Spring 1-2020

A Study to Investigate the Relationship Between Teacher Self-Efficacy, School Climate, and Student Behavior

GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El
Lindenwood University

A Study to Investigate the Relationship Between Teacher Self-Efficacy, School Climate, and Student Behavior

by

GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El

January 2020

A dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of Lindenwood University in the partial fulfillment for the degree of

Doctor of Education

School of Education

A Study to Investigate the Relationship Between
Teacher Self-Efficacy, School Climate, and Student Behavior

by

GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El

This dissertation has been approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

at Lindenwood University by the School of Education

Jill Hutcheson — 3/27/2020

Dr. Jill Hutcheson, Dissertation Chair — Date

Kevin Winslow — 3/27/2020

Dr. Kevin Winslow, Committee Member — Date

Cecil Fore — 3/27/2020

Dr. Cecil Fore, Committee Member — Date

Jacquelyn Lewis-Harris — 3/30/2020.

Dr. Jacquelyn Lewis-Harris, Committee Member — Date

Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work here at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree here or elsewhere.

Full Legal Name: GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El

Signature

January 9, 2020

Date

Acknowledgments

"Character cannot be developed in ease and quiet. Only through (the) experience of trial and suffering can the soul be strengthened, ambition inspired, and success achieved"
-- Helen Keller.

To say that this journey has been challenging would be a grave understatement. This journey has been riddled with an abundance of trials and tribulations in both my personal and professional life. However, through the grace and mercy of God, the support and encouragement of my mother, Dr. Odesa Weatherford-Jacobs, and the loving patience of my three children, LauRence, Justin, and Hannah, I have not only persisted and persevered through this most humbling experience, but I have emerged as a more disciplined person, focused more than ever on using the knowledge and skills gained from my work and educational experiences to support and uplift underprivileged communities.

I want to express my sincerest thanks to each of my committee members. I would like to thank Dr. Jill Hutcheson, my committee chair for advising me throughout this entire process and never losing faith in me. I would also like to thank Dr. Kevin Winslow for helping me make meaning out of statistics. And I want to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Jacquelyn Lewis-Harris and Dr. Cecil Fore for believing in this research from the very beginning, and supporting and encouraging me along the way. I would also like to thank Olivia White my friend and mentor of 20 years and Sue Hoffman, my friend and mentor of 5 years for always being there for me and seeing potential in me when I did not see it in myself.

Abstract

This quantitative study examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, student behavior, and school climate at a high school in Southern Illinois. The teaching staff, which consisted of 59 teachers, were invited to participate. The researcher utilized a teacher self-efficacy survey, school climate survey, and student behavior survey to collect data on a sample population of teachers. Participants completed the surveys in intervals. The surveys allowed the researcher to collect attitudinal data from participants for dissemination and analysis to develop statistical inferences and generalizations about the sample related to the hypotheses statements and based on the results. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (PPMC) test was used to measure the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. In the case of each of the three hypothesis statements, the researcher failed to reject the null hypotheses and concluded that there was not a significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior.

The researcher also tested 29 subcategories of data using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC). The test revealed a significant relationship in one of the subcategories. An analysis of the subcategory of teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers between the ages of 40-49, showed the coefficient of correlation ($r = 0.636$) to be significant; $t(10) = 2.606$, $p = .0262$. Teachers in this subcategory represented 33% of the surveyed population. Of the teachers in this subcategory, 83% had taught more than 16 years. In consideration of these findings, recommendations for future studies include more research in the areas of teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior, particularly as it relates to teachers' age, level of education, and years of

teaching experience. Such research could provide insight into the professional needs of teachers at various stages of their teaching careers. Additionally, a causal-comparative study to determine whether a school's designation directly or indirectly influences teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and teacher perception of student behavior would yield meaningful data. It would also be advantageous to facilitate this study across the state and in multiple school districts to determine possible geographic and demographic similarities, and differences exist.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter One

Background of Study

The need to broaden the conceptual knowledge of teacher self-efficacy, student behavior, and school climate, respectively, has substantially influenced educational research. Questions related to these areas of interest have guided the work of educational theorists for more than half a century. A recent search of the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) showed that in the last two decades alone, more than 62,454 publications related to these topics had been made accessible via the ERIC database. These publications have provided valuable insight into each of these matters and have presented significant findings that have influenced school policies aimed at promoting both student and teacher success.

The enormous amount of existing literature on teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior is symbolic of the ongoing quest of the educational community to develop a deeper understanding of how these variables contribute to the school environment. However, the researcher is unaware of any existing studies designed to investigate the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. This research is significant because there is a noticeable gap in the literature concerning the relationship between these variables. While current research has not established a relationship between these variables, each of the research variables in this study share overarching themes which include the importance of relationships, the quality of classroom instruction; the supportiveness of the school environment, and the capacity to galvanize parental support and involvement. School officials can use the evidence collected from this study to support teachers and guide aspects of school improvement.

Chapter One establishes the theoretical framework for this study. Chapter One also provides historical context and theoretical perspective, elaborated on in Chapter Two.

Teacher self-efficacy is associated with the level of confidence a teacher has in their ability to promote student learning (Protheroe, 2008). During the mid-20th century, the construct of teacher self-efficacy began to emerge from Rotter's 1966 Locus of Control Theory, and Bandura's 1977 Self-Efficacy Theory. Rotter's Locus of Control Theory asserted that an individual's beliefs about their ability to control factors to achieve the desired outcome impacted their self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura's 1977 Self-Efficacy Theory, contended that a person's efficacy beliefs culminated in their perception of their ability to successfully perform the behavior(s) required to produce the desired outcome(s). The conceptual understanding of teacher self-efficacy continues to evolve. It remains fundamentally important to the developing understanding of how teacher belief systems shape their perception of their ability to promote student learning (Harris, 2010). According to Pendergast, Garvis, and Keogh (2011):

> Teacher self-efficacy is an important motivational construct that shapes teacher effectiveness in the classroom. Teachers with high levels of teacher self-efficacy tended to be more resilient in their teaching and likely to try harder to help all students to reach their potential. In contrast, teachers with low levels of self-efficacy tended to be less likely to work harder to meet the learning needs of all their students (Pendergast et al., 2011, p. 46).

Teacher self-efficacy is a critical mediating factor between a school's climate and an institution's overall educational effectiveness (Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003). One of the first books to explore topics related to the developing theory of school climate, titled,

"*The Management of a City School*," was written by Arthur C. Perry's, and was published in 1908. In his book, written more than 100 years ago, Perry provided a framework for creating a positive school climate by defining the role of the school principal, teachers, and other stakeholders in creating a school environment conducive to serving children. Additionally, in this publication, Perry effectually reminds the reader that public schools existed to serve children (Perry, 1908).

In some instances, however, student misbehaviors have interfered with even the best intentions of schools, which at the onset of the early establishment of the American educational system included teaching students about citizenship, appropriate social interactions, and how to be responsible and respectful members of society. It was the opinion of early educators that misbehavior required a swift and sobering response. Consequently, school officials often resorted to corporal punishment or other physical forms of discipline, such as kneeling on sharp objects or standing for long periods. Education reformers like Horace Mann called these types of disciplinary measures, a relic of barbarism and argued that students should instead learn to monitor and regulate their behavior (Katz, 2019).

Student behavior affects both teacher self-efficacy and school climate. (Aldrup, Klusmann, Ludtke, Gollner, & Tratwein, 2018). To address the issue of problematic student behavior, school districts across the nation resorted to excluding insubordinate students from school. Since 1970 exclusionary discipline practices have increased at an alarming rate (Losen & Skiba, 2013). During the 2009-2010 academic school year, three million children, grades K-12, lost classroom instructional time as a result of exclusionary discipline practices (Losen & Gillespie, 2012). In 2012, the American

Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) issued a policy statement concerning out of school suspensions and expulsions. In that statement, the AAP explained how the Gun-Free Schools Act of 1994 led to the adoption of zero-tolerance policies by school districts across the nation. Stakeholders widely embraced these policies and viewed them as a way to address various types of violent and non-violent student infractions. However, these types of exclusionary practices "did not consider the extenuating and mitigating circumstances of each case" (Out-of-School Suspension and Expulsion, 2013, p e1001).

The troubling reality of out-of-school suspensions and expulsions was that these practices had been ineffective, and no data existed, indicating that exclusionary discipline practices had reduced the number of school-wide discipline infractions or improved school climate. On the contrary, existing data suggested a negative relationship between exclusionary discipline practices, student learning outcomes, and school climate (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.). Moreover, exclusionary discipline practices tended to place students back into the same environment that may have initially contributed to the misbehavior or misconduct. These factors repudiated the effectiveness of the argument of a lesson learned from out-of-school suspension or expulsion from school (Out-of-School Suspension and Expulsion, 2013). The AAP contended that suspension and expulsion policies had been harmful to children, and disproportionately affected minority students (Out-of-School Suspension and Expulsion, 2013). Data collected on national suspension rates revealed that 1 out of every 6 African American children in grades K-12 had been suspended at least once (Losen & Gillespie, 2012). According to the United States Department of Education (USDE), Office for Civil Rights, African American students

"were suspended or expelled at a rate three times" higher than their European American peers (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.).

Illinois students lost 1,117,453 days of school during the 2010-2011 school year due to exclusionary actions. Ninety-five percent of the infractions for which Illinois students received an exclusionary consequence classified as minor offenses ("Law Addressing Racial Disparities in School Discipline Goes into Effect," 2016). In response to these alarming statistics, Illinois passed Senate Bill 100 with bipartisan support. Governor Bruce Rauner signed the bill into law on August 24, 2015, effective September 15, 2016. The legislation required "school boards to include in a written expulsion decision specific reasons why expulsion was in best interest of the school and a rationale as to the specific duration of the expulsion" (Bartz, 2017. Para, 5). The legislation also prohibited "zero-tolerance discipline policies"; and "requires school districts to create a policy to facilitate the re-engagement of suspended or expelled students" (Bartz, 2017. Para 5.). Additionally, the legislation "Requires school districts to create policy by which suspended students shall have the opportunity to make up work for equivalent academic credit" (Bartz, 2017. Para 5.).

It is the opinion of the researcher, a school administrator, that reducing the rate of exclusionary discipline practices alone does not negate the need for students to abide by school rules. It is also the opinion of the researcher that school rules are policies and procedures designed to ensure that school facilities are safe and operate efficiently. Policies and procedures created by schools and school districts contribute to a school's environment. According to the National Center for Safe Supportive Learning Environments, factors that influence school climate include the supportiveness of the

academic community, and the quality of classroom instruction ("School Climate Measurement," n.d.). The National School Climate Center reported a clear correlation between positive school climate and low student dropout rates, a decrease in incidences of school violence, and increased student academic success (National School Climate Center, n.d.). Gregory, Cornell, & Fan (2012) found that a positive school climate fostered increased trust between students and teachers. The research team also found a positive school climate correlated with fewer incidents of disruptive behavior and higher levels of cooperation and increased teacher self-efficacy (Gregory et al., 2012).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate teacher perception of teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior at a high school located in Southern Illinois. Using survey instruments that included nominal, interval/ratio, and ordinal scales, the researcher collected relevant data from a sample of teachers. The teacher self-efficacy survey asked participants' specific questions about their perception of their ability to influence school-wide decision making and create a positive school climate. The questionnaire also asked teachers about their views on their instructional efficacy and their impression of their ability to galvanize parental support and involvement. The school climate survey questioned teachers on the effectiveness of school leadership and the supportiveness of the school environment. The school climate survey also inquired about the ambitiousness of classroom instruction. The student behavior survey queried about the frequency of specific disruptive behaviors and the proportion of instructional time teachers expended contending with student misbehavior. The student behavior survey also asked about the quality of support teachers received in

managing student behavior, the effects of student misbehavior on teacher well-being, and teacher knowledge and perception of restorative practices. Data collected from the surveys were analyzed to determine if relationships between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior existed. School districts can use the finding of this research to develop data-driven, research-based strategies to address issues related to teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student discipline, to improve the work environment for teachers, and the quality of education for students. Knowledge gained from this study might also inspire future research in a related field of study.

Rationale

Studies related to teacher efficacy, student behavior, and school climate continue to remain at the forefront of educational research and yield findings that are fundamentally important to both student and teacher success. Highly efficacious teachers were found to experience more job satisfaction and remain in the teaching profession (Kuusinen, 2016). In contrast, teachers with low self-efficacy were apt to be less satisfied and contemplated leaving the teaching profession. Moreover, teachers who experienced a diminished sense of self-efficacy were likely to be negatively impacted by issues related to student discipline and classroom management (Lacks, 2016).

Oliver, Wehby, and Reschly (2011) wrote:

> Teachers who have significant problems with behavior management and classroom discipline often report high levels of stress and symptoms of burnout and are frequently ineffective. The ability of teachers to organize classrooms and manage the behavior of their students is critical to achieving both positive educational outcomes for students and teacher retention (p. 6).

To this end, teachers who experienced difficulty managing student behaviors described disruptive student conduct as sometimes being difficult to bear and stressful (Sun & Shek, 2012). Specifically, when faced with insulant and brazen student behavior in the classroom, teacher morale was negatively affected. When teacher morale became compromised due to student behavioral issues, teacher self-efficacy declined, causing the teacher to become less effectual in their practices (Ford, 2012). Teachers with low self-efficacy were more prone to feelings of anger, embarrassment, and guilt related to student misbehavior. They also felt less confident about their capacity to manage student misbehavior, which led to teacher burnout and contributed to teacher attrition, consequently culminating in high national cost related to hiring and training new teachers (Hicks, 2012).

Disruptive student behavior impacts teacher self-efficacy and student learning and, therefore, cannot be ignored. Traditionally school districts have opted to deal with such misconduct via exclusionary discipline practices, which have increasingly become recognized as being ineffective and even harmful. Exclusionary discipline practices began as early as pre-school. Preschoolers were more likely to be expelled than children in any other grade. (Malik, 2017). Nationwide, 2.8 million K-12 students received one-or-more out of school suspensions. Such practices disproportionately impacted students with disabilities and students of color. According to the U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights, Black students experienced suspension and expulsion 3.8 times more often than White students. Also, students with disabilities were twice as likely to receive an out-of-school suspension as their non-disabled peers (U.S. Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, 2016). Furthermore, according to the U.S. Department

of Education and U.S. Department of Justice, (2014), studies have shown a connection between exclusionary discipline practices and a range of adverse educational, economic, and social challenges.

The incontrovertible fact is that low teacher efficacy and problematic student behavior work against the constructs of a positive school climate comprised of positive interpersonal relationships and a safe and supportive learning environment for teachers and students. School climate affects many aspects of the school community. Positive school climate is associated with fewer behavioral and emotional problems for students (Kuperminc, Leadbeater, Emmons, & Blatt, 1997). School climate studies suggest that positive interpersonal relationships and optimum learning conditions for students result in increased academic achievement, and a reduction in maladaptive behavior (McEvoy & Welker, 2000). Concerning teachers and school climate, Taylor and Tashakkori (1995) found a positive school climate to be associated with increased job satisfaction amongst teachers.

Research has established the critical role of school climate in determining the effectiveness of schools. Student perception of school climate influenced student academic performance, student behavior, and student emotional well-being (Loukas, 2007, p. 3). According to the National School Climate Center, reduced dropout rates, fewer incidences of school violence, and increased student academic success are associated with a positive school climate (National School Climate Center, n.d.). Gregory et al. (2012) found a positive school climate fostered increased trust between students and teachers and resulted in fewer incidents of disruptive behavior and higher levels of cooperation.

Much of the existing research on school climate has been student-centered, with less consideration to teacher perception of school climate (Gregory, et al. p 1). By shifting the focus to teacher perceptions of school climate, Gregory, et al. (2012) made a significant discovery noting that teachers, who were victims of threats of violence and abusive language carried out by students, were more likely to experience mental health issues or teacher burnout. These teachers were also more likely to have a diminished sense of self-efficacy. They were also more likely to experience less job satisfaction and unsatisfactory job performance. The researchers suggested that this problem stemmed from school climate and that by establishing a supportive and responsive school climate, both students and teachers alike could benefit (Gholami, 2015).

Over the last five years, the participating high school has continuously failed to meet the minimum performance expectations established by the state of Illinois. The school's underwhelming levels of attainment culminated in a state-issued summative designation of underperforming in 2018. ISBE assigns this designation to schools in which one or more student groups performed below the level of the all students group in the lowest-performing 5%. Each year the state of Illinois publishes school data in the Illinois School Report Card. Data published in the 2018 Illinois State School Report Card revealed several areas of concern that contributed to the school designation as underperforming. Areas of interest for the participating high school included teacher and student attendance, and student academic performance. (Illinois State Board of Education, n.d.).

ISBE identified teacher attendance as being vital to student success. Teachers who showed up to work regularly provided continuous and consistent instruction to students.

Additionally, teachers with regular attendance were more aware of the individual needs of students. At the participating high school, 46% of the teachers missed ten or more days compared to the state average of 17%. When teachers missed ten or more days, student achievement decreased significantly. (Illinois State Board of Education, n.d.). Educators and state policymakers alike have also emphasized the importance of student attendance. ISBE's attendance policy stated that students who miss 18 or more school days or 10% of the school year (based on a 180-day school calendar) with or without a valid excuse were considered chronically absent. In the participating school district, 75% of the students were considered chronically absent compared to the state average of 17%. According to ISBE, students require daily instruction to succeed academically. Furthermore, chronically absent students stood a higher risk of experiencing both academic and social issues (Cahokia High School, n.d.).

Illinois Public Act 100-0222 requires students who attend Illinois high schools to take the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT). Schools across Illinois administer the test to 11th-grade students. Students must take the SAT to receive a high school diploma unless the student is identified as eligible to participate in an alternative assessment or is exempt from all testing (Illinois State Board of Education, n.d.). The SAT assesses student academic competencies in the areas of Math and English Language Arts. The test is used by educational institutions to determine a student's level of college readiness (Secure-media.collegeboard.org, 2019). In the participating school district in 2018, 3.8% of students met the established minimum for proficiency in ELA compared to the state average for school districts of 36.9%. In math, 1.1% of the students met the set minimum

for competency compared to the overall state average for school districts of 34.3% (Illinois State Board of Education, n.d.).

Perhaps the most alarming data collected by ISBE on the participating high school was the number of out of schools suspensions assigned to students at the high school. Of the 883 students enrolled at the participating high school students received a cumulative 1291 days of out of school suspensions causing the high school to rank in the top 20% of the 97 high schools in the state of Illinois for issuing out of school suspensions (Illinois State Board Of Education, n.d.).

This study to investigate the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, school climate and student behavior provided insight into how teachers at a high school in Southern Illinois felt about their ability to influence school decision-making, create and promote a positive school climate, have autonomy over classroom instruction, teach students, and galvanize parental support. This study also provided perspective into how this group of teachers perceived the school's climate as it related to the effectiveness of school leaders, teacher collaboration, family involvement, and the supportiveness of the school community. Additionally this research provided insight into the types of student behavior teachers' at the participating high school dealt with most often and the amount of instructional time they spent managing student behavior. This study also questioned the extent to which student behavior affected teachers at the high school personally, as well as their views on restorative practices. The researcher's analysis of outcome data may lead to data-driven research-based strategies designed to address school climate issues and student discipline problems. It may also contribute to the creation of a

supportive and responsive work environment by improving the work environment for teachers, and the quality of education for students.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey

Hypothesis 3: There is a relationship between student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey.

Limitations

This study involved the use of three survey instruments, which used a combination of nominal, interval/ratio, and ordinal scales to collect data on the sample of teachers. Studies that utilize survey instruments limit the scope of a participant's response and, therefore, may not be fully representative of the respondent's viewpoint, which can result in overgeneralization of the data. There may also be limitations resulting from the participant's level of interest, and the amount of time they may invest in completing the survey. The researcher intended to create a sample of survey responses using a systematic sampling method. In this type of sampling, the researcher creates a sample of the population by selecting the first survey at a random starting point. Next, the researcher selects every nth person's survey response for analysis. For example, the researcher may begin counting at the 6th survey. The 6th survey then becomes the starting point and

essentially becomes number one. After that, the researcher selected every 4th person's survey responses for analysis (Patton, 2002). The researcher repeats the systematic sampling process until the researcher has generated the desired sample size. Teachers completed the surveys used in this study in intervals, which resulted in a loss of participants over time. The first survey administered was the teacher self- efficacy survey, which collected 54 responses. The second survey conducted was the school climate survey, which received 46 responses, and the third survey administered was the student behavior survey, which collected only 40 responses. The decline in the number of participants resulted in a reduction in the number of surveys that could be correlated. Because of the limited number of surveys that could be correlated random sampling was not feasible; therefore, all surveys that could be correlated were used (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). To further complicate the data collection process, the electronic survey instrument failed to collect email addresses of all the participants. Therefore, the researcher had to solicit assistance from the school district's technology department, which used IP addresses and participant login information to match surveys to participants.

Definition of Terms

For this study, the proceeding terms are defined as follows:

Academic and Instructional Environment: The academic and instructional environment of a school or classroom and consists of multiple, connected components, which include the quality instruction, expectations for academic attainment, student support systems, the availability of resources and materials, and teacher job satisfaction. (Safe Supportive Learning, n.d.)

Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE's): A term used to describe various forms of potentially traumatic experiences including abuse and neglect experienced by people under the age of 18 are linked to unhealthy habits and behaviors, chronic health conditions, and lower life expectancy. (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, n.d.).

Complex Trauma:

> Exposure to multiple traumatic events from an early age, often within the caregiving system or without adequate adult support, which has short and long-term effects in many areas. Examples of complex trauma include abuse and neglect within families, witnessing domestic violence, or experiencing other forms of violence or adversity without adequate adult support.
>
> (Trauma-Sensitive Schools Training Packet, n.d. p. 6)

Exclusionary Discipline: School disciplinary practices that exclude students from the general educational setting. Two of the most commonly used exclusionary discipline practices include suspension and expulsion. Exclusionary discipline practices are used to punish undesired behaviors, discourage similar behavior by other students, and encourage more appropriate behavior (Exclusionary Discipline, n.d.)

*Historical Trauma***:** The collective and cumulative trauma such as slavery, genocide, or forced relocation, experienced by a groups of people who continue to suffer the effects of trauma from generation to generation (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Association, n.d.).

Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE):

> A state agency that provides leadership and resources to achieve excellence across all Illinois districts through engaging stakeholders in formulating and advocating

> for policies that enhance education, empower districts, and ensure equitable outcomes for all students. (Illinois State Board of Education, n.d. Para. 1)

Institutional Environment: The physical environment includes the school building and the area surrounding it, and conditions such as temperature, noise, lighting, and air quality. The physical environment can positively or negatively impact student and teacher attitudes, as well as student achievement. (Illinois State Board of Education, n.d. para. 6)

Interpersonal Relationships: Social associations, connections, or affiliations between two or more people. (Farmer, Farmer, & Barrow, 2008, p. 123).

Mastery Experiences: Situations or experiences in which a person interprets the results of those experience and use that information to develop beliefs about their competency to engage similar activities. (Gavora, 2010).

Physiological and Affective State: Refers to the connection between the mind and the body and a person's mental and physical state of being (Bandura, 1994).

Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS):

> A data-based program based on a tri-level prevention system. PBIS focuses on the prevention of undesirable student behavior and promotes a productive and cooperative school environment conducive to learning. School faculty and staff work collaboratively to build a school-wide program that states the expectations for positive behavior and recognizes those when within the school community who meet those expectations (Sugai & Horner, 2006, p. 133).

Re-engagement: A re-entry plan for students who have been suspended or expelled, created through the collaborative efforts of relevant parties to address and remedy the situation that led up to exclusion from school. The desired outcome of a re-

engagement plan is to determine the best way to reconnect the student with the school community and get the student back on track with their education (Hoadley, 2016).

Restorative Justice: An alternative to exclusionary discipline practices centered on repairing the harm done when a member of the school community violates the school rules. Restorative Justice is used as a tool to support members of the school community in building healthy and positive relationships and address needs and challenges as they develop (American Association of School Administrators, 2014).

School Climate: The quality and character of the school's life. It is based on patterns of students', parents', and school personnel's experience of school life and reflects the norms, goals, values, interpersonal relationships, teaching, and learning practices, and organizational structures (School Climate - National School Climate Center, n.d. para 3).

School to Prison Pipeline: A metaphor used to describe the path from school to prison, which emerged as a result of zero-tolerance policies. These policies resulted in an increase in police presence in schools. The increase of law enforcement officers on school campuses, coupled with an increase in exclusionary practices by schools forced students out of school and increase the likelihood of multiple and ongoing interactions with the legal system (Crawley & Hirschfield, 2018).

Student Misbehaviors: Conduct that is deemed inappropriate in the classroom settings and disruptive to the teaching and learning process, such as talking out of turn, and disrespecting the teacher. Student misbehavior included those behaviors deemed a violation of the expectations of the teacher-student relationship, which include respect, conformity, and obedience in the classroom. (Sun & Shek, 2012)

Teacher Self-Efficacy: The beliefs teachers hold about their ability to teach and promote student learning influenced by mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and their psychological and affective state. (Morris, 2017)

Trauma: An event, series of events, or set of circumstances experienced by an individual as physically or emotionally harmful or life-threatening with lasting adverse effects on the individual's functioning and mental, physical, social, emotional, or spiritual well-being (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, n.d. para 1).

Vicarious Experiences: The process by which an individual learns from watching, observing, and modeling the successful practices of another. (Gavora, 2010)

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate teacher perception of self,-efficacy school climate, and student behavior. Society will benefit from this study because it will ignite a more rigorous conversation around teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior, and may result in improvements to teacher education and school leadership programs. Improvement in these programs may lead to increased teacher retention and an improved school environment for teachers and students that is more conducive to teaching and learning. This chapter provided an introduction of the study, a problem statement, and clarified the purpose of this study, stated the hypothesis, defined term, and noted the limitations of the study.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, student behavior, and school climate. Chapter Two provides a summary of existing literature that will aid in understanding this research. Specifically, this chapter explores the theoretical framework of self-efficacy and teacher self-efficacy, and the cultivation of efficaciousness through mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and a person's physiological and psychological state. Additionally, this chapter explores the issue of problematic student behavior and how it impacts the learning environment, school climate, and teacher- efficacy; and how traditional disciplinary practices have failed to address challenging student behavior adequately.

Furthermore, in consideration of recent reporting by the United States Department of Health and Human Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Service Administration, on the alarming number of children who have experienced multiple adverse childhood experiences, trauma is discussed as a potential root cause of student misbehavior in school. In response to this reporting, many schools have opted to become trauma-informed and are implementing restorative practices to address the complex social-emotional needs of students. Chapter Two provides an examination of efforts by school officials to understand the effects of trauma on students and to implement restorative practices. This chapter also examines the impact of these initiatives on student behavior, school climate, and teacher efficacy. Finally, in Chapter Two, the researcher discusses the school climate in the context of school leadership, interpersonal

relationships, the institutional and how these elements affect school climate, teacher efficacy, and student behavior.

Self-Efficacy

"Whether you think you can, or you think you can't, you're right"

–Henry Ford.

The construct of teacher self-efficacy developed out of the framework of Bandura's social cognitive theory and, to a more substantial degree, the concept of self-efficacy (Gavora, 2010). Social Cognitive Theory asserts that people learn not only from their own experiences, but also from observing others and that learning was affected by the reciprocal nature of cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors (Bandura, 1999). Bandura asserted that self-efficacy comprised of a person's belief regarding their capacity to influence events that affected them and exercise control over those events. Self-efficacy differed from the concept of self-esteem in that self-esteem referenced a person's general feelings of self-worth and self-value (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998). Bandura found beliefs about self-efficacy to be unique to each situation (Williams, 2010); for example, an individual's efficacious beliefs about their ability to learn to swim would be independent of their efficacious beliefs about their ability to learn to ride a bike. Therefore, a person may believe they can learn to swim but not to ride a bike; or the opposite may be true. Self-efficacy culminated in presumed beliefs about ability rather than actual ability (Artino, 2012), and markedly influenced a person's feelings, thoughts, and behaviors (Bandura 1994). According to self-efficacy theory, efficacy expectation had the proclivity to drive behaviors associated with a particular outcome; however, merely believing that a specific outcome was achievable through certain behaviors did

not mean that an individual consequently believed they had the capacity to engage in the behaviors necessary to achieve a particular outcome. To this end, efficacy expectations and outcome expectations demonstrated two independent types of expectancies. Efficacy expectations characterized by an individual's belief in their capacity to perform the necessary behavior or group of behaviors required to achieve the desired outcome. Efficacy expectations answered the question, "Can I do this?" for an individual. Outcome expectations characterized by a person's belief that behavior or a group of behaviors had the propensity to culminate in an expected result or outcome. Outcome expectations answered the question, "Will this work?" for an individual. Self-efficacy theory asserts that efficacy expectations causally influenced outcome expectancies and not the reverse (William 2010). (See Appendix L)

Mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, feedback received from others, and an individual's physiological and psychological state influenced efficacy expectations and contribute to the development of self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura suggested that the most effective way to develop positive beliefs about one's efficacy was through mastery experiences (Bandura, 1994). Mastery experiences resulted from authentic successes experienced in a particular situation. Such experiences bolstered efficacy esteem (Palmer, 2006). However, Bandura emphasized the importance of experiencing occasional failure. Colin Powell once said, "There are no secrets to success. It is the result of preparation, hard work, and learning from failure" (Harari, 2003, p 164). To this end, Bandura argued that occasionally enduring failure was essential to the development of self-efficacy because experiencing only success without failure voided an individual of the opportunity to learn resilience and perseverance (Bandura, 1994). However, experiencing

recapitulated failure was shown to effectually undermine a person's efficacy expectations causing goals to seem less attainable and breeding uncertainty about one's ability (Winch, 2015). Vicarious experiences or observing others, primarily those similar to oneself, achieving the desired outcome through sustained effort resulted in increased self-confidence and bolstered one's belief that they, too, could achieve that same outcome. However, seeing others whom the observer perceived to be similar to them in some form fail in the face of high efforts notably reduced the observer's self-confidence, negatively impacting their efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. The feedback received from others, or social persuasion resulted in heighten efficacy expectations by encouraging hard work and assuring the likelihood of success (Bandura, 1994).

Conversely, harsh criticism and negative feedback had an opposite effect, resulting in diminished efforts and abandonment of goals. A person's physiological and psychological state also influenced efficacy expectations. With regards to one's physical state, good health and a positive disposition enhanced a person's efficacy esteem, while poor health and a negative state of mind had the opposite effect (Artino, 2012).

Outcome expectations stemmed from the belief that a specific action or conduct would lead to the desired result or end goal (William, 2010). Outcome expectations are not causal determinants of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). A person's beliefs partly governed the effects of outcome expectancies on performance motivation regarding their ability and, to a lesser degree, what they expected the outcome to be (Schunk, 1989). Consequently, a person may be aware of the guaranteed value of the outcome yet still doubtful about their ability to achieve their goals. Although outcome expectations were not identified as causal determinates of self-efficacy, for the motivated individual

outcome expectations influenced the choices they made, the amount of effort they put into their goals, and how persistent they were in their efforts to attain their goals (Bandura, 1977). Shoffner, Newsome, and Barrio (2003) classified outcome expectations into three categories: physical outcomes, social approval outcomes, and self-satisfaction outcomes. Physical outcomes included the prospective impact on current or future earning potential, the likelihood of acquiring college scholarships and admissions opportunities, and the possibility of obtaining a specific career or better job opportunities. Social approval outcomes were described as being external by nature and included the prospect of heightened social status, the potential for receiving praise and recognition from others, or the acquisitions of awards or certificates. Self-satisfaction outcomes, fueled by internal motivators, were found to be connected to intellectual stimuli such as the prospect of gaining increased knowledge or competency. (Shoffner, et al., 2003). In reviewing the concept of outcome expectations, it is essential to note that some researchers like David M. Williams have challenged Bandura's theory on self-efficacy as it relates to the role of outcome expectancies. According to Williams, outcome expectations did causally influence self-efficacy. Williams suggested that this was especially true for goals that involved the regulation of specific behaviors rather than the attainment of specialized physical skills (Williams, 2010). (See Appendix M)

Teacher Self-Efficacy

The first instrument used to measure teacher self-efficacy was developed in 1976 by the Research and Development Corporation (RAND) as part of a study conducted in the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD). LAUSD had implemented its School Preferred Reading Program in 1972, and after three years of implementation, the district

expressed concerns over student reading proficiency, specifically amongst its inner-city minority students. In 1975, LAUSD commissioned the RAND to conduct a study to identify aspects of the reading program that had been most effective at increasing reading achievement amongst the identified population of students. At the school district's request, RAND launched a mixed-methods study to examine the reading program. The study included interviews with all the district's principals and reading specialists. Researchers also surveyed 81 of the district's 83, 6th grade teachers, from 20 of the district's elementary schools, who had taught the reading program all three years. RAND sought to collect information on school leadership, the reading program curriculum, classroom climate, teacher practices, and teacher traits (Armor, Conry-Oseguera, Cox, King, McDonnell, & Pascal, 1976). The instrument used in the study consisted of two questions designed to quantify teacher efficacy:

1. When it comes right down to it, a teacher cannot do much because a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her environment.) (This question intended to quantify the extent the teacher believed that student motivations fell outside of the scope of their control).
2. If I really try hard, I can get through to even the toughest students. (This question intended to quantify the extent to which teachers believed they could motivate students) (Armor et al., 1976, p, 73).

Rotter's Locus of Control Theory (LCT) influenced the design of these two questions. According to LCT, outcome expectations shaped a person's beliefs and the extent to which they believed they could influence the situations and events that affected their lives. Rotter's LCT proposed that a person might find both internal and external

agents of control to be potentially motivating. People driven by internal agents of control believed that their behaviors determined the good and bad that happen in their lives. People driven by peripheral agents of control believed that external forces beyond the scope of their governance determined their aftereffect (Morris, 2017). Until the late 1970s and early 1980s researchers commonly used the two survey questions developed by RAND in studies on teacher self-efficacy (Laughter, 2017). However, in the mid-1980s, researchers began to express concern with the construct validity and the reliability of measurement associated with RAND's two-item assessment instrument; subsequently, new tools for assessing teacher efficacy began to emerge (Henson 2001, Morris, 2017).

Bandura's seminal article titled, *Self-efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change,* debuted in 1977. It was through this article that Bandura introduced the construct of Social Cognitive Theory. This article would have enormous implications for proceeding research on self-efficacy. Whereas Rotter described efficacious behaviors as being motivated by outcome expectancies, Bandura instead claimed that outcome expectancies only inspired behavior when a person first believed themselves to be capable of performing the behavior. Bandura's research on self-efficacy dramatically influenced the study of teacher self-efficacy. (Morris, 2017). Teacher efficacy refers to a teacher's confidence in their capacity to promote student learning and engagement. Like self-efficacy, teacher self-efficacy was influenced by the teacher's past performances (mastery experiences), their vicarious experiences, the feedback they receive from others, and their physiological and psychological state.

