Variance Accounted for by each Factor to the Overall Variance of the Survey.
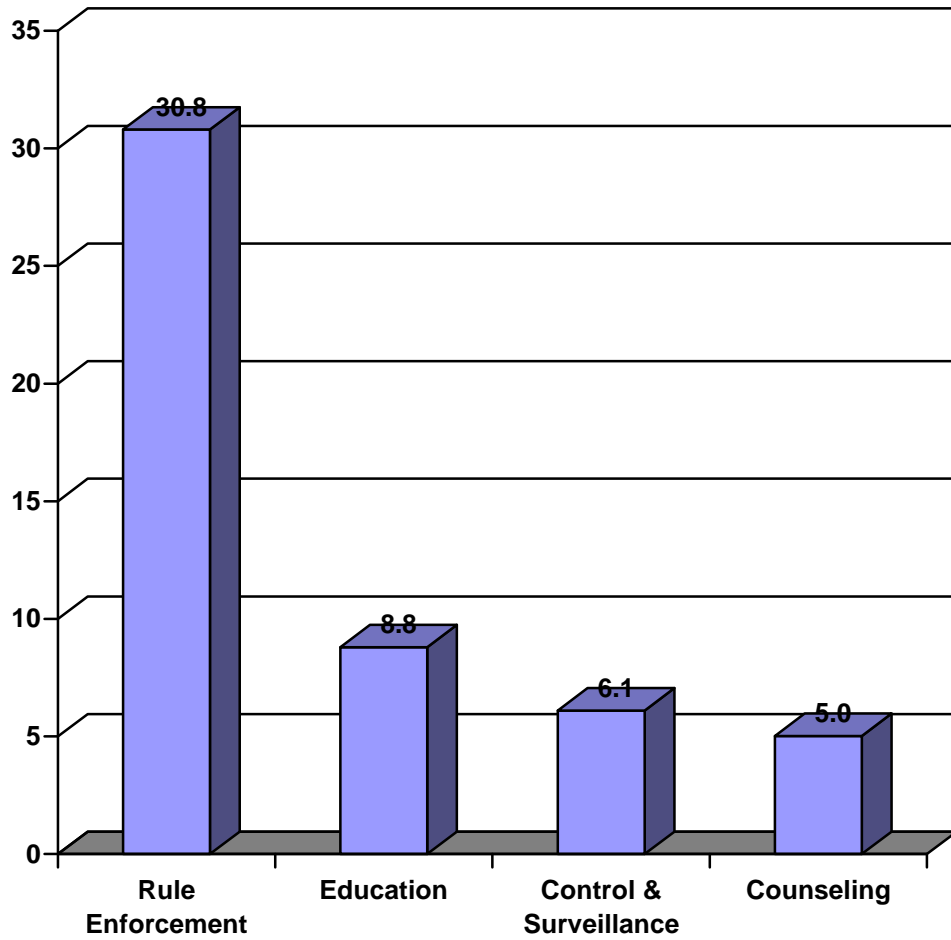
Table 6

Student Mean Ratings on Scales and Items from the Indicators of Preferences for School

Safety (IPSS) Survey by Factor

Factors and Items	Mean	SD	N
Rule Enforcement (*Cronbach's α = 0.81*)	3.26	0.83	182
Teachers and administrators who enforce conduct/behavioral rules in the hallways (i.e., correct bad behavior) between classes	3.63	1.16	181
Teachers and administrators who enforce conduct/behavioral rules before/after school	3.10	1.23	182
Adult presence around the school between classes, before and after school	3.08	1.20	181
Zero-tolerance policies	3.10	1.21	181
Literacy education (i.e., media interpretation) -- to understand the messages conveyed through media	3.19	1.11	182
Consistent classroom management	3.44	1.14	181
Education (*Cronbach's α = 0.82*)	3.02	0.89	182
Prevention curriculum (i.e., STOP the Violence, PeaceBuilders, Second Step, PATHS, etc.) implemented with all students	3.36	1.11	179
A video discussing how to prevent violence/bullying	2.59	1.11	182
A guest speaker (i.e., peer or adult) to help students learn about others' experiences with violence/bullying	3.19	1.24	181
Instruction about how to report violence/bullying	2.87	1.23	182
Instruction about how and when to intervene in violent/bullying situations at school	3.12	1.13	180
Control & Surveillance (*Cronbach's α = 0.77*)	2.41	0.85	182
Video surveillance	2.69	1.31	182
Metal detectors (e.g., walk-through and/or wand) at the entrances to school	1.95	1.17	182
Stricter disciplinary procedures	2.57	1.09	182
Tighter security procedures	2.49	1.07	182
Personal item searches (i.e., locker and backpack)	2.33	1.24	181
Counseling (*Cronbach's α = 0.72*)	3.27	0.81	182
Adult-run counseling/conflict mediation	3.40	1.19	180
Instruction about confidentiality procedures at school	3.29	1.11	181
More mental health providers at school	3.12	1.03	181
Instruction about how to recognize of warning signs that come before violent behavior	3.27	1.07	182

Because internal consistencies of the teacher ratings were modest enough to

construct scale scores, an additional research question was addressed regarding

discrepancies between teacher and student perceptions of the importance of safety

strategies. A MANOVA was conducted on the four scales that emerged from the IPSS survey, where the independent variable was the informant (i.e., teacher versus student). The multivariate effect for informant was significant, $F(4, 209) = 18.82$, $p < 0.001$. Follow-up univariate ANOVAs were significant for each factor: Rule Enforcement, $F(1, 212) = 73.41$, $p < 0.001$; Education, $F(1, 212) = 26.61$, $p < 0.001$; Control and Surveillance, $F(1, 212) = 21.33$, $p < 0.001$; and Counseling, $F(1, 212) = 31.61$, $p < 0.001$. An examination of cell means for Rule Enforcement revealed that teachers ($M = 4.55$, $SD = 0.45$) rated these safety strategies as more important than students ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 0.83$). Cell means for Educational strategies revealed that teachers ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 0.69$) rated these safety strategies as more important than students ($M = 3.02$, $SD = 0.89$). Following this trend, teachers ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 0.71$) rated Control and Surveillance strategies as more important than students ($M = 2.41$, $SD = 0.85$), as well as Counseling strategies ($M = 4.12$, $SD = 0.64$; $M = 3.27$, $SD = 0.81$), respectively. Refer to Figure 2 for the student and teacher reported means for the IPSS survey by each factor.

Figure 2

Student and Teacher Reported Means for the Safety Strategies Survey (IPSS) by Factor.

	Rule Enforcement	Counseling	Education	Control & Surveillance
Students	3.26	3.27	3.02	2.41
Teachers	4.55	4.12	3.91	3.14
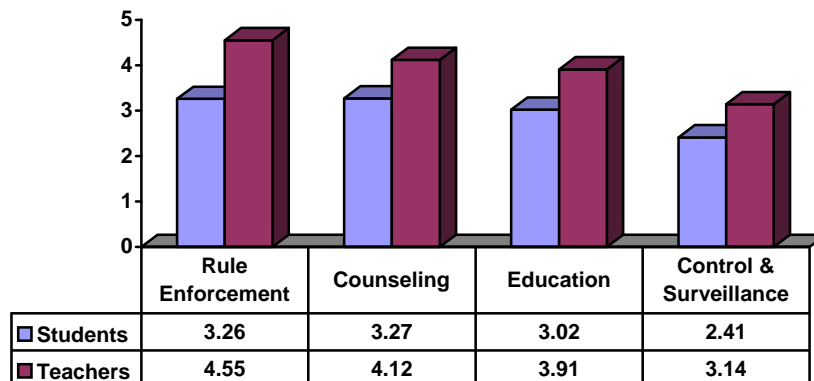
Gender Differences of Student Perceptions

The third research question addressed gender differences among student reported perceptions of school safety (SRS survey) and the importance of safety strategies (IPSS survey). Towards this aim, two separate MANOVAs were run for each instrument from the current study, where the dependent variables were factors/scales from each measure. Since all student reported constructs for the SRS survey and IPSS survey had high alphas (see Table 3 and Table 6, respectively), scale scores were calculated. No multivariate effects for gender were found for either instrument.