Teacher self-efficacy is unique to each situation; for example, a teacher may believe they can teach the school curriculum, but they may not believe they can manage

the classroom behavior. Alternatively, a teacher may feel very confident about their ability to work with a particular group of students and less confident in their ability with different students. Teacher efficacy beliefs have far-reaching implications for the school community, particularly as it relates to school climate and teacher efficacy (Lack, 2016). It is evaluated by assessing how teachers feel about the effectiveness of school leadership; their relationships with students and staff; family and community involvement; safety and security of the school environment, and the overall utility of the academic environment (Klugman, Gordon, Sebring, & Sporte, 2015).

According to Gavora (2010), mastery experience are significant to development teacher self-efficacy. Mastery experiences in teaching are the result of a culmination of successful instructional endeavors that overtime corroborates one's teaching proficiency (Gavora, 2010). Continued success in the classroom resulted in increased teacher self-efficacy beliefs. For educators, mastery experiences pertained to teacher's perceived influence on their student's capacity to succeed in school and accomplish other goals. Specifically, when teachers observed their students on task and engaged during classroom activities, demonstrating a consistent understanding of the content presented in class, as well as successfully achieving ancillary goals, teachers were likely to conclude that they were effectual, crediting their mastery experiences, which in turn lead to increased efficaciousness (Morris, 2017). Conversely, a diminished sense of self-efficacy, gradually developed in teachers who found their pedagogical practices to be ineffectual (Shahzad & Naureen, 2017).

In the context of teacher self-efficacy, vicarious experiences refer to the process of watching and learning through the experiences of others (Shahzad & Naureen, 2017).

Teachers' believed vicarious experiences to be most meaningful when provided the opportunity to observe other more experienced educators recognized for their notable success in the classroom. Having the opportunity to watch skillful teachers facilitate classroom instruction influenced teachers' efficacious beliefs. The degree to which an educator gained valuable pedagogical strategies and content knowledge as a result of their observations could explain the connection between vicarious experiences and teaching self-efficacy (Morris, 2017). Although watching and learning from others positively impacted a person's sense of self-efficacy was, Bandura (1994) noted that vicarious experiences were even more impactful when the person observed was perceived to be similar to the observer in some way.

Social persuasion, which refers to the messages and feedback received from others regarding one's performance, was found to influence teacher's self-efficacy beliefs decisively. The value teachers placed on the feedback they received was dependent upon whom the message was from, when the message was received, and how the message was delivered. Social persuasion, in the form of feedback received from evaluators, students, and others whom the teacher perceived as being credible, significantly influenced teacher efficacy beliefs. Meaningful feedback and constructive criticism, in the early stages of a teacher's career, mainly when novice teachers had, experienced limited opportunities to evaluate their accomplishments, were viewed as being especially encouraging and useful when it was specific and believed to be sincere (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

It is unclear to what extent an individual's physiological and psychological states affect the development of teacher self-efficacy. According to Morris (2017), "methodological limitations have made it difficult to establish whether specific

physiological or emotional events serve primarily as antecedents or outcomes of teacher-efficacy" (p. 7). Nevertheless, the likely impact of a teacher's physiological and affective states should not be understated. In a 2017 quantitative study titled, *The Impact of Teacher Self-Efficacy on Secondary School Students' Academic Achievement*, researchers Khurran Shahzad and Sajida Naureen found that teachers, who expressed confidence and enthusiasm in their teaching, were apt also to experience higher levels of success in the classroom. On the contrary, teachers who exhibited depression or expressed anxiety about their teaching practices were likely to experience less success in the classroom (Shahzad & Naureen, 2017).

Furthermore, stress notably diminished teachers' confidence in their ability to manage student behavior. Anxiety caused by the challenges of managing student behaviors affected the confidence of teachers, leading to low self-esteem, and contributing to low self-efficacy (Laughter, 2017). Additionally, researcher India Ford found that under circumstances where teachers faced poor student behavior, indifference, or lack of motivation in the classroom, teacher self-confidence was negatively affected reciprocally impacting their self-efficacy, causing the teacher to become ineffectual in the classroom (Ford, 2012).

Teacher self -efficacy has proven to be a reliable indicator for the degree to which teachers gain satisfaction from their professional practices. Emin Türkoğlu, Cansoy, and Parlar (2017) conducted a relational study to investigate the connection between teacher efficacy and teacher job satisfaction. The study population consisted of 489 elementary, middle, and high school teachers in the Beyoğlu district of Istanbul, and revealed a significant positive relationship ($p < .05$) between teacher self-efficacy and teacher job

contentment. Specifically, teacher self-efficacy predicted job satisfaction. According to Emin Türkoğlu et al. (2017):

> There was a significant positive relationship between teacher efficacy and job satisfaction and teacher efficacy was a significant predictor of job satisfaction. The result of the study reveal that self-efficacy is important in terms of improving job and its quality, opportunities for development and promotion, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, and organizational setting. (p. 770, See Appendix N)

Teachers who communicated favorable views of their efficacy readily embraced professional development and were more willing to transfer what they learned to the classroom. Highly efficacious teachers were also more likely to seek ways to improve their teaching practices by exploring a variety of instructional methods and experimenting with a variety of instructional materials, resulting in increased competence and effectiveness in the classroom (Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003).

It is important to note that teacher efficacy and teacher effectiveness are not the same. Teacher's efficacy refers to a teacher's judgment about their ability to bring about desired student outcomes (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Teacher effectiveness is achieved through planning, preparations, and classroom management refers to a teacher's capacity to create a classroom environment that is conducive to learning. Teacher effectiveness culminates in the teacher's capacity to deliver instruction and effectually interact with students in order to regulate student learning (Dibapile, 2012).

Teachers with high self-efficacy generated better student outcomes because they tended to be more deliberate and persistent in their approach to helping struggling

students. Highly efficacious teachers were also less likely to be critical of students when they did not readily grasp new concepts or ideas. Teachers who experienced a heightened sense of self-efficacy were notably more organized, and more likely to engage in active classroom planning and preparation. Additionally, highly efficacious teachers conveyed higher expectations for themselves and their students (Protheroe, 2008).

Unlike teachers who exhibited high levels of self-efficacy, teachers who expressed diminished views of their teaching competencies were likely to experience job burnout (Smetackova, 2017). Job burnout occurred when a teacher remained employed but stopped functioning in a highly professional manner. Teachers who experienced burnout lacked ambition and commitment to a positive student outcome. Moreover, teachers who found student misbehavior, particularly stress-provoking, were more likely to report increased levels of work-related fatigue. Educators who experienced low self-efficacy possessed the mindset that no matter what they did, they could not significantly impact the lives of their students. Consequently, teachers who reach this point in their teaching career, either changed careers, leaving the teaching profession altogether or trudged through as an ineffective teacher until retirement (Ford 2012). In her book, *First Aid for Teacher Burnout*, Rankin (2017) cited the following statistics related to teacher burnout: In the United States, only 39% of US teachers reported being satisfied with the teaching profession (the lowest in 25 years); 73% of teachers reported they often experienced work-related stress, and 55% of teachers reported low morale. Additionally, according to Rankin, teacher attrition, which has risen by 41% over the last two decades, cost the United States up to $2,200,000,000 every year. Moreover, in high needs areas, teachers' job responsibilities and the intense push for teachers to meet them are found to

not be realistically sustainable for more than a short period (Zang & Zeller, 2016). Unsustainable conditions, which include inadequate resources, lack of support or time, large class sizes, extended work hours, and less time for planning and collaboration, contribute to the problem of teacher fatigue. Even when teachers are passionate, working in this very demanding environment can lead to mental and physical stress that is hard to combat, affecting one's attitude, making it hard to work with students all day, and diminishing one's efficacious beliefs (Rankin, 2017).

Research on teacher self-efficacy suggested that how a teacher felt about their ability to promote student learning was a reliable indicator of job satisfaction as well as their effectiveness as a teacher (Emin Türkoğlu et al., 2017). Furthermore, research proposed that teacher self-efficacy had significant implications for overall school effectiveness. Specifically, higher-performing schools had more teachers who exhibited high levels of teacher efficaciousness. Additionally, evidence suggests that teacher self-efficacy was a critical mediating factor between a school's climate and the institution's overall educational effectiveness (Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003).

Research yielded varying results with regards to student behavior and teacher efficacy. Dibapile (2012) found that teachers who lacked self-assuredness in their practices experience problems related to classroom management and discipline in the classroom, which lead to diminished self-efficacy beliefs. Researchers Bray-Clark and Bates (2003) found that teachers who experienced high levels of self-efficacy beliefs exhibited an increased capacity to respond appropriately to stressful and challenging situations. Additionally, literature cited by Edwin Laughter (2017), suggested that highly efficacious teachers were better equipped to handle student misbehaviors and maintain

order in the classroom, thus, allowing teachers to devote more time to classroom instruction and less time to managing student behavior. On the contrary, however, Laughter's quantitative correlational study to examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and discipline referrals generated dissimilar results. The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and discipline referrals. According to Laughter, discipline referrals provided insight into aspects of teacher experiences with student behavior, teacher efficacy, and school climate. Research participants in Laughter's study consisted of (N=98) secondary school teachers in a rural school district located in a southern state. The study population completed the *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale,* developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy in 2001. Laughter used Spearman's correlation coefficient to measure the relationship between predictor variables, which included student engagement, instructional practices, classroom management, and the criterion variable of discipline referrals. The results of this study failed to show a strong relationship between discipline referrals and teacher self-efficacy levels ([p (96) = .238, p > .0125].). The study outcome failed to support any suggestion that discipline referrals could be considered a reliable tool for conceivably predicting low teacher self-efficacy. Additionally, the results of the study failed to support any possibility of discipline referrals a reliable tool for identifying teachers who were unsatisfied with their jobs and, therefore, at-risk for leaving the field of education.

Student Behavior

"If kids come to us from strong, healthy functioning families, it makes our job easier. If they do not come to us from strong, healthy, functioning families, it makes our job more important" - Barbara Coloroso (as cited in Miller, 2013 p. 5).

Every day, teachers across the nation commit themselves to equip young people with the tools they need to be contributing and productive members of society. Unfortunately, the obstacles students face are becoming more complicated and more severe. Educators have reported an increased amount of instructional time spent addressing disciplinary and behavioral issues (Primary Sources, 2012). Inappropriate conduct displayed by students in school is not a new phenomenon. In fact, since the establishment of the public educational system, educators have reported problematic student behavior. (Morris & Howard, 2003). Specific types of problematic behavior included disruptive talking, chronic avoidance of work, clowning, interfering with teaching activities, harassing classmates, verbal insults, rudeness to teacher, defiance, and hostility. These behaviors ranged from occasional occurrences to frequent occurrences, which varied in intensity from mild to severe. Disruptive student misbehaviors notably impeded the efficiency and effectiveness of teaching and learning in the classroom (Sun & Shek, 2012).

When left unchecked, disruptive student behavior had the propensity to undermine the teacher's authority and overall capacity to control the group. When one or more students engaged in disruptive conduct or behavior, the learning process for other students was affected because it interfered with their ability to focus. When disruptions occurred, students became sidetracked by the behavior and forced to wait while the teacher addressed the behavior (Ford, 2013). Classroom disruptions resulted in the loss of instructional time and negatively impacted the classroom environment (Primary Sources, 2012). Furthermore, students profoundly influenced each other, and in some instances, where initially only one student was disruptive, other students followed suit engaging in

similar negative behaviors they otherwise would not have entertained. (Ford, 2013). Teachers reported disruptive behaviors in the classroom as sometimes being intolerable and stress-provoking (Boomgard, 2013, Primary Sources, 2012). Additionally, when confronted with pitiable student behavior, indifference, and impetus in the classroom, teacher morale was adversely affected. When teacher morale diminished due to behavioral issues in the classroom, teacher efficacy declined, causing the teacher to become less effective in their practices (Ford, 2012).

Concerning disciplinary practices, it is important to note that school officials seek to create, establish, and maintain a safe, orderly, and productive learning environment while cultivating in students the ability to control impulsivity, control emotions, and delay gratification (Bear, 2010). To achieve these goals, school officials have traditionally resorted to corrective measures to discourage and redirect undesirable behaviors. These curative measures have typically included punitive disciplinary actions (Morris & Howard, 2003). Attempts to address inappropriate behaviors exhibited by students have included issuing verbal reprimands, taking away privileges, in-school detention, and out-of-school suspension (Bear, 2010). The U.S. Department of Justice and the U.S. Department of Education (2014) expressed concern over exclusionary practices that remove students from the classroom setting, stating that these types of practices can induce significant adverse outcomes associated with the development, health, and academic success of students. Furthermore, evidence has shown that exclusionary discipline practices disproportionately affect African American students and students with disabilities. Moreover, students who were suspended or expelled for as many as ten times were more likely to experience academic challenges, be retained, drop

out of high school, and face incarceration compared to those students who had not fallen victim to exclusionary practices. (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Department of Education).

Exclusionary discipline practices have contributed to the epidemic commonly referred to as the school- to- prison pipeline. In 2016 the NEA released a policy statement on School Discipline, in which the organization defined the school to prison pipeline as:

> policies and practices that are directly and indirectly pushing students of color out of school and on a pathway to prison including, but not limited to: harsh school discipline policies that overuse suspension and expulsion, increased policing and surveillance; that create prison-like environments in schools, overreliance on referrals to law enforcement and the juvenile justice system, and an alienating and punitive high-stakes testing-driven academic environment. (National Education Association, 2019, para 3)

It is important to point out that the school to prison pipeline is a metaphor commonly used to describe school policies which include the over-policing of schools, dysfunctional juvenile justice interventions, and other institutional factors which creates conduits of probability, wherein which arrival at each new point of punishment increases the probability of arriving at the next level of castigation. School suspension and expulsion are not exclusively to blame for the high incarceration rates amongst disadvantaged youth. Although we cannot foretell if any one child will become incarcerated during their lifetime as a direct result of these practices (Justice, 2018), the implications associated with said practices are well corroborated. In 2017 the Brookings Institute Brown Center on Educational Policy released a study on American Education

titled, *American Education: Race and School Suspensions.* In that study, researchers identified a connection between out-of-school suspensions low academic achievement, poor attendance, and juvenile crime that could "push students into what has been called the school-to-prison pipeline" (p.32).

Also, during a 2018 panel discussion, which convened to dissect the role of suspensions in the school-to-prison pipeline, moderator Ameshia Cross, Director of Policy and External Relations with the National Black Child Institute, stated that students with two or more suspensions, black males, in particular, were 60% more likely to become incarcerated (Clay, 2017). The school to prison pipeline represents a problem of epic proportions that has afflicted the nation's educational system. Suspension and expulsion rates began to climb significantly after the 1994 Columbine High School massacre. After Columbine, U.S. lawmakers passed the Guns –Free Schools Act of 1994, which resulted in the adoption of zero-tolerance policies in school districts across the nation (Out-Of-School Suspension and Expulsion, 2013). The original intent of zero-tolerance policies was to address various types of illicit student conduct, which included weapon or drug possession that presented a clear and present danger to the school community. However, zero-tolerance policies began to expand to include nonviolent student infractions upon which severe consequences, which included suspension and expulsion, were imposed on students regardless of circumstances (Holcomb & Allen, 2009). By its very nature, zero-tolerance policies did not consider the extenuating and mitigating circumstances of each case and tended to place the student back into the same environment that initially contributed to the negative behavior or conduct (Out-Of-School Suspension and Expulsion, 2013). Zero-tolerance policies, coupled with socio-economic

issues such as poor schools and discriminatory practices, have further complicated this issue. Consequently, the number of students excluded from school annually grew from 1.7 million in 1974 to 3.1 million in 2000 and bringing national attention to this crisis (Starks & Brooks, 2015).

According to the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), children who became victims of the school to prison pipeline were, in many cases, also victims of a substandard educational system. For most, their problems began with their initial enrollment at an under-resourced neighborhood school. Often all these schools had to offer these children who were already at a socio-economic disadvantage, were overcrowded classrooms, under-qualified teachers, and inadequate funding for counseling, special education services, and textbooks. These types of learning conditions locked students into a poor educational environment. Students who found themselves in this situation lost interest in school resulting in the increased propensity to act out, be suspended or expelled, and ultimately to drop out of school. These factors contributed to the increased likelihood of these children becoming involved with the U.S. Judicial System (American Civil Liberties Union, 2019).

In some school districts, suspended students lost their right to free public education and were often left unsupervised and without academic support during the exclusionary period. In other school districts required excluded students to enroll in an alternative school. These schools were "designed to educate students who had not been successful in traditional schools, often because of behavior, disciplinary factors, or safety concerns." (Logsdon, 2018, para 2). Alternative schools run by private, for-profit organizations were not subjected to the same level of academic scrutiny as public schools

and often failed to provide adequate educational services to the students who attended. Children returning to their home schools after attending alternative schools were likely to be behind and ill-prepared academically and continued to fall behind in their studies. Researchers found that in some cases, students excluded from school were encouraged by school officials to drop out. The practice of encouraging students to drop out of school emerged as a result of the high-stakes testing environment created by the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Legislation. This legislation had the unforeseen consequence of pushing low-performing students out of school to enhance the school's overall test scores. (Heitzeg, 2009). According to Heitzeg:

> Critics have noted that zero-tolerance policies have ―push –out low performing students in the era of No Child Left Behind legislation. Since school funding is directly tied to test scores, NCLB gives schools an incentive to get rid of rather than remediate students with low test scores. (Heitzeg, 2009, p.14)

Schools across the nation have grown increasingly dependent on their local police departments to help manage discipline in schools. Police officers used to patrol school campuses lack adequate training to work with children (Heitzeg, 2009). As a result, students in poor schools were more likely to be subjected to school-based arrest for nonviolent offenses, such as truancy and mischievous behavior. A rise in school-based arrests presented a straight path from the school to the jail and most directly exemplified the criminalization of America's schoolchildren (Holcomb & Allen, 2019)

Exclusionary discipline practices disproportionately affected African-American students, students with disabilities, and students with a history of abuse, neglect, and poverty, (Kim, Losen & Hewitt, 2010). Data collected by the U.S. Department of

Education (D.O.E.) and the, Department of Civil Right, suggested that racial bias in exclusionary discipline practices starts as early as preschool with four-year-old children and that African American children represented 18% of preschool students in the nation's schools but accounted for 48% of preschool suspensions. In 2014 the disproportionality of highly punitive disciplinary measures ignited the attention of the United States government, resulting in a joint publication issued by the U.S. Department of Justice (D.O.J.) Civil Rights Division, and D.O.E. Office of Civil Rights. In that publication, the U.S Government noted that African-American students were suspended and expelled at a rate three times greater than European-American students (U.S. Department of Education). As a result of these findings, the D.O.E. and the D.O.J. issued joint guidelines to assist public school districts in meeting their legal obligation to "administer student discipline without discriminating based on race, color, or national origin." (U.S. Department of Justice, U.S. Department of Education 2014 para. 1). For students, getting suspended or expelled from school resulted in more than just an interruption of learning; it became a life-altering experience. The D.O.E and D.O.J identified exclusion from school as the number-one indicator; even more so than poverty, of whether a child would drop out of school, be unemployed, become dependent on social welfare programs, or become incarcerated. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, the majority of babies born in the United States in 2011 were children of color. The census bureau forecasts that by 2050, approximately 50% of the U.S. population will be African American, Latino, or Asian.

Consequently, the future sustainability of the nation's communities, workforce, and democracy will largely be shaped and predicated on the prospects provided to these

children. Education has been called the great equalizer, yet an alarming number of children of color are deprived of access to quality education. Experts have argued the need to address issues associated with exclusionary discipline practices, which deprive children of an education. Furthermore, experts agreed that exclusionary discipline should only be administered for the exclusive purpose of preserving the safety of the school community. Receiving even one out-of-school suspension was found to alter a student's academic trajectory (Balfanz, 2014). Research supported the need for change in how schools administer consequences to students for inappropriate behavior. Evidence suggests that years of punitive disciplinary practices have produced harmful consequences for students. Students excluded from schools were more likely to fail courses and become chronically truant (American Civil Liberties Union, 2019) subsequently dropping out of school comes at a high national, social, and economic costs (Rumberger & Losen, 2016). Data collected by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics in 2017 showed that high school dropouts earned $9,984 less per year than their peers who graduated from high school. The National Center for Educational Statistics reported that in 2009, 31% of 18-to-24 year-olds without a high school diploma were living in poverty. Furthermore, researchers at Northwest University found that high school dropouts were a staggering 63 times more likely to experience incarceration than their peers who had received a bachelor's degree and that a single high school dropout costs taxpayers a surprising $ 292,000 throughout a lifetime (Sum, Khatiwada, & McLaughlin, 2009).

Minority students often endured the harmful effects of exclusionary practices at rates significantly higher than their white peers. ("Restorative Practices in Schools", 2017). According to a Government Accountability Report issued to Congress in March of

2018, African American students represented a large discrepancy within the populace of students who had been excluded from school, subjected to corporal punishment, or who had experienced a school-related arrest. .Although there were approximately 17.4 million more White students than Black students enrolled in the nation's K-12 public schools during the 2013-2014 school year, school excluded 175,774 more African American students than European American students . African American students represented only 15.5% of all children enrolled in K-12 public schools across the country, yet accounted for 39% of students' suspensions.

The damaging effects of exclusionary discipline practices have been well documented (Justice, 2018; Sugai at el, 2012). However, the harmful impact of negative student behavior on teacher efficacy and school climate should not be understated. Disruptive and aggressive student behavior has impeded student academic success and adversely affect teacher's perception of school climate (O'Brennan et al., 2104). Nevertheless, by opting to deal with problematic student behaviors through suspensions and expulsions, school districts neglect to address the underlying issues affecting the child. The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) explained that the population of students serviced by a school district mirrors the community from which the children come. According to AAP, many external factors affected a child's ability to succeed. These factors were found to contribute to severe behavioral problems in school and included substance abuse, racial and ethnic tensions, and cultural differences. The AAP concluded that it was in the best interest of children and society to seek alternatives to suspension and expulsion. The organization recommended that whenever possible, school districts and pediatricians should work collaboratively to develop behavioral intervention

plans for students. School leaders across the nation are acknowledging the damage caused by suspending and expelling students and are working to put systems in place to meet the social-emotional needs of students. These systems include Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) programs, School-wide Trauma Training, and Restorative Practices ("Evidence: Alternative to Suspension and Expulsion," n.d.)

The United States Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) developed PBIS in the 1980s to address the needs of students with behavior disorders. During the early 2000s, PBIS evolved into a school-wide system of support designed to include all students (Sugai & Simonsen, 2012). PBIS refers to "a framework for enhancing the adoption and implementation of a continuum of evidence-based interventions to achieve academically and behaviorally important outcomes for all students" (Sugai & Simonsen, 2012, p. 2). In order to implement PBIS, schools must first identify several easy to remember behavioral expectations. Conventional expectancies include showing respect for one's self and others, being safe, and being responsible. There must be buy-in to the program by 80% of the staff for PBIS to be effective. (Positive behavioral and intervention supports, n.d.). PBIS allows school officials to address the broad range of challenges associated with student behavior. This comprehensive system of support, designed to provide a multi-tiered framework of supports designed to meet the wide variety of social-emotional and behavioral needs of students. (Feuerborn, Wallace, & Tyre, 2013). PBIS aims to promote a school climate in which a deliberate and ongoing effort to teach students behavioral expectations and to acknowledge and reward positive behaviors. When student exhibit extremely challenging behaviors PBIS applies more intensive supports. At each level of support, data was

collected, disseminated, and used to make decisions about the students' needs. Feuerborn et al., (2013), suggested that based on data school-wide PBIS has had a positive impact on schools, which included a decrease in discipline referrals, detentions, and suspensions (Feuerborn et al. 2013). When implemented with fidelity, PBIS improved the prosocial skills of students and student academic success, which subsequently positively influence school climate (National Association of School Psychologists n.d.b).

Furthermore, PBIS positively influenced teacher efficacy in the specific areas of student engagement, instructional practices, and classroom management. Teachers who understood and used PBIS strategies perceived that they were better equipped to support students' social-emotional needs and redirect student misbehavior. Through PBIS training, teachers came to understand the importance of setting clear expectations and praising and rewarding students when they met behavioral goals (Medina, 2017).

The benefits of PBIS are well documented. Nevertheless, the implementation of the program is not without its challenges. Challenged with the implementation of PBIS are partly due to educators and policymakers underestimating the complexity of the program and the importance of staff buy-in (Feuerborn et al. 2013, See Appendix O).

Research in the area of student behavior suggests a connection between student misbehavior and trauma (West, Day, Somers, & Baroni, 2014). Trauma, defined as any event or series of events experienced by a person that evoke a sense of horror or helplessness and perceived as physically or emotionally harmful because the individual believes their well-being or the well-being of a loved one is at risk of physiological or psychological harm (Center for Disease Control and Prevention, n.d.a). Trauma is categorized as acute or chronic. Acute trauma may result from a one-time event such as a

house fire, car accident, or physical assault. Chronic Trauma refers to a traumatic experience that is repeated or prolonged, such as ongoing exposure to family or community violence, ongoing bullying, or a long-term medical issue (Poag, 2018). Traumatizing events include natural disasters, community violence, domestic violence, neglect, sexual violence, loss of a loved one, and psychological maltreatment (Pickens & Tschopp, 2017). Trauma in children occurs when they perceive themselves or those around them to be under the threat of death, severe injury, or harm, which, in turn, led to feelings of helplessness, fearfulness, and severe stress. Once traumatization takes root, a child's innate ability to cope becomes compromised (Bell, Limberg, & Robinson, 2013), potentially resulting in the student misbehaving in school. Because of lack of knowledge or training in trauma, teachers and school officials often misinterpreted misbehavior by students as willful disobedience (Barr, 2018), and issue disciplinary consequences per school policy. A substantial number of children in the United States experience traumatic life events. According to the American Psychological Association (APA), children and adolescents make up a significant portion of the 2.5 billion people affected by traumatic events such as global disasters that have occurred over the last ten years. Additionally, according to the APA, an estimated 39% to 85% of the nation's children have witnessed community violence, and an estimated 66 percent of children have been victims of community violence. Moreover, according to the APA, 25% to 43% of youth have been exposed to sexual abuse (American Psychological Association, 2008).

Trauma, is caused by various circumstances and events including natural disasters (fires, floods, or hurricanes), human-created disasters, (wars, environmental devastation, or acts of terrorisms), community violence (shootings, gang-related violence, or hate

crimes-all of which can affect the entire community), school violence, (bullying, school shootings, or the loss of a classmate or a teacher), family trauma (physical abuse, neglect, witnessing of domestic violence, or sudden and unexpected loss of a family member), refugee or immigrant trauma (exposure to torture, war, or forced displacement), medical trauma (serious illness, pain, serious injury, or invasive medical treatment or procedures), and poverty (homelessness, financial stressors, or food insecurity (National Center on Safe Supportive Learning Environment, n.d.).

Traumatized children experience difficulty with learning and behavior in school (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2015). Children exposed to repeat traumatizing events face neurodevelopmental, physiological, emotional, social, and behavioral challenges, which may include existing in a persistent state of fear, memory disorders, dysregulation of affect, and avoidance of intimacy. Children deprived of the opportunity to process what is happening around them, assign meaning to it, and develop the skills needed to cope with the traumatic experiences and without the help of a trusted adult, may experience life-shattering consequences, such as the impediment of a stage-specific developmental task and subsequent development. Children who are victims of trauma develop survivor behaviors such as fighting, fleeing, substance abuse, and self-injurious behaviors. Survivor behaviors manifest in the child under conditions of extreme psychological stress, which are likely to occur in hostile environments (Ingram, n.d.). In school, children who are victims of trauma may struggle to behave and learn due to difficulties with concentration, memories, organization, and language (O'Grady, 2017).

Creating trauma-informed schools and implementing trauma-informed practices are two ways that school districts nationwide are addressing the growing social-emotional

needs of students. A trauma-informed approach to addressing student behavior operates under the premise that student misconduct results from insecurity and fear, not anger or choice. To this end, experts have emphasized the importance of reestablishing the offending child within the school community through restorative practices as opposed to inflicting them with harsh punitive consequences ("Restorative Practices: Fostering Healthy Relationships & Promoting Positive Discipline in Schools A Guide for Educators," 2014). Trauma-informed schools positively influence school climate. Trauma-informed schools offer students a school climate in which interactions within the school community are physiologically and psychologically safe for students and employees (Darling-Hammond & Cook-Harvey, 2018).

Educators, who work with traumatized students, are at risk of secondary traumatic stress (STS), which can result from hearing about their students' adverse experiences witnessing the harmful effects of those experiences. Common symptoms of STS include heightened anxiety and increased concerns about one's safety, disturbing thoughts and images related to their students' traumatic experience; feeling impassive or disconnected from students; feeling helpless, and hopeless about students and work. These feelings can lead to job burnout (National Center on Safe Supportive Learning Environment, n.d.)

Because of gaps in the literature, the need persists to clarify the relationship between trauma training and teaching efficacy. However, trauma training empowered teachers with the knowledge and skill needed to support students who have had adverse childhood experiences. Additionally, implementing trauma-informed practices increased teachers' sense of job satisfaction and feeling of safety while at work. Trauma training positively impacted new teacher retention and reduce student behavioral outbursts.

(Oehlberg, 2008). A 2017 qualitative phenomenological study, by researcher Noreida Perez, found that teachers who participated in trauma training reported being better prepared to support students in dealing with trauma and adverse experiences. Additionally, trauma trained teachers reported a heightened understanding of how trauma affected student behavior and learning capacity and came to realize that by providing consistent discipline, and predictability in the classroom, and working to establish quality relationships with students; while maintaining strong classroom management, they could positively influence the lives of students coping with trauma. (Perez, 2017). Classroom management and relationships are crucial to a positive classroom environment (Danielson, 2011). Teachers with excellent classroom management and who were able to build relationships with their students were more effective in the classroom and were more likely to experience a positive classroom environment (Campbell, 2018). A positive classroom environment is one in which the teacher creates a climate of respect and rapport through their interactions with students and their ability to nurture and stimulate the minds of their young scholars. In the productive schoolroom environment, students feel valued and safe, and teacher interactions with each young scholar convey that they are interested in the child's well-being and have respect for the students' backgrounds and lives outside of the classroom. Teachers skilled at creating a positive classroom environment are cognizant of their body language and effectively use proximity, warmth, caring, and active listening in their interactions with students. They effectually create a formal classroom atmosphere that is democratic and productive, in which students are knowledgeable about behavioral expectations. Moreover, when student behavior needs to

be corrected, it is done in a way in which students feel respected and their dignity preserved. (Danielson, 2011).

Restorative Justice

"Restorative justice is not a replacement of retributive justice, but a compliment. It seeks the rehabilitation of the wrongdoer and the repair of the victim's injury" - (Smedes, 2002 p. 59).

School-wide PBIS and trauma training have generated encouraging results. Nevertheless, the need for educational institutions to review and supplant punitive disciplinary policies and practices persist. To this end, school districts across the nation have begun to implement restorative justice practices. Restorative justice is not a new concept of the 21st century. These practices can be traced back to biblical times, to the primeval tribunals of ancient cultures, including those of Africa, North and South America, and Europe. Such practices included circle meetings, caucuses, and other forms of dispute resolution (Omale, 2006).

Modern-day practices rooted in the principals of restorative justice began to emerge in the early 1970s (Armour, 2012). Restorative practices offered an alternative to traditional court proceedings, which sought to punish, embarrass, and ostracize the offender (Marsh, 2017). At the same time, the victims' rights movement of the 1970s was evolving restorative justice practices began to emerge. Restorative justice offered victim-offender mediation and advocated for restitution for the person harmed. (Armour, 2012; Young & Stein, 2004). Moreover, restorative justice practices presented the offending person with the opportunity to develop a deeper understanding of the impact of the harm

they caused and a chance to transition from the role of wrongdoer to that of community member (Armour, 2012).

School districts began incorporating restorative practices into educational settings in the 1990s as an alternative to traditional punitive disciplinary measures designed to inflict punishment on students for violating school code (Marsh 2017). School districts nationwide increasingly began to partner with community members and policymakers to move away from zero-tolerance disciplinary policy and towards restorative justice practices, turning their efforts towards assisting students in learning from their mistakes and assuring them of their importance to the school community ("Restorative Practices: Fostering Healthy Relationships & Promoting Positive Discipline in Schools A Guide for Educators," 2014). Currently, there is no universal definition of restorative justice (Chartrand & Horn, 2016). However, there are universal themes embedded in restorative practices that emphasize the importance of repairing the harm caused by illicit behavior through a cooperative process inclusive of all parties relevant to the incident (Chartrand & Horn, 2016).

Restorative practices positively impact student behavior and school climate (Augustine, Engberg, Grimm, Lee, Wang, Christianson, & Joseph, 2018). Furthermore, restorative practices were shown to reduce the severity and frequency of school infractions, and decrease racial disparities in discipline, upending the school to prison pipeline (Marsh, 2017). Concerning school climate, research has shown a connection between a safe and supportive school climate that supports the social-emotional advancement of students through restorative practices. A six-week study conducted in 2013 at a Minnesota school further supports the positive benefits of restorative justice. In

the study two-thirds of the school, faculty reported an increase in school connectedness and improvements in student problem-solving skills. Additionally, 70% of staff reported an overall improvement in school climate within the first year of implementation (Fronius, Persson, Guckenburg, Hurley & Petrosino, 2016).

Experts have identified three chief objectives of restorative justice practices, which include holding wrongdoers accountable, keeping the community safe, and increasing the pro-social skills of those who have caused harm to others. Restorative justice seeks to foster a school environment that is supportive, inclusive, and educationally sound for all students by cultivating a school climate that supports caring and healthy school communities and demonstrates empathy for the harmed and the harmer. When implemented with fidelity, restorative practices promote listening and relationship building, while responding to the needs of both the victim and the perpetrator; and encouraging culpability and responsibility through self-reflection within a collaborative environment. Restorative practices address power and status imbalances by promoting the soft power of relationship building and understanding, over the hard power of punitive measures (Morrison & Vandeering, 2012). Additionally, restorative justice practices encourage trust amongst members of the school community resulting in a school climate in which behavioral issues were dealt with quickly, leaving fewer students at risk of exclusionary consequences. (Kidde & Alfred, 2011).

Implementing restorative justice practices in schools can be challenging. Effective implementation requires extensive staff training, the garnering of staff support, and the acquisition of materials and resources that traditional methods of school discipline do not require (Passarella, 2017). School districts must also consider the sustainability of

funding sources and the institution's capacity to continually support such a program (Fronius et al., 2016). In a publication released by the Center for Healthy Schools and Communities, in Alameda California, authors Kidde & Alfred, (2011), identified several positive outcomes linked to the implementation of restorative justice programs in schools which included:

> A reductions in the number and intensity of fights and physical altercations; fewer classroom and cafeteria disruptions; drastic reductions in the number of students suspended and expelled; higher academic performance including increases in standardized test scores; greater sense of safety in the school; a more positive school climate for students and school personnel; healthier relationships among and between students and adults—including parents and guardians; increased and more meaningful communication. (Kidde & Alfred, 2011 p. 17)

The outcomes summarized by Kidde and Alfred Suggested a positive relationship between the implementation of restorative practices and favorable advancements within the school community in the area in student behavior, school climate, and teacher efficacy (See Appendix P).

The RAND Corporation conducted a two-year qualitative analysis to evaluate the impact of the implementation of a restorative practices program on Pittsburg's urban schools. The study involved 44 elementary, middle, and high school campuses. Twenty-two of the campuses received training on restorative practice through a program called Pursuing Equitable and Restorative Communities (PARC). While the study did find that restorative practices had a positive impact on school climate, contributed to a decline in racial disparities in suspensions rates, and resulted in an overall decline in out of school

suspensions; the study also found that academic outcomes did not improve for students attending schools that implemented restorative practices. Instead, the study found a decline in academic outcomes for middle school students (Augustine et al., 2018).

School Climate

"The climate in a school can either make everything possible or not make everything possible" (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012 p. 17).

School climate refers to an educational institution's atmosphere for learning and pertains to a school's environment and other contextual factors that potentially affect student learning (Thapa, Cohen, Guffey, Higgins, & D'Alessandro, 2013). Although researchers have been studying school climate of centuries, a universal definition has yet to emerge. However, scholars often cite the definition adopted by the National School Climate Center:

> School climate refers to the quality and character of a school's life based on patterns of students ', parents' and school personnel's experience of school life and reflects the norms, goals, values, interpersonal relationships, teaching and learning practices, and organizational structure. (National School Climate Center, n.d. para 6)

A favorable school climate fosters youth development and learning necessary for a productive, contributing, and satisfying life in a democratic society (Cohen, McCabe, Michelli & Pickeral, 2009, p. 182). For hundreds of years, educators have recognized the importance of school climate, but it was not until the 1950s that educationalists began to study school climate and create tools to assess it (Walters, 2015). One such tool, the 5Essential Survey, was developed by the University of Chicago and administered for the

first time in 2013. The framework for the survey began to emerge in the 1990s when Chicago educators asked a single question: "Why were some elementary schools improving dramatically, while others remained stagnant?" Between 1990 and 1996, there were 118 schools out of 477 schools in Chicago that showed a 15% increase in the number of students demonstrating proficiency on a nationally normed reading test over six years. For another 118 Chicago schools, the results were entirely different. Twenty-four percent of the students demonstrated proficiency on a nationally normed reading test in 1990, and that proficiency rate remained unchanged over the six years. Collectively these two sets of schools served 150,000 students. Confronted with these widely differing sets of outcomes, the Chicago Public Schools Superintendent invited the University of Chicago Consortium on School Research (CCSR) to collaborate with Chicago educators and school reformers on developing a framework for school improvement. The framework, designed to measure school climate and culture, became known as the 5Essentials. Based on the 5Essentials the taskforce developed a quantitative survey designed to assess school climate and culture. The survey assessed five domains: Effective leadership, collaborative teaching, supportive environment, ambitious instruction, and family involvement. Today, the 5Essentials Survey is administered annually in schools across Illinois to provide data on school climate and school culture, which can aid in the school improvement process (Klugman et al., 2015).

In 1996, the University of Chicago was collaborating with Chicago Public Schools on the 5Essentials. The National School Climate Center (NSCC), formerly known as the Center for Social-Emotional Education, was founded at Columbia University's Teacher's College. The original Mission of NSCC was to support the

development of leaders in the arena of social and emotional education. In 1999, with the support of the Surdna Foundation, NCSS turned its attention to developing a system designed to measure, track, and support prosocial learning and behaviors. In support of this endeavor, NSCC set out to develop a school climate survey. For five years, NCSS worked to refine the survey into an instrument that would serve as a complete, valid, and reliable measure of school climate. This survey became known as the Comprehensive School Climate Inventory. The Comprehensive School Climate Inventory (CSCI), comprised of five categories; school safety, interpersonal relationships, institutional environment, social media, and staff, which encompasses school leadership and professional relationships (National School Climate Center, n.d.b.). Both the 5Essentials survey and the Comprehensive School Climate Survey share the universal themes of leadership, relationships, environment, and instruction.

School climate influences teacher efficacy and teacher perception of student behavior, O'Brennan, Bradshaw, and Furlong (2014), conducted a longitudinal study to examine the influence of the classroom and school climate on teacher perception of problematic student behavior. The study, comprised of data from 37 elementary school, which included 467 classrooms and 8,750 students. Researchers used a 3-level hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) statistical technique to analyze the data. The study revealed that teacher perceptions of the school climate significantly correlated with student behavior.

Over the past several decades' expectations for school, leadership has evolved from that of merely a systems manager to that of an "aspirational leader, team builder, coach, and an agent of visionary change" (Alvoid & Black, 2014, p. 1). School leadership

is identified as the single most influential catalyst in transforming and creating a favorable school climate (Rapti, 2013; Spicer, 2016), specifically in the areas of school safety, student achievement, and teacher self-assuredness (Smith, Connolly, & Pryseski, 2014). School administrators who demonstrated the capacity to build trust and nurture relationships by instituting practices designed to create a balance of power; produce opportunities for shared leadership; galvanizes stakeholders to work together toward a shared vision, and recognize and acknowledge diverse perspectives, were found to be most effective in cultivating a positive school environment (Hughes & Pickeral, 2013; Pepper & Hamilton Thomas, 2002).

In recent years the connection between school leadership and favorable school climate has become increasingly evident. A broadening understanding of each of these concepts, along with advancing 21st-century societal and technological developments caused educational policymakers to convene to discuss the nature and the quality of work performed by the school administrator (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2015). As a result of this collaboration, in October 2015, the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) approved newly revised standards for educational leaders. The new standards called the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (PSEL), which were previously known as the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards, released in November 2015 with the following statement from NPBEA:

> The global economy is revolutionizing the 21st-century workplace for which schools prepare students. Technologies are advancing faster than ever. The conditions and characteristics of children, regarding demographics, family

> structures, and more, are changing. On the education front, the politics and shifts of control make the headlines daily. Cuts in school funding loom everywhere, even as schools are being subjected to increasingly competitive market pressures and held to higher levels of accountability connected to student outcomes. (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2015 p. 1)

The ten new PSEL standards developed by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration expanded on the core principles of the dated Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLCC). The updated standards resulted in more rigorous leadership standards intended to keep school administrators closely connected to the social-emotional needs of students while improving student preparedness for the 21st-century workforce and supporting a favorable school climate (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2015). The standards rooted in research on best practices associated with the ever-evolving role of school leaders now reflected the competencies school leaders needed to possess in order to cultivate a favorable school climate National (Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2015).

Effective school leadership is essential to creating a favorable school climate (Klugman, 2015; Pepper & Hamilton Thomas, 2002). School leadership is a critical contributing factor in both teacher self-efficacy and student behavior. In 2015 researchers conducted a mixed methods study on principal leadership behaviors and teacher efficacy in an urban/suburban district in northeastern New Jersey. The study population included teachers from four schools servicing grades 1 to 8 with a total student population of 2,759 students, 130 teachers, and 20 administrators. The study found a positive correlation between the leadership practices of the principal in the specific areas of relationship

building, trustworthiness, decision making, instructional leadership, conflict resolution, and teacher efficacy. (Gallante, 2015). Additionally, Rew, 2013 found a positive relationship between instructional leadership and teacher self-efficacy, which culminated in gains in student academic achievement and improvements in instructional practices.

Concerning the role of school leaders in managing student behavior and discipline, it is important to emphasize that positive disciplinary experiences do not begin in the principal's office. Instead, the redirecting of student behavior and delivering consequences begins in the classroom with teachers who exhibit effective classroom management and have taken the time to build relationships with their students (Linsin, 2014). Nevertheless, student behavior affected teacher self-efficacy (Laughter, 2017), and school administrators play an essential role when it comes to managing student behavior. School administrators are responsible for creating a positive and responsive school climate designed to support the socio-emotional well-being of students. By instituting positive disciplinary practices designed to sustain an orderly school environment; responding to the needs of students and staff members; establishing a safe and supportive learning environment, and coaching teachers on effective classroom management, school administrator create a school foundation conducive to an effective behavioral support system (U.S. Department of Education & National Center for Education, 2003). Additionally, school administrators can assist in setting the tone for appropriate student conduct by minimizing interruptions to instructional time, being highly visible throughout the campus, having informal conversations with staff and students, attending extracurricular activities, providing class coverage when substitutes are late (Nooruddin & Baig, 2014).

In schools teaching and learning are dependent upon relationships (Thapa, Cohen, Guffey & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2013). The quality of relationships within the school community has been identified as an essential factor in the school environment and, therefore, merits assessment when evaluating a school climate (Klugman, Joshua, et al., 2015). Relationships are the social connections people establish with others (Leary & Hoyle, 2013). Interpersonal relationships refer to an association between two or more individuals and are a manifestation of the human need to foster and develop meaningful and positive connections with the people around them (Leary & Hoyle, 2013). In the school community, relationships contribute to teacher professional growth and student academic success (Thapa et al., 2013). However, in the 1970s Sociologist, Dan Lortie proclaimed that schools were "widely defined by a culture of individualism" (Poulos, 2016, p. 8). The issue of teacher isolationism persists today (Ostovar-Nameghi & Sheikhahmadi, 2016). However, positive relationships between teachers foster collaboration, collegiality, and collective efficacy. When teachers collaborated regularly, their knowledge grows, and their practices improve. Research emphatically supports the importance of teacher relationships with other teachers within the school community (Wang & Haertel, n.d.).

Researchers found that the teacher's relationships with their students were as meaningful as their relationship with other teachers. Interpersonal relationships with students represented the mutual respect between students and teachers and the level of responsibility teachers felt for the students' academic success. Interpersonal relationships between students and their teachers have been an area of interest for educators for more than 2000 years. Intellectuals such as Plato, Socrates, and Confucius, credited for

establishing the theoretical framework for teaching, encouraged the ascertainment of knowledge through discourse and emphasized the importance of the teacher-student relationship. (Wang & Haertel, n.d.). Today, research continues to support the importance of these relationships. According to researchers Rimm-Kaufman and Sandilos, 2011, teachers who fostered positive relationships with their students create classroom environments conducive to learning. They achieved this by cultivating classroom conditions favorable to meeting the developmental, emotional and academic needs of their students (Rimm-Kaufman & Sandilos, 2011) Students who feel that their teacher's value and care for them as individuals are more likely to be cooperative and are more willing to comply with their teachers' request (Boynton & Boynton, 2005).

More than ever before, today's educators recognize the social-emotional learning needs of students, which includes interpersonal relationships, as being as important as any other aspect of a child's overall educational experience. In addition to providing a venue for learning reading, writing, and arithmetic, schools also provide a place for students to develop social skills and learn to get along with each other. Social skills refer to the competencies required to adapt and interact with one's cultural environment. Although students may not receive a grade on social skills from their teacher, they are judged daily by their peers on their social aptitude. If a student exhibits positive social skills and interacts appropriately with other students, they are likely to experience a positive interpersonal relationship with their peers, and they are apt to be content and well-liked at school. Students who fail to exhibit positive social skills and fail to interact appropriately with other students while in school were likely to feel disconnected and left out. Feelings of isolation lead to the inability to develop crucial interpersonal

relationships with other students (Lawson, 2003). Opportunities for students to interact socially at school were considered vital to the learning process and were likely to occur when the teacher created occasions for students to engage in meaningful dialogue around the content connected to the lesson. When presented with these types of collaborative opportunities, students learn more and are likely to be rigorously engaged with the content. Teachers can help students develop positive social skills such as civility and respect by providing frequent opportunities for social interactions in the classroom (Laal & Ghadsi, 2011).

Additionally, research has shown that students who participate in collaborative learning opportunities develop higher-level thinking skills, improved oral communication skills, self-management skills, and leadership skills. Furthermore, students who participate in a collaborative classroom environment are more likely to stay in school, have higher self-esteem, and a broader sense of responsibility. They are also more likely to have a greater appreciation for diverse perspectives and be prepared for real-life, social, and employment situations (Krasnoff, 2016).

Family and community involvement in education has become increasingly associated with improved academic achievement and school improvement for both elementary and high school students regardless of socio-economic background. When families and community stakeholders' work together to support learning, students earn higher grades, have better attendance, are more apt to graduate from high school, and are more likely to enroll in a post-secondary program (National Education Association, n.d.). However, barriers to family and community involvement persist. Families cite their schedules as an obstacle to participating in school-wide events. They also allude to

feeling uncomfortable communicating with school officials and expressed feelings of inadequacy in regards to their ability to help their child with homework. Parents also complained that they seldom heard from their child's school unless there was an issue with their child's academic performance or behavior. Also, families expressed frustration with schools for not adapting to changing family dynamics, including families headed by a single parent, children raised by grandparents, or children in foster care (NEA Education Policy and Practice Department-Center for Great Public Schools, 2008). The literature on the positive relationship between teacher self-efficacy and parental involvement continues to evolve (Krizman, 2013). Research in the area of parent involvement and student behavior is also very limited. However, available literature suggests that parent involvement positively influences student behavior (Cotton & Wikelund, 1989).

The instructional or academic environment refers to "the instructional, behavioral, and personal aspects of the classroom experience" (National Center on Safe and Supportive Schools, n.d., para 1). In 2007 Charlotte Danielson published a book titled, *Enhancing Professional Practices: A Framework for Teaching*. Danielson, a Cornell, Oxford, and Rutgers University graduate, has been acknowledged as a world-renowned expert in the area of teacher effectiveness. Danielson, globally recognized for the development of a widely used teacher evaluation system designed to appraise teacher performance and promote professional learning (Danielson, 2011). Her book, Implementing *Framework for Teaching in Enhancing Professional Practices*, has been widely used across the United States and incorporated into the teacher evaluation model in 20 states, including Illinois. (*Danielsongroup.Org*, 2010). In this publication,

Danielson identified several areas as being fundamental to the academic environment: Planning and preparation, classroom environment, professional responsibility, and instruction. In a positive academic setting, teachers recognize and understand that in order for students to grow and thrive, they require an engaging, stimulating, and enriching learning experience. Therefore, teachers who seek to foster a productive instructional environment take care to create and design lessons that promote student academic success, social-emotional well-being, and a sense of civic responsibility. A productive learning environment is one in which the school community supports teaching and learning and encourages independent thinking, while also encouraging ongoing dialog between teachers and students that culminates academic rigor and student success. (National School Climate Center n.d.b). In a positive instructional environment, teaching and learning classwork is academically demanding and engaging; an emphasis placed on the application of knowledge, and the expectation is that all students will succeed with encouragement and support. (National Center on Safe and Supportive Learning Environments, n.d.).

Institutional environment refers to the school's physical environment and includes the campus facilities and the surrounding area. The institutional environment can affect how teachers and students feel about their school and impact both teacher and student performance. (Illinois State Board of Education, n.d.). Indicators of campus environment include multiple interrelated components that can either support or inhibit learning such as safety and security of school grounds, as well as building air quality, temperature, noise level, and lighting. When assessing the institutional environment, campus evaluators consider the level of safety and security of the school grounds, as well as the

overall cleanliness and maintenance of the school facilities. According to the U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics:

> School facilities maintenance is concerned about more than just resource management. It is about providing clean and safe environments for children. It is also about creating a physical setting that is appropriate and adequate for learning. A classroom with broken windows and cold drafts does not foster active student learning. However, neither does an apparently state-of-the-art classroom that is plagued with uncontrollable swings in indoor temperature, which can negatively affect student and instructor alertness, attendance, and even health. School facilities maintenance affects the physical, educational, and financial foundation of the school organization and should, therefore, be a focus of both its day-to-day operations and long-range management priorities. (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Forum on Education Statistics, 2003, p. xi)

To ensure and maintain a healthy school environment, schools must establish clear policies regarding physical violence, verbal abuse, harassment, and teasing, along with clear guidelines concerning processes and procedures on reporting and addressing such issues. The extent to which members of the school community feel safe from physical harm, verbal abuse, and teasing, are important indicators of school safety and security (Safe Supportive Learning. n.d.). Concerning the school facilities, budgetary constraints can be problematic; nevertheless, school officials should strive to develop a maintenance

plan and adhere to it (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Forum on Education Statistics, 2003).

School climate plays a role in fostering an atmosphere of mutual respect and responsibility within the school setting and is crucial to the success of the school community. Many things, such as changes in leadership, contract negotiations, the loss of a staff member, or a victory or defeat in a state championship, can impact school climate. Assessing the school environment every year can provide school officials with valuable insight into the character and well-being of the school community. By assessing school climate regularly, informed decisions in regards to the most effective ways to address issues concerning leadership, interpersonal relationships, instruction, teaching, and learning, and school safety (Gregory, Cornell, & Fan, 2012).

Educators have become increasingly knowledgeable about the importance of school climate. As a result, an abundance of literature has emerged. In 2013, researchers Thapa, Cohen, Guffey, and D'Alessandro published a "Review of School Climate Research." The review comprised of 206 references, which included experimental studies, correlational studies, detailed reviews, and other narrative studies. As part of the review process, researchers concentrated on several key areas of school climate, which included relationships, teaching and learning, and institutional environment. What they concluded was that school climate matters. A positive school environment supports positive youth socio-emotional development and positive educational outcomes for students, including higher academic achievement and increased graduation rates.

A favorable school climate also benefited teachers and was found to be associated with positive teacher efficacy. Furthermore, research showed that the school climate

could either enhance or minimize teacher emotional fatigue and feeling of low personal accomplishment, as well as teacher attrition (Thapa et al., 2013). The research team emphasized the importance of relationships to a school's environment, noting that teaching and learning are inherently relational and that the norms, patterns values, goals, goals, and interactions between stakeholders shape relationships between members of the school community. Relationships between teachers and students are of considerable importance. The researchers noted that students who experienced negative and conflictual relationships with their teachers as early as kindergarten were at a higher risk of experiencing behavioral and academic problems in subsequent grades. However, when students positively interacted with supportive teachers, they were more likely to be engaged and behave appropriately, and they were likely to experiences higher levels of academic success. The researchers also cited interesting research related to race and school climate. Evidence referenced from a 2006 publication authored by Hallinan Kubitchek found that positive interracial interactions contributed to a student's sense of school community, whereas negative interactions had the opposite effect.

Relationships were considered fundamentally crucial for teachers, as well. A review of the literature found that teachers who felt supported by their peers and by their principals were more committed to their profession. Specifically, the researchers emphasized that when teachers experienced positive peer relationships and feelings of inclusion and respect, they were more likely to view the school climate as being positive.

What constituted a positive school environment for students and teachers was notably different. Teacher perception of school climate was primarily sensitive to classroom-level indicators, such as classroom management issues, specifically the

proportion of students with disruptive behavioral tendencies, whereas students' perceptions of school environment connected closely to school-level indicators such as student mobility, student-teacher relations, and principal turnover. Notably, students who had experienced behavioral problems in school repeated a grade, or came from a single-parent home, expressed less favorable views of school climate. Parent's educational level, race, gender, and age significantly impacted student perception of the school (Thapa et al., 2013).

Summary

Chapter two presented a review of the literature on teacher efficacy, student behavior, and school climate, intended to provide information from a historical and contextual perspective that would aid in the understanding of this research. In this chapter, the researcher discussed the theoretical framework of self-efficacy and teacher self-efficacy as well as the evolution of self-efficacy through mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and a person's physiological and psychological state. Furthermore, this chapter deliberated on the issue of problematic student behavior and how it impacts the learning environment, school climate, and teacher- efficacy; and how conventional disciplinary practices have been unsuccessful at effectually addressing insolent student behavior. Furthermore, in response to reporting on the high numbers of students suffering from adverse childhood experiences, trauma, trauma-informed practices, and restorative justice were covered. Finally, the researcher discussed school climate in the context of school leadership, interpersonal relationships, institutional environment, family and community involvement, instructional environment, and how these factors affect teacher efficacy and student behavior.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Background

Studies related to teacher efficacy, student behavior, and school climate continue to remain at the forefront of educational research and remain fundamentally important to both student and teacher success. Highly efficacious teachers were found to experience more job satisfaction and remain in the teaching profession (Kusinen, 2016). In contrast, teachers with low self-efficacy were more apt to be less satisfied and leave the teaching profession (Lacks, 2016). Moreover, teachers who experienced a low sense of efficaciousness were likely to be negatively impacted by issues related to student discipline and classroom management. Oliver, Wehby, and Reschly (2011) wrote;

> Teachers who have significant problems with behavior management and classroom discipline report high levels of stress and symptoms of burnout and are frequently ineffective. The ability of teachers to organize classrooms and manage the behavior of their students is critical to achieving both positive educational outcomes for students and teacher retention. (Oliver et al., p. 6)

To this end, teachers who experienced difficulty managing student behaviors described disruptive student conduct as sometimes being difficult to bear and stressful (Boomgard, 2013). Specifically, when teachers faced student misbehavior in the classroom, their morale was negatively affected. When student behavior in the classroom resulted in diminished teacher morale, teacher self-efficacy declined, causing the teacher to become less effectual in their practices (Ford, 2012). Teachers with low self-efficacy were more prone to feelings of anger, embarrassment, and guilt related to student misbehavior. They

also felt less confident about their capacity to manage student misbehavior, which led to teacher burnout and contributed to teacher attrition, consequently culminating in high national cost related to hiring and training new teachers (Hicks, 2012).

Traditionally school districts have opted to deal with such behaviors via exclusionary discipline practices, which have increasingly become recognized as being ineffective and even harmful. These practices became increasingly prevalent in the 1990s as a result of the Gun-Free Schools Act, which resulted in zero-tolerance policies designed to address a wide range of student behaviors from defiance and disrespect to more severe infractions including drug and weapon possession. Exclusionary discipline practices began as early as pre-school. Children were excluded from school as early as pre-school, and preschoolers were more likely to be expelled than children in any other grade. (Malik, 2017). Nationwide, 2.8 million K-12 students received one-or-more out of school suspensions. Such practices disproportionately impacted students with disabilities and students of color. Black students were suspended and expelled at a rate three times greater than white students, while students with disabilities were twice as likely to receive an out-of-school suspension as their non-disabled peers. (U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights, 2016). Furthermore, studies have shown a connection between exclusionary discipline practices and a range of educational, economic, and social challenges. (U.S. Department of Education & U.S. Department of Justice, 2014).

Low teacher efficacy and problematic student behavior operate against the constructs of positive school climate. A positive school climate consist of positive interpersonal relationships and a safe and supportive learning environment for teachers and students. School climate affects many aspects of the school community. In a positive

school, environment students experience fewer behavioral and emotional problems (Kuperminc et al., 1997). School climate research suggested that positive interpersonal relationships help optimize learning conditions for students and increased academic achievement and a reduction in maladaptive behavior (McEvoy & Welker, 2000). Concerning teachers, Taylor and Tashakkori (1995) found that a positive school climate to be associated with increased job satisfaction for school personnel.

Purpose

This quantitative correlational research project investigated the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior at a High School in Southern Illinois. In quantitative research, the information in the form of numbers is collected, scored, and analyzed to measure distinct attributes of individuals and organizations (Creswell, 2005). This quantitative correlational study quantified variables identified in the research hypothesis statements by gathering numerical figures that could be converted into data and used to test the hypotheses stated in this study to see if relationships exist. Because of the deductive nature of this study, the researcher referenced contemporary theories, existing concepts, and current evidence, such as that summarized in recent literature reviews, in order to determine which variables would guide data collection (Creswell, 2005). Knowledge gained from this study could drive additional research. Additionally, information obtained from this study could aid in the development of data-centered, research-based strategies. These strategies could assist in addressing school issues related to teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student discipline to improve the work environment for teachers, and the quality of education for students.

Null Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey.

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey.

Null Hypothesis 3: There is no relationship between student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey.

Limitations

This study involved the use of three survey instruments, which used a combination of nominal, interval/ratio, and ordinal scales to collect data on the sample of teachers. Studies that utilize survey instruments limit the scope of a participant's response and, therefore, may not be fully representative of the respondent's viewpoint, which can result in overgeneralization of the data. There may also be limitations resulting from the participant's level of interest, and the amount of time they may invest in completing the survey. Participants completed the surveys used in this study in intervals resulting in a loss in the number of participants over time. The first survey administered was the teacher efficacy survey, which collected 54 responses. The second survey administered was the school climate survey, which collected 46 responses, and the third survey administered was the student behavior survey, which collected only 40 responses. The decline in the number of participants resulted in a reduction in the number of surveys that

could be correlated. Because of the limited number of surveys that could be correlated, the researcher was unable to create a random sample; therefore, the researcher used all of the surveys that could be correlated. To further complicate the data collection process, the electronic survey instrument failed to collect the email addresses of participants requiring the researcher to silicate assistance from the school district's technology department, which used IP addresses and participant login information to match surveys to participants.

Research Instruments

The researcher used three surveys for this study on teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. Each survey utilized an ordinal scale to collect attitudinal data from CHS teachers for dissemination and analysis in order to develop statistical inferences and generalizations about the sample of teachers related to the hypotheses statements and based on the results. Surveys are often incorporated into the study of organizational culture (Leithwood et al., 1995), and quantitative educational research. (Creswell, 2005).

The researcher used questions from Bandura's Teacher Efficacy Scale for the Teacher Efficacy Survey. Questions on the survey were related to teacher capacity to influence school decision making, create and promote a positive school climate, have autonomy over classroom instruction, and enlist parental involvement. The survey consisted of 31 questions. Participants could select from the following possible responses: Nothing; Very Little; Some Influence; Quite a Bit of Influence; A Great Deal of Influence.

The researcher developed both the School Climate Survey and the Student Behavior Survey. After reviewing the literature on school climate and student behavior, the researcher identified the specific goals and objectives of each survey. Additionally, the researcher identified specific variables to consider, determined which indicators should be measured, identified the order in which to arrange the questions, and determined which rating scales were appropriate for which questions. The School Climate Survey was designed to gain perspective into teacher opinion of The High School's institutional climate and consisted of 51. The School Climate Survey consisted of questions related to teacher perception of the effectiveness of school leadership, supportiveness of the school environment; parent involvement; and the ambitiousness of teacher instruction. Participants could select from the following responses; Strongly Disagree; Disagree; Neutral; Agree; Strongly Agree. The Student Behavior Survey consisted of 50 questions and was designed by the researcher to collect information on teacher perception of student behavioral conduct. The student behavior survey consisted of question-related to the frequency of disruptive behaviors, the amount of time used to address disruptive behaviors, the impact of disruptive student behaviors on teachers personally, institutional support for managing disruptive behaviors, and restorative practices. Participants could select from the following responses on the Student Behavior Survey; Strongly Disagree; Disagree; Neutral; Agree; Strongly Agree.

After each survey, participants provided an optional open-ended comment. Fifty-four teachers completed the Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey, and four teachers provided comments. Forty-six teachers completed the School Climate Survey, and seven teachers

provided comments. Forty teachers completed the Student Behavior Survey, and 23 teachers provided comments (See Appendix R for teacher comments)

Validity and Reliability

To create the Teacher-Self Efficacy Survey used in this study the researcher referenced Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale. Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale has been used and referenced in educational research for decades. Although many instruments to measure teacher self-efficacy have emerged over the years, the construct of Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale best aligned with the objectives of this research.

Concerning the school climate and student behavior surveys, the researcher enlisted the assistance of a panel of six educators to test the validity and reliability of the research instruments. Three-panel members served as the formative committee. They assisted the researcher in examining the research instruments for content and construct validity, and three-panel members served as the summative committee to verify and approve the research instruments. During the review for validity, the committee determined that administering lengthy and multiple surveys at one time could result in survey fatigue. Because of the concerns expressed by the formative committee, the researcher elected to administer the surveys in three intervals on three separate professional development days. The summative committee used the test re-test method to determine the dependability of the research instruments. The test re-test method of checking for reliability assesses the external consistency of the research instruments related to the extent to which scores remain stable over time, from one test administration to another (Creswell, 2005). This method of testing for reliability is commonly used in research involving surveys and questionnaires. The School Climate and Student Behavior

surveys were administered to the summative committee twice at two different points in time, which were 14 days apart. The researcher used the Pearson Correlation Coefficient to calculate reliability. The mean score for the School Climate Survey was $r = 0.91$, and the mean score for the Student Behavior Survey was $r = 0.95$, demonstrating high test-retest reliability for both surveys.

Table 1

Test for Reliability

Test-Re-Test Reliability *(Test administered 14 days apart)*	Committee Member 1	Committee Member 2	Committee Member 3
School Climate Survey	r= 0.978	r=0.795	r=0.963
Student Behavior Survey	r=0.991	r= 0.887	r=0.970

Note: This table shows the results of the reliability test conducted on the school climate survey and student behavior survey. The test showed that a strong positive correlation exists between the administrations of each test at two different points in time, suggesting that the research instruments are stable and reliable.

Sample

The researcher received permission from the cooperating school district's superintendent to conduct the research study (Appendix A). The researcher completed NIH training on Protecting Human Research Participants (Appendix B). The researcher gained approval from the Institutional Review Board at Lindenwood University in the spring of 2018 to conduct this research. The researcher provided participants with information on the study and each survey (Appendices C, D, & E). Participants were also provided an informed consent letter for each survey (Appendices F, G, & H). Participation in this study was voluntary. At any time, participants reserved the right to withdraw their consent and discontinue their participation in the study. The researcher did

not provide any financial or other types of compensation to participants. To minimize the risk of coercion or bias in response, the researcher obtained assistance from the Instructional Technologist at the high school, a neutral third party within the district with a professional working relationship with the participants, and not an evaluator of the building principal or teachers and not evaluated by the researcher. At the time this study was conducted, the CHS teaching staff consisted of 59 teachers. Out of 59 teachers, 92% of teachers responded to the teacher efficacy survey, 68% of teachers responded to the student behavior survey, and 77% of teachers responded to the school climate survey.

Table 2

2017-2018 Student Demographic Information

Number of 9th -12th-grade students enrolled	883
Chronic absenteeism defined as missing 10 +days	75.0%
Low income/free and reduced lunch	85.0%
African American (Black) students	90.6%
European American (White) students	6.0%
Hispanic students	1.6%
Students who identify with 2 or more ethnicities	1.8%
Students with IEP's	22.7%
Homeless Population	4.3%
9-12th-grade student out of school suspensions	1291
11th Grade students proficient on SAT	4.0%

Note: This table Student Demographic Information from the 2017-2018 Illinois School Report card accessible at https://www.illinoisreportcard.com/ on the participating high school.

Table 2 provides a summary of the school student demographic data based on information obtained from the school Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE) school

district report card. Table 3 provides a summary of teacher demographic data based on the school report card.

Table 3

2017-2018 Teacher Demographic Information

Number of 9th-12th Grade Teachers	59
Male teachers	19.3%
Female teachers	80.7%
African American (Black)Teachers	11.5%
European American (White) Teachers	86.0%
Hispanic Teachers	1.4%
Asian Teachers	0.9%
Native Hawaiian/ Pacific Islander	0.1%
American Indian	0.2%
Two or more ethnicities	0.08%
The average number of years teaching	0.2%
Teachers with a Master's Degree	52.7%
Teacher retention rate	81.0%
Teachers missing 10 or more days	46.4%
Teacher's receiving Proficient or Excellent Evaluations	96.6%

Note: This table contains information on the high school teachers who participated in the study. The information comes from the 2018-2019 Illinois School Report

Methodology

The researcher collected data on the study population at a single point in time regarding their attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and practice as they relate to this study to see if a relationship exists between the stated variable. Using a secure server, the researcher's assistant sent the Teacher Efficacy Survey, School Student Behavior Survey, and School Climate Survey (Appendices I, J, K) in three separate emails in intervals on school improvement days to prevent survey fatigue. Data from the surveys populated into an excel spreadsheet. The researcher's assistant replaced all identifying information with a de-identifying alpha-numeric code before providing the data to the researcher for analysis.

The researcher created a sample of the survey responses using the systematic sampling method. To do this, the researcher would create a sample of the population by selecting the first survey at a random starting point and placing the surveys that were on top in the back of the survey pile. Next, the researcher intended to select every 2nd survey response for analysis. The researcher had planned to repeat the systematic sampling process until the researcher generated a sample size of 30 teachers. However, because of the decline in responses over time, the researcher had to use every survey that could be correlated.

Table 4 provides survey distribution information, with regard to the study. Table 5 lists the relationships tested within the study plan.

Table 4

Survey Distribution Information

Survey	Date Survey Distributed	Responses Received
Teacher Efficacy	1st Survey Administered 4-06	54
School Climate	2nd Survey Administered 04-11	46
Student Behavior	3rd Survey Administered 04-18	40

Note: This table represents the number of teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior surveys completed by high school teachers

Table 5

Correlated Surveys

Relationships Tested	Number of Survey Correlated
Teacher Efficacy and School Climate	36
Teacher Efficacy and Student Behavior	28
School Climate and Student Behavior	32

Note: This table represents the number of teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior surveys completed by teachers that could be correlated

Summary

This quantitative research project investigated the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior at a high school in Southern Illinois. The researcher examined survey data to see if a relationship existed between the collected quantitative sets of data using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC). This study involved the use of correlational matrix and descriptive statistics to communicate findings. The researcher used a correlational matrix to display the correlation coefficient for variables related to this study. The researcher used descriptive statistics to describe

phenomena related to this research and dictated the process of organizing, graphing, summarizing, and describing quantitative information (Bluman, 2007). This approach to research allowed the researcher to quantify the results of the survey and correlate them with hard data to determine if a relationship exists between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior.

Chapter Four: Results

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if a relationship exists between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. This study was conducted at a high school located in Southern Illinois and produced results from three surveys. The surveys completed by classroom teachers included a Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey, a School Climate Survey, and a Student Behavior Survey. The Pearson Product-Moment, Correlation Coefficient Test, was used to evaluate the research hypothesis in order to determine if a significant correlation subsisted between the study variables. Chapter Four includes a presentation of the data collected from the surveys administered as part of this study. Chapter Four culminates in a summary of significant findings associated with this quantitative study. This chapter presents the finding of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient test used to investigate the research hypotheses.

Null Hypotheses

This study sought to establish if a relationship existed between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. The null hypotheses statements related to this study were as follows:

$H_0$1: There is no relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey.

$H_0$2: There is no relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey.

$H_0$3: There is no relationship between student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey.

Descriptive Statistics

The teaching staff, which consisted of 59 teachers at a high school in Southern Illinois, were invited to participate in this study. The first survey administered was the teacher efficacy survey, which collected 54 responses, representing a response rate of 92%. The next survey administered was the school climate survey, which collected 46 responses, representing an 80% response rate. The third survey administered was the student behavior survey, which collected 40 responses representing a 68% response rate. A decline in the number of participants resulted in a reduction in the number of surveys that could be correlated. Because of the reduction in responses over the survey administration period, only 32, 54%, of the Student Behavior Surveys, 36. 78%, of the School Climate, and 36, 67%, of the Teacher Efficacy Surveys were able to be correlated. Table 6 lists the means and standard deviation for the variables related to this study.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for All Variable

Variables	N	Mean	SD
Teacher Efficacy Survey	36	63.68	10.68
School Climate Survey	36	159.65	18.23
Student Behavior Survey	32	118.06	22.13

Note: This table shows the number of quantifiable surveys (N), the average scores of each survey (Mean), and the standard deviation (SD) for each survey. The sampling means for each survey follows a normal distribution.