Student Perceptions of School Safety Predicting Safety Strategies

To further understand student perceptions of school safety and the relative importance of safety strategies, correlations of the scales from the SRS and IPSS surveys were computed (refer to Table 7). The importance of Rule Enforcement safety strategies was significantly correlated with feelings of Connection/Climate, $r = 0.27$, $p < 0.001$. Additionally, the importance of Control and Surveillance safety strategies was significantly correlated with feelings of Incivility and Disruption, $r = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$. Students' feelings of school safety were not significantly associated with ratings on the importance of the Educational or Counseling safety strategies.

The fourth research question concerned students who differ in perceptions of school safety (SRS survey) and their beliefs that different school safety strategies are important (IPSS survey) to be implemented within their school. Towards this aim, separate linear regression analyses were run using student reports, predicting each of the IPSS survey factors from each of the SRS survey scales identified in Skiba et al. (2004). The

54

purpose of this analysis was to explore students' perceptions of school safety variables that are most predictive of the importance of safety strategies. Therefore, all school safety scales were entered into one block in each of the regression analyses. The results of the regression analyses generally confirm the correlational data. Specific results for each factor from the IPSS survey investigated were as follows.

Table 7

Bivariate Correlations on Student Reported Scales from the Safe and Responsive Schools (SRS) Survey and the Indicators of Preferences for School Safety (IPSS) Survey.

Ns Range (181-182)	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Connection/Climate - SRS	-0.34***	0.60***	-0.29***	0.27***	0.14	0.01	0.05
2. Incivility & Disruption - SRS		-0.29***	0.46***	0.05	0.12	0.21**	0.12
3. Personal Safety - SRS			-0.19*	0.16*	-0.02	-0.13	-0.03
4. Delinquency/Major Safety - SRS				-0.03	-0.01	0.08	0.06
5. Rule Enforcement - IPSS					0.57***	0.43***	0.51***
6. Education - IPSS						0.36***	0.64***
7. Control & Surveillance - IPSS							0.31***
8. Counseling – IPSS							

***$p < 0.001$; **$p < 0.01$; *$p < 0.05$.

In the first model the dependent variable was the Rule Enforcement factor from the IPSS survey. This overall regression model was significant, $R^2 = 0.10$, $F(4, 176) = 4.74$, $p < 0.01$. An examination of the standardized beta weights revealed that students' perceptions on the Connection/Climate scale (ß = 0.31, $p < 0.01$), and Incivility & Disruption scale (ß = 0.18, $p < 0.05$), significantly predicted the importance of Rule Enforcement strategies.

55

The second model predicted the importance of Educational safety strategies. The overall model was significant, $R^2 = 0.07$, $F(4, 176) = 3.28$, $p < 0.01$. Students' perceptions on the Connection/Climate scale ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$), and Incivility & Disruption scale ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.05$), significantly predicted the importance of Educational safety strategies.

The third model, predicting Control and Surveillance safety strategies, revealed an overall significance, $R^2 = 0.07$, $F(4, 176) = 3.25$, $p < 0.05$. Examination of the standardized beta weights revealed that students' feelings of Connection/Climate ($\beta = 0.19$, $p < 0.05$), Incivility and Disruption ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < 0.05$), and Personal Safety ($\beta = -0.18$, $p = 0.05$) significantly predicted the importance of Control and Surveillance safety strategies.

Finally, the fourth model was non-significant in predicting Counseling safety strategies. This was consistent with correlational findings (see Table 7) that are also non-significant with any of the four scales assessing students' perceptions of school safety.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Who's to blame for the lives that tragedies claim? No matter what you say, it don't take away the pain that I feel inside; I'm tired of all the lies. Don't nobody know why it's the blind leading the blind. I guess that's the way the story goes. Will it ever make sense? Somebody's got to know. – Lyrics from Youth of the Nation by P.O.D. (2002).

Incidents of violence are still prominent in schools across the United States and worldwide, despite evaluation research on prevention and intervention programs. Ryan (2005) reported that during the last couple decades research has contributed to violence prevention knowledge but that information is not being utilized. As the reauthorization for the NCLB act is approaching (Loup & Petrilli, 2007), some educational experts and researchers are concerned that significant changes in academic standards have been overshadowed within schools. Furthermore, continued research is needed to understand adult and student perceptions within the school environment.

The purpose of the current study was to explore students' and teachers' perceptions of school safety strategies, and their possible relationship with perceptions of school safety. This study also further examined issues in school safety and violence by investigating the perceived importance of safety strategies in schools. Past research has found that there are links with feelings of school safety and safety strategies, such that students reported feeling less safe in their school when metal detectors and surveillance strategies were employed (Mayer & Leone, 1999; Mayer, 2001). Other notable research has suggested that teachers' and students' perceptions of school safety variables differ (Skiba et al., 2006), which has implications for potential violence that affects individuals, families, schools and

57

communities (NRC, 2003).

The current study was designed to assess individual perceptions. Although actual violent behaviors were not accounted for, the perceptions from various groups of people can be important. For example, Phillips (2007) found that adolescent males saw masculinity and male violence as socially constructed, which accounted for the reinforcement and acceptance of violent behavioral norms. This research is suggesting a negative link with the Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1969), whereas other research employed a positive link with SLT's main components in a prevention program (Hall & Bacon, 2005). Bandura (1969) often described social reinforcements as the reactions of others in a social situation where the behavior is reproduced. Although Bandura's Social Learning Theory does not necessarily address individual perceptions, the three main components (i.e., attention, retention and reproduction; Bandura, 1969) can be used in understanding the links between perceptions and behaviors. Clearly, the coding of perceptions (as well as the actual observation of disruptive behaviors) can be related with how behaviors are learned and reinforced in the social environment.

Perceptions of School Safety

Broadly, the first set of analyses were designed to examine perceptions of school safety for teachers and students. By using the SRS survey (see Skiba et al., 2004), a relatively complete structure of perceptions of climate and acts of violence could be tested. As predicted, students provided significantly lower ratings on connection and climate items than teachers. This finding is consistent with past research (Skiba et al., 2006), which suggests that students' perceptions of school safety differ from teachers' where the

Connection/Climate scale was the stronger predictor. Other research suggested that students' perceptions of school connectedness are often based on the quality of adult relationships, such as with teachers (Whitlock, 2006). The current finding adds to the research on school connectedness and climate, thus illustrating that the school context is complex. This finding could potentially be problematic for schools in which teachers perceive safer environments than the students report. In other words, the adults (i.e., the gatekeepers) might not perceive the school climate as a safety issue, but students would.

Significant main effects were also found for the Incivility and Disruption scale, which included items that focused on the civility of interpersonal relationships among students based on the frequency of disruptive behaviors (e.g., name calling, arguments and conflicts; see Skiba et al., 2004). This finding supports the second hypothesis, such that students reported significantly higher ratings of dangerous or disruptive behavior in school (Skiba et al., 2006). Clearly, students have differing views than teachers regarding problematic behavior within schools. It is possible that teachers turn a "blind eye" or choose not to see or address problematic student behaviors. Other conclusions could be that students only exhibit disruptive behaviors when they will not be caught by an adult. It is important to note that the current study assessed perceptions, which consequently are different than direct behavior reporting. It is possible that students talk more about negative behaviors without directly experiencing them, thus altering their perception.