Results

The researcher used data from the Teacher Self-Efficacy, School Climate, and Student Behavior Surveys to test the hypotheses. On the Teacher, Efficacy Survey participants could select from the following possible responses: Nothing, coded as one;

Very Little, coded as two; Some Influence, coded as three; Quite a Bit of Influence coded as four, and A Great Deal of Influence, coded as five. On both the School Climate Survey and the Student Behavior Survey Participants could select from the following responses; Strongly Disagree, coded as 1; Disagree, coded as two; Neutral, coded as three; Agree, coded as four; and Strongly Agree coded as 5. The Pearson Product-Moment, Correlation (PPMC) test, was conducted to analyze each null hypothesis. Participants had the opportunity to include an optional comment at the end of each survey. Those responses can be found in Appendix R. The proceeding provides a summary of those results.

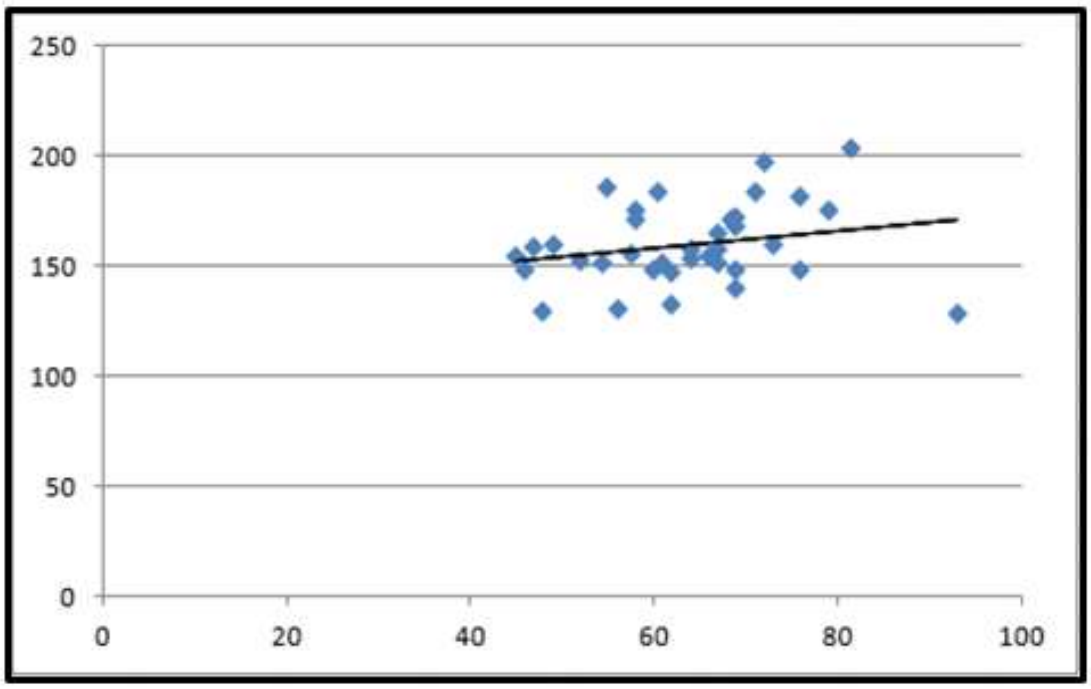


Figure 1: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate.

H01

Null hypothesis one stated that there would be no relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey. In order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and school climate, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation ($r = .228$) was not significant; $t(34) = 1.37$, $p = .181$. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there is not a significant relationship between the teacher self-efficacy scores and the school climate scores and.

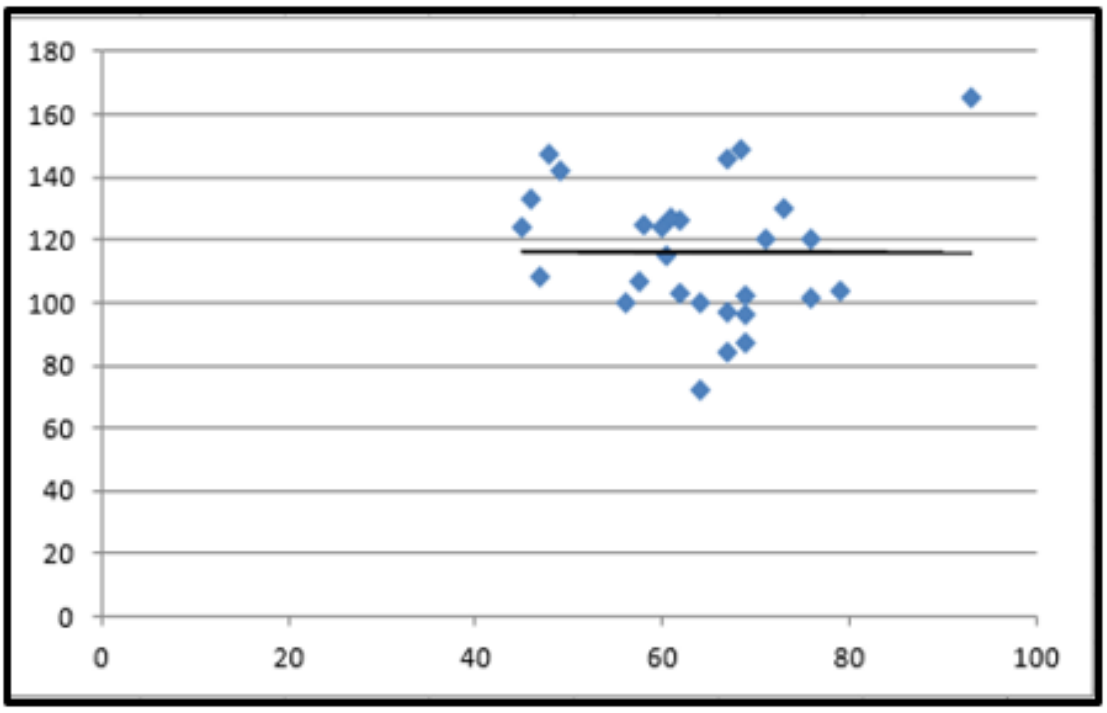
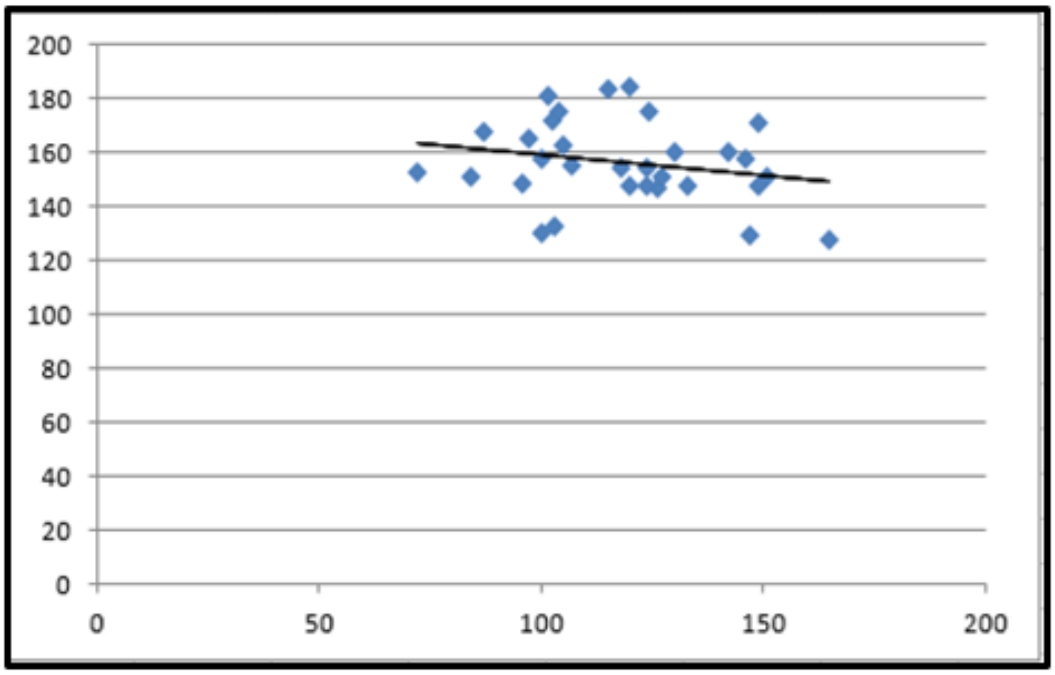


Figure 2*:* Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and student behavior.

H02

Null hypothesis two stated there is no relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey and student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey. In order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy scores and student behavior scores, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.013) was not significant; $t(26)$ = -0.07, p = .948. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there is not a significant relationship between the teacher self-efficacy scores student behavior scores.



/

Figure 3: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate.

H03

Null hypothesis three stated there is no relationship between student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey. In order to test the relationship between student behavior scores and school climate scores, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.236) was not significant; $t(30) = -1.33$, $p = .194$. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and school climate scores.

Table 7

Variable Tested

Variables	n	r	df	t	p
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate	36	.228	34	1.37	.181
Teacher Self-Efficacy and Student Behavior	28	-0.013	26	-0.07	.948
Student Behavior and School Climate	32	.236	30	-1.33	.194

Additional Results

In addition to the three hypotheses statements identified in this study, the researcher analyzed 29 subgroups of data to see if relationships existed within specific demographics of teachers, which included age, gender, number of years teaching, and level of educational attainment. The researcher found a significant correlation existed between teacher self-efficacy and school climate as perceived by teachers between the ages of 40-49. Regarding the subcategory of teacher efficacy and school climate for teachers between the ages of 40-49, the analysis showed a significant correlation (r = .636).

Subcategories

In order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate as perceived by female teachers, and as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and School Climate Survey, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.238) was not significant; $t(22) = 1.149$, $p = .262$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by female teachers.

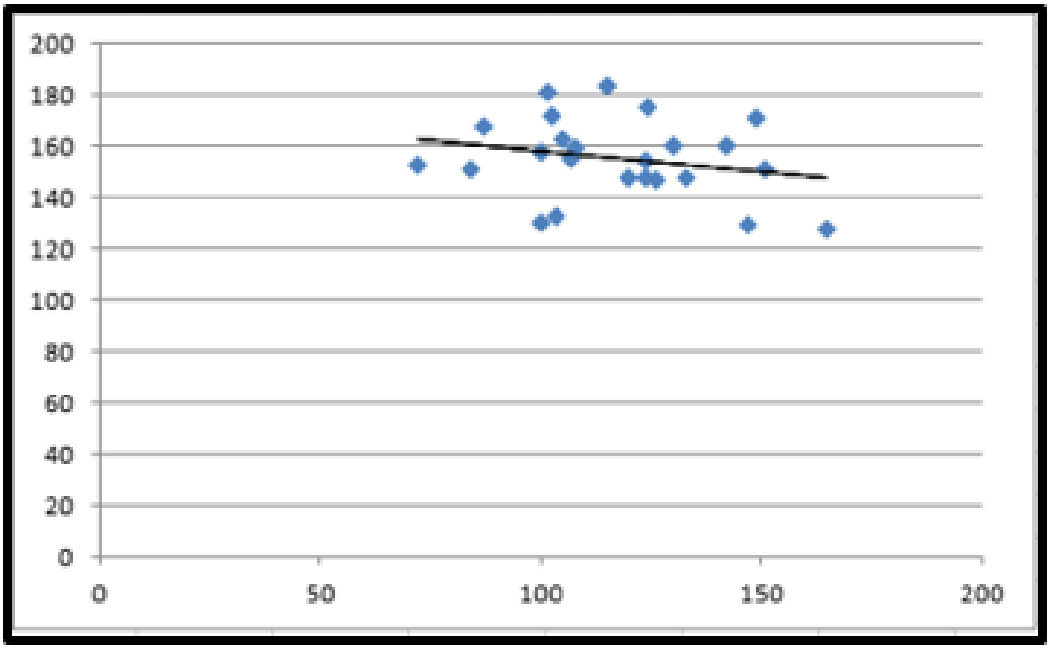


Figure 4: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate for female teachers.

Figure 4 illustrates the relationship between student behavior and school climate for female teachers. Figure 5 illustrations the relationship between student behavior and school climate for male teachers.

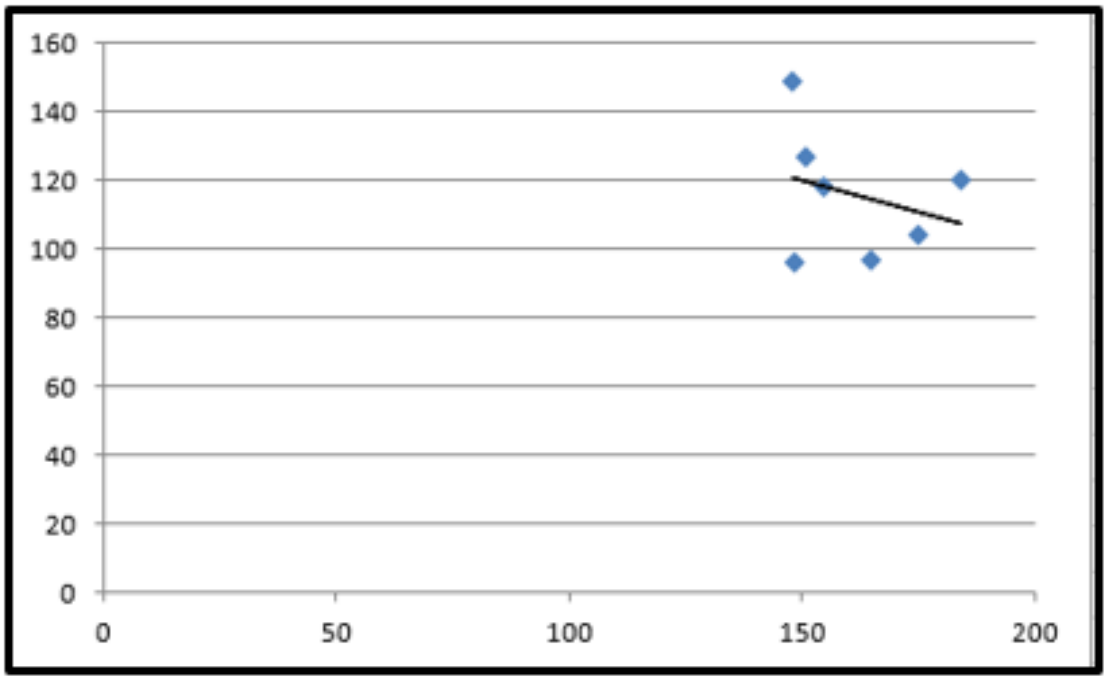


Figure 5: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate for male teachers.

In order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate as perceived by male teachers, and as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and School Climate Survey, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.283) was not significant; $t(5)$ = -0.660, p = .538. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by male teachers.

In order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and school climate as perceived by female teachers, and as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey and School Climate Survey, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test.

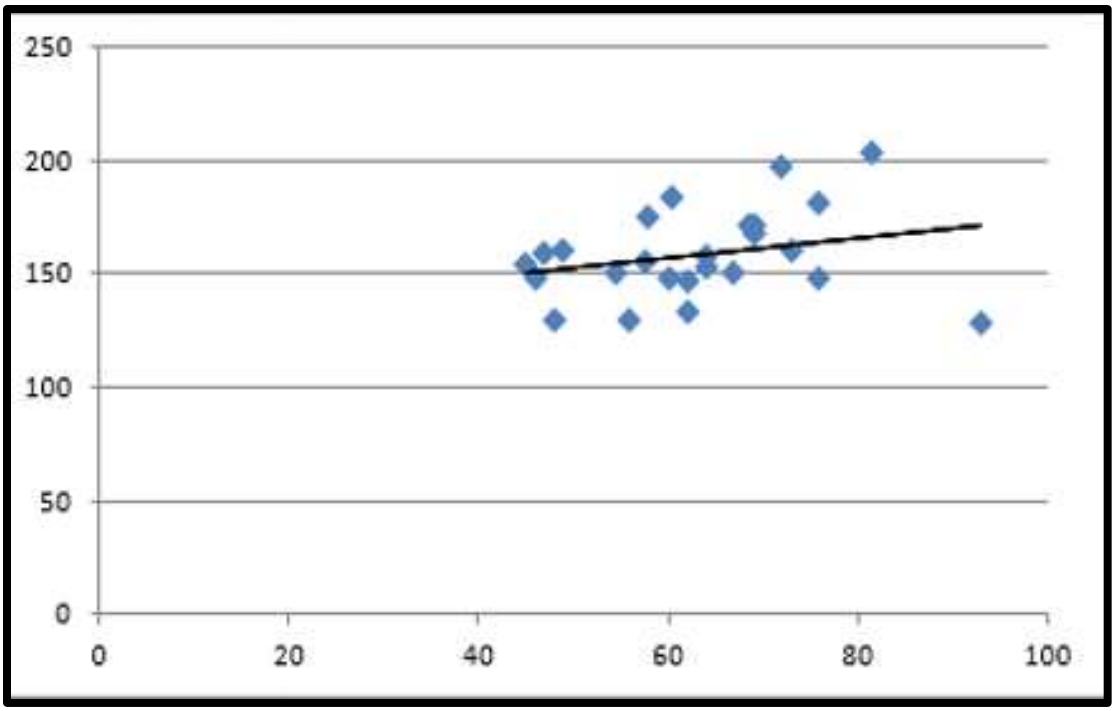


Figure 6: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for female teachers.

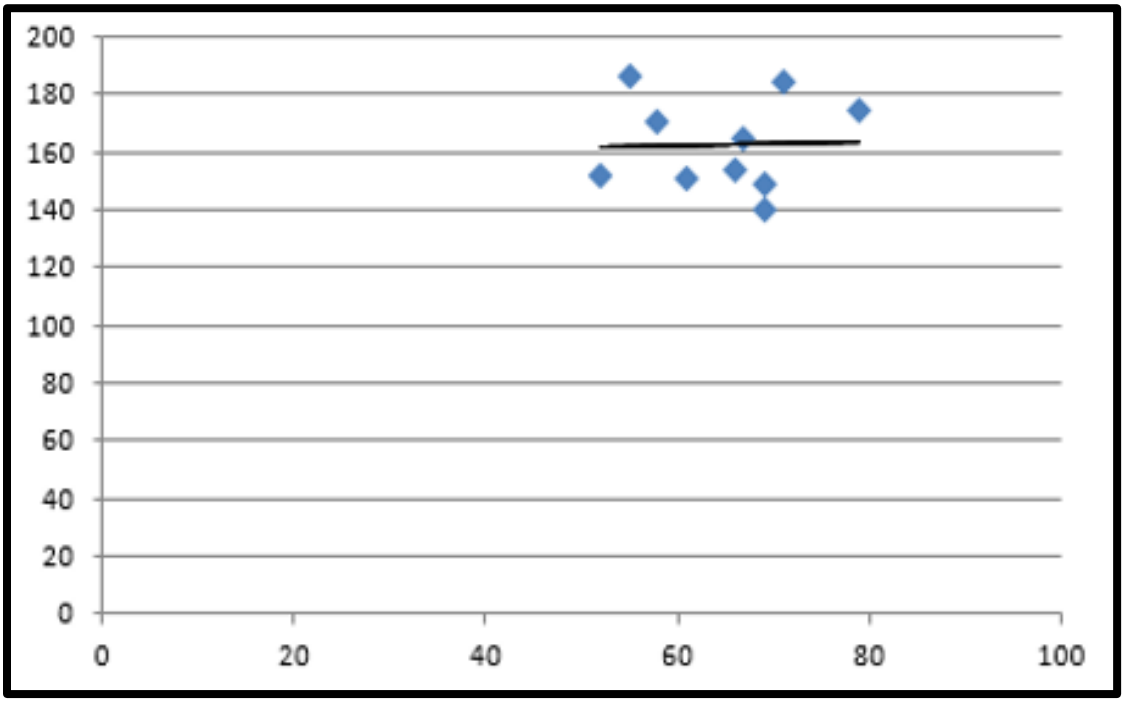


Figure 7: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for male teachers.

As shown in Figure 6, the analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation ($r = 0.264$) was not significant; $t(23) = 1.313$, $p = .202$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by female teachers.

In order to test the relationship between teacher efficacy and school climate as perceived by male teachers, and as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey and School Climate Survey, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation ($r = 0.028$) was not significant; $t(9) = .084$, $p = .934$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teacher efficacy scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by male teachers, as illustrated in Figure 7.

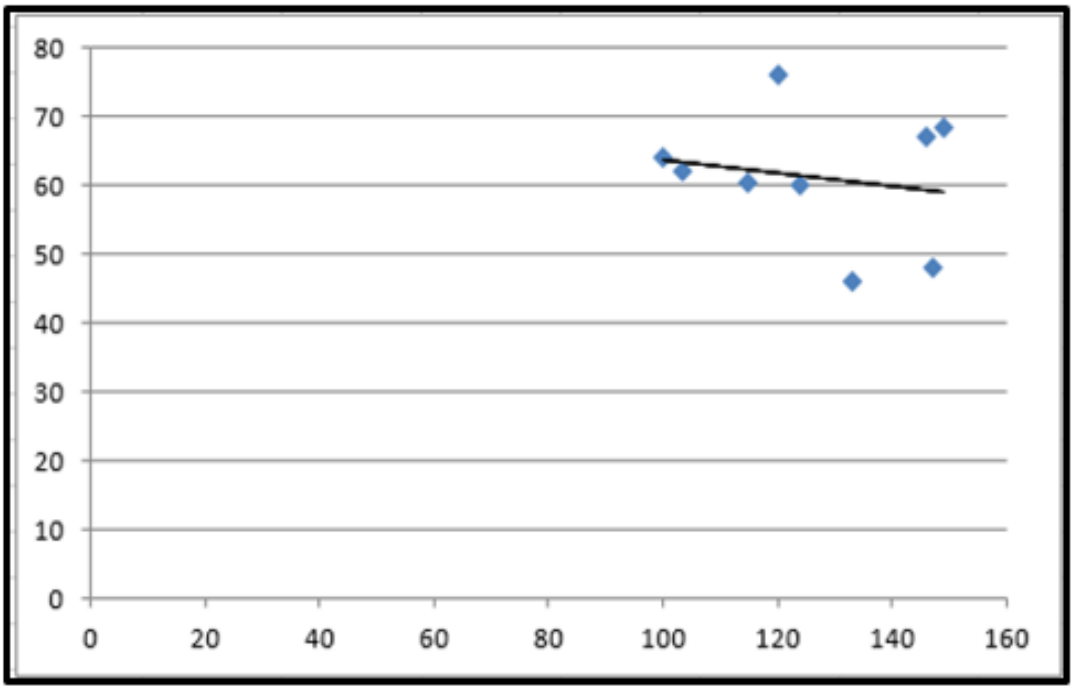


Figure 8: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and student behavior for teachers between the ages 40-49.

In order to test the relationship between student behavior and teacher self-efficacy as perceived by teachers between the ages 40 and 49, and as measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale and the Student Behavior Survey, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.191) was not significant; $t(7) = -.515$, $p = .622$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and teacher efficacy scores as evaluated by teacher's ages 40 and 49.

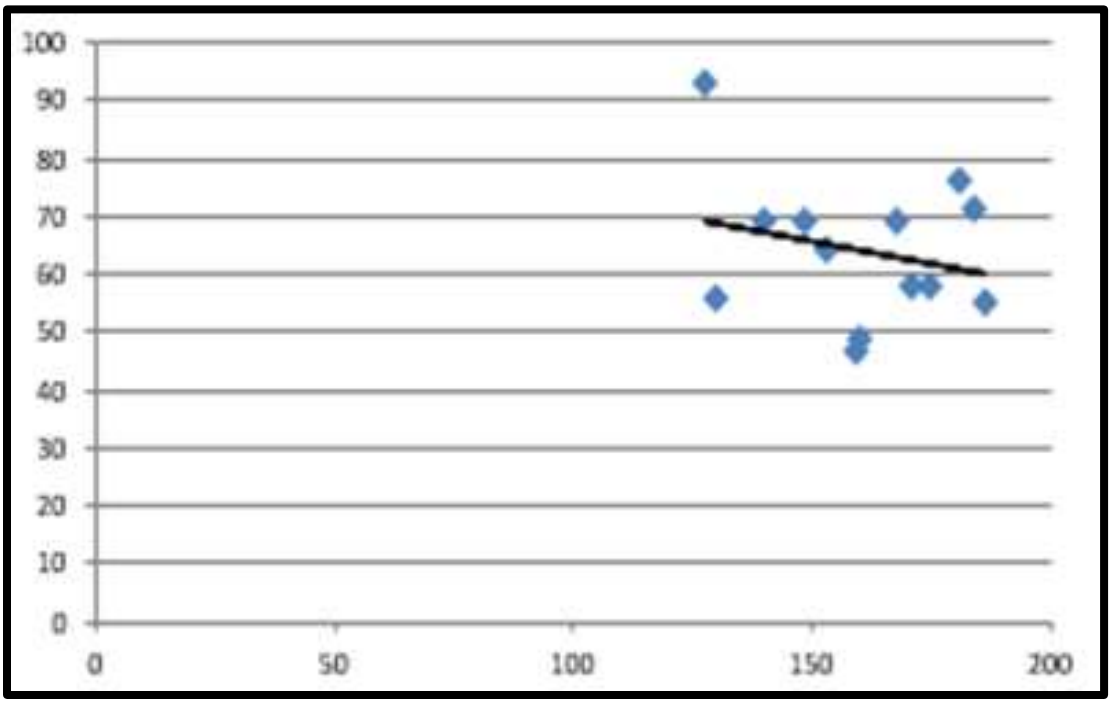


Figure 9: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and student behavior for teachers ages 50-59.

In order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student behavior as perceived by teachers between the ages of 50 and 59, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.270) was not significant; $t(8) = .793$, $p = .451$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student

behavior scores and teacher efficacy scores and evaluated by teachers between the ages of 50 and 59.

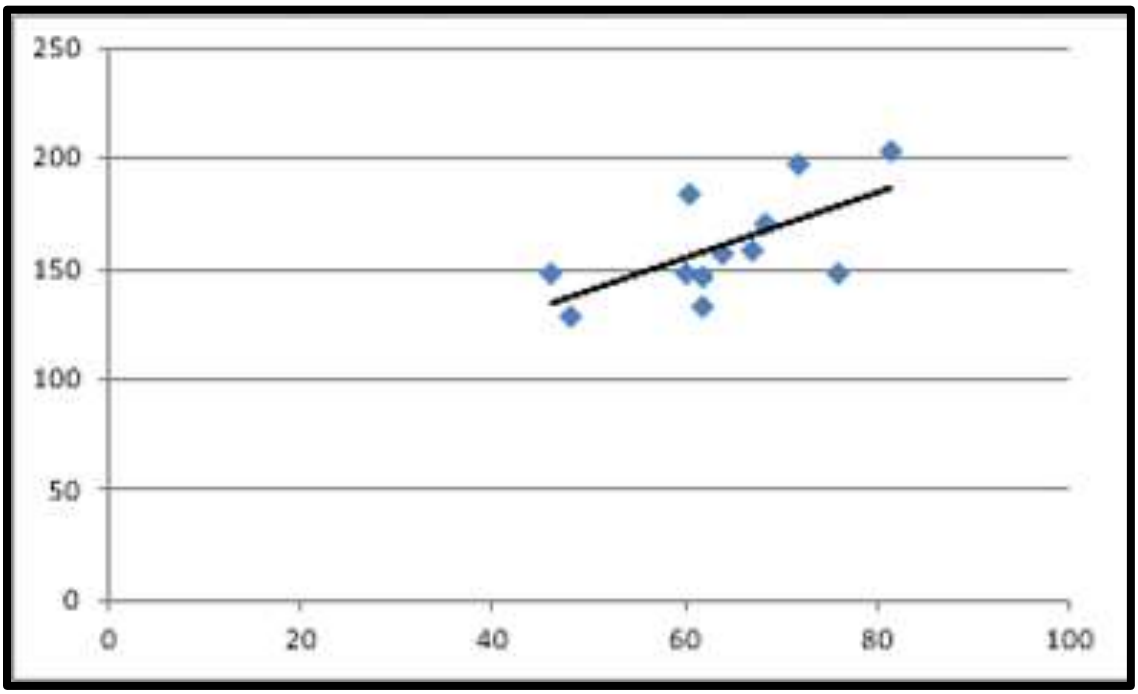


Figure 10: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers ages 40-49.

In order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and school climate as perceived by teachers between the ages of 40-49, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation ($r = 0.636$) was significant; $t(10) = 2.606$, $p = .0262$, and concluded that there is a significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy scores and school climate teachers scores as evaluated by teachers between the ages of 40 and 49.

In order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and school climate as perceived by teachers ages 30 to 39, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test, as illustrated in Figure 11.

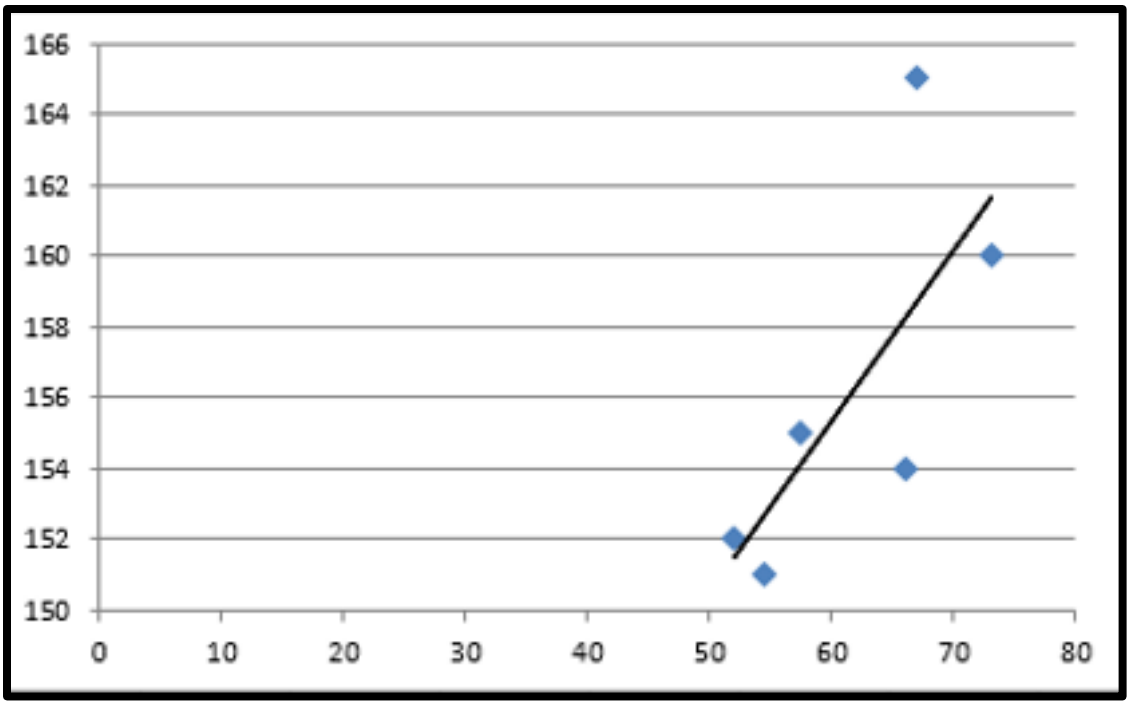


Figure 11: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers ages 30-39.

The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.744) was not significant; $t(4) = 2.23$, $p = .089$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teacher efficacy scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by teachers between the ages of 30 and 39.

As shown in Figure 12, in order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and school climate as perceived by teachers between the ages of 50 and 59, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.897) was not significant; $t(11) = .897$, $p = .389$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teacher efficacy scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by teachers between the ages of 50-59.

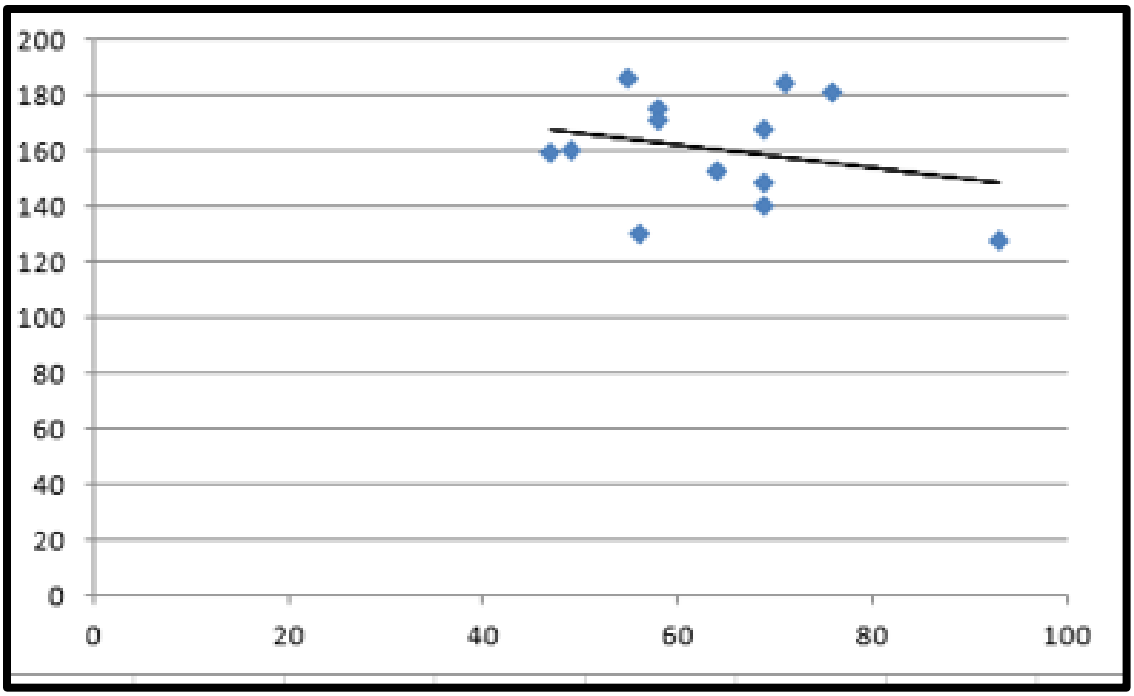


Figure 12: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers ages 50 -59.

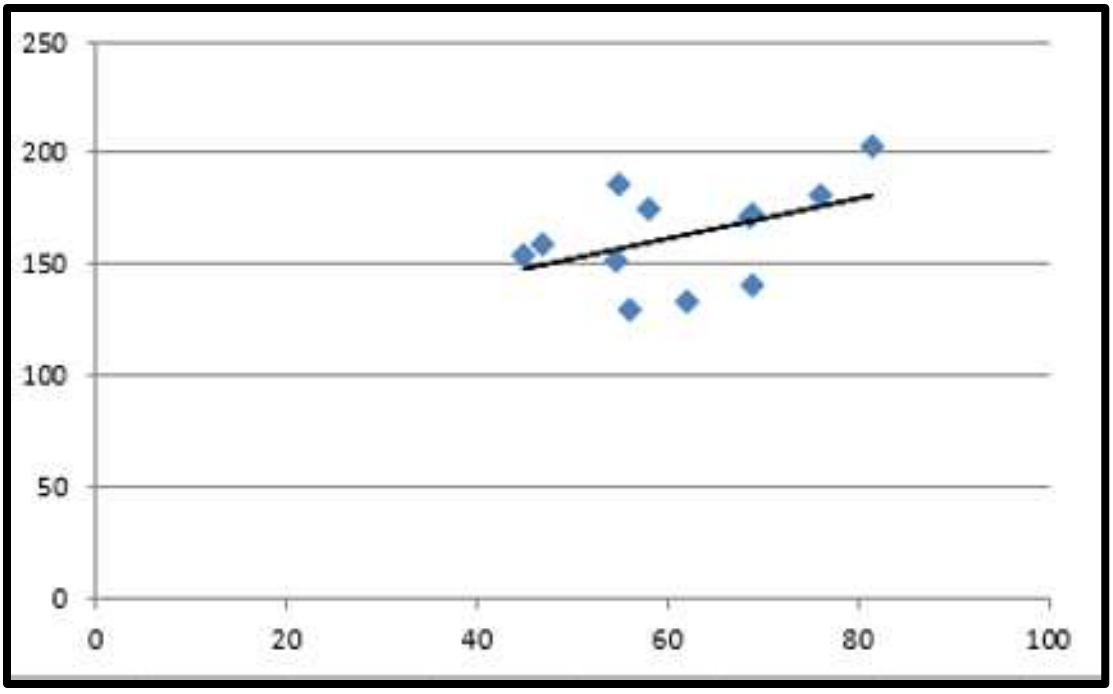


Figure 13: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers with a Bachelor's Degree.

In order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and school climate as perceived by teachers with a Bachelor's Degree, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.236) was not significant; $t(10) = 1.638$, $p = .132$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teacher efficacy scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by teachers with a Bachelor's Degree.

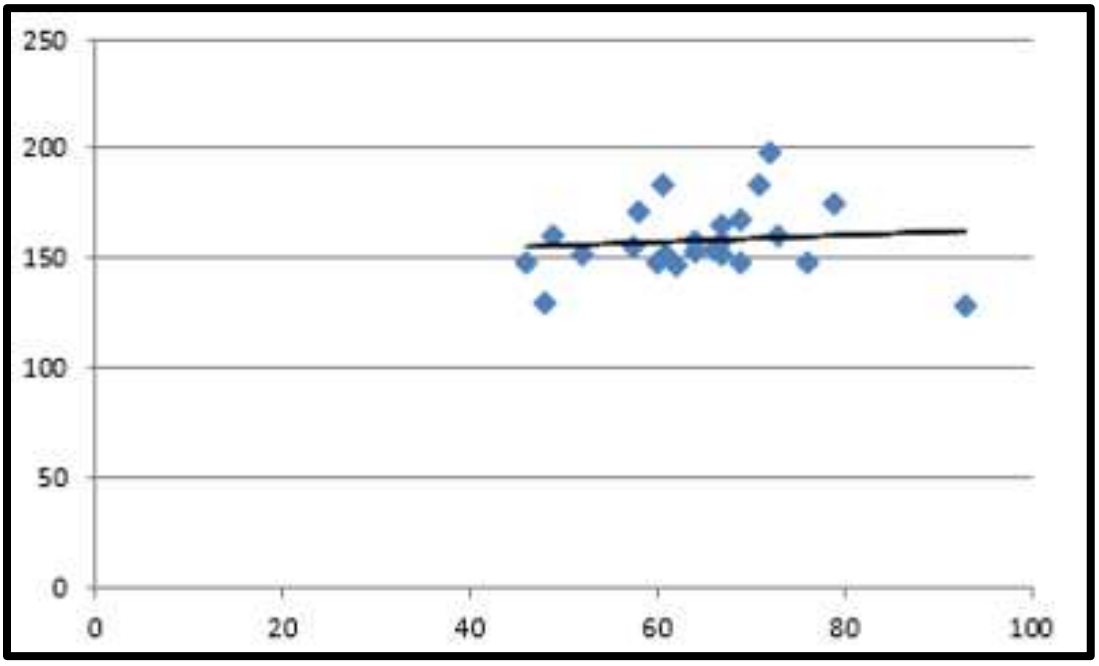


Figure 14: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers with a Master's Degree.

In order to test the relationship between teacher efficacy and school climate as perceived by teachers with a Master's Degree, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = .102) was not significant; $t(22) = .481$, $p = .635$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teacher

efficacy scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by teachers with a Master's Degree.

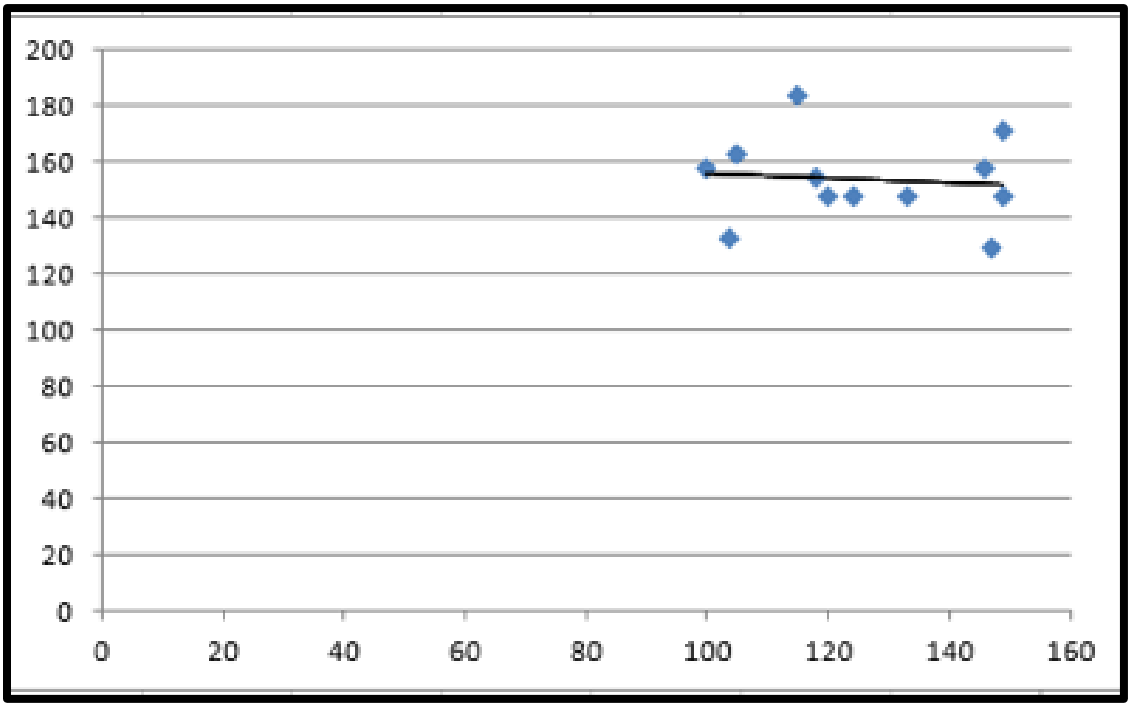


Figure 15: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient student behavior and school climate for teachers ages 40 – 49.

In order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and School Climate Survey, and as perceived by teachers between the ages of 40 and 49, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.105) was not significant; $t(10)$ = .334, p = .745. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and school climate scores as evaluated by teacher's ages 40 and 49.

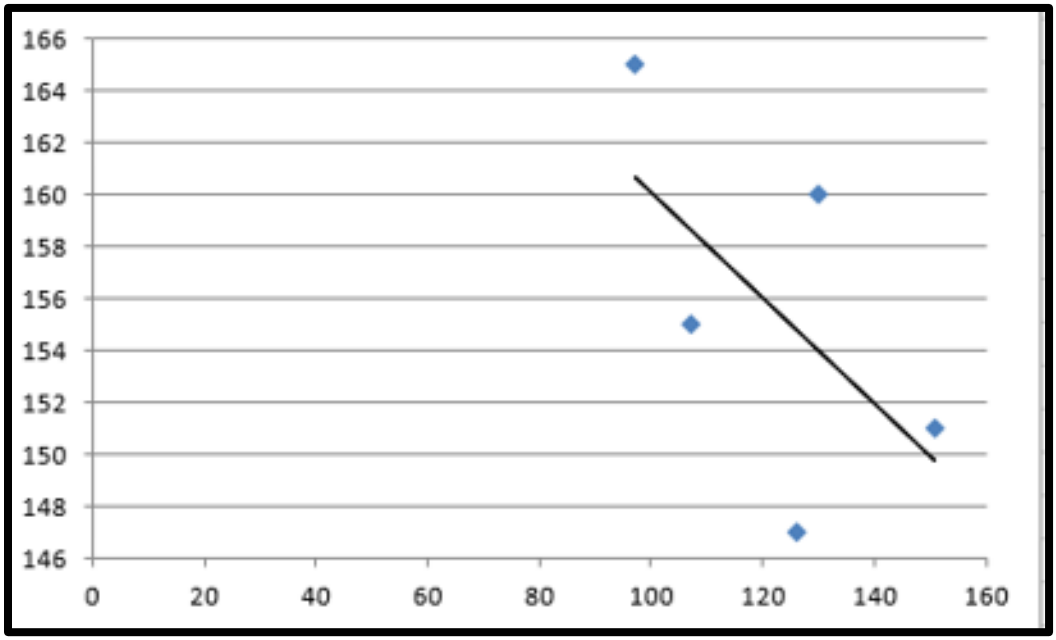


Figure 16: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate for teachers ages 30-39.

In order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and School Climate Survey, and as perceived by teachers between the ages of 30 and 39, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.598) was not significant; $t(3) = -1.262$, $p = .287$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by teachers between the ages of 30-39.

As shown in Figure 17, In order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and School Climate Survey, and as perceived by teachers between the ages of 50 and 59, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test.

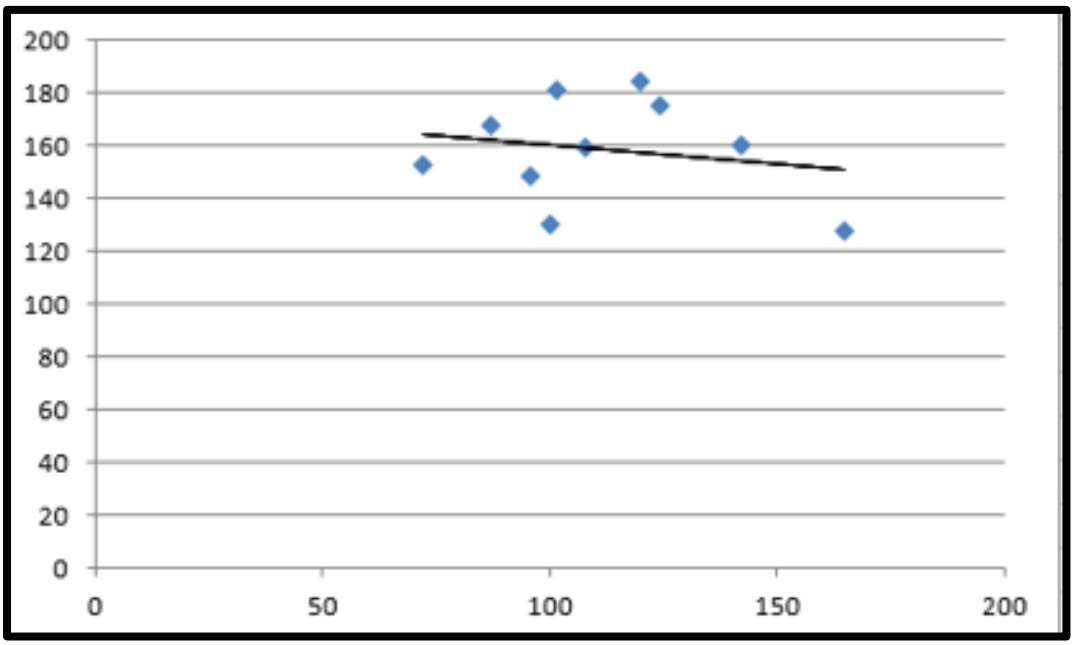


Figure 17: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate for teachers ages 50-59.

The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r =-0.192) was not significant; $t(8) = -0.553$, $p = .595$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by teachers between the ages of 50 and 59.

As illustrated in Figure 18, in order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and School Climate Survey, and as perceived by teachers with a Bachelor's Degree, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation ($r = .326$) was not significant; $t(7) = .912$, $p = .392$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by teachers with a Bachelor's Degree.

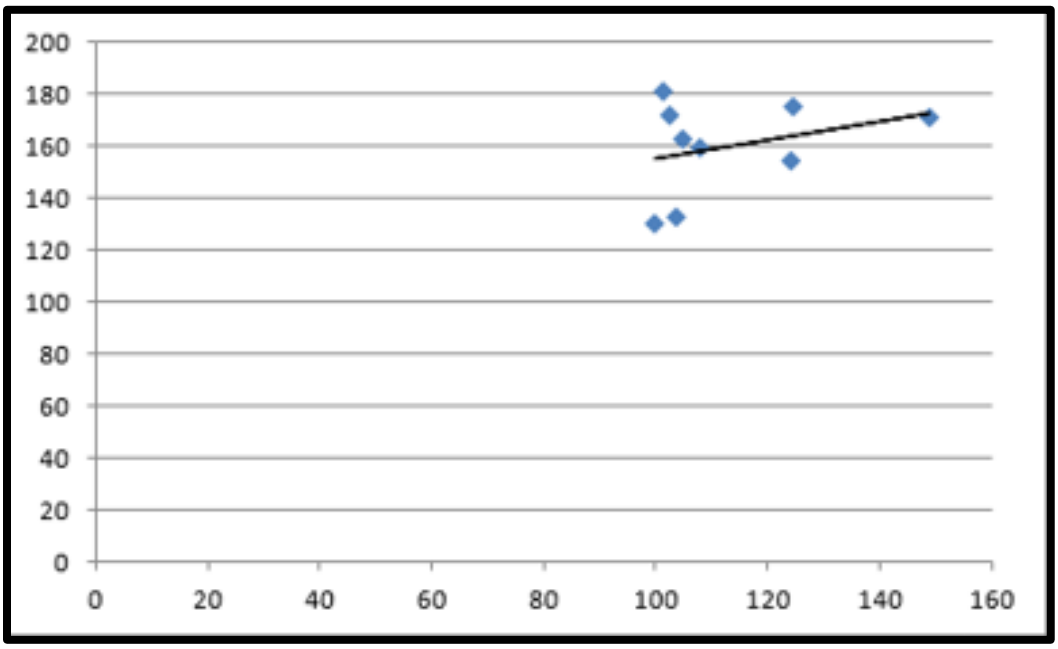


Figure 18: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate for teachers with a Bachelor's Degree.

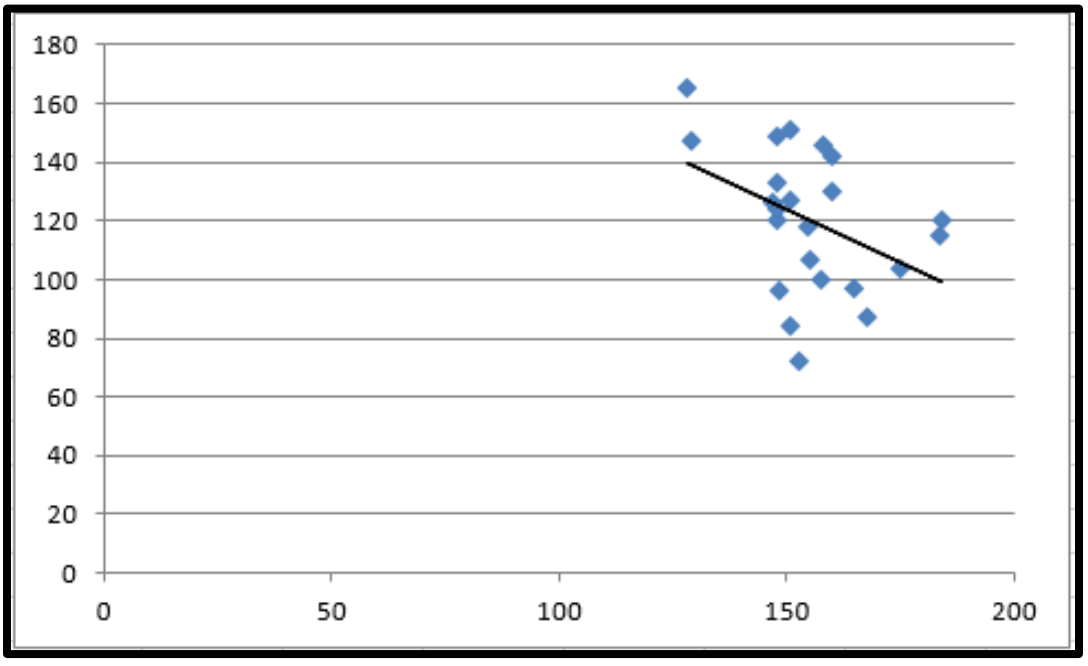


Figure 19: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate for teachers with a Master's Degree.

As illustrated in Figure 19, in order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and School Climate Survey, and as perceived by teachers with a Master's Degree, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.410) was not significant; $t(21)$ = -2.060, p = .052. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and school climate scores, as evaluated by teachers with a Master's Degree.

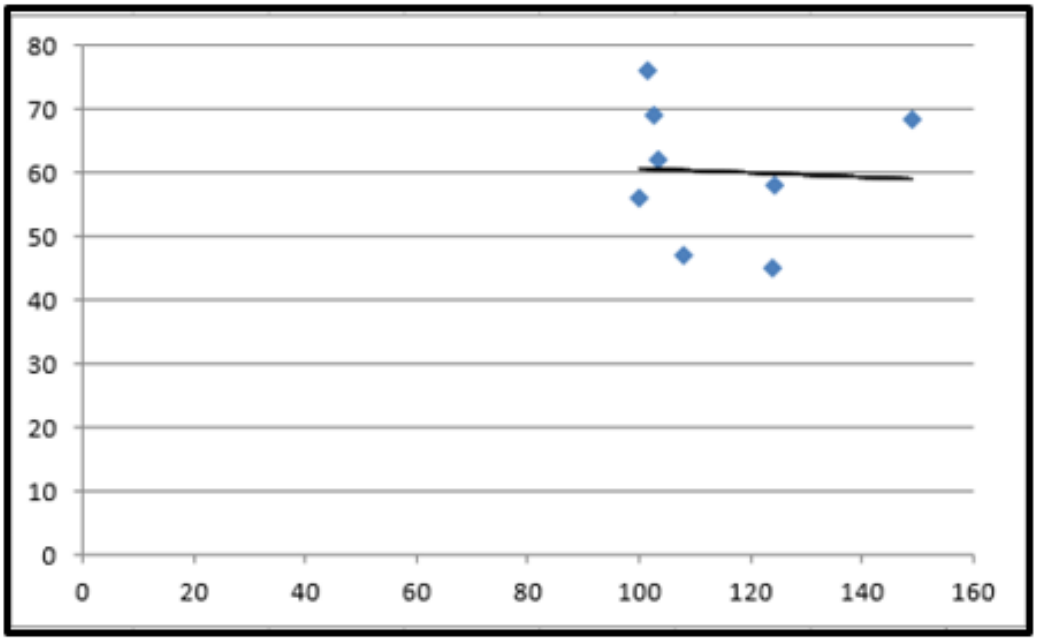


Figure 20: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and student behavior for teachers with a Bachelor's Degree.

In order to test the relationship between student behavior and teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and Teacher Efficacy Survey, and as perceived by teachers with a Bachelor's Degree, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.049) was not significant; $t(6)$ = .120, p = .908.

The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between the teacher self-efficacy scores and student behavior scores, as evaluated by teachers with a Bachelor's Degree.

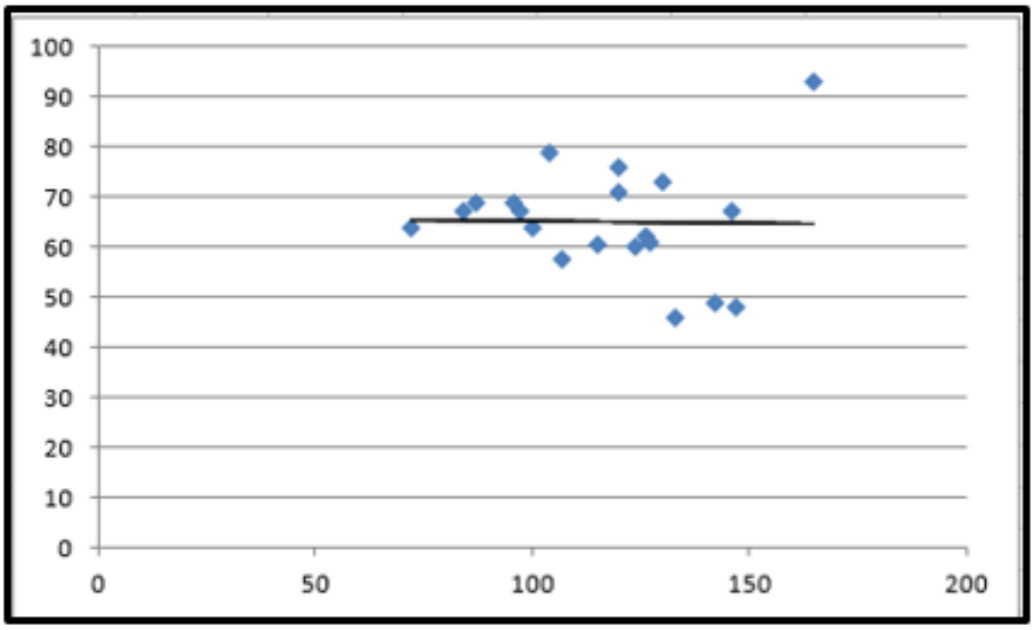


Figure 21: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and student behavior for teachers with a Masters' Degree.

In order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey, and as perceived by teachers with a Masters' Degree the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.021) was not significant; $t(18) = .089$, $p = .930$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between the student behavior scores and teacher self-efficacy scores as evaluated by teachers with a Masters' Degree.

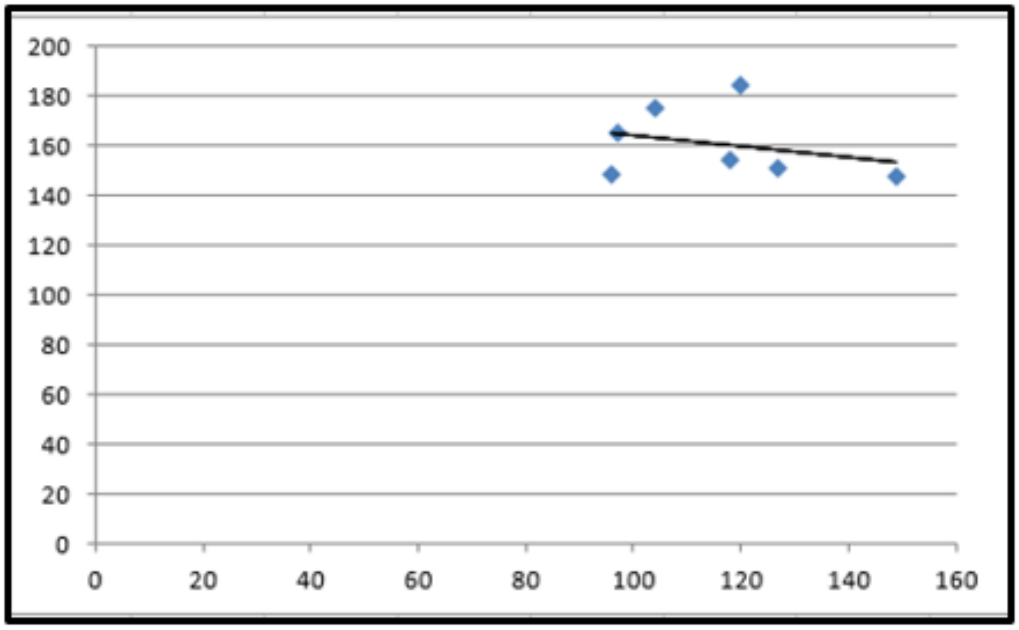


Figure 22: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and student behavior for male teachers.

In order to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and Teacher Efficacy Survey, and as perceived by male teachers, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.236) was not significant; $t(3)$ = .763, p = .501. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy scores and student behavior scores, as evaluated by male teachers.

As shown in Figure 23, in order to test the relationship between student behavior and teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and Teacher Efficacy Survey, and as perceived by female teachers the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test.

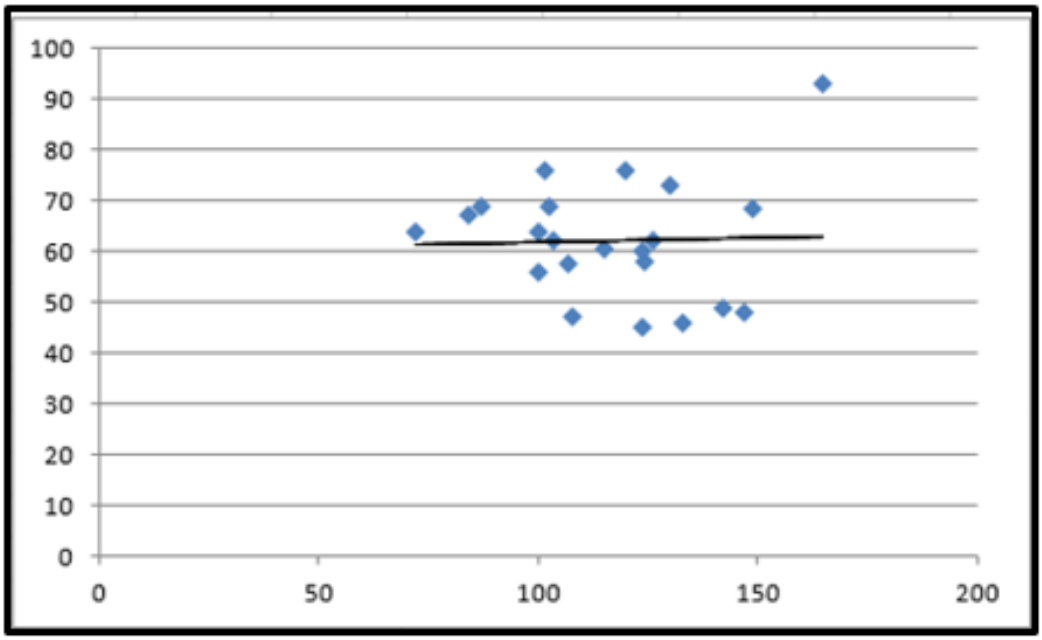


Figure 23: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and student behavior for female teachers.

The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.033) was not significant; $t(20)$ = .148, p = .884. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior scores and teacher efficacy scores, as evaluated by female teachers.

As illustrated in Figure 24, in order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate for teachers who taught for 11 to 15 years, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = -0.793) was not significant; $t(4)$ = .2.063, p = .059. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior and school climate for teachers who taught for 11 to 15.

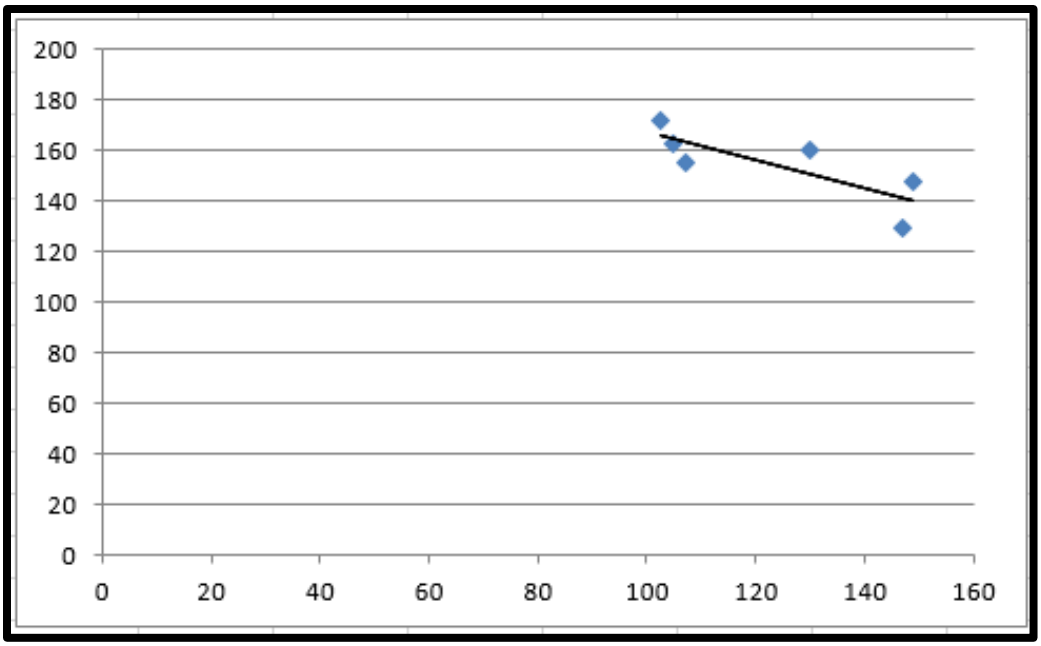


Figure 24: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate for teachers who taught for 11-15 years.

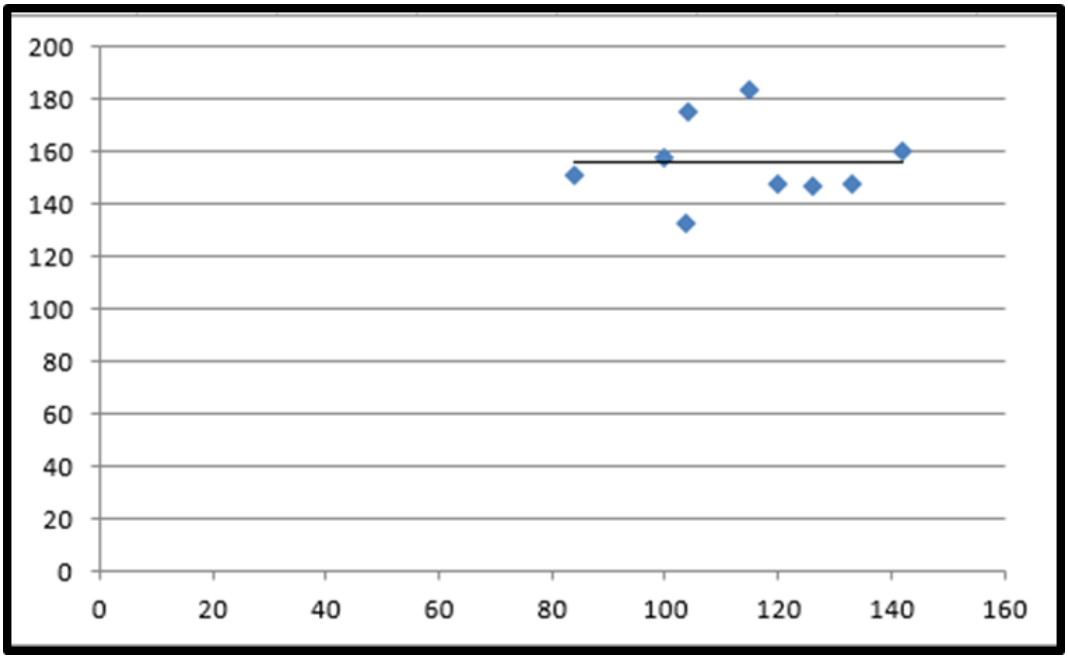


Figure 25: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate for teachers who taught for 16-20 years.

In order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate for teachers who taught for 16 to 20 years, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation ($r = 0.005$) was not significant; $t(7) = 0.013$, $p = 0.989$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior and school climate for teachers who taught for 16 to 20.

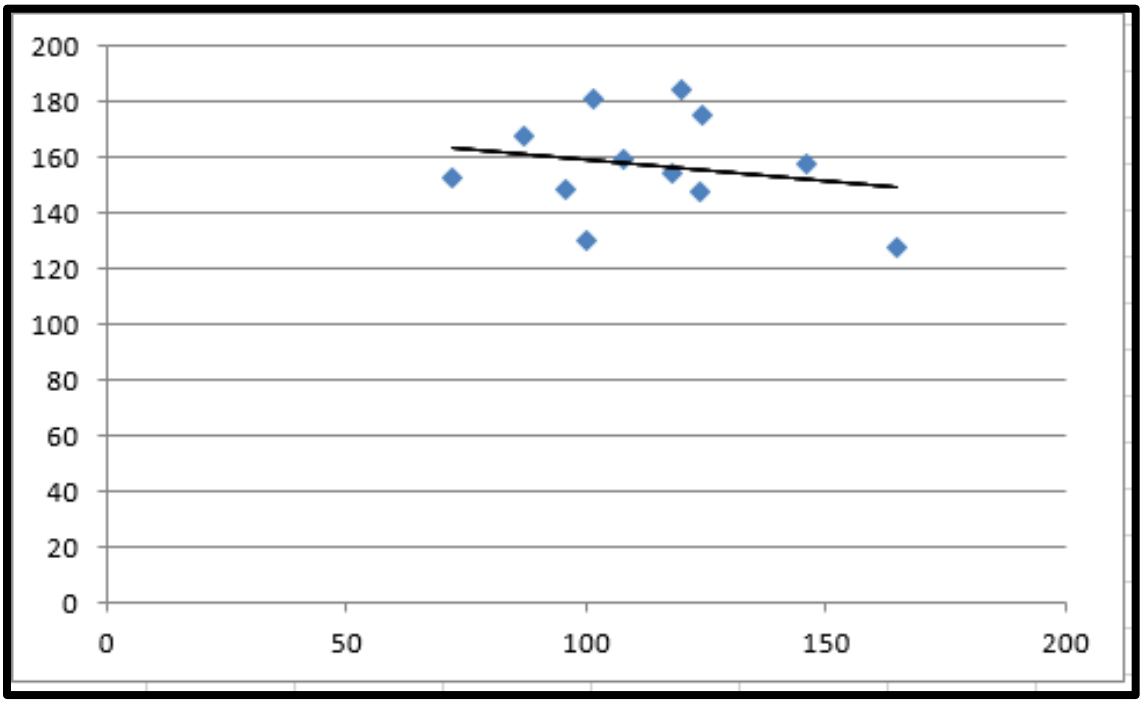


Figure 26: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and school climate for teachers who taught for more than 20 years.

In order to test the relationship between student behavior and school climate for teachers who taught for more than 20 years, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation ($r = .222$) was not significant; $t(10) = .720$, $p = 0.488$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior and school climate for teachers who taught for more than 20 years.