Among the more interesting findings on the perceptions of school safety were the sensory items from the Delinquency and Major Safety scale. This analysis was run with individual items due to the low alpha for teacher ratings. Only two items from the

59

Delinquency and Major Safety scale revealed significant differences in teachers' and students' perceptions. The two items focused more on sensory accounts (e.g., "I have seen . . .") than on individual statements of perceptions (e.g., "I feel . . ."). This finding suggests that teachers and students differ in their accounts of witnessing violence, drugs and alcohol in their school. Again, it is possible that teachers do not necessarily see delinquent behavior as often as students. In other research, it has been suggested that student perceptions represent more of the reality of the problematic behaviors within the school environment than do adults (Stone & Issac, 2002). For the current study, only speculations can be made as to the meaning of the student and teacher discrepancies in their perceptions of school safety. Further research is needed to understand these differences, and determine if implementing safety strategies will have an effect on both students' and teachers' perceptions.

Categorizing Perceptions of Important Safety Strategies

The Indicators of Preferences for School Safety (IPSS) survey was developed to assess the perceived importance of school-wide prevention and intervention safety strategies. During the development of the IPSS survey, it was hypothesized that seven categories would emerge. Findings for this hypothesis provided mixed results. Four main factors emerged from the principal components analysis, which were appropriately named based on previous research: Rule Enforcement, Education, Control and Surveillance, and Counseling. The factors that emerged are a combination of the categories hypothesized, and provide a better fit for this sample. As noted, seven items did not emerge on any of the four factors due to a cut off point of .49 for factor loadings. The third hypothesis may have

been supported if weaker factor loading were considered, however judgments were based on avoiding multiple factor loadings. Therefore a discussion of those seven items is needed.

First, the character education item is a safety strategy that many of the trained researchers reported as confusing for students during data collection. Individual classroom assistants addressed student questions as needed, but described this strategy as difficult. Edwards et al. (2005) reported that character education is important but often operationalized differently for students and teachers. Additionally, there is an element of cultural bias in this strategy; that is having a positive character could be emphasized differently by the cultural environment (Reese, Vera & Caldwell, 2006). Other research suggests that it is difficult to educate in moral conduct, especially when character education is considered an "everyday life" safety strategy for children and adolescents (Bryan, 2005).

Second, the social/life skill training item is a very encompassing strategy. Again, Reese et al. (2006) would suggest that this safety item is not culturally competent and relevant, although argued by others as important to preventing violence and increasing social change (Tuomi, 2005). It is possible that both of these items (i.e., character education and social/life skills training) are elements of other programs which come to students with different names that might have an alternative qualification. One potential modification of the IPSS survey would be to identify more discrete means of measuring the importance of these strategies, such as character education and social/life skills training.

Third, the item focusing on extracurricular activities (e.g., sports and clubs) did not

61

load on the four factors. As noted by previous research, student involvement in moderation is often times considered a safety strategy (Eccles & Barber, 1999; Rodney et al., 2005). As researchers reexamine the ecological framework (Riner & Saywell, 2002), it is important to consider "latch-key" adolescents. As Bronfenbrenner (1980) described, these are adolescents who essentially come home to empty houses after school and live in non-traditional families (e.g., single parent or working mother). By focusing on after-school activities, it is less likely that these adolescents will exhibit academic problems or contribute to delinquency (Bronfenbrenner, 1980). For future survey modification, extracurricular activities should be reconstructed from one item into multiple items, such as individual clubs and sports (see Eccles & Barber, 1999). This might yield varying results due to sample variance, and help illustrate a better picture of the social ecology outside the immediate school day.

The remaining four items that did not load on the emerged factors from the IPSS survey, are more perplexing in the current study: peer counseling/conflict medication, a crisis plan, security guard/law enforcement officer, and a dress code. First, it was expected that peer counseling would have been an item under the Counseling factor, however, to students in this sample peer counseling is different than other counseling items. Second, a crisis plan is important for communities and individual schools (Greene, 2005). This item, similar to extracurricular activities, needs to be modified as students might think of this strategy under an alternate name or more discrete items related to crisis plans. Finally, the presence of a security guard and a dress code did not emerge as a factor within the current study. These two items might have been expected under the Rule Enforcement factor, but

62

nevertheless are still important items for schools to consider as safety strategies. Although the items discussed in this section did not load on the four factors, individually they might still be effective in various samples.

Overall, the four factors that did emerge from the principal components analysis (Rule Enforcement, Education, Control and Surveillance, and Counseling) suggest that the structure of safety strategies extends beyond simple quick fix solutions to school violence. These factors are reliable and represent a significant addition to understanding safety strategies for reducing and/or preventing school violence.

<center>Perceptions of the Importance of Safety Strategies</center>

Although differences in teachers' and students' perceptions of the importance of safety strategies (using the factors from the IPSS survey) were not a primary focus of this study, additional analyses were completed. Interestingly, there was an overall main effect for teachers and students. Follow-up analyses revealed significant differences in informant ratings of the importance for all four factors from the IPSS survey: Rule Enforcement, Education, Control and Surveillance, and Counseling. Teachers rated each strategy as more important than students. However, an examination of Figure 2 revealed that although there is a significant difference in perceptions between teachers and students, the ranking of strategy importance was about the same for students and teachers. It is possible that teachers are more invested in safety strategies and report all factors as more important than students, because they are the gatekeepers within the school environment.

These findings in conjunction with findings from question one, illustrate an interesting picture within the school environment. Students reported feeling less connected

<center>63</center>

and less safe than teachers within their school; however, students were less likely than teachers to report the importance of doing something about it (i.e., safety strategies). Although students' perceptions of Connection/Climate and Personal Safety differed from teachers, this student sample significantly under reported the importance of various safety strategies. It is possible that students did not fully understand various items from the IPSS survey as safety strategies, whereas teachers did. Overall, future research should further examine the IPSS survey with a larger sample to see if these findings are replicated.

Gender Differences

Often times it is important to control for certain variables (e.g., demographics) in social research. Towards this goal, gender differences were explored in feelings of school safety (scales from the SRS survey) and the importance of safety strategies (factors from the IPSS survey). These results were non-significant, suggesting that male and female students agree on perceptions of school safety and the importance of safety strategies at their school. Whitlock (2006) found that girls reported greater connectedness to their school than boys. Other research has also suggested that gender differences are apparent in the forms of aggression, such that boys are typically more physically aggressive while girls are typically more relationally aggressive (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). The current findings did not follow these trends. However, to better address these tendencies, future research might include additional items that directly address the various dimensions of relational aggression.

Phillips (2007) suggested male violence is socially constructed through cultural norms, which might change due to sample variance. Additionally, Osborne (2004) reported

64

that faculty and staff also experience bullying within the school environment, which might also reveal gender differences in teacher perceptions. Therefore, it is suggested that future researcher utilize a larger sample, and consider gender differences for teachers and staff in the perception of school safety and the importance of safety strategies.

<div align="center">Predicting the Importance Safety Strategies</div>

Skiba et al. (2004) used items within the SRS survey to predict students' overall feelings of school safety (an item within the Personal Safety scale). In the current study, there was an interest in providing a better understanding how feelings of school safety (SRS survey) predicted the perceived importance of safety strategies (IPSS survey). Toward this aim, several simple linear regression analyses were employed.