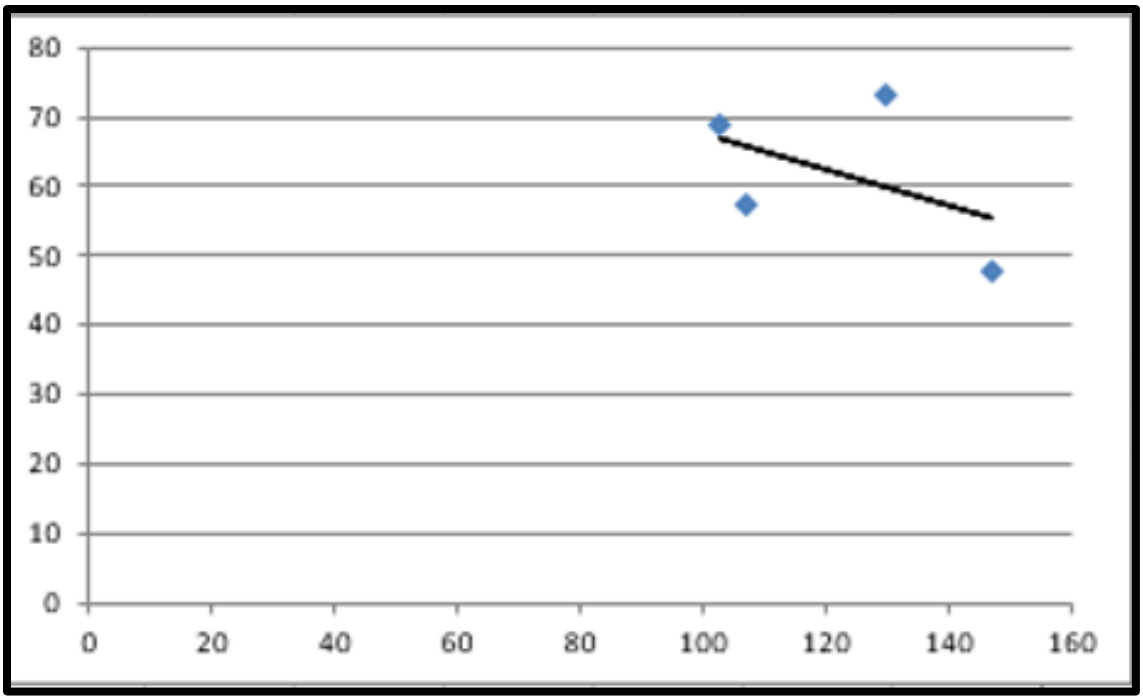


Figure 27: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and teacher self-efficacy for teachers who taught for 11-15 years.

In order to test the relationship between student behavior and teachers' self-efficacy for teachers who taught for 11 to 15 years, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r = .469) was not significant; $t(2) = -0.751$, $p = 0.531$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior and teachers' self-efficacy for teachers who taught for 11 to 15 years.

As shown in Figure 28, in order to test the relationship between student behavior and teachers' self-efficacy for teachers who taught for 16 to 20 years the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation ($r = -0.596$) was not significant; $t(7) = 1.964$, $p = 0.090$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant

relationship between student behavior and teachers' self-efficacy for teachers who taught for 16 to 20 years.

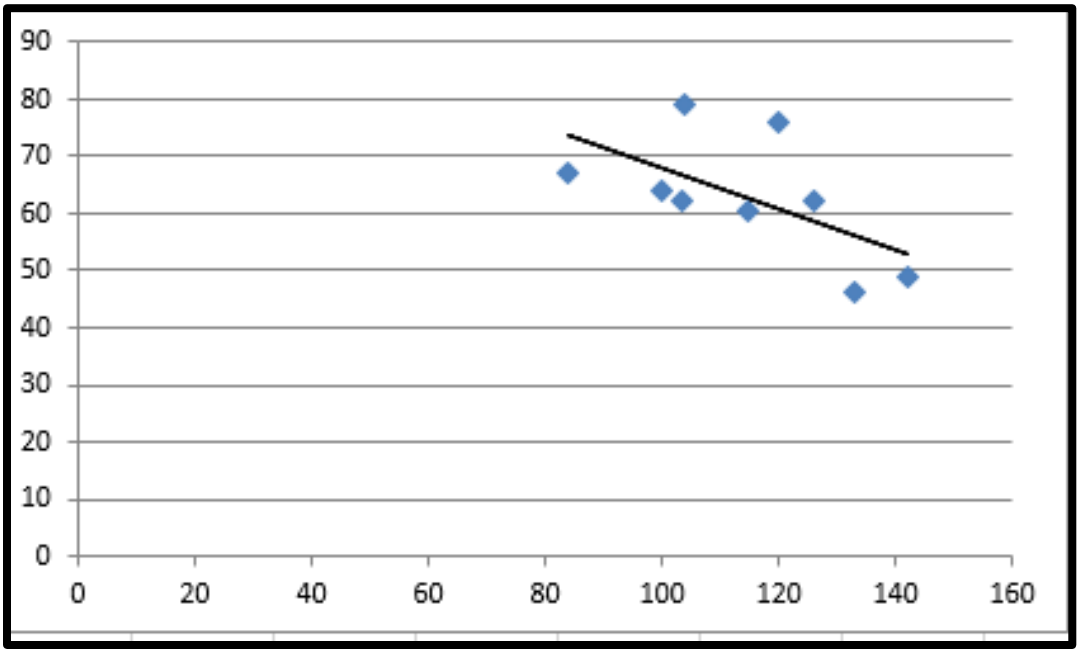


Figure 28: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and teacher self-efficacy for teachers who taught for 16-20 years.

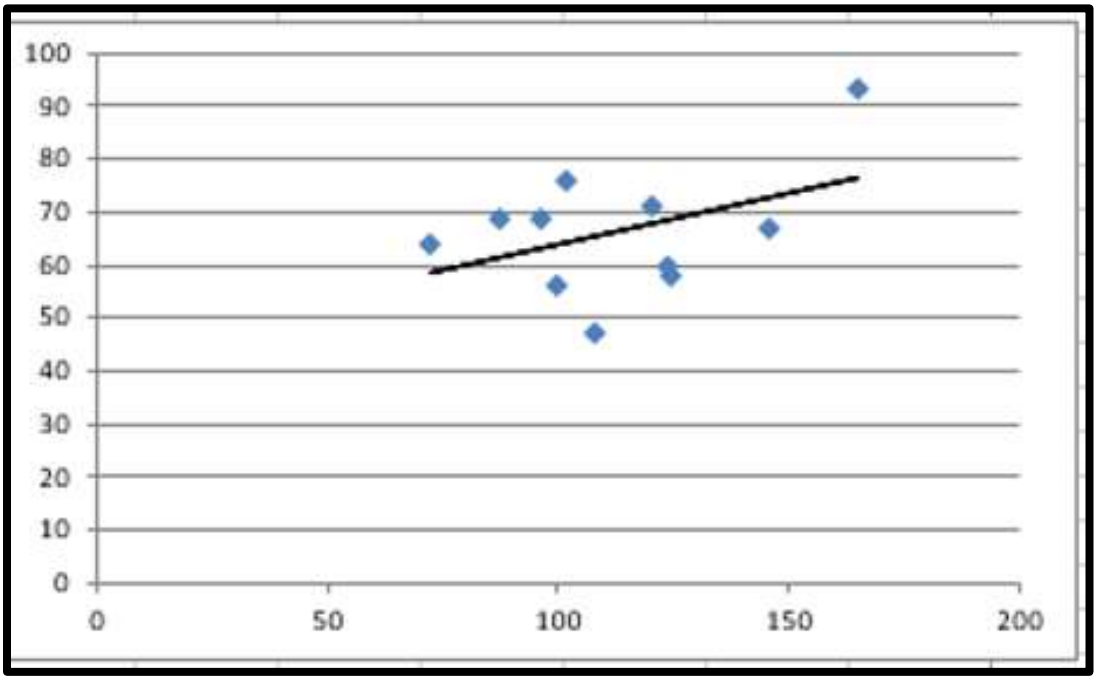


Figure 29: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for student behavior and teacher self-efficacy for teachers who taught for more than 20 years.

As illustrated in Figure 29, in order to test the relationship between student behavior and teacher self-efficacy for teachers who taught for more than 20 years the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r =0.432) was not significant; $t(9) = 1.437$, $p = 0.184$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between student behavior and teachers' self-efficacy for teachers who taught for more than 20 years.

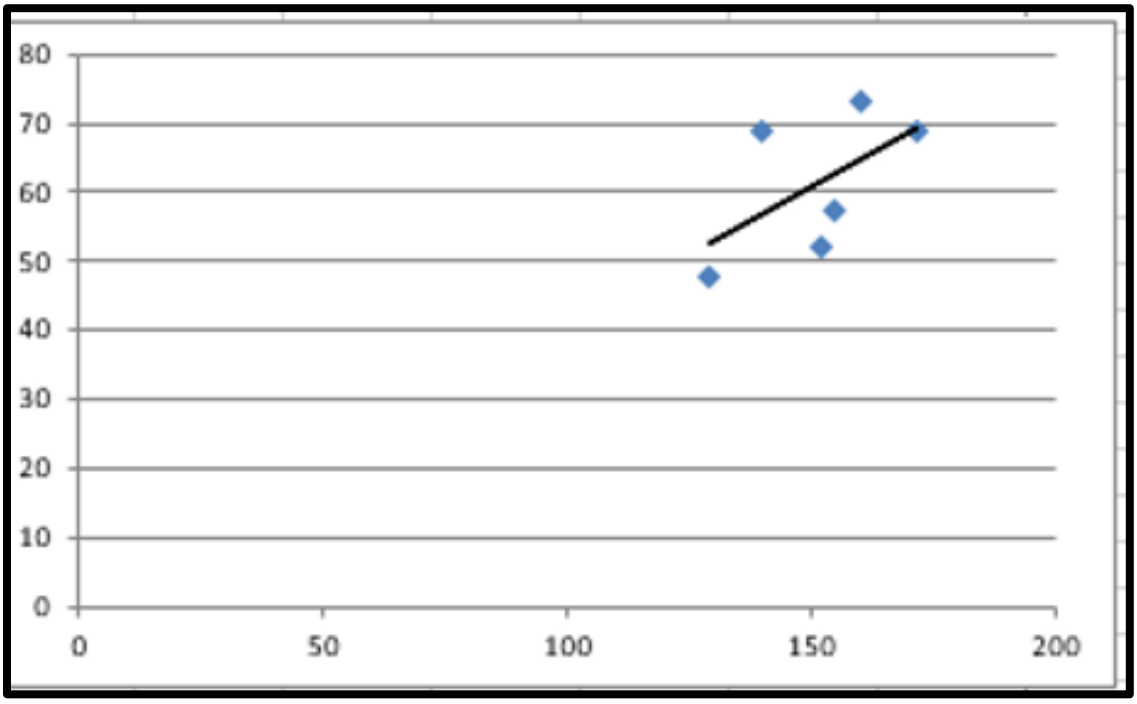


Figure 30: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers who taught 11-15 years

In order to test the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and school climate for teachers who taught for 11 to 15 years the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r =.577) was not significant; $t(4) = 1.413$, $p = .230$. The

researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and school climate for teachers who taught for 11 to 15 years.

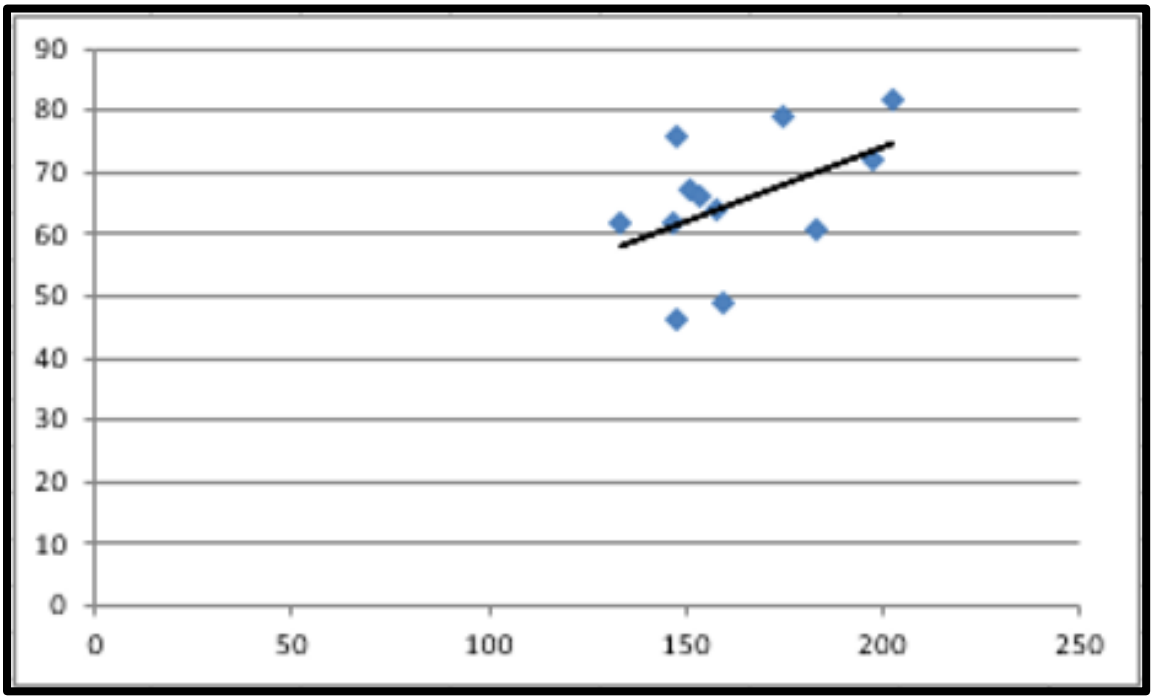


Figure 31: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers who taught 16-20 years

In order to test the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and school climate for teachers who taught for 16 to 20 years the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r =.482) was not significant; $t(10) = 1.740$, $p = .112$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers who taught for 16 to 20 years.

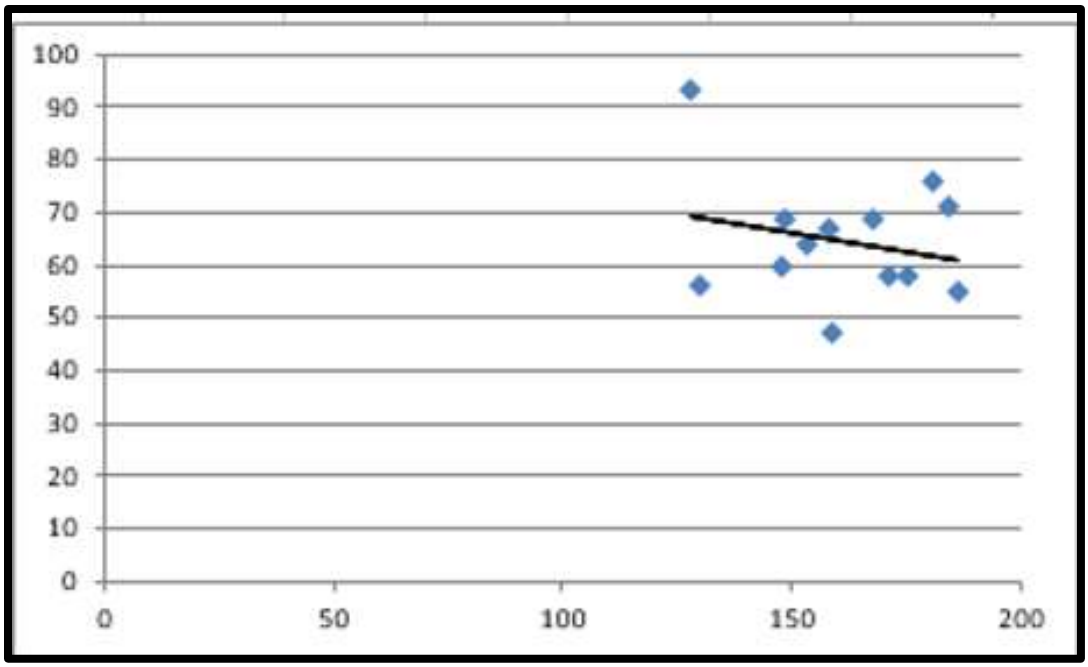


Figure 32: Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient for teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers who taught more than 20 years.

In order to test the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and school climate for teachers who taught more than years, the researcher calculated the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient and ran a *t*-Test. The analysis showed that the coefficient of correlation (r =-0236) was not significant; $t(11) = -0.805$, $p = .437$. The researcher concluded that there is not a significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and school climate for teachers who taught more than 20 years.

Summary:

In conclusion, the researcher conducted a quantitative study at a high school in southern Illinois. The study produced results from three surveys, a Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey, a School Climate Survey, and a Student Behavior Survey. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used to determine if a relationship existed between the variables tested. A lack of a correlation existed for all research hypotheses; therefore, the researcher could not reject the null for all three research hypotheses. Twenty-nine

subcategories of data were also analyzed. The analysis of the subcategories of data showed that significant relationships existed between school climate and student behavior for teachers between the ages of 40 and 49. A summary of the subcategory data is available in Appendix Q for interested readers.

Chapter Five: Discussion, Reflection, and Recommendations

Overview

Through this study, the researcher sought to determine if a relationship existed between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. Chapter 5 provides a comprehensive review of the research data and results presented in chapter 4. Additionally, Chapter 5 provides a platform for discussing the research findings and connecting the findings to prior research. Chapter 5 culminates in a discussion on the implications of this research and recommendations for future studies. The researcher sought to gain insights into how teachers felt about themselves as it related to their ability to influence school decision-making, create and promote a positive school climate, have autonomy over classroom instruction, and galvanize parental support. The researcher also sought to gain insight into teacher perception of school climate as it related to the effectiveness of school leaders, teacher collaboration, family involvement, and the supportiveness of the school community. The findings of this research offered insight into the types of student behavior teachers dealt with most. This research also offered insight into the amount of instructional time they spent managing student behavior, as well as the extent to which student behavior affected teachers personally, and teacher views of restorative practices. The information gained from this study could be used to develop data-driven, research-based strategies designed to address issues related to teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior, in order to create a supportive and responsive work environment, resulting in better working conditions for teachers, and improved learning conditions for students.

Teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior have long represented critical areas of importance in educational research and continue to be of high interest to an educationalist. Significant bodies of research exist regarding these three areas of interest individually and as they relate to other areas of interest. However, limited research has been made available regarding these three topics collectively.

Chapter two of this research provided a rigorous discussion and summary of existing literature related to teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. Chapter two provided the importance and significance of this research project. What the researcher discovered through the review of literature is that while there has not been a review of these three topics collectively, research on these three topics in various combinations yielded different results. McIver, 2014 conducted a study to examine the relationship between school climate and other school-based factors, including teacher efficacy and student behavior. The results of the study were inconclusive and did not show a significant relationship between the variables. Aldrup, Klusmann, Ludtke, Gollner, Trautwein, and Ulrich, 2018 conducted a study to investigate student misbehavior and teacher well-being. The results of the study found a correlation between teacher perceptions of student misbehavior, decreased teacher enthusiasm, and increased teacher exhaustion, all of which impact teacher self-efficacy.

Furthermore, Aldrup et al., found teacher-student relationships to be positively associated with teacher well-being and to be the mediating link between teacher-perception of student misbehavior and teacher enthusiasm. Concerning teacher self-efficacy and school climate, Lack, 2018, conducted research on school climate and teacher efficacy and found that there was no correlation between school climate and

teacher self-efficacy as well as teacher self-efficacy and collegial leadership; teacher self-efficacy and teacher professionalism; and teacher self-efficacy and academic press. Collie, Shapka, and Perry, 2012 conducted a study titled, *School Climate and Social-Emotional Learning (SEL): Predicting Teacher Stress, Job Satisfaction, and Teaching Efficacy*. Collie et al. focused on two specific stressors workload and student behavior. Among the outcome variables, perceived stress related to students' behavior was negatively associated with teaching efficacy. Given the broad range of outcomes connected to previous research on teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior, there is no consensus on the relationship between these three variables.

Through this study, the researcher sought to determine if a relationship existed between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. Areas of interest related to Teacher Self-Efficacy included efficacy to influence school-wide decision-making, efficacy to create a positive school climate, instructional efficacy, and efficacy to enlist parental involvement. Areas of interest related to school climate included teacher perception of the effectiveness of school leadership, teacher perception of the supportiveness of the school environment, teacher perception of parent involvement, and teacher perception of the ambitiousness of their instruction. Areas of interest related to student behavior survey included types of disruptive behaviors experienced in the classroom, the amount of instructional time spent dealing with disruptive behaviors, the extent to which disruptive behaviors had a psychological or physiological effect, the extent to which school provided support for managing student behavior, and teacher perception of restorative justice practices.

Discussion

Hypothesis 1:

Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be a relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey. However, prior research on teacher self-efficacy and school climate, conducted by Emin Türkoğlu et al., 2017 found that how a teacher felt about their ability to stimulate student learning was a reliable indicator of job satisfaction as well as their efficacy as a teacher. Furthermore, Thapa et al., 2013, found that teacher self-efficacy had significant implications for overall school effectiveness. Explicitly, schools that were higher performing academically staffed more teachers who demonstrated high levels of teacher efficaciousness.

Furthermore, Bray-Clark and Bates (2003) cited research suggesting that teacher self-efficacy was a critical mediating factor between a school's climate and the institution's overall educational effectiveness. A favorable school climate also benefited teachers and was found to be associated with positive teacher efficacy. Moreover, Thapa et al., 2013, cited research suggesting that the school climate could either enhance or minimize teacher emotional fatigue and feeling of low personal accomplishment, as well as teacher attrition. The finding of Emin Türkoğlu el al, (2017), Thapa et al., (2013), and Bray-Clark and & Bates (2003) are not aligned with the outcome of this study. This study found no statistically significant correlation between teacher self-efficacy and teacher perception of school climate as measured by the teacher self-efficacy survey and the teacher school climate survey.

Hypothesis 2:

Hypothesis 2 stated that there would be a relationship between teacher self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale and student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey. Sun et al. (2012) found that disruptive student misbehaviors negatively influence the productivity and efficiency of the classroom environment. Additionally, when confronted with difficult and challenging student behavior teacher confidence was negatively affected. When teacher confidence diminished due to behavioral issues in the classroom, teacher efficacy declined, causing the teacher to become less effective in their practices (Ford, 2012). These findings did not aligned with the outcome of this study. This study did not yield a statistically significant correlation between teacher self-efficacy and teacher perception of school climate as measured by the Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey and student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey.

Hypothesis 3:

Hypothesis 3 states that there would be a relationship between student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey and school climate as measured by the School Climate Survey. In 2013, as part of a review of school climate research, Thapa et al. concluded that "school climate matters,"(p.369). Additionally, the researchers found that a positive school climate cultivates and supports positive behavior in students and is also associated with positive educational outcomes for students, including higher academic achievement and increased graduation rates. These findings of this previous research did not align with the outcome of this study. In this study, there was not a statistically significant correlation between student behavior and teacher perception of school climate

as measured by the School Climate Survey and student behavior as measured by the Student Behavior Survey.

Additionally, the researcher evaluated 29 subcategories data and found a significant relationship existed between teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers between the ages of 40 and 49. The researcher can only speculate that the perceptions of the school climate for teachers in this subcategory have been shaped and influenced by their personal experiences within the school community. These experiences may include their judgment of their encounters with school administration and their opinion on the supportiveness of the school environment as it related to teacher collaboration, parental involvement, and student behavior. These findings provide a good starting point for discussions about future research. More research is necessary to validate the conclusions drawn from this study.

Recommendations

In consideration of the findings of this study, suggestions for future inquiry include further investigation into the areas of teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior, particularly as it relates to teachers' age, level of education, and years of teaching experience. Such inquiry could provide insight into the professional needs of teachers at various stages of their teaching careers. Also, future researchers should consider adding a qualitative component to the methodology to establish a more in-depth understanding of the thoughts, feelings, and opinions of teachers regarding their perceptions of school climate and student behavior, and how each of these arenas impacts teacher self-efficacy. Furthermore, educational leaders, policymakers, and research should adopt official definitions for school climate and teacher self-efficacy. Developing

a formal description for these concepts would result in a shared understanding of these essential educational concepts that would create cohesiveness in research. Also, ISBE currently uses a summative designation system to rate schools in Illinois Exemplary, Commendable, Underperforming, and Lowest Performing. A causal-comparative study to determine whether a school's designation directly or indirectly influences teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and teacher perception of student behavior would be beneficial. Future researchers should also consider utilizing a larger sample of teachers that would include teachers from kindergarten to twelfth grade. Including teachers across grade levels would provide an opportunity to explore teacher perception of teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior to see how teacher perceptions across grade levels.

Additionally, it would be beneficial to facilitate this study across the state and in multiple school districts to determine if geographic or demographic similarities or differences exist. Moreover, future researchers should consider creating a single survey instrument designed to capture teacher perception of teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. A single survey could be completed in a single administration and would eliminate losses in participation that may occur with the administration of multiple surveys over time.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship between teacher self-efficacy, student behavior, and school climate existed. The review of current research related to this topic, allowed the researcher to create a summary of existing literature that aided in understanding this research. Specifically, the literature provided insight into the

theoretical framework of self-efficacy and teacher self-efficacy, and the cultivation of self-efficacy through mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and the physiological and psychological state of an individual. Additionally, the review of literature focused on the complexity of the issue of problematic student behavior, and it impacts the classroom environment, school climate, and teacher- efficacy and how exclusionary discipline practices have failed to address the issue challenging student behavior adequately. The researcher also discussed trauma and adverse childhood in the review of literature as potential root causes of student misbehavior in school. Moreover, the researcher discussed Trauma-Informed Practices and Restorative Practices as evolving school initiatives intended to address the multifaceted needs of students. Finally, the researcher explored the school climate in the context of school leadership, interpersonal relationships, the institutional and instructional environment, and how these elements affect school climate, teacher efficacy, and student behavior.

The researcher conducted a quantitative study to see if a relationship existed between school climate, teacher efficacy, and student behavior. The researcher used surveys to collect data from teachers and tested for relationships using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (PPMC). The results of the test concluded that there were no significant relationships exist between teacher efficacy, school climate, and student behavior. The researcher did find a significant relationship in the subcategory of teacher self-efficacy and school climate for teachers between the ages of 40 and 49. Additional research in this area would be beneficial in developing a deeper understanding of the relationship between the variables explored in this study.

References

Aldrup, K., Klusmann, U., Lüdtke, O., Göllner, R., & Trautwein, U. (2018). Student misbehavior and teacher well-being: Testing the mediating role of the teacher student relationship. *Learning and Instruction*, 58, 126-136. doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2018.05.006

Alvoid, L., & Black, W. (2014, July 1). *The changing role of the principal: How high achieving districts are recalibrating school leadership.*

Retrieved from https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/education-k12/reports/2014/07/01/93015/the-changing-role-of-the principal/

American Association of School Administrators. (2014). Restorative justice [Resource Guide]. Retrieved from https://www.childrensdefense.org/wpcontent/uploads/2018/06/restorativejustice-overview.pdf

American Psychological Association (2008) Children and trauma [Update for Mental Health Professionals]. Retrieved from https://www.apa.org/pi/families/resources/childrentrauma-update

Armor, D., Conry-Oseguera, P., Cox, M., King, N., McDonnell, L., & Pascal, A. (1976). *Analysis of the school preferred reading program in selected Los Angeles minority schools*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Armour, M. (2012). Restorative justice: Some facts and history. *Tikkun*, *27*(1), 25-65. doi 10.1215/08879982-2012-1012

Artino, A. (2012). Academic self-efficacy: from educational theory to instructional practice. *Perspectives on Medical Education*, *1*(2), 76-85. doi10.1007/s40037-012-0012-5

Augustine, C., Engberg, J., Grimm, G., Lee, E., Wang, E., Christianson, K., & Joseph, A. (2018). *Can Restorative Practices improve school climate and curb suspensions? An evaluation of the impact of Restorative Practices in a mid-sized urban school district* (pp. 47-60). Santa Monica CA: Rand Corporation

Balfanz, R., Byrnes, V., & Fox, J. (2014). Sent home and put off-track: The antecedents disproportion and consequences of being suspended in ninth grade. *Journal of Applied Research on Children: Informing Policy for Children at Risk*, *5*(2).

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*(2), 191-215. doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191

Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), Encyclopedia of human behavior (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman Ed.], Encyclopedia of mental health. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998).

Bandura, A. (1999). *Social cognitive theory of personality* (2nd ed., pp. 154-196). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Bandura, A. (2000). *Self-efficacy*. New York, NY: Freeman.

Barr, D. (2018). When trauma hinders learning. *Phi Delta Kappan*. Retrieved from https://www.kappanonline.org/barr-trauma-hinders-learning/

Bear, G. (2010). Discipline: Effective school practices. Retrieved from http://apps.nasp online.org/resources-and-publications/books-and products/ samples/HCHS3_ Samples/S4H18_Discipline.pdf

Bartz, D. (2017). *Strategies for reducing suspensions*. Retrieved from https://www.iasb. com/journal/j010217_04.cfm

Bell, H., Limberg, D., & Robinson, E. (2013). Recognizing trauma in the classroom: A practical guide for educators. *Childhood Education, 89*(3), 139-145. doi: 10.1080/00094056.2013.792629

Bluman, A. (2007). *Elementary statistics*. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Boomgard, M. (2013). *Changes in perceived teacher self-efficacy and burnout as a result of facilitated discussion and self-reflection in an online course designed to prepare teachers to work with students with autism* (Doctoral dissertation). University of San Francisco, CA. Retrieved from https://repository.usfca.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1085&context=diss

Boynton, M., & Boynton, C. (2005). *The educator's guide to preventing and solving discipline problems*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Bray-Clark, N., & Bates, R. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs and teacher effectiveness: Implications for professional development. *Professional Educator, 26*(1), 13-22.

Brown Center on Education Policy. (2017). *Brown center report on American education: Race and school suspensions.* Retrieved from https://www.brookings.edu/research/2017-brown-center-report-part-ii-survey-of-foreign-exchange-students/

Campbell, M. (2018). Manage your classroom with strong relationships. *ASCD Express, 14*(01). Retrieved from http://www.ascd.org/ascd express/vol14/num01/toc.aspx

Center for Disease Control and Prevention. (n.d.a.) *About adverse childhood experiences. Violence Prevention Injury Center.* Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/violence prevention/childabuseandneglect/acestudy/aboutacht

Center for Disease Control and Prevention. (n.d.b.) *Helping patients cope with a traumatic event*. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/masstrauma/fact sheets/professionals/coping_professional.pdf

Chartrand, L., & Horn, K. (2016). *A report on the relationship between restorative justice and indigenous legal traditions in Canada*. Government of Canada Publications. Retrieved from http://publications.gc.ca/site/eng/9.850277/publication.html

Clay, G. (2017). Panel dissects role of suspensions in school-to-prison pipeline. *Diverse Issues in Higher Education*. Retrieved from https://diverseeducation.com/article/116450/

Cohen, J., McCabe, L., Michelli, N. M., & Pickeral, T. (2009). School climate: Research, policy, practice, and teacher education. Teachers College Record, 111, 180-213.

Collie, R., Shapka, J., & Perry, N. (2012). School climate and social–emotional learning: Predicting teacher stress, job satisfaction, and teaching efficacy. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *104*(4), 1189-1204. doi: 10.1037/a0029356

Cotton, K., & Reed Wikelund, K. (1989). Parent involvement in education. Retrieved from https://educationnorthwest.org/sites/default/files/parent-involvement-in education.pdf

Crawley, K., & Hirschfield, P. (2018). Examining the School-to-Prison Pipeline metaphor. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia Of Criminology And Criminal Justice*. doi: 10.1093/acrefore/9780190264079.013.346

Creating a positive school climate for learning (n.d.). Retrieved from http:// community.ksde.org/Portals/42/download/Six%20Essential%20Areas/Creti%20a%20Positive%20School%20Climate%20for%20Learning.pdf

Creswell, J. (2005). *Educational research* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education Inc.

Danielson, C. (2011). *The framework for teaching*. Princeton, NJ: Danielson Group.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Cook-Harvey, C. M. (2018). *Educating the whole child: Improving school climate to support student success*. Palo Alto, CA: Learning Policy Institute. Retrieved from https://learningpolicyinstitute.org/product/educating-whole-child.

Dibapile, W. (2012). A review of literature on teacher efficacy and classroom management. *Educational Psychology & Counseling Publications and Other Works*. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning*, *9*(2), 79-92. Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ986821

Emin Türkoğlu, M., Cansoy, R., & Parlar, H. (2017). Examining relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 5(*5), 765-772. doi10.13189/ujer.2017.050509

Evidence alternative to suspension and expulsion. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://www.aclusocal.org/sites/default/files/wp-content/uploads/2014/03/Ev Based Practices-LCFF-Discipline-Toolkit.3.17.14.public.pdf

Exclusionary Discipline. (n.d.) Retrieved from https://supportiveschooldiscipline.org/learn/reference-guides/exclusionary discipline

Farmer, B., Farmer, E., & Burrow, J. (2008). *Leading with character* (p. 123). Mason, OH: Thomson South-Western.

Feuerborn, L., Wallace, C., & Tyre, A. (2013). Gaining staff support for school-wide positive behavior supports: A guide for teams. *Beyond Behavior*, *22*(2), 27-34.

Ford, I. (2012). *Teacher self-efficacy and its influence on student motivation*. (Doctoral dissertation) Cleveland State University, OH. Retrieved from http://engaged scholarship.csuohio.edu/etdarchive

Ford, M. (2013). Impact of disruptive student in Wisconsin public schools. *Badger Institute*, *26*(5).

Fraenkel, J., & Wallen, N. (2003). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (5th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Fronius, T., Persson, H., Guckenburg, S., Hurley, N., & Petrosino, A. (2016). *Restorative justice in schools: A research review*. WestEd Justice and Prevention Research. Retrieved from https://jprc.wested.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/RJ_Literature Review_20160217.pdf

Gallante, P. (2015). *Principal leadership behaviors and teacher efficacy* (Doctoral dissertation). Walden University Minneapolis, MN. Retrieved from https://pdfs. semanticscholar.org/2354/a03561241f0c3ff2e9a4b2c164816398e132 pdf.

Gavora, P. (2010). Slovak pre-service teachers self-efficacy: Theoretical and research considerations. *The New Education Review*, *21*(2), 17-30.

Gholami, L. (2015). Teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout: A study of relations. *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences, 60*, 83-86. doi.org/10. 18052/www.scipress.com/ILSHS.60.83

Gregory, A., Cornell, D., & Fan, X. (2012). Teacher safety and authoritative school climatein high schools. *American Journal of Education, 118*(4), 401-425.

Harari, O. (2002). *The leadership secrets of Colin Powell* (p. 164). New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

Harris, M. (2010). *Teacher efficacy beliefs: Understanding the relationship between efficacy and achievement in urban elementary schools* (Doctoral dissertation). University of California Berkeley. Retrieved from https://escholarship.org/uc/item/44h29077

Heitzeg, N. (2009a). Criminalizing education: Zero tolerance policies, police in the hallways and the school to prison pipeline. *Forum on Public Policy, Oxford Press*.

Heitzeg, N. (2009b). Education or incarceration: Zero tolerance policies and the school to prison pipeline. *Forum on Public Policy Online*, *2009*(2009), 13.

Henson, R. (2001). *Teacher self-efficacy: Substantive implications and measurements dilemmas*. University of North Texas, Texas. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED452208.pdf

Hewitt, D., Kim, C., & Losen, D. (2010). *School-to-prison Pipeline: Structuring legal reform*. New York and London: New York University Press.

Hicks, S. (2012). *Self-efficacy and classroom management: a correlation study regarding the factors that influence classroom management* (Doctoral dissertation). Liberty University. Lynchburg, VA. Retrieved from https://digitalcommons.liberty.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?referer=https://www.goole.com/&httpsredir=1&article=1598&context=doctoral

Hinduja, S., & Patchin, J. (2012). *School climate 2.0* (p. 17). Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin.

Hoadley, J. (2016). *An examination of student re-engagement district administrative procedures: An action research study* (Doctoral dissertation). Washington State

University. Pullman, WA. Retrieved from https://research.libraries.wsu.edu/xmlui/bitstream/handle/2376/12118/Hoadley_su_251E_11659.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

Holcomb, A., & Allen, M. (2019). Moving beyond zero tolerance. *American Civil Liberties Union*. Retrieved from https://www.aclu-wa.org/news/moving-beyond zero-tolerance

Hughes, W.H. & Pickeral, T. (2013). School climate and shared leadership. In Dary, T. & Pickeral, T. (Ed.) (2013). *School Climate Practices for Implementation and Sustainability.* A School Climate Practice Brief, Number 1, New York, NY: National School Climate Center. Retrieved from https://www.schoolclimate.org/themes/schoolclimate/assets/pdf/practice/sc-briefleadership.pdf

Illinois State Board of Education. (n.d.). *Services.* Retrieved from https://www2.illinois.gov/agencies/ISBE

Ingram, B. Trauma informed approaches to classroom management (n.d.). Retrieved, from https://achieve.lausd.net/cms/lib/ CA01000043/Centricity/Domain/260/Trauma%2ormed%20Approaches%20to%0Classroom%20Management.pdf

Justice, B. (2018). School, prisons, and pipelines: Fixing the toxic relationship between public education and criminal justice: Plumbing the pipeline metaphor. *Choice, 55*(10).

Katz, R. (2019). Two centuries of school discipline. Retrieved from https://www.apmreports.org/story/2016/08/25/two-centuries-of-school-discipline

Kidde, J., & Alfred, R. (2011). Restorative justice: A working guide for our schools. *School Health Services Coalition*.

Klugman, J., Gordon, M. F., Sebring, P. B., & Sporte, S. E. (2015*). A first look at the 5Essentials in Illinois schools*. Report from the Consortium on Chicago School Research at the University of Chicago. Chicago, IL. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED577587.pdf

Krasnoff, B. (2016). *Culturally responsive teaching: A guide to evidence-based practices for teaching all students equitably* (pp. 18-24). Equity Assistance Center. Retrieved from https://educationnorthwest.org/sites/default/files/resources/culturally-responsive teaching.pdf

Krizman, C. (2013). *The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and parental involvement practices: A multi-method study*. (Doctoral dissertation) Texas Tech University. Lubbock, TX. Retrieved from https://ttuir.tdl.org/bitstream/handle/2346/50638/ Krizman_ Charlotte_Diss1.pdf?sequence1& Allowed=y

Kuperminc, G., Leadbeater, B., Emmons, C., & Blatt, S. (1997). Perceived school climate and difficulties in the social adjustment of middle school students. *Applied Developmental Science*, *1*(2), 76-88. doi 10.1207/s1532480xads0102_2

Kuusinen, C. (2016). *The meaning and measure of teacher self-efficacy for effective classroom teaching practices* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Michigan. Ann Arbor, MI. Retrieved from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/e5c2/d7d0c925d72a35f294a8fb2453989940495 pdf

Laal, M., & Ghodsi, S. (2012). Benefits of collaborative learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 31,* 486-490. doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.12.091

Lacks, P. (2016). *The relationship between school climate teacher self-efficacy and teacherbeliefs* (Doctoral dissertation). Liberty University. Lynchburg, VA. Retrieved from https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/75898013.pdf

Laughter, E. (2017). *The relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student discipline referrals written by secondary teachers from a rural school district in a southern state* (Doctoral dissertation). Liberty University. Lynchburg, VA. Retrieved from https://digitalcommons.liberty.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3113&context=d cto al

Law addressing racial disparities in school discipline goes into effect. (2016). Retrieved from http://www.senatorlightford.com/news/253-law-addressingracial disparities-inschool-discipline-goes-into-effect

Lawson, C. (2003). *Social skills and school*. Center for Development and Learning. Retrieved from https://www.cdl.org/articles/social-skills-and school/

Leary, M., & Hoyle, R. (2009) Handbook of individual differences in social behavior. *Choice Reviews Online*, *47*(06), 47-3482-47-3482.

Leithwood, K., & Steinbach, R. (1995). *Expert problem solving*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Linsin, M. (2014). Why you should avoid sending students to the principal. *Smart Classroom Management* Retrieved from https://www.smartclassroom management.com/2014/05/24/why-you-should avoid sending-students-to-the-principal/

Logsdon, A. (2018). Would your child get a better education in an alternative school? *Verywell Family.* Retrieved from https://www.verywellfamily.com/alternative school what-is-an alternative-school-2162389

Losen, D., & Skiba, R. (2013). *Suspended education: Urban middle schools in crisis.* The Civil Right Project, Los Angeles, CA. Retrieved from https://civilrightsproject. ucla.edu/research/k-12-education/school discipline/suspended-education-urban-middle-schools-in-crisis/Suspended Education_FINAL-2.pdf

Losen, D., & Gillespie, J. (2012). *Opportunities suspended: The disparate impact of disciplinary exclusion from school. Executive summary*. The Civil Right Project, Los Angeles, CA. Retrieved from https://www.civilrightsproject.ucla.edu/ resources/projects/center-forcivilrights remedies/school-to-prison-folder/federal-reports/are-we-closing-theschool discipline gap/AreWeClosingTheSchool DisciplineGap_FINAL221.pdf

Loukas, A. (2007). What is school climate? *Leadership Compass*, *5*(1), 1-3.

Malik, R. (2019). Early childhood: New data reveal 250 preschoolers are suspended or expelled every day. *Center for American Progress*. Retrieved from https://www. americanprogress.org/issues/earlychildhood/news/2017/11/06/442280/new-data-reveal-250-preschoolers-suspendedexpelled-every-day/

McEvoy, A., & Welker, R. (2000). Antisocial behavior, academic failure, and school climate. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, *8*(3), 130-140.

McIver, E. (2014). *Examination of the relationship between school climate and other school-based factors and teacher self-efficacy* (Master's thesis). Louisiana State

University. Baton Rouge, LA. Retrieved from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/b810/01a3539632812bd161d768f9c1e8bed9231.pdf

Medina, L. (2017). *The effects classroom experiences and student conduct have on a teacher's self-efficacy in schools with positive behavior interventions and supports (PBIS)*. (Doctoral dissertation). Brandman University. Irvine, CA. Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED576541

Miller, M. (2013). *Poor and ineffective management in Capital E.: Truth about America's educational system* (p. 5). Xlibris Corporation.

Morris, D. (2017). Teaching self-efficacy. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education*. doi:10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.013.86

Morris, R., & Howard, A. (2003). Designing an effective in-school suspension program. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues And Ideas*, *76*(3), 156-159. doi: 10.1080/00098650309601994

Morrison, B., & Vandering, D. (2012). Restorative justice: Pedagogy, praxis, and discipline. *Journal of School Violence*, *11*(2), 138-155. doi: 10.1080/15388220.2011.653322

Nooruddin, S. & Baig, S. (2014). Student behavior management: School leader's role in the eyes of the teachers and students. International Journal of Whole Schooling, 11(1), 19-39.

National Association of School Psychologist. *Creating trauma-sensitive schools: Supportive policies and practices for learning* (p. 1). Retrieved from file:///C:/Users/raelgm/Downloads/Trauma_Sensitive_Schools_2015%20 (6).pdf

National Association of School Psychologist. *School climate: Connect the dots brief*: *The role of positive behavior interventions and supports.* Retrieved from https://www.nasponline.org/

National Center for Education Statistics Institute of Education Sciences. (2003). *Planning guide for maintaining school facilities*. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/pubs 2003/2003347.pdf

National Center on Safe Supportive Learning Environment (n.d.). *Trauma sensitive schools training packet*. Retrieved, from https://safesupportivelearning.ed.gov/ sites/default/files/Trauma_101_Activity_P cket.pdf

National Education Association (2019) *Discipline and the school-to-prison pipeline.* Retrieved from https://ra.nea.org/business-item/2016-pol-e01-2/

National School Climate Center. (n.d.). *About Us.* Retrieved from https://www.school climate.org/about/history

National School Climate Center (n.d.). The thirteen dimensions of school climate measured by the CSCI. Retrieved from https://www.schoolclimate.org/themes/ schoolclimate/assets/pdf/measuring-school climate-csci/CSCIDimensionChart-2017.pdf

National Policy Board for Educational Administration (2015). *Professional Standards for Educational Leaders 2015*. Reston, VA. Retrieved from https://ccsso.org/sites/ default/files/201710/ProfessionalStandardsforEducationalLeaders2015forNPBEA FINAL.pdf

NEA Policy Brief (n.d.). Parent, family, community involvement in education. Retrieved http:// www.nea.org/assets/docs/PB11_ParentInvolvement08.pdf

O'Brennan, L., Bradshaw, C., & Furlong, M. (2014). Influence of classroom and school climate on teacher perceptions of student problem behavior. *School Mental Health*,*6*(2), 125-136. doi10.1007/s12310-014-9118-8

Oehlberg, B. (2008). Why schools need to be trauma informed. *Trauma and Loss: Research and Intervention, 8*(2).

Office for Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education (2014) *Civil Rights Data Collection Data Snapshot: School Discipline, 1.* Retrieved from https://ocrdata. ed.gov/Down loads/CRDCSchool-Discipline-Snapshot.pdf

O'Grady, K. (2017). *Transforming trauma-schools with informed care*. ASCA School Counselor. Retrieved from https://www.schoolcounselor.org/asca/media/ asca/ ASCAU/Trauma-Crisis Management-Specialist/TransformingSchools.pdf

Oliver, R., Wehby, J., & Reschly, D. (2011). *Teacher classroom management practices: Effects on disruptive or aggressive student behavior* (p. 6). Society for Research on Educational Effectiveness. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ ED519160.pdf

Omale, D. (2006). Justice in history: An examination of African restorative tradition and the emerging restorative justice paradigm. *African Journal of Criminology and Justice Studies*, *2*(2), 33-63.

Ostovar-Nameghi, S., & Sheikhahmadi, M. (2016). From teacher isolation to teacher collaboration: Theoretical perspectives and empirical findings. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(5), 197. doi: 10.5539/elt.v9n5p197

Out-of-school suspension and expulsion. (2013). *Pediatrics*, *131*(3), e1000-e1007. doi: 10.1542/peds.2012-3932

Palmer, D. (2006). Sources of self-efficacy in a science methods course for primary teacher education students. *Research in Science Education*, *36*(4), 337-353.

Passarella, A. (2017). *Restorative practices in schools*. Johns Hopkins Institute for Education Policy. Retrieved from https://edpolicy.education.jhu.edu/wp content/uploads/2017/05/OSI-RestorativePracticemastheadFINAL-1.pdf

Patton, M. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods by Michael Quinn Patton*. California: Sage Publications Limited.

Pepper, K., & Hamilton Thomas, L. (2002). Making a change: The effects of the leadership role on school climate. *Learning Environments Research*, *5*(2), 155 166.

Pendergast, D., Gravis, S., & Keogh, J. (2011). Pre-service student-teacher self-efficacy beliefs: An insight into the making of teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *36*(12), 46.

Perez, N. (2017). *The impact of trauma-informed practices in the classroom* (Master's thesis). San Francisco State University, San Francisco, CA. Retrieved from https://sfsudspace.calstate.edu/bitstream/handle/10211.3/196997/AS362017SOC WKP47.pd?sequence=1

Pickens, I.B., & Tschopp, N. (2017). *Trauma-informed classrooms*. National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges. Retrieved from https://www.ncjfcj.org/sites/ default/files/NCJFCJ_SJP_Trauma_Informed_Class rooms_Final.pdf

Pickeral, T., Evans, L., Hughes, W., Hutchison, D., Borton, M., & Cohen, J. (2009). *School climate guide for district policymakers and educational leaders*. Center for

School and Emotional Education NYC. Retrieved from https://www.school climate.org/themes/schoolclimate/assets/pdf/policy/district guidecsee.pdf

Primary sources: America's teachers on the teaching profession. (2012). Retrieved from https://www.scholastic.com/primarysources/pdfs/Gates2012_full.pdf

Poag, G. (2018). What is the difference between acute trauma and chronic trauma? Retrieved from https://www.brentwoodwellnesscounseling.com/single-post/2017/07/26/What-IsThe Difference-Between-Acute-Trauma-And-Chronic-Trauma

Poulos, J. (2019). The value of teacher collaboration. *Edvestors*. Retrieved from https:// www.edvestors.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/EdVestors-Making-Space The-Value-of-Teacher-Collaboration-2014.pdf

Positive behavioral and intervention supports. SWPBIS for beginners. (n.d.) Retrieved from https://www.pbis.org/school/swpbis-for-beginners

Protheroe, N. (2008, May/June). Teacher efficacy: What is it and does it matter? *Principal*. (p.42-45) Retrieved from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/561c/7d3f 6862188abdf232a1330ce601c9beb10pd ?_ga=2.248735567.950552476.15697 15807-928355878.1568686328

Rankin, J. (2017). *First aid for teacher burnout* (pp. 3-4). New York, NY: Routledge.

Rapti, D. (2013). School climate as an important component in school effectiveness, Academicus. *International Scientific Journal, Entrepreneurship Training Center Albania*, *8*, 110-125, July. Retrieved from https://ideas.repec.org/ a/etc/journl/y 2013i8p110-125.html

Restorative practices: Fostering healthy relationships & promoting positive discipline in schools: A guide for educators. Retrieved from http://schottfoundation.org/sites/default/files/restorative-practices-guide.pdf

Rew, W. J. (2013). *Instructional leadership practices and teacher efficacy beliefs: Cross-national evidence from Talis*. Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL. Retrieved from http://purl.flvc.org/fsu/fd/FSU_migr_etd-7573

Rhodes, D. (2016). *Springfield: Making less of minor offenses*. Retrieved from https://www.nprillinois.org/people/dusty-rhodes

Rimm-Kaufman, S., & Sandilos, L. (2011). *Improving students' relationships with teachers to provide essential supports for learning*. Retrieved from www.apa.org/education/k12/relationships.aspx#

Rumberger, R., & Losen, D. (2016). *The high cost of harsh discipline and its disparate impact*. Retrieved from https://csgjusticecenter.org/youth/publications/the-high cost of-harsh-discipline-and-its-disparate-impact/.

School climate measurement. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://safesupportivelearning.ed.gov/topic research/school-climate measurement

Safe supportive learning. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://safesupportivelearning.ed.gov/

Schunk, D. (1989). Self-efficacy and achievement behaviors. *Educational Psychology Review*, *1*(3), 173-208. doi.org/10.1007/BF01320134

Shahzad, K., & Naureen, S. (2017). Impact of teacher self-efficacy on secondary school students' academic achievement. *Journal of Education and Educational Development*, *4*(1), 48. doi:10.4304/tpls.2.3.483-491

Shoffner, M., Newsome, D., & Barrio, C. (2003). *Young adolescents' outcome expectations: A qualitative study* (p. 5). Retrieved from https://cdn.ymaws.com/csi.site ym.com/resource/resmgr/Research,_Essay,_Papers,_Articles/Research-A-2004b Barrio_C.pdf

Smedes, L. (2002). How to deal with criminals? Is there a Biblical principle behind the punishment of those who break the law?. *Christianity Today*, *59*.

Smetackova, I. (2017). Self-efficacy and burnout syndrome among teachers. *The European Journal Of Social & Behavioural Sciences*, *20*(3), 2476-2488. doi: 10.15405/ejsbs.219

Spicer, F. (2016). *School culture, school climate, and the role of the principal* (Doctoral dissertation). Georgia State University. Atlanta, GA. Retrieved from https://scholarworks.gsu.edu/eps_diss/140

Starks, G., & Brooks, F. (2015). *African Americans at risk. Issues in education, health, community, and justice.* (2 vols). Westport: Greenwood Press.

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2015). *Understanding child trauma*. Retrieved from https://www.samhsa.gov/child-trauma/understanding child trauma

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (n.d.a.). *Trauma*. Retrieved from https://www.integration.samhsa.gov/clinical-practice/Trauma

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (n.d.b.). *Trauma training for criminal justice professionals*. Retrieved from https://www.samhsa.gov/gains center/trauma-training-criminal-justice-professionals

Sugai, G., & Simonsen, B. (2012). *Positive Behavior Interventions and Support: History defining features and misconceptions* (pp. 1-2). University of Connecticut. Storrs, CT. Retrieved from http://docplayer.net/17907870-Positive-behavioral interventions-and supports-history-defining-features-and-misconceptions.html

Sum, A., Khatiwada, I., McLaughlin, J., & Palma, S. (2009). *The consequences of dropping out of high School: Joblessness and jailing for high school dropouts and the high cost for taxpayers.* Retrieved from https://www.issuelab.org/resource/the consequences-of-dropping-out-of-high-school joblessness-and-jailing-for-high school-dropouts-and-the-high-cost-for taxpayers.html

Sun, R., & Shek, D. (2012). Student classroom misbehavior: An exploratory study based on teachers' perceptions. *The Scientific World Journal*, *2012*, 1-8. doi.org/10. 1100/2012/208907

Taylor, D., & Tashakkori, A. (1995). Decision participation and school climate as predictors of job satisfaction and teachers' sense of efficacy. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, *63*(3), 217-230. doi.org/10.1080/00220973.1995. 9943810

Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Guffey, S., & Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2013). A Review of School Climate Research. *Review of Educational Research*, *83*(3), 357-385. doi 10.3102/0034654313483907

Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, *68*(2), 202-248. doi.org/10.3102/ 00346543068002202

U.S. Department of Education (n.d.). *School climate and discipline*: *Rethinking discipline* Retrieved from https://www2.ed.gov/policy/gen/guid/school discipline/index.html

U.S. Department of Education & National Center for Education. (2003). Statistics, National Forum on Education Statistics. *Planning Guide for Maintaining School Facilities*. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2003/2003347.pdf

U.S. Department of Education Office of Civil Rights (2016). *2013-2014 Civil right data collections: A first look: Key data highlights on equality and opportunity gaps in our nation's public schools.* Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED 577234

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services & U.S. Department of Education (2016). *Policy statement on expulsion and suspension policies in early childhood settings.* Retrieved from https://www2.ed.gov/policy/gen/guid/school discipline/ policy statement-eceexpulsions-suspensions.pdf

U.S. Department of Justice & U.S. Department of Education. (2014). *Dear colleague letter: Nondiscrimination administration of school discipline*. Retrieved from https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/letters/colleague-201401-title-vi.html.

Walters, S. (2015). *School Climate: A Literature Review*. Retrieved from https://doc player.net/21010292-School-climate-a-literaturereview.html

Wang, M., & Haertel, G. (n.d.). Teacher relationships. *A digest of research from the Laboratory for Student Success*, (309).

West, S., Day, A., Somers, C., & Baroni, B. (2014). Student perspectives on how trauma experiences manifest in the classroom: Engaging court-involved youth in the development of a trauma-informed teaching curriculum. *Children and Youth Services Review, 38,* 58-65. doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2014.01.013

Williams, D. (2010). Outcome expectancy and self-efficacy: Theoretical implications of an unresolved contradiction. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *14*(4), 417- 425. doi 10.1177/1088868310368802

Winch, G. (2015). 10 surprising facts about failure. *Psychology Today*. Retrieved from https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/the-squeaky-wheel/201501/10 surprising facts-about-failure

Zhang, G., & Zeller, N. (2016). A longitudinal investigation of the relationship between teacher preparation and teacher retention. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, *43*(2), 73-88.

Appendix A

Approval to Conduct Research

CAHOKIA
Unit School District #187

1700 Jerome Lane
Cahokia, Illinois 62206
(618) 332-3700
www.cusd187.org

November 2, 2015

Lindenwood University
209 S. Kingshighway
St. Charles, MO 63301

To Whom it May Concern:

Please accept this letter as confirmation that Ms. Gegi Ra-El, a student in your Doctorate degree program, has my permission to conduct her research study in Cahokia Unit School District 187.

Ms. Ra-El has shared with me the plans for her research study, which I believe will not only be beneficial to Gegi completing her Doctoral degree, but the data obtained will help give insight to the district to better serve our students, parents, and staff.

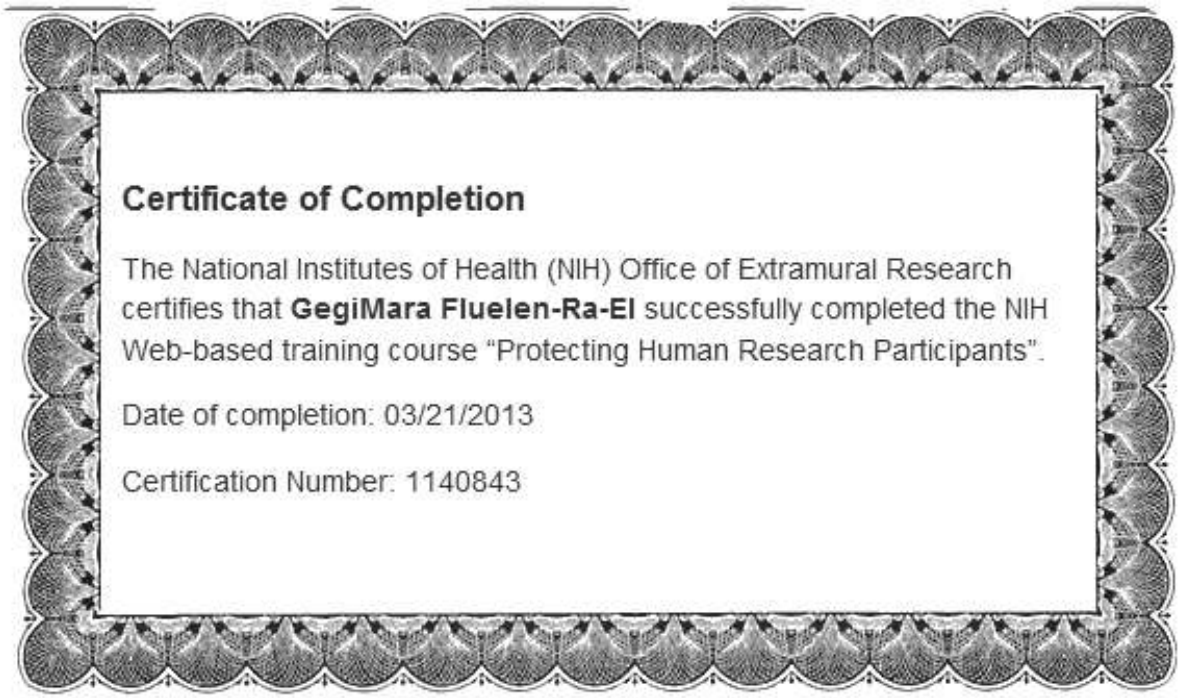
If you would like to speak with me further regarding Ms. Ra-El's research study, please feel free to contact me either at my office (618-332-4703) or on my cell phone (618-567-7118).

Sincerely,

Arthur S. Ryan
Superintendent, Cahokia Unit School District 187

Appendix B

Protecting Human Research Participants-NIH Certificate of Completion



Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants".

Date of completion: 03/21/2013

Certification Number: 1140843

Appendix C

Information Letter for Participants-Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey

LINDENWOOD

Survey Research Information Sheet

You are asked to participate in a survey being conducted by GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El under the guidance of Dr. John Long and Dr. Jill Hutcheson **at** Lindenwood University. We are doing this study to gain insight into how teachers feel about themselves, their school, and student behavior. This survey is about teacher self-efficacy. This survey consists of questions related to teacher capacity to influence school decision making, create and promote a positive school climate, have autonomy over classroom instruction, and enlist parental involvement. It will take about 15 minutes to complete this survey.

Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate or withdraw at any time by simply not completing the survey or closing the browser window.

There are no risks from participating in this project. We will not collect any information that may identify you. There are no direct benefits for you participating in this study.

WHO CAN I CONTACT WITH QUESTIONS?

If you have concerns or complaints about this project, please use the following contact information:

GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El at gjf378@lindenwood.edu

Dr. Jill Hutcheson at jhutcheson@lindenwood.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a participant or concerns about the project and wish to talk to someone outside the research team, you can contact Michael Leary (Director - Institutional Review Board) at 636-949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu.

By clicking the link below, I confirm that I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. I understand the purpose of the study, what I will be required to do, and the risks involved. I understand that I can discontinue participation at any time by closing the survey browser. My consent also indicates that I am at least 18 years of age.

You can withdraw from this study at any time by simply closing the browser window. Please feel free to print a copy of this information sheet.

Appendix D

Information Letter for Participants-School Climate Survey

LINDENWOOD

Survey Research Information Sheet

You are asked to participate in a survey being conducted by GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El under the guidance of Dr. John Long and Dr. Jill Hutcheson **at** Lindenwood University. We are doing this study to gain insight into how teachers feel about themselves, their school, and student behavior. This survey is about school climate. This survey consists of questions related to school leadership, teacher collaboration, the supportiveness of the school environment, parental involvement, and classroom instruction. It will take about 15 minutes to complete this survey.

Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate or withdraw at any time by simply not completing the survey or closing the browser window.

There are no risks from participating in this project. We will not collect any information that may identify you. There are no direct benefits for you participating in this study.

WHO CAN I CONTACT WITH QUESTIONS?

If you have concerns or complaints about this project, please use the following contact information:

GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El at gjf378@lindenwood.edu

Dr. Jill Hutcheson at jhutcheson@lindenwood.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a participant or concerns about the project and wish to talk to someone outside the research team, you can contact Michael Leary (Director - Institutional Review Board) at 636-949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu.

By clicking the link below, I confirm that I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. I understand the purpose of the study, what I will be required to do, and the risks involved. I understand that I can discontinue participation at any time by closing the survey browser. My consent also indicates that I am at least 18 years of age.

You can withdraw from this study at any time by simply closing the browser window. Please feel free to print a copy of this information sheet.

Appendix E

Information Letter for Participants- Student Behavior Survey

LINDENWOOD

Survey Research Information Sheet

You are asked to participate in a survey being conducted by GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El under the guidance of Dr. John Long and Dr. Jill Hutcheson **at** Lindenwood University. We are doing this study to gain insight into how teachers feel about themselves, their school, and student behavior. This survey is about student behavior. This survey consists of questions about classroom disruptions and how they affect you, the support you receive for managing student behavior, and restorative practices. It will take about 15 minutes to complete this survey.

Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate or withdraw at any time by simply not completing the survey or closing the browser window.

There are no risks from participating in this project. We will not collect any information that may identify you. There are no direct benefits for you participating in this study.

WHO CAN I CONTACT WITH QUESTIONS?

If you have concerns or complaints about this project, please use the following contact information:

GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El at gjf378@lindenwood.edu

Dr. Jill Hutcheson at jhutcheson@lindenwood.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a participant or concerns about the project and wish to talk to someone outside the research team, you can contact Michael Leary (Director - Institutional Review Board) at 636-949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu.

By clicking the link below, I confirm that I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. I understand the purpose of the study, what I will be required to do, and the risks involved. I understand that I can discontinue participation at any time by closing the survey browser. My consent also indicates that I am at least 18 years of age.

You can withdraw from this study at any time by simply closing the browser window. Please feel free to print a copy of this information sheet.

Appendix F

Informed Consent Form-Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey

LINDENWOOD

Survey Research Consent Form

A quantitative study to investigate the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior in a Southern Illinois high school.

You are asked to participate in a survey being conducted by GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El under the guidance of Dr. John Long and Dr. Jill Hutcheson **at** Lindenwood University. We are doing this study to gain insight into how teachers feel about themselves, their school, and student behavior. This survey is about teacher self-efficacy. This survey consists of questions related to teacher capacity to influence school decision making, create and promote a positive school climate, have autonomy over classroom instruction, and enlist parental involvement. It will take about 15 minutes to complete this survey.

Answering this survey is voluntary. We will be asking about 70 other people to answer these questions.

We do not anticipate any risks related to your participation other than those encountered in daily life. You do not need to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable, or you can stop taking the survey at any time.

We will be collecting data that could identify you, but each survey response will receive a code so that we will not know who answered each survey. The code connecting you and your data will be destroyed as soon as possible. We do not intend to include any information that could identify you in any publication or presentation.

Will anyone know my identity?
We will do everything we can to protect your privacy. We do not intend to include information that could identify you in any publication or presentation. Any information we collect will be stored by the researcher in a secure location. The only people who will be able to see your data are: members of the research team, qualified staff of Lindenwood University, representatives of state or federal agencies.

What are the benefits of this study?
You will receive no direct benefits for completing this survey. We hope what we learn may benefit other people in the future.

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research or concerns about the study, or if you feel under any pressure to enroll or to continue to participate in this study, you may contact the Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board Director, Michael Leary, at (636) 949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu. You can contact the researcher, GegiMara Fluelen-

Ra-El at 618-567-2024 or gjf378@lindenwood.edu. You may also contact the Supervising Faculty, Jill Hutcheson at 636-627-2950 or jhutcheson@lindenwood.edu.

By clicking the link below, I confirm that I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. I understand the purpose of the study, what I will be required to do, and the risks involved. I understand that I can discontinue participation at any time by closing the survey browser. My consent also indicates that I am at least 18 years of age.

You can withdraw from this study at any time by simply closing the browser window. Please feel free to print a copy of this consent form.

Appendix G

Informed Consent Form-School Climate

LINDENWOOD

Survey Research Consent Form

A quantitative study to investigate the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior in a Southern Illinois high school.

You are asked to participate in a survey being conducted by GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El under the guidance of Dr. John Long and Dr. Jill Hutcheson **at** Lindenwood University. We are doing this study to gain insight into how teachers feel about themselves, their school, and student behavior. This survey is about school climate. This survey consists of questions related to school leadership, teacher collaboration, the supportiveness of the school environment, parental involvement, and classroom instruction. It will take about 15 minutes to complete this survey.

Answering this survey is voluntary. We will be asking about 70 other people to answer these questions.

We do not anticipate any risks related to your participation other than those encountered in daily life. You do not need to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable, or you can stop taking the survey at any time.

We will be collecting data that could identify you, but each survey response will receive a code so that we will not know who answered each survey. The code connecting you and your data will be destroyed as soon as possible. We do not intend to include any information that could identify you in any publication or presentation.

Will anyone know my identity?
We will do everything we can to protect your privacy. We do not intend to include information that could identify you in any publication or presentation. Any information we collect will be stored by the researcher in a secure location. The only people who will be able to see your data are: members of the research team, qualified staff of Lindenwood University, representatives of state or federal agencies.

What are the benefits of this study?
You will receive no direct benefits for completing this survey. We hope what we learn may benefit other people in the future.

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research or concerns about the study, or if you feel under any pressure to enroll or to continue to participate in this study, you may contact the Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board Director, Michael Leary, at (636) 949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu. You can contact the researcher, GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El at 618-567-2024 or gjf378@lindenwood.edu. You may also contact the Supervising Faculty, Jill Hutcheson at 636-627-2950 or jhutcheson@lindenwood.edu.

By clicking the link below, I confirm that I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. I understand the purpose of the study, what I will be required to do, and the risks involved. I understand that I can discontinue participation at any time by closing the survey browser. My consent also indicates that I am at least 18 years of age.

You can withdraw from this study at any time by simply closing the browser window. Please feel free to print a copy of this consent form.

Appendix H

Informed Consent Form- Student Behavior

LINDENWOOD

Survey Research Consent Form

A quantitative study to investigate the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, school climate, and student behavior in a Southern Illinois high school.

You are asked to participate in a survey being conducted by GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El under the guidance of Dr. John Long and Dr. Jill Hutcheson at Lindenwood University. We are doing this study to gain insight into how teachers feel about themselves, their school, and student behavior. This survey is about student behavior. This survey consists of questions about classroom disruptions and how they affect you, support for managing student behavior, and restorative practices. It will take about 15 minutes to complete this survey.

Answering this survey is voluntary. We will be asking about 70 other people to answer these questions.

We do not anticipate any risks related to your participation other than those encountered in daily life. You do not need to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable, or you can stop taking the survey at any time.

We will be collecting data that could identify you, but each survey response will receive a code so that we will not know who answered each survey. The code connecting you and your data will be destroyed as soon as possible. We do not intend to include any information that could identify you in any publication or presentation.

Will anyone know my identity?
We will do everything we can to protect your privacy. We do not intend to include information that could identify you in any publication or presentation. Any information we collect will be stored by the researcher in a secure location. The only people who will be able to see your data are: members of the research team, qualified staff of Lindenwood University, representatives of state or federal agencies.

What are the benefits of this study?
You will receive no direct benefits for completing this survey. We hope what we learn may benefit other people in the future.

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research or concerns about the study, or if you feel under any pressure to enroll or to continue to participate in this study, you may contact the Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board Director, Michael Leary, at (636) 949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu. You can contact the researcher, GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El at 618-567-2024 or gjf378@lindenwood.edu. You may also contact the Supervising Faculty, Jill Hutcheson at 636-627-2950 or jhutcheson@lindenwood.edu.

By clicking the link below, I confirm that I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. I understand the purpose of the study, what I will be required to do, and the risks involved. I understand that I can discontinue participation at any time by closing the survey browser. My consent also indicates that I am at least 18 years of age.

You can withdraw from this study at any time by simply closing the browser window. Please feel free to print a copy of this consent form.

Appendix I

Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey

Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey

This survey consists of questions related to teacher capacity to influence school decision making, create and promote a positive school climate, have autonomy over classroom instruction, and enlist parental involvement. Please take the time to answer each question thoughtfully. Your input is important, and your responses will be kept confidential. At the end of the survey, please feel free to include additional comments in the space provided

Demographic Information:

Gender:

Male	Female	Other (please list)

Age:

Under 25	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70+

How long have you been working as a teacher at this school?

First year	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	20 + years

Highest Level of Educations Completed

Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorate

Please respond to the following questions by marking the box that best represents your opinion.

Section 1: Efficacy to influence decision-making	**Nothing**	**Very Little**	**Some Influence**	**Quite a Bit of Influence**	**A Great Deal of Influence**
How much can you influence the decisions that are made in the school?					
How much can you express your views freely on important school matters?					
To what extent do you get the instructional materials and equipment you need?					
Section 2: Efficacy to create a positive school climate	**Nothing**	**Very Little**	**Some Influence**	**Quite a Bit of Influence**	**A Great Deal of Influence**
How much can you do to make the school a safe place?					
How much can you do to make students enjoy coming to school?					
How much can you do to get students to trust teachers?					
How much can you help other teachers with their teaching skills?					
How much can you do to enhance collaboration between teacher and the administration to make the school run smoothly?					
How much can you do to reduce school dropout?					

How much can you do to reduce student absenteeism?					
How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school?					
Section 3: Instruction Self-Efficacy	**Nothing**	**Very Little**	**Some Influence**	**Quite a Bit of Influence**	**A Great Deal of Influence**
How much can you do to influence class size in your school?					
How much can you do to get through to the most challenging students?					
How much can you do to promote learning when there is a lack of support at home?					
How much can you do to keep students on task with difficult assignments?					
How much can you do to increase students' memory of what they have been taught in previous lessons?					
How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school?					
How much can you do to get students to work together?					
How much can you do to overcome the influences of adverse community conditions on students' learning?					
How much can you get students to do their homework?					
Section 4: Efficacy to enlist parental involvement	**Nothing**	**Very Little**	**Some Influence**	**Quite a Bit of Influence**	**A Great Deal of Influence**
How much can you do to get parents to become involved in school activities?					
How much can you assist parents in helping their children do well in school?					
How much can you do to make parents feel comfortable coming to school?					