In the first model predicting the importance of Rule Enforcement, some interesting results were revealed. The overall model explained ten percent of the variance of Rule Enforcement. Student ratings of Connection/Climate and Incivility and Disruption significantly predicted the importance of Rule Enforcement strategies. It is important to note that ratings on the importance of Rule Enforcement safety strategies and feelings of Personal Safety were significantly correlated ($r = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$), whereas Incivility and Disruption was not significantly correlated with Rule Enforcement (see Table 7). However, it appears that within this regression model, feelings of Incivility and Disruption significantly predicted the importance of Rule Enforcement strategies. This finding can be explained through the high correlation between feelings of Connection/Climate and Personal Safety, $r = 0.60$, $p < 0.001$. Although Personal Safety was individually correlated with Rule Enforcement, as a model, Connection/Climate and Incivility and Disruption

<div align="center">65</div>

accounted for this individual association. The Personal Safety scale was comprised of two items in the current study. Skiba et al. (2004) noted that some correlations with items on the Personal Safety scale were low. Overall, it appears that students who rated higher on Connection/Climate and Incivility and Disruption are more likely to report the importance of Rule Enforcement strategies within their school environment. In other words, students who were more likely to report the importance of Rule Enforcement strategies were connected to the school, but also saw high levels disruptive behavior.

The second model predicted Educational strategies and accounted for seven percent of the variance. Two scales were significant in this model: Connection/Climate and Incivility and Disruption. These scales were not individually correlated with Education (see Table 7); however, taken as a model, students' perceptions of Connection/Climate and Incivility and Disruption significantly predicted Educational strategies. In this sample, students who see disruptive behaviors and are connected to the school rate Educational safety strategies as important. This finding is similar to the first model, which illustrated the same combination of school safety perceptions for Rule Enforcement.

The importance of Control and Surveillance safety strategies were predicted in the third regression model. Seven percent of the variance of the Control and Surveillance strategies were explained by this model. Similar findings from models one and two with Connection/Climate and Incivility and Disruption were found. Interestingly, the standardized beta weights revealed that student ratings of Personal Safety were negatively associated within this model; that is, when students reported feeling safe, they did not rate Control and Surveillance strategies as important. Previous research has suggested that

66

students often report feeling *less* safe at school due to the use of "hardware" strategies (Mayer & Leone, 1999; Mayer, 2001), such as those that comprise the Control and Surveillance scale (see Table 6). Although these are slightly different findings from the current study, it does suggest that Control and Surveillance safety strategies are controversial for schools to implement, and are not necessarily the best strategy in prevention efforts for school violence. Greene (2005) suggested, and the current study also leans towards this idea, that schools need to take a more integrative approach to safety beyond Control and Surveillance strategies. Clearly, establishing security measures is important but it does not get at the core of violence prevention.

In this sample, perceptions of school safety did not significantly predict the importance of Counseling strategies for students. However, this finding does not diminish the importance of counseling strategies, such as employing mental health providers within schools. Crepeau-Hobson et al. (2005) reported that often times larger schools lacked money and overall support for mental health professionals, as compared with smaller schools. Counseling strategies are important, but can sometimes be difficult to directly link with violence prevention, thus funding might not be allocated for these strategies. Counseling strategies could potentially support teachers within their classrooms and provide additional adult figures within the school context. Some of the items in this scale would also assist students' development of knowledge and skills needed for a safe school environment (i.e., confidentiality and recognizing signs of violent behavior).

The Delinquency/Major Safety scale from the SRS survey did not significantly predict student reports of important safety strategies in any of the regression models.

Although this scale was reliable for students, it also was not correlated (see Table 7) with any of the factors that emerged from the IPSS survey. This scale, unlike other constructs on the SRS survey, had items that are directly related to seeing major safety concerns at school. It is possible that when taken with the other factors from the SRS survey, the Delinquency/Major Safety scale was a weak predictor within each regression model predicting safety strategies.

There is great variation in the implementation and fidelity of safety strategies, and some research promotes program adaptation by schools and locations (Lutzker et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2004). The use of students' perceptions of school safety to predict the importance of certain safety strategies was significant and interesting in the current study. Further research is needed with a larger population and in more varied locations before any clear and concrete recommendations and implementation conclusions can be made.

<center>Limitations and Future Directions</center>

There are some shortcomings to the current study that should be acknowledged. First, with only one public high school as the population, the results from this study will not clearly represent the average high school in the State of Washington or the United States. Although the sample is not representative, it does allow for a basic understanding of teachers' and students' perception of safety strategies and assessment of school safety. Furthermore, the current sample was large enough for pilot analyses on the IPSS survey, so that it can be modified and utilized in future research.

Secondly, the primary use of self-reports can also be considered a limitation of the current study, as with other studies. Both instruments in the current study assessed

<center>68</center>

perceptions and not actually accounts of violent behaviors. The use of secondary data and/or observational data in the future might help validate the perceptions reported in the current study (unfortunately, this would require expertise that the current researcher did not have). Generally, the issues with self-reports are directly related to the level of honesty and accuracy in answering the individual survey items on part of the participants. Teachers, who have an investment in various safety strategies or programs already implemented at their school, might be biased in their responses. This phenomenon might be possible with teacher self-reports because the individual school was selected based on success with implementing the FCCLA *STOP the Violence* program. Additionally, the student self-report data could be influenced by individual perceptions and experiences with various teachers, as with other studies within the school context. As with other studies, the implications of the shortcomings outlined here are minimal and can be addressed in future research.

Future research should explore school safety strategies across more representative samples using appropriate methodological designs. To better understand the effectiveness of safety strategies in schools, more research is needed using experimental and comparison groups. Additionally, by examining secondary schools with varying disciplinary histories a potential comparison can be made with demographic variables and the rated importance of school safety strategies. As suggested by Edwards et al. (2005), prevention programs and safety strategies need to be research-based and supported with longitudinal data. Moreover, resources need to be diverted from only meeting testing requirements to supporting violence prevention (Armstrong & Webb, 2006). The current project has

provided additional ways to assess safety strategies for secondary schools that future researchers should utilize.

Conclusions

Violence prevention is a social problem that crosses disciplines, settings and groups. Furlong, Morrison, Cornell and Skiba (2004) described the school violence research community as changing in methodological practices that are multidisciplinary beyond just the education community. Looking across disciplines, medical advancements throughout decades and centuries have revealed that many illnesses and diseases are preventable. In the present day, school violence should also be considered preventable. Lutzker et al. (2006) encourages all stakeholders in violence prevention to merge agendas for a common goal in prevention. This suggestion could potentially be frustrating for teachers because it does not provide clear direction for prevention with the desired child outcomes. Change is not easy but it is possible!

What can national and state officials, school administrators and teachers do to change? First, from a national and state level, Armstrong and Webb (2006) found that resources have been diverted from violence prevention due to NCLB requirements with standardize testing. These researchers recommended that funding should be contributing to violence prevention as well, starting with changes in national incentives, guidelines and policy (Armstrong & Webb, 2006).

Second, from an administrator and teacher level, Whitlock (2006) reported that students felt more connected to their school when they perceived teachers as willing to provide time and were emotionally available. However, it is important to note that many

secondary teachers are not certified counselors, but often take on that role with their students. Despite the obvious discrepancy in teachers' and students' perceptions of school safety in the current study, changes need to occur within school policy so that teachers do not take on developing prevention programs, on top of teaching. Crepeau-Hobson et al. (2005) suggest that mental health professionals (separate from school teachers) should take the lead in creating violence prevention and intervention programs. Fox and Harding (2005) concur that this structural change might reduce "finger pointing" during incidents of school violence. Policies that support additional teacher time and increased funding are needed to facilitate research on how feelings of school safety influence the preferences for and the use of safety strategies (Knox & Roberts, 2005).

These are great conclusions for an ideal world of violence prevention and unlimited funding for the education system, and furthermore educational programming. However, it might be possible that small changes within the school context can be significant in intervening and/or preventing future incidents of violence. First, many researchers have suggested consistent adult and teacher involvement in creating a safe environment through violence prevention measures is absolutely essential (Oswald et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2004). Although, the current study revealed significant differences in students' and teachers' perceptions of school safety, it might be possible for these discrepancies to be reduced if all teachers were involved in explaining and enforcing clear and consistent school rules. Secondly, some research has suggested that integrating students in developing clear and consistent school rules can affect the perception of connectedness. It is possible for schools to empower students in having a voice and appearing "visible" to

adults in the school environment (Whitlock, 2006). Students need a voice and the current study might help school districts, administrators, and teachers organize safety efforts to hear and help students.

The current study is an important addition to contemporary literature for understanding school safety perceptions and the importance of safety strategies. Clearly students and teachers need a voice for school safety and any safety efforts. It is hopeful that these findings, as well as other research, can be translated into applicable knowledge to increase awareness for other stakeholders in school violence prevention.

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Appendix A

Safe and Responsive Schools (SRS) Survey:

Student Version

Safe Schools Survey: Secondary Student Form

- **Please read each statement carefully.**
- **Answer questions based on the current school year.**
- **Use the scale to mark your rating – <u>circle</u> the code that best reflects your response:**

SD-Strongly Disagree; D-Disagree; N-Neutral; A-Agree; SA-Strongly Agree

1.	Threats by one student against another are common at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
2.	Students use drugs or alcohol outside of school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
3.	I have seen a gun at school this year (with other than a police/security officer).	SD	D	N	A	SA
4.	Teachers listen carefully to what I have to say.	SD	D	N	A	SA
5.	I feel safe in the lunchroom.	SD	D	N	A	SA
6.	I am reading and responding to this survey carefully	SD	D	N	A	SA
7.	I am proud of this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
8.	Some students are regularly hassled by other students.	SD	D	N	A	SA
9.	I feel safe going to and coming from school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
10.	I have seen students with drugs or alcohol at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
11.	Physical fighting or conflicts happen regularly at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
12.	Name-calling, insults or teasing happen regularly at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
13.	Students use alcohol or drugs at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
14.	I feel that I belong at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
15.	I feel comfortable telling a teacher or an administrator about potential violence.	SD	D	N	A	SA
16.	Groups of students cause problems or conflicts at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
17.	School rules are clearly defined and explained so that I can understand them.	SD	D	N	A	SA
18.	School rules seem reasonable.	SD	D	N	A	SA
19.	Teachers work hard to make every student successful	SD	D	N	A	SA

20. Robbery or theft of school property over $10 in value is common.	SD	D	N	A	SA
21. I have seen a knife at school (not including a cafeteria knife).	SD	D	N	A	SA
22. I feel welcome when I am at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
23. Teachers enjoy teaching here.	SD	D	N	A	SA
24. I feel safe in my classrooms.	SD	D	N	A	SA
25. I feel that the teachers care about me as a person.	SD	D	N	A	SA
26. I am learning a lot at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
27. Arguments among students are common at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
28. Students regularly cheat on tests or assignments.	SD	D	N	A	SA
29. Overall, I feel that this school is a safe school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
30. I am generally treated fairly at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
31. I feel safe in the bathrooms at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
32. I am getting a good education at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
33. I feel safe in the school hallways.	SD	D	N	A	SA
34. My answers to these questions accurately reflect my feelings.	SD	D	N	A	SA
35. Students enjoy learning here.	SD	D	N	A	SA

Appendix B

Safe and Responsive Schools (SRS) Survey:

Teacher Version

Safe Schools Survey: Staff Form

- **Please read each statement carefully.**
- **Answer questions based on the current school year.**
- **Use the scale to mark your rating – <u>circle</u> the code that best reflects your response:**

SD-Strongly Disagree; D-Disagree; N-Neutral; A-Agree; SA-Strongly Agree

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Teachers respect students in this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
2. I feel safe before and after school while on school grounds.	SD	D	N	A	SA
3. Parents are involved in activities at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
4. Students use drugs or alcohol outside of school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
5. Teachers work hard to make every student successful.	SD	D	N	A	SA
6. Students enjoy learning here.	SD	D	N	A	SA
7. I feel that I belong at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
8. Groups of students cause problems or conflicts at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
9. Students feel comfortable telling a teacher or an administrator about potential violence.	SD	D	N	A	SA
10. I have seen a gun at school this year (other than a police or security officer).	SD	D	N	A	SA
11. I feel safe in the school hallways.	SD	D	N	A	SA
12. Most students are proud of this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
13. Teachers have input in decision making at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
14. Some students are regularly hassled by other students.	SD	D	N	A	SA
15. Teachers care about student learning at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
16. Teachers and administrators supervise the halls during passing time.	SD	D	N	A	SA
17. I have seen students smoking at school or on school grounds.	SD	D	N	A	SA
18. Teachers praise students when they have done well.	SD	D	N	A	SA
19. Arguments among students are common at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA

20. Teachers enjoy teaching here.	SD	D	N	A	SA
21. I have seen a knife at school (not including a cafeteria knife).	SD	D	N	A	SA
22. Teachers listen carefully to what students have to say.	SD	D	N	A	SA
23. Name calling, insults or teasing happen regularly at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
24. Students respect teachers in this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
25. Parents are made to feel welcome at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
26. Students use alcohol or drugs at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
27. I am proud of this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
28. Students regularly cheat on tests or assignments.	SD	D	N	A	SA
29. Students cut classes or are absent regularly.	SD	D	N	A	SA
30. Overall, I feel that this school is a safe school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
31. I have seen students with drugs or alcohol at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
32. Administrators listen to what teachers have to say.	SD	D	N	A	SA
33. I feel safe in my classroom(s).	SD	D	N	A	SA
34. Robbery or theft of school property over $10 in value is common.	SD	D	N	A	SA
35. Students are generally treated fairly at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
36. Sale of drugs occurs on school grounds.	SD	D	N	A	SA
37. Students cooperate with teacher requests	SD	D	N	A	SA
38. Physical fighting or conflicts happen regularly at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
39. Most students are getting a good education at this school.	SD	D	N	A	SA
40. Threats by one student against another are common at school.	SD	D	N	A	SA

Appendix C

Indicator of Preferences for School Safety (IPSS) Survey:

Student and Teacher Versions

Indicator of Preferences for School Safety (IPSS) Survey

The following list summarizes a number of things that could be used in a school to increase safety for all students, staff and visitors.

- *Rate each item, identifying how important you believe it is to have that specific safety strategy at your school (whether or not it currently is used).*
- **Use the scale to mark your rating – <u>circle</u> the code that best reflects your response:**

U-Unimportant; KU-Kind of Unimportant; N-Neutral; KI-Kind of Important; I-Important

1. Security guard/law enforcement officer.	U	KU	N	KI	I
2. Peer counseling/conflict mediation.	U	KU	N	KI	I
3. Prevention curriculum (i.e., STOP the Violence, PeaceBuilders, Second Step, PATHS, etc.) implemented with all students.	U	KU	N	KI	I
4. A video discussing how to prevent violence/bullying.	U	KU	N	KI	I
5. A guest speaker (i.e., peer or adult) to help students learn about others' experiences with violence/bullying.	U	KU	N	KI	I
6. Instruction about how to report violence/bullying.	U	KU	N	KI	I
7. Video surveillance.	U	KU	N	KI	I
8. Adult-run counseling/conflict mediation.	U	KU	N	KI	I
9. Instruction about confidentiality procedures at school.	U	KU	N	KI	I
10. A variety of extracurricular opportunities (i.e., sports and clubs, etc.).	U	KU	N	KI	I
11. Teachers and administrators who enforce conduct/behavioral rules in the hallways (i.e., correct bad behavior) between classes.	U	KU	N	KI	I
12. More mental health providers at school.	U	KU	N	KI	I
13. A student dress code.	U	KU	N	KI	I
14. Instruction about how and when to intervene in violent/bullying situations at school.	U	KU	N	KI	I