Appendix J

School Climate Survey

School Climate Survey

This survey is designed to gain perspective into your opinion of your school's climate. Please take the time to answer each question thoughtfully. Your input is important, and your responses will be kept confidential. At the end of the survey, please feel free to include additional comments in the space provided

Demographic Information

Gender

Male	Female	Other (please list)

Age

Under 25	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70+

How long have you been working as a teacher at this school?

First year	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	20 + years

Highest Level of Educations Completed

Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorate

Please respond to the following statements below.

Section 1: Effectiveness of School Leaders	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
School administrators trust my professional judgment					
Schools administrators include teachers in decision-making.					
Schools administrators communicate effectively with teachers.					
School administrators recognize teachers for doing a good job.					
School administrators follow through on promises.					
School administrators do all they can to ensure the school operates smoothly.					
School administrators consider the safety and well-being of the school community a top priority.					
School administrators promote a clear vision for our school.					

School administrators promote and encourage professional development for teachers.					
School administrators set high standards for academic achievement for all students.					
Section 2: Teacher Collaboration	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
I feel supported and respected by other teachers at my school					
My teaching schedule provides adequate opportunities for collaboration on curriculum, instruction, and student learning with other teachers.					
I have a close working relationship with each other at my school.					
I support and respect other teachers who take on leadership roles.					
I have observed other teachers classrooms and provided feedback.					
I regularly collaborate with other teachers to share knowledge and experiences, and to help solve problems.					
I have observed other teachers classrooms to get ideas for instruction or classroom management.					
I work with teachers at my school to foster a supportive environment for all students.					
I sometimes combine classes with other teachers to create shared teaching and learning experiences.					
I work with other teachers to plan extra-curricular activities.					
Section 3: Supportive Environment	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
The school environment is clean and well maintained					
The school's appearance is inviting.					
Teachers are safe in school and on school grounds.					
Students are safe in school and on school grounds.					
Teachers care whether or not students are successful.					
Teachers spend a great deal of time dealing with students' social-emotional challenges.					
School administrators provide teachers with useful feedback on instruction.					
School administrators ensure that teachers have the materials they need to facilitate instruction effectively.					
Teachers at this school have high expectations for students.					
In-Service and professional development opportunities available to teachers help meet their professional growth goals.					

The school provides a platform for teachers to discuss the feelings and concerns with other teachers.					
Section 4: Parent Involvement	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
Parents/guardians support your teaching efforts					
Parents/guardians do their best to help their children learn.					
Parents/guardians think of themselves as playing an important role in educating children.					
Parents/guardians are aware of what is expected of their children in school.					
Parents/guardians participate parent teacher conferences					
Parents/guardians volunteer time to support the school					
Parents/guardians contact teachers about their child's performance.					
Parents/guardians care about how their child performs in school.					
Parents/guardians work with teachers on areas of concern regarding their child.					
Parents/guardians take pride in our school.					
Section 5: Ambitious Instruction	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
When I design my lessons, I select content that meets the district's curriculum, requirement, and performance standards.					
I feel part of my job is to prepare students for college.					
I regularly provide students with a variety of assessment options other than test.					
I feel responsible for student learning.					
The curriculum at this school is focused on helping students get ready for college.					
When I prepare lessons, I consider how to create active learning experiences for my students.					
When I teach I move among the students, engaging individually and collectively with them during the lesson					
In my classroom, I create opportunities for students to interact and work in groups.					
When I prepare lessons, I consider how to build upon my students' prior knowledge and experiences.					
When I plan lessons, I create lessons with high expectations designed to challenge and stimulate all students.					

Appendix K

Student Behavior Survey

Student Behavior Survey

This survey is designed to gain perspective into your opinion of student behavior. Please take the time to answer each question thoughtfully. Your input is important, and your responses will be kept confidential. At the end of the survey, please feel free to include additional comments in the space provided.

Demographic Information

Gender

Male	Female	Other (please list)

Age

Under 25	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70+

How long have you been working as a teacher at this school?

First year	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	20 + years

Highest Level of Educations Completed

Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorate

Please respond to the following questions using.

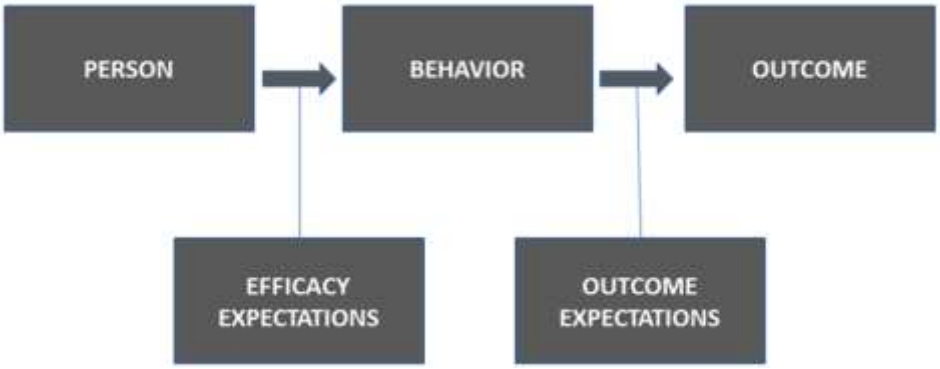
Section 1: How often do the following student behaviors occur in your classroom?	**Rarely /Never**	**Sometimes**	**Half the time**	**Often**	**Very Often**
Disruptions: Loud talking, yelling, inappropriate noises					
Verbal intimidation: Teasing, ridiculing, or name calling					
Aggressive verbal intimidation: Threatening or bullying					
Passive aggressive behavior: refusing to cooperate or follow your instructions					
Aggressive physical behavior: Taking of damaging personal property, pushing, grabbing, hitting, or kicking.					
Threatening you or someone in the class with a weapon					
Sexual harassment toward you or someone in the classroom					
Sleeping in class					

Use of cell phones: Texting or taking calls during class					
Inappropriate use of electronic devices (computers, iPad, tablets)					
Section 2: How much instructional time is spent dealing with the following student behaviors?	**Less than 10% of time**	**Between 10% and 25% of the time**	**Between 25% and 50% of the time**	**Between 50% and 75%of the time**	**More than 75% of the time**
Disturbances: Loud talking, yelling, inappropriate noises					
Verbal intimidation: Teasing, ridiculing, or name calling					
Aggressive verbal intimidation: Threatening or bullying					
Passive aggressive behavior: refusing to cooperate or follow your instructions					
Aggressive physical behavior: Taking of damaging personal property, pushing, grabbing, hitting, or kicking.					
Threatening you or someone in the class with a weapon					
Sexual harassment toward you or someone in the classroom					
Use of cell phones: Texting or taking calls during class					
Inappropriate use of electronic devices (computers, iPad, tablets)					
How much total instructional time is spent dealing with disruptive student behaviors					
Section 3: How often do classroom disruptions affect you personally?	**Rarely /Never**	**Sometimes**	**Half the time**	**Often**	**Very Often**
Made me feel like I was not having a positive impact on my students learning					
Made it hard for me to achieve my instructional objectives					
Made me feel I did not have control of the classroom					
Made me afraid to come to class					
Made me afraid to come to school					
Adversely affected my health.					
Caused me to consider changing professions					
Caused me to consider quitting my job					
Caused me to lose sleep at night					
Adversely affected my family life.					
Section 4: Support for Managing Student Behavior	**Rarely /Never**	**Sometimes**	**Half the time**	**Often**	**Very Often**
Teachers help maintain discipline in the entire school not just in their classrooms					
Teachers are successful at building relationships with their students.					
Teachers support each other in dealing with student behavior.					

Administrators support teachers in dealing with student behavior.					
Administrators enforce the student code of conduct.					
Parents hold their child accountable for their behavior.					
Parents are supportive of teachers.					
PBIS is effective at our school					
The school invests an adequate amount of time and resource into meeting the social, emotional needs of students.					
Our school has high expectations for student behavior.					
Section 5: Restorative Practices	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
Restorative practices are effective at reducing problem student behavior					
Exclusionary discipline practices are an effective way of reducing problem student behavior.					
Teachers have received enough training on restorative practices to allow them to implement restorative strategies successfully.					
Restorative practices help teachers get to know students personally.					
Teacher-Student relationships affect the overall success of the school.					
Restorative practices benefit students academically.					
Meetings with students should include conversations about their feelings and emotions.					
When a student causes harm, they should be given a chance to make amends.					
It is important for the student who has caused harm be given the support needed to change their behavior					
Restorative practices do not hold students accountable for their behavior.					

Appendix L

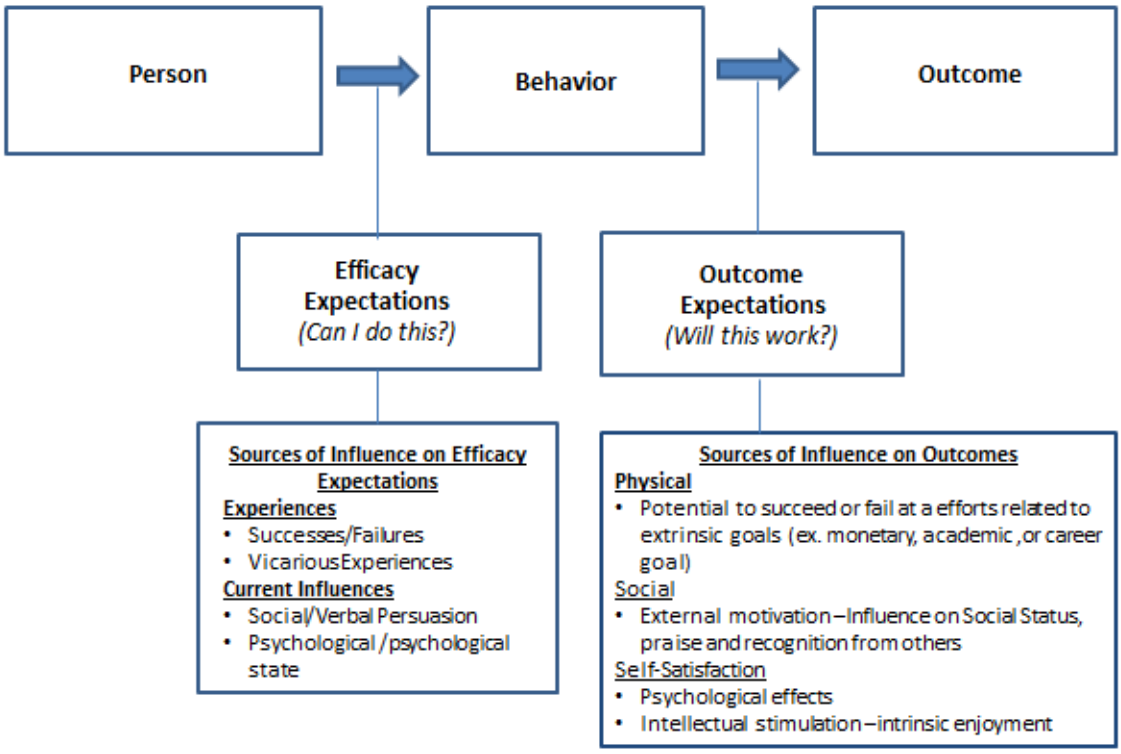
Bandura's Efficacy Expectations and Outcome Expectations



Note: This diagrammatic representation shows the difference between efficacy expectations and outcome expectations" Bandura, 1977 p.193

Appendix M

Bandura's Efficacy Expectations, Outcome Expectations, and Sources of Efficacy and Outcome Expectations



Note: Sources of influence on efficacy expectations and sources of influence on outcome expectancies. Adapted from Bandura's self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977; Bandura 1994; Williams 2010)

Appendix N

Examining Relationship between Teachers'

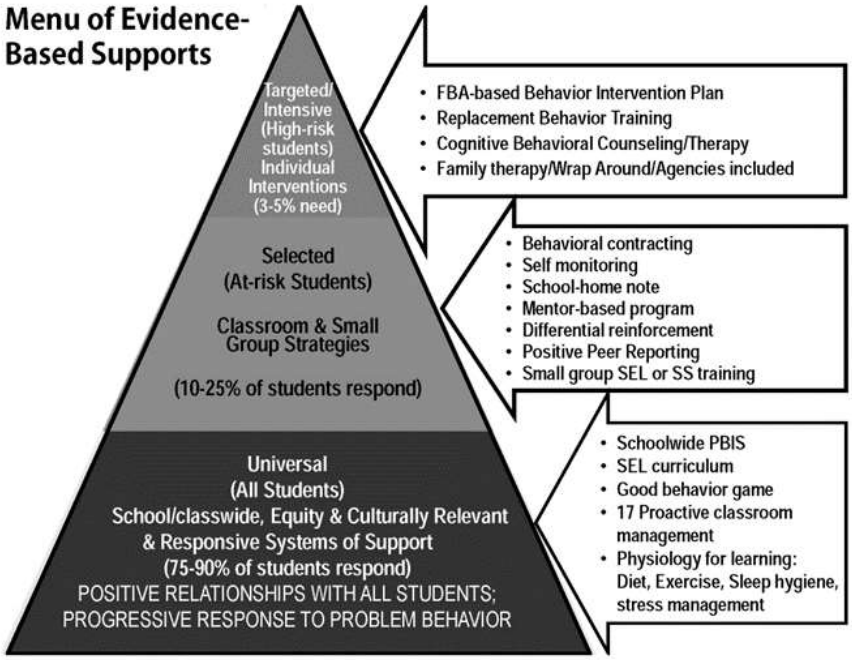
Self-Efficacy and Job Satisfaction.

Variables		B	SD	β	t	p	Two-tailed	Partial	R^2
1. Job and its quality	Constant	1.18	.31		3.82	.00			
	Student engagement	.30	.07	.32	4.15	.00	.31	.19	
	Instructional Strategies	-.03	.07	-.03	-.36	.72	.23	-.02	.09
	Classroom management	.01	.06	.01	.17	.87	.23	.01	
2. Salary	Constant	1.88	.29		6.50	.00			
	Student engagement	.08	.07	.10	1.22	.22	.03	.06	
	Instructional strategies	.02	.07	.03	.32	.75	.02	.01	.01
	Classroom management	-.09	.06	-.11	-1.44	.15	-.02	-.07	
3. Opportunities for development and promotion	Constant	1.13	.31		3.64	.00			
	Student engagement	.30	.07	.32	4.08	.00	.24	.18	
	Instructional strategies	.04	.07	.04	.52	.60	.18	.02	.06
	Classroom management	-.13	.06	-.14	-1.98	.049	.13	-.09	
4. Working conditions	Constant	1.35	.31		4.29	.00			
	Student engagement	.18	.07	.19	2.36	.02	.17	.11	
	Instructional strategies	-.01	.07	-.02	-.20	.84	.13	-.01	.03
	Classroom management	.00	.06	.00	.00	1.00	.13	.00	
5. Interpersonal relationships	Constant	2.23	.25		8.98	.00			
	Student participation	.11	.06	.15	1.91	.06	.27	.09	
	Instructional strategies	.03	.06	.04	.58	.56	.24	.03	.08
	Classroom management	.08	.05	.11	1.54	.12	.26	.07	
6. Organizational setting	Constant	1.89	.30		6.32	.00			
	Student participation	.19	.07	.21	2.70	.01	.27	.12	
	Instructional strategies	-.06	.07	-.06	-.78	.44	.20	-.04	.08
	Classroom management	.11	.06	.13	1.84	.07	.25	.08	
7. Job Satisfaction (Whole Scale)	Constant	1.58	.22		7.33	.00			
	Student participation	.20	.05	.30	3.93	.00	.30	.18	
	Instructional strategies	-.01	.05	-.01	-.15	.88	.23	-.01	.09
	Classroom management	.00	.04	.01	.10	.92	.23	.00	

Note: The data in this table shows significant positive relationship ($p < .05$) between teacher self-efficacy and teacher job contentment (Turkoglu, Muhammet Emin, et al., 2017 p 335).

Appendix O

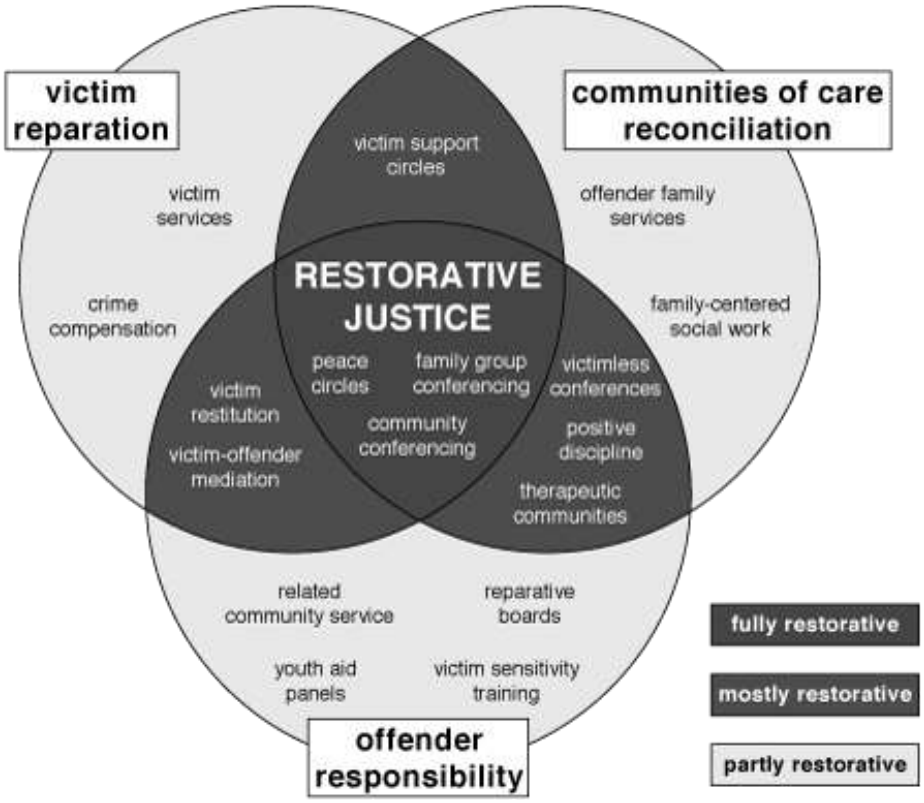
Positive Behavior Intervention System



Note: This figure represents the multi-tiered systems of support (Pent.Ca.Gov, 2019)

Appendix P

Restorative Justice Typology Positive



Note: This Restorative Justice Typology is a graphic representation of the restorative justice construct (Staff, n.d.).

Appendix Q: Summary of Subcategory Research Data

Sub-Categories	***n***	***r***	***df***	***t***	***p***
Student Behavior and School Climate Female Teachers	24	-0.238	22	1.149	.262
Student Behavior and School Climate Male Teachers	7	-0.283	5	.660	.538
Student Behavior and School Climate Teachers Age 30-39	5	-0.598	3	1.292	.286
Student Behavior and School Climate Teachers Age 40-49	12	-0.105	10	-.334	.745
Student Behavior and School Climate Teacher Ages 50-59	10	.192	8	.553	.595
Student Behavior and School Climate BA	9	.326	7	.912	.391
Student Behavior and School Climate MA	23	.410	21	-2.060	.052
Student Behavior and Teacher Self-Efficacy BA	8	.049	6	.120	.908
Student Behavior and Teacher Self-Efficacy MA	20	.021	18	.089	.930
Student Behavior and Teacher Self-Efficacy Male Teachers	5	.403	3	.763	.501
Student Behavior and Teacher Self-Efficacy Female Teachers	22	.033	20	.148	.884
Student Behavior and Teacher Self-Efficacy Ages 40-49	9	-0.191	7	.515	.622
Student Behavior and Teacher Self-Efficacy Ages 50-59	10	-0.270	8	.793	.450
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate Male Teachers	10	.037	8	.105	.919
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate Female Teachers	25	.264	23	1.313	.202
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate -MA	24	.102	22	.481	.635
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate -BA	12	.460	10	1.638	.132
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate – Ages 50-59	13	-.0261	11	.897	.389
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate –Ages 30-39	6	.744	4	2.227	.089
*Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate –Ages 40-49	12	.636	10	2.606	.026
Student Behavior and School Climate 11-15 Years of Teaching	6	-0.733	4	2.603	.059
Student Behavior and School Climate 16-20 Years of Teaching	9	.005	7	0.013	.989
Student Behavior and School Climate Teachers Who Taught More than 20 Years	12	.222	10	.720	.488
Student Behavior and Teacher Self-Efficacy 11-15 Years of Teaching	4	-0.463	2	-0.751	.531
Student Behavior and Teacher Self-Efficacy 16-20 Years of Teaching	9	-0.596	7	-0.596	.090
Student Behavior and Teacher Self-Efficacy Teachers Who Taught More than 20 Years	11	.432	9	1.437	.184
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate –11-15 Years of Teaching	6	.577	4	1.413	.230
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate –16-20 Years of Teaching	12	.482	10	1.740	.112
Teacher Self-Efficacy and School Climate Teachers Who Taught More than 20 Years	13	-0.236	13	-0.805	0.437
**** The result is significant a p < .05.***					

Appendix R

Teacher Comments

Teacher Self-Efficacy Survey

Participant 12: “Often, I think it is better to treat the students as adults and deal with them rather than calling parents because then they take more ownership of the situation."

Participant 24: “I feel lucky to be part of a strong Union. I feel labor laws and the Union contract help teachers have a voice and influence in the schools”.

Participant 24:“Simple rules are NOT enforced at the high school. Many decisions seem to be made by administrators who have no classroom experience. They NEVER ask about a situation or try to understand and collaborate with the people who know about how their decisions affect those involved”.

Participant 42: “Our abilities as classroom teachers is dramatically affected by the administration of the building. Many of these questions SHOULD have been answered with "Quite a bit of influence," however due to the failure and the undercutting of staff by some administrators, sadly, the questions, can only be answered with "Some influence." When the staff's authority is undercut by the administration or when students are told by certain administrators, the teachers do not like the students; it has a devastating effect. When the administration does not follow the policies of the districts or constantly change their own set of rules, the climate and safety of the school will not improve, and the moral of the staff will remain low. What is most upsetting, because of the conditions that are allowed to exist by the administration, the learning environment for our students is compromised”.

School Climate Survey

Participant 4:“I do not prepare my students for college because I teach Life Skills to students with Intellectual Disabilities."

Participant 6: “There are simple existing rules that are NOT enforced: IDs, dress code, phones, etc.”

Participant 7: “On my survey, some of my answers reflected my special education position. Staff who teach in the "typical" or mainstream would most likely have a different perspective in terms of individualizing lesson material. Never having taught non-special needs students, I am unfamiliar with today's mainstream classrooms. In special education; if you don't individualize or use multiple methods of presenting your material, your students will not "catch on" and/or retain what is presented unless you provide a variety of methods, use multiple pathways and use constant repetition of the most important facts. I can't imagine any other way of teaching, yet education/teaching was less multi-faceted when I was a student. We were expected to study, practice, and research, and most of our parents pushed that as well. Parent involvement varies with our students. I make a point of providing information and opportunities to connect with the school. For many parents of special needs students, being presented once again with information that shows your child is lagging behind is not a desirable experience. It can be discouraging when parents are not actively engaged with the school but understandable in this situation. Safety in the school- I feel safe yet I know of teachers who have been threatened or feel threatened by the words and/or actions of their students. I pass students in the hall at times when they should be in class. When something is said, the student (most of the time) talks back even when it is simply a gentle reminder or

question. Apparently, there are not enough staff to monitor the halls completely or severe enough consequences for being late or even ditching classes as almost every hour students are in the halls OR outside their class for disrupting class. From listening to my fellow teachers, I believe many feel the students run the building and that the students who do not "want to learn" keep those students who follow the expectations and appear to want to listen and work from doing so. Whether that is exactly the truth in every circumstance is doubtful; however, it does appear that many of students who are not engaged feel/believe there is no real consequences for their actions. Their teachers feel the same way. This situation creates a morale problem that in many cases feels insurmountable. Thank you for letting me express these comments".

Participant 9: "I do not feel safe anymore here but did for years."

Participant 10: "When you drop programs and don't re-hire teachers, students are not kept stimulated and occupied. It doesn't take a rocket scientist to figure out as to WHY these kids are fighting all of the time and are running the hallways. I personally blame our WEAK UNION for not standing up for what is right for the students and the teachers of Cahokia District 187. I do not care how well I am liked or disliked by union members or staff. I have a proven track record of helping, and I also know when the wool is being pulled over my eyes. I am ashamed of some of our representatives in charge of our "so-called Teachers Union" and if I could get away with not having to pay union dues, I would! It's been a waste of our money as far as I am concerned! Start doing your job, or get out of office! I blame the poor climate of this school on the lack of leadership from our union officers. We used to be strong union at one time. I am tired of hearing the excuse "the state is broke" but every school in this area has ALL OF ITS VOCATIONAL

ED. COURSES still part of their programs and re-hires a teacher when one retires! We all know that a majority of these kids are not college bound. I remember when we had heating and cooling; electrical studies; automotive; co-op school to work; ...and at one time, this High School had its own radio station! Too much corruption, too much nepotism, and nobody wants to do anything about it! So... that survey that was put in our mailbox is too little...too late! This should have been nipped in the bud years ago when the union saw it coming, but NOW you want to do something about this? Now to me, that's weak and pathetic! Tired of the excuses. Either do what you were voted by your members to do, or let someone else do the job. This union used to stand for something at one time! Now, it stands only for themselves!"

Participant 13: "I feel that my head principal tries very hard to promote a positive school climate. I feel his hands are tied by the powers that be on some important issues. The assistant principals do not all consistently support school-wide policies or enforce basic standards for student behavior, and he seems powerless to force them to do so. It is a shame as it lowers the academic bar for the students and creates chaos where none should exist. For example, some grade level offices ignore the tardy policy completely. Far too many students now chronically roam the halls. Some children are significantly tardy to nearly all classes, every hour of nearly every day. Those principals should be held accountable. Staff is beyond frustrated, and the union complains, but nothing is done. Teachers and support staff really try, but without true leadership to replace assistant principals, nothing can happen. They are usually related to someone".

Participant 16: "Tardiness is at all-time high. We need a harsher punishment so they can get to class on time. Teachers are tardy to first hour a lot".

Student Behavior Survey

Participant 4: “Our district needs more training and support to help with student behaviors."

Participant 6: “Teacher-student relationships can only be effective to a point. Accountability for the student is a must. When the student and teachers have gone through classroom procedures, to no avail resulting in the need for further discipline, then the administration does not back the teacher, with documentation of all steps taken, or undermines the teacher, the relationship between teacher and student and teacher and administrator has been weakened. Repeat this over an entire school year - you have a school in chaos by middle of third quarter”.

Participant 7: “Almost always, students are allowed to grab or threaten me without consequence from the administration”.

Participant 8: “Just an idea... Instead of enforcing consequences in late April and throwing students out because the behaviors compounded over the year, can we try to enforce the rules all year instead of being a student's "friend"? If that worked, students wouldn't be exhibiting this frequent of behaviors to this degree and drag other students down with them for nine months”.

Participant 10: “We don't have the time or resources to implement restorative practices effectively. One on one conversations with students and time to think through appropriate, restorative consequences is necessary for restorative practices to be effective. However, there is not space or time to do so when students switch classes”.

Participant 11: “I feel what is sometimes packaged as restorative justice really isn't. Making someone say sorry who isn't doesn't restore justice for victims. Giving troublemakers the spotlight is sometimes a negative consequence too. I feel true restorative justice is positive, but it requires lots of social work and support from administration. This would mean they actually care and do their jobs with fidelity. Some won't. And, sadly, we can't make them. Some of the assistant principals shirk their responsibilities to students. They ignore serious situations and shift the sole responsibility for student misbehavior to staff. This is really bad under Danielson. Teachers face low evaluations if they displease the principal. It is terrible. Assistant principals "counsel" students who return to class and continue doing the same behaviors that are disruptive (and often copied by classmates). Teens who think they can get away with playing will in a permissive atmosphere. Teachers with discipline problems find themselves in the hot seat. I want to do anything that helps the students, but the administrators have to become leaders”.

Participant 12: “I agree with the concept of restorative practice; however, it has to be used with fidelity and not simply on paper. Teachers have to be provided the support they need to deal with disruptions in the classroom so that all students can be successful. It does not simply mean WE DON'T SUSPEND and leave teachers hanging with no resources”.

Participant 13: “I do not believe there is one fix, restorative, etc. to maintain proper student behavior except consistency in enforcing what is considered proper student behavior”.

Participant 14:“The classroom I am in this year does not have students that are disruptive. In the past, I have considered leaving teaching due to inappropriate behaviors and not being supported by administration”.

Participant 15: “Students should be accountable for their behavior."

Participant 16: “It seems as though we are not providing an environment that supports learning. We are not implementing restorative practices. We are spending too much time wasting time on disciplining repeat offenders and not enough time catering to the needs of the students that value education as a tool to be successful in the future”.

Participant 17: “I have not been trained in restorative practices."

Participant 19: “I have not had any training in restorative practices. I do not even really know what it is”.

Participant 20: “The students could be great...Administration is not willing to consistently or effectively enforce even basic standards of behavior”.

Participant 22: “We don't really have a restorative justice system in place."

Participant 25: “I wish that the punishment could fit the crime. You know, like if they drew on the bathroom walls, they would have to clean it off. Or, if they were rude to someone, they would have to apologize and then do something to help the other student”.

Participant 26: “The questions are far too broad to answer properly. As an example, restorative practices can be beneficial; however, they are not implemented properly or consistently in our school. Depending on which administrator you are dealing with, the policies of the district are not being enforced. The discipline from the 10th and 11th-grade office is atrocious in practice. A growing number are taking advantage of the lack of discipline. Knowing there will not be disciplined or much discipline, they feel free to

continue to disrupt classes. A second section of students sees the first is not being dealt with and begin to act out. Another group sees the first two and either act out, or they become frustrated and discouraged and have start to give up. If the administrators of the 10th or 11th-grade office followed policies as the 9th and 12th-grade office do, the second and third group would not act out as much, and the first group would not be as large. Until the district is courageous enough too done about those two offices, the school climate will never improve."

Participant 27: "Yes, we need an alternative school in Cahokia Unit School District #187, and this is not just coming from the Teachers; but Parents and Students as well".

Participant 28: "I think restorative practices will work at the grade school levels but will be interested to see how high school students react and how much they will share with their peers and teachers."

Participant 30: "We haven't had any training on restorative practices. We don't do anything like this at the high school. We have very little resources for kids and very few programs to help wayward students. We have an ISSC room and suspension. Our kids need so much more to help them get the socio-emotional help they need".

Participant 31: "If training on restorative practices has been offered to teachers at this school, I was not aware of it. As far as I know, we have not had any training on restorative practices other than the presentation about what restorative justice is at the beginning of the school year".

Participant 32: "I have not had any restorative practice training and am unaware of the full process. I do not know if others in the school have had this training. When the questions referred directly to restorative practices, I chose neutral in most cases. In

special education, we employ behavior management programs such as token economy as well as give instruction and feedback to our students regarding appropriate and inappropriate behavior. Students are expected to apologize for their behavior as well as have consequences for repeated instances of the inappropriate behavior. I believe that most students these days will not buy into learning unless they feel a connection with the teacher whether that is in typical classrooms or special needs classrooms. However, a teacher must maintain a balance of caring and listening with expectations and consistency or they will not keep the students' respect or may find that the students take advantage of various options in their classroom. This year had been more stressful for all with a student who needed more support than our program could give him which made this year out of the norm in terms of classroom management, safety, and productive learning. The student is now in a different program and learning in my classroom setting has returned to its normal level. I answered the questions with the overall running of my classroom and program rather than specific to this year. In general, students in my classes do not bully each other. Sometimes students are unaware of boundaries and consequently play or tease too much. When this occurs, I try to use it as a learning opportunity. In general, students feel safe and accepted in my classroom and follow the expectations of the school and classroom. I do know that teachers of non-special needs learners, and some of the teachers of students with special needs have different experiences than I do with their students. Thank you for this opportunity to reflect on these various points".

Participant 35: "A lot of the restorative practices forget that society is not like that. Students need to be accountable for their actions. These practices have good intentions,

but in real life, if they commit a crime, they have to pay for their actions. I believe that consistency is very important".

Vitae

GegiMara Fluelen-Ra-El

1012 Steven Dee * O'Fallon IL 62269 * raelgegi@gmail.com
(618)567-2024

OBJECTIVE

Doctorate in Education Administration from Lindenwold University

---

EDUCATION AND CREDENTIALS

Ed.D. Education Administration - Lindenwold University, St. Charles MO	TBA
Illinois Superintendent Certification, I	2016
Ed.S. Education Administration - Lindenwood University, St. Charles MO	2012
Illinois Principal Certification, Issued	2007
M.A. Illinois Administrative - Lindenwood University, St. Charles MO	2006
B.S. Secondary Education - Harris Stowe State College St. Louis MO	2001

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Director of Curriculum and Instruction July 2016-Current	Cahokia School District, Cahokia IL
Assistant Director of Curriculum and Instruction and Certified Personnel November, 2014 - July 2016	Cahokia School District, Cahokia IL
K-12 Curriculum and Instruction Specialist/Social Science Curriculum Supervisor July 2013-November 2014	St. Louis Public Schools, St. Louis MO
After School Program Administrator August 2011-May 2013	Carnahan High School, St. Louis MO
Social Studies Department Head August 2011-May 2013	Carnahan High School, St. Louis MO

Night School Administrator (intern) September 2005-May 2006	Roosevelt High School, St. Louis MO
St. Louis Public School Teacher August 2004-May 2013	Roosevelt High School, St. Louis MO Carnahan High School, St. Louis MO
Provisional Special Education Teachers (CCBD) August 2001-July 2004	Children's Center for Behavior Development Centerville IL

ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCES

- Lead Facilitator and Coordinator for the Districts' Continuous Improvement Team
- Conducted daily *Focused Instructional Learning Walk* Observations for 16, K-12 buildings, and provided feedback and instructional support to teachers and administrators as needed.
- Applied information gained from data and research to make deliberate changes to the content, and sequence of curriculum pacing guides; for the distinct purpose of improving and enhancing the teaching-learning process.
- Worked collaboratively with academic teams (administrators, teachers, academic instructional coaches), to develop CCSS aligned curricula materials, based on a methodical review and analysis of the current curricula.
- Supervised and monitored staff and students to ensure that all programs were implemented in accordance with school districts policies and procedures.
- Evaluated and selected instructional materials designed to meet the unique learning needs of our student population.
- Analyzed and utilized data from MAP, Acuity, and Benchmark assessments to make decisions about the effectiveness of the curricula and instructional programs.
- Collaborated with academic teams and various committee organizations to identify training needs and coordinate professional development services within the district.
- Facilitated textbook adoption and ordering process.
- Compiled budgets and cost estimates based on availability of funds and documented program needs.

PROFESSIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS

- Pettus Award Winner for Excellence in Teaching Social Studies 2011
- Nominee for Social Studies Teacher of the Year 2011
- Nominee for the National Deans List 2001

COMMUNITY ASSOCIATIONS AND COLLABORATIONS

- University of MO - Connecting Human Origin and Cultural Diversity 2013 - 2015
- National Council for the Social Studies 2012 – 2015
- Illinois Principal Association 2016-Current