15. A crisis plan (i.e., preparation such as a crisis team or emergency procedures).	U	KU	N	KI	I
16. Metal detectors (e.g., walk-through and/or wand) at the entrances to school.	U	KU	N	KI	I
17. Social/Life skill training.	U	KU	N	KI	I
18. Teachers and administrators who enforce conduct/behavioral rules before/after school.	U	KU	N	KI	I
19. Instruction about how to recognize of warning signs that come before violent behavior.	U	KU	N	KI	I
20. Stricter disciplinary procedures.	U	KU	N	KI	I
21. Tighter security procedures.	U	KU	N	KI	I
22. Personal item searches (i.e., locker and backpack).	U	KU	N	KI	I
23. Character education.	U	KU	N	KI	I
24. Adult presence around the school between classes, before and after school.	U	KU	N	KI	I
25. Zero-tolerance policies.	U	KU	N	KI	I
26. Literacy education (i.e., media interpretation) -- to understand the messages conveyed through media.	U	KU	N	KI	I
27. Consistent classroom management.	U	KU	N	KI	I

Appendix D

Assent and Consent Forms:

Student Assent and Parental, Teacher, and Principal Consent.

Student Assent Form

You are invited to be in a study school safety through the Washington State University. We are interested in students' and teachers' feelings about school safety in their school. Your parent(s)/guardian(s) are aware of this project.

If you decide to participate, you will fill out three sections of this survey during class today. The first part contains eight questions that consists of basic information about you. The second part is 25 questions that form the Safe and Responsive Schools Safe Schools Survey. These questions have been used with high school students in many other schools. The third part is a new survey with about 26 questions which assesses what students think their schools ought to have in place to keep/make school a safe place.

We want you to remember that these surveys are not like tests you might take in school. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. We only want to know what you really think about your feelings towards safety in your school. As with all studies in which adolescents are asked to report on private information (i.e., their feelings), there may be the risks associated with revealing personal or sensitive information. School counselors will be available if needed. It will take about 15-30 minutes for you to finish the surveys. You will receive a small gift (i.e., a sticker or pencil promoting the STOP the Violence program) at the completion for your participation.

You can decide to stop being a part of this project at any time. If you decide to withdraw before you complete the survey that is OK. You can also choose not to answer any of the questions, if you don't want to. Your teacher may provide alternate activities (i.e., reading or doing other homework) if you decide not to participate or your parents have not provided permission. Participation in this project is completely voluntarily, and if you choose not to participate it will not affect your relationship with your teacher, your school, or Washington State University. All responses will be kept confidential and your name will not be associated with your individual responses in any way.

If you have any questions about this research project, please ask now. You can also ask questions while you are filling out the surveys. Please raise your hand if you have a question.

If you agree to participate and understand the nature of this study, please sign below.

Name (Please print):_____

Signature: _____Date:_____

Investigator's Signature:_____Date:_____

Parental Consent Form

Dear Parent,

My name is Leslie Booren and I am a graduate student working with Dr. Deborah Handy in the Human Development Department at Washington State University. I am the principal investigator for a research study in which your adolescent's school is participating -- the School Safety Project. The goal of this project is to find out more about students' and teachers' feelings and perceptions regarding school safety. I ask that you read this form and inquire about any questions you may have before agreeing to allow your child to participate in the study. Please keep in mind that your decision whether or not to allow your adolescent to participate will not affect your relations with his/her school or Washington State University.

The study is simple and will take place during the regular school day. If you agree (at your adolescent assents), your adolescent will fill out our questionnaire during one class period this semester. The questionnaire will take approximately 15-30 minutes to complete. The data collection will be scheduled at the convenience of the teachers at your adolescent's school, so that we interfere the least with instructional time. The questions asked in the surveys will be the same for all students who participate in the School Safety Project.

We will be asking students questions about violence prevention strategies that think should be implemented in their school, as well as questions about violence exposure and school climate. We believe that there are relatively few risks associated with this study for your adolescent. As with all studies in which adolescents are asked to report on private information (i.e., their feelings), there may be the risks associated with revealing personal or sensitive information. School counselors will be available if needed. We also want you to know that your adolescent may refuse to answer any question, and your adolescent may withdraw his/her participation from the study at any time. All students will be given a small gift (i.e., a sticker or pencil promoting the *STOP the Violence* program) for their participation in the study.

The information we collect will be kept private and will be used only by myself, Dr. Handy, and the other trained research assistants. Each student will be given an identification number and this number will be used instead of names for recording information. The students' individual responses will not be shared with you or other school personnel. Student responses are strictly confidential. None of the information we collect will become part of your adolescent's school file. Individual responses will not be identifiable in any reports resulting from this study.

Our goal is to learn more about students and teachers' feelings on school safety and school safety prevention efforts at their school. We hope that all students will want to participate and will enjoy the experience. However, if any student decides not to participate or does not receive parental consent, teachers may provide alternate activities within the classroom, such as reading or doing other homework. The adolescent will not be penalized for not participating in the School Safety Project.

Regardless of your decision, please complete the attached form and return it to me in the

envelope provided as soon as possible. Participation in this study will not affect your current or future relationship with Washington State University or your affiliated school. I would be happy to answer any questions you or your adolescent might have about the study. Please feel free to call or email me, or my advisor Dr. Handy. Thank you!

Sincerely,

Leslie Booren,   Deborah J. Handy, Ph.D.
Principal Researcher   Faculty Advisor

Please complete the following and return this form to your adolescents' teacher in the envelope provided as soon as possible. Thank you!

_____ I agree to allow my child to be invited to participate in this research. This study has been explained to me. I have had an opportunity to ask questions. If I have general questions about the research, I can ask one of the researchers listed above. If I have questions regarding my or my adolescents' rights as a participant, I can call the WSU Institutional Review Board at (509)335-9661. This project has been reviewed and approved for human participation by the WSU IRB.

_____ I do not wish to have my child participate in this research.

Adolescent's Name (Please print): _____

Adolescent's homeroom teacher: _____

Your Name (Please print):_____

Signature: _____Date:_____

Your Relationship to the Adolescent: _____

Investigator's Signature: _____Date:_____

Dear Teacher,

My name is Leslie Booren and I am a graduate student working with Dr. Deborah Handy in the Human Development Department at Washington State University. I am the principal investigator for a research study in which your school has agreed to participate. The goal of this study is to find out more about students' and teachers' feelings and perceptions regarding school safety.

The study is simple and will take place at school during the regular school day. If you agree to participate in the study your assistance will be needed in three ways. First, we would need teachers help by distributing and collecting parental consent forms, and answering any questions about the project. We will provide all materials for you. Second, the students in your class with parental consent will fill out our survey during a part of <u>one class period</u> this semester. The questionnaire will take approximately 15-30 minutes to complete. A time for the data collection will be scheduled at the convenience of the *school and teachers' schedules* so that we interfere the least with instructional time. The questions asked on the survey will be the same for all students who participate. Third, you will be asked to complete a survey, similar to the students'.

We will be asking students and teachers questions about violence prevention strategies that they would like to see implemented in this school, as well as questions about violence exposure and school climate. We believe that there are relatively few risks associated with this study for you and your students. As with all studies in which adolescents are asked to report on private information (i.e., their feelings), there may be the risks associated with revealing personal or sensitive information. A student may withdraw his/her participation from the study at any time. All students will be given a small gift (i.e., a sticker or pencil promoting the *STOP the Violence* program) for their participation in the study. All teachers within the school will be asked to complete surveys similar to the student survey as well. Teachers can complete these surveys on their own time as we anticipate it taking 30-45 minutes. Each teacher who participates, whether it is filling out surveys or collecting consents, will be compensated $20 for their time.

The information we collect will be kept private and will be used only by myself, Dr. Handy, and the other trained research assistants. Each student will be given an identification number and this number will be used instead of names for recording information. The students' individual responses will not be shared with you or other school personnel. Student responses are strictly confidential. None of the information we collect will become part of the adolescent's school file. Individual responses will not be identifiable in any reports resulting from this study.

Our goal is to learn more about students' and teachers' feelings on school safety and school safety prevention efforts at their school. We hope that all students and teachers will want to participate and will enjoy the experience. However, if any student decides not to participate or does not receive parental consent, we would suggest that you provide alternate activities within the classroom, or allow students to read or do homework.

Regardless of your decision, please complete the attached form and return it to me in the envelope provided as soon as possible. Participation in this study will not affect your current or future relationship with Washington State University or your affiliated school. I would be happy to answer any questions you or your students might have about the study. Please feel free to call or email me or my advisor Dr. Handy. Thank you!

Sincerely,

Leslie Booren,   Deborah J. Handy, Ph.D.
Principal Researcher   Faculty Advisor

Please complete the following and return this form to Washington State University in the envelope provided as soon as possible. Thanks you!

_____ I volunteer to take part in this research by distributing and collecting parental consent forms, helping administer surveys, and by completing the teacher survey. This study has been explained to me. I have had a chance to ask questions. If I have general questions about the research, I can ask one of the researchers listed above. If I have questions regarding my rights as a participant, I can call the WSU Institutional Review Board at (509)335-9661. This project has been reviewed and approved for human participation by the WSU IRB.

_____ I do not wish to participate.

Name (Please print):_____

Signature: _____Date:_____

Investigator's Signature:_____Date:_____

Principal Consent Form

Dear Principal,

My name is Leslie Booren and I am a graduate student working with Dr. Deborah Handy in the Human Development Department at Washington State University. I am the principal investigator for a research study about school safety. The goal of this study is to find out more about students' and teachers' feelings and perceptions regarding school safety.

The study is simple and will take place at school during the regular school day. If you agree to participate in the study, your assistance will be needed in two ways. First, we would like you to complete a questionnaire about school safety perceptions and practices. This questionnaire will take about 45 minutes to complete. Secondly, we would like to know if your school would be interested in participating in a larger study in which all students and teachers would be asked to complete questionnaires regarding their perceptions of school safety and school safety practices. We will need teachers' help to distribute and collect parental consent forms, and answer any questions about the project. We will provide all materials. The student questionnaires will take approximately 15-30 minutes to complete.

If you will agree to let the teachers and staff in your school consider participation in the study, a time for the data collection will be scheduled at the convenience of the school and teachers' schedules so that we interfere the least with instructional time. The questions asked on the survey will be the same for all students and teachers who participate.

We will be asking students questions about violence prevention strategies that they would like to see implemented in this school, as well as questions about violence exposure and school climate. We believe that there are relatively few risks associated with this study for you and your students. As with all studies in which adolescents are asked to report on private information (i.e., their feelings), there may be the risks associated with revealing personal or sensitive information. A student may withdraw his/her participation from the study at any time. All students will be given a small gift (i.e., a sticker or pencil promoting the STOP the Violence program) for their participation in the study. All teachers within the school will be asked to complete surveys similar to the student survey as well. Teachers can complete these surveys on their own time as we anticipate it taking 30-45 minutes. Each teacher who participates, whether it is filling out surveys or collecting consents, will be compensated $20 for their time.

The information we collect will be kept private and will be used only by myself, Dr. Handy, and the other trained research assistants. Each student will be given an identification number and this number will be used instead of names for recording information. The students' individual responses will not be shared with you or other school personnel. Student responses are strictly confidential. None of the information we collect will become part of the adolescent's school file. Individual responses will not be identifiable in any reports resulting from this study.

Our goal is to learn more about students' and teachers' feelings on school safety and school safety prevention efforts at their school. We hope that all students and teachers will want to

participate and will enjoy the experience. However, if any student decides not to participate or does not receive parental consent, we would suggest alternate activities within the classroom.

Regardless of your decision, please complete the attached form and return it to me in the envelope provided as soon as possible. Participation in this study will not affect your current or future relationship with Washington State University. I would be happy to answer any questions you or your students might have about the study. Please feel free to call or email me or my advisor Dr. Handy. Thank you!

Sincerely,

Leslie Booren,   Deborah J. Handy, Ph.D.
Principal Researcher   Faculty Advisor

Please complete the following and return this form to Washington State University in the envelope provided as soon as possible. Thanks you!

_____ I volunteer to take part in this research by completing the school safety survey, and allowing the teachers and students at this school to consider participation in the study. This study has been explained to me. I have had a chance to ask questions. If I have general questions about the research, I can ask one of the researchers listed above. If I have questions regarding my rights as a participant, I can call the WSU Institutional Review Board at (509)335-9661. This project has been reviewed and approved for human participation by the WSU IRB.

Please explain any restrictions in your school, if any, for participation in this project (i.e., only teachers, or only the 9th grade, etc.):
_____
_____
_____

_____ I do not wish to participate, nor to ask my students and teachers to participate in this study.

Name (Please print):_____

Signature: _____Date:_____

School Name: _____ City: _____

Investigator's Signature:_____Date:_____

Appendix E

IRB Approval and Modification Memorandums

MEMORANDUM

TO: Leslie M Booren
Human Development, WSU Pullman (4852)

FROM: Malathi Jandhyala (for) Kris Miller, Chair, WSU Institutional Review Board (3140)

DATE: 7 August 2006

SUBJECT: Approved Human Subjects Protocol - New Protocol

Your Human Subjects Review Summary Form and additional information provided for the proposal titled *"An Exploration of the Relationship Between Students and Teachers' Perceptions of School-Wide Prevention Indicators, and School Safety ,"* IRB File Number **9234**-a was reviewed for the protection of the subjects participating in the study. Based on the information received from you, the WSU-IRB **approved** your human subjects protocol on **7 August 2006**.

IRB approval indicates that the study protocol as presented in the Human Subjects Form by the investigator, is designed to adequately protect the subjects participating in the study. This approval does not relieve the investigator from the responsibility of providing continuing attention to ethical considerations involved in the utilization of human subjects participating in the study.

This approval expires on 6 August 2007. If any significant changes are made to the study protocol you must notify the IRB before implementation. Request for modification forms are available online at http://www.ogrd.wsu.edu/Forms.asp.

In accordance with federal regulations, this approval letter and a copy of the approved protocol must be kept with any copies of signed consent forms by the principal investigator for THREE years after completion of the project.

Washington State University is covered under Human Subjects Assurance Number FWA00002946 which is on file with the Office for Human Research Protections.

If you have questions, please contact the Institutional Review Board at (509) 335-9661. Any revised materials can be mailed to the Research Compliance Office (Campus Zip 3140), faxed to (509) 335-1676, or in some cases by electronic mail, to *irb@mail.wsu.edu*.

Review Type: NEW   OGRD No.: NF
Review Category: EXP   Agency: NA
Date Received: 6 July 2006

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iacuc@wsu.edu • ibc@wsu.edu • irb@wsu.edu • www.research-compliance.wsu.edu

102

MEMORANDUM

TO: Leslie M Booren
Human Development, WSU Pullman (4852)

FROM: Malathi Jandhyala **(for)** Kris Miller, Chair, WSU Institutional Review Board *MEJ*

DATE: 19 October 2006

SUBJECT: Review of Protocol Modification - Modification

Your proposal to modify the protocol titled ***"An Exploration of the Relationship Between Students and Teachers' Perceptions of School-Wide Prevention Indicators, and School Safety ,"*** IRB File Number **9234**-b was reviewed for the protection of the subjects participating in the study. Based on the information received from you, the IRB has **approved** your modification request on **17 October 2006**. This modification includes changes in the survey questions.

IRB approval indicates that the modifications described to the previously approved study protocol are designed to adequately protect the subjects participating in the study. This approval does not relieve the investigator from the responsibility of providing continuing attention to ethical considerations involved in the utilization of subjects participating in the study.

The approval for this protocol expires 6 August 2007. If any more changes are made to the study protocol you must notify the IRB and receive approval before implementation.

If you have questions, please contact the Institutional Review Board at OGRD (509) 335-9661. Any revised materials can be mailed to Research Compliance Office (Campus Zip 3140), faxed to (509) 335-1676, or in some cases by electronic mail, to *irb@wsu.edu*.

Review Type: MOD   OGRD No.: NF
Review Category: EXP   Agency: NA
Date Received: 9 October 2006

MEMORANDUM

TO: Leslie M Booren
            Human Development, WSU Pullman (4852)

FROM: Malathi Jandhyala **(for)** Kris Miller, Chair, WSU Institutional Review Board

DATE: 7 November 2006

SUBJECT: Review of Protocol Modification - Modification

Your proposal to modify the protocol titled *"An Exploration of the Relationship Between Students and Teachers' Perceptions of School-Wide Prevention Indicators, and School Safety ,"* IRB File Number 9234-c was reviewed for the protection of the subjects participating in the study. Based on the information received from you, the IRB has **approved** your modification request on **7 November 2006**. This modification includes the addition of a qaulitative question on the survey, and a rewording of "violence prevention" to "school safety.".

IRB approval indicates that the modifications described to the previously approved study protocol are designed to adequately protect the subjects participating in the study. This approval does not relieve the investigator from the responsibility of providing continuing attention to ethical considerations involved in the utilization of subjects participating in the study.

The approval for this protocol expires 6 August 2007. If any more changes are made to the study protocol you must notify the IRB and receive approval before implementation.

If you have questions, please contact the Institutional Review Board at OGRD (509) 335-9661. Any revised materials can be mailed to Research Compliance Office (Campus Zip 3140), faxed to (509) 335-1676, or in some cases by electronic mail, to *irb@wsu.edu.*

Review Type: MOD   OGRD No.: NF
Review Category: EXP   Agency: NA
Date Received: 6 November 2006

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104

MEMORANDUM

TO: Leslie M Booren
Human Development, WSU Pullman (4852)

FROM: Malathi Jandhyala **(for)** Kris Miller, Chair, WSU Institutional Review Board *MaJ*

DATE: 19 December 2006

SUBJECT: Review of Protocol Modification - Modification

Your proposal to modify the protocol titled   *"An Exploration of the Relationship Between
Students and Teachers' Perceptions of School-Wide Prevention Indicators, and School
Safety ,"*   IRB File Number   **9234**-d was reviewed for the protection of the subjects participating in
the study. Based on the information received from you, the IRB has **approved** your modification
request on **18 December 2006**. This modification includes additional compensation.

IRB approval indicates that the modifications described to the previously approved study protocol are
designed to adequately protect the subjects participating in the study. This approval does not relieve
the investigator from the responsibility of providing continuing attention to ethical considerations
involved in the utilization of subjects participating in the study.

The approval for this protocol expires 6 August 2007. If any more changes are made to the study
protocol you must notify the IRB and receive approval before implementation.

If you have questions, please contact the Institutional Review Board at OGRD (509) 335-9661. Any
revised materials can be mailed to Office of Research Assurances (Campus Zip 3140), faxed to (509)
335-1676, or in some cases by electronic mail, to *irb@wsu.edu*.

Review Type: MOD   OGRD No.: NF
Review Category: EXP   Agency: NA
Date Received: 15 December 2006

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105

Appendix F

Research Assistant Training:

Script for Data Collection

School Safety Project Training

The purpose of this training is to insure that every research assistant involved in the School Safety Project knows the reasoning, procedures, and protocols behind administering this project. In this way, we will protect the privacy and confidentiality of our participants and the integrity of the data that we gather in our research in the public schools.

What are we gathering?
We are gathering data on student and teacher perceptions of school safety and climate.

Why are we gathering this data?
This research is aimed at examining the correlates of teachers' and students' feeling of school safety and school climate. It will be used to report to the state office and possibly for future scholarly publications.

Where are we gathering this data?
A number of high schools in the state of Washington with successful FCCLA programs.

How will we be gathering this data?
We will be gathering this information by going into classrooms of teachers who agreed to be in the project. Teachers will first introduce the project to the students, send home consent forms with them, gather the consents, and then we will set up a time to do the assessment and actually administer the questionnaires to the students with parental consent.

First in classroom:
- ❑ Introduce yourself to teacher, explain that you are here to do the School Safety Project.
- ❑ If you need more forms or have any questions you are uncomfortable asking, please contact _____.

Student Surveys:
- ❑ Ask teacher if there are any additional student consents that have been turned in.
- ❑ Make any appropriate changes (additional students with consent forms, absent students, problems, etc.) on the updated white consent list stapled to the left side of the manila folder.
- ❑ Ask teacher if he/she has another activity for students to work on if they are not participating in the study. If not, offer the Sudoku puzzles in the envelope. The blue copy has the puzzle solutions and can be left with the teacher. The puzzles could also be available for students to work on when they complete the survey while others are finishing up.
- ❑ Ask students to clear their desks and take out a pen/pencil.
- ❑ Ask teacher to assist in passing out surveys. The names of students who returned their consent forms are printed on the surveys.

- ❑ Call students' attention to the assent form on the first page, have each student read this silently, and then sign if willing to participate.
- ❑ Highlight these points from the assent form:
  - ❑ There is a definition page at the end of the survey if you are confused about any words.
  - ❑ It's important to keep your answers confidential.
  - ❑ Please do not share your answers with anyone else, even after we leave.
  - ❑ Please do not talk to everyone during the survey.
  - ❑ Be as honest as you can. Remember there are no wrong or right answers. We want to know how you really feel.
  - ❑ We are not going to share your answers with anyone, not your teacher, not your classmates, and not your parents.
  - ❑ We will return to share the results of the study in the spring – individuals will not be singled out in this process.
  - ❑ Please raise your hand if you have questions throughout the survey.
- ❑ If a student wants to complete the survey, but has not returned a consent form, allow him/her to complete the survey, if there are extras.
- ❑ IF YOU need extra surveys please call
  _____. IF you have any questions or problems you are uncomfortable addressing please call
  _____.
- ❑ Also, if needed, please make note on individual surveys of any problems (students who really had difficulty understanding or took little to no care in responding – may finish in just a couple of minutes).
- ❑ When the students are finished, collect all surveys and put back in brown envelope.
- ❑ Pass out an FCCLA pencil to **ALL** of the students in the class, even those who did not participate (or give to teacher to pass out at a more convenient time).
- ❑ Thank all the students in attendance.

Teacher Surveys:
- ❑ Ask teacher if his/her consent form, survey and payment receipt are finished (they should have received a copy last week in their mailbox, if they need another copy make a note on the white consent form on the left side of the file folder). These (if needed) will be put in the teacher's mailboxes.
- ❑ If any of these documents (consent form, survey, payment receipt) are completed, collect them and put them in the brown envelope on top of the student surveys. Look over the payment receipt to make sure the teacher has **completely** filled out the form.
  - ❑ Emphasize that the consent and receipt forms NEED to be completed and returned with the survey in order to receive payment for participation.