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Teachers' Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Scores: Relations to Teacher Expectations and Office Discipline Referrals

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Teachers' Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Scores: Relations
to Teacher Expectations and Office Discipline Referrals

A Dissertation Presented

by

MARIA R. SANTIAGO-ROSARIO

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
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DEDICATION

A mi abuela Marissa, por ti todo y sin ti nada.

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ABSTRACT

TEACHERS' CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT SELF-EFFICACY SCORES: RELATIONS TO TEACHER EXPECTATIONS AND OFFICE DISCIPLINE REFERRALS

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Nationwide out-of-school suspension and expulsion rates show historically underserved groups of students leading discipline disproportionality reports (i.e., 1.1 million African-American, 660,000 in special education, 600,000 Latino, and 210,000 ELL students; U. S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 2018). While Schoolwide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (SWPBIS) effects on racial discipline disproportionality have been promising, they have been insufficient (McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, & Smolkowski, 2014; Vincent & Tobin, 2011), and empirical work studying the interrelation between classroom management, culture, behavior, and teacher decision-making is needed for a cohesive and theoretically sound approach to addressing the racial discipline gap (Gregory & Roberts, 2017; Fallon, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2012; McIntosh et al., 2015). The purpose of this study was to explore the extent to which teachers’ perceived classroom management abilities predict racial discipline disproportionality in office disciplinary referrals (ODRs), and how teachers’ behavioral expectations of

students mediate racially associated discipline differences. Thirty-three teachers in 28 classrooms completed the Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Survey (Siwatu, Putnam, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2015), and reported their expectations for all students in their classrooms ($N=496$) using a modified version of van den Bergh, Denessen, Hornstra, Voeten, and Holland (2010) Teacher Expectation scale. The discipline history of classroom students was measured with ODRs during the 2017-2018 academic year. Using multi-level models, a racial discipline gap was evident for African-American students in comparison to White students. Further, through multi-level models and Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression with standardized errors corrected, teachers' CRCMSE strength index score was not shown to be associated with the racial discipline gap. Additionally, some of the difference between the number of ODRs received by African-American and White peers appears to be due to the distinction in teacher expectations for these students. Findings also support that teacher expectations have a stronger influence on the ODRs received by Latino students in comparison to their White peers. A summary of findings, limitations to this work, contributions to the literature, and possible implication for future research are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Overview

Schools support students in becoming responsible and constructive members in society by teaching positive behaviors and maximizing instructional time (Artiles, Kozleski, Trent, Osher, & Ortiz, 2010; Gregory, Cornell, & Fan, 2011; National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2009). Nonetheless, nationwide discipline data shows students from historically underserved groups miss instructional time due to disciplinary incidents, and they become more at-risk for school dropout at disproportionate rates (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2013). Thus, scholars and experts in the field are focusing on what might influence teacher decision-making during disciplinary interactions and how classroom-management strategies may prevent students from missing instructional time (Cornell, Maeng, Huang, Shukla, & Konold, 2018; McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, & Smolkowski, 2014; Sprague, 2018).

When educators are asked about their experiences in the classrooms, half of them report spending too much time correcting for unexpected behavioral interruptions (Beaman, Wheldall, & Kemp, 2007), and a significant amount report feeling unprepared to effectively manage behaviors (Chesley & Jordan, 2012; Reinke, Stormont, Herman, Puri, & Goel, 2011). Out of the most frequently identified teacher-stressors (i.e., student misbehavior, time/resource difficulties, professional recognition needs, and poor collegiate relationships; Borg & Riding, 1991), student misbehavior was most predictive of teacher stress (Boyle, Borg, Falzon, & Baglioni, 1995) and has also been connected to burnout (Aloe, Amo, Shanahan, 2014). An aspect of teacher-burnout relates to experiencing emotional exhaustion (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Jackson,

Leiter, Schaufeli, & Schwab, 2010; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010), which leads to being unable to provide students with adequate instructional and behavioral support (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010). Further, people who struggle with self-efficacy are more likely to be reluctant to engage in certain practices (Bandura, 1997), which is associated with educators who doubt their abilities to engage in everyday problem-solving (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

Reactive and punitive discipline practices negatively influence school climate (Gregory, Cornell, & Fan, 2011), and even though these practices typically result in immediate decline of severe behavior problems (McCord, 1998; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992), problem behavior frequency and intensity rates often increase over time (Mayer, 1995, Mayer & Butterworth, 1979, Mayer, Butterworth, Nafpakitis & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1983; Sugai & Horner, 2002). Nationwide statistics and empirical studies suggest that exclusionary discipline policies result in broader out-of-school suspension and expulsion rates (American Psychological Association, 2008; Skiba & Rausch, 2006; Wald & Losen, 2003) and that historically underserved groups of students are referred more often than others. To better understand such issues of disproportionality, also known as the racial discipline gap, the research has looked to multi-level factors or characteristics of schools, classrooms, and individuals (e.g., structure, climate, relationships, abilities, needs; Osher, Bear, Sprague, & Doyle, 2010).

For the purpose of clarity, the concepts of *historically underserved groups*, *disproportionality*, and *school discipline disproportionality* are defined next before their use throughout the document. Trent (2010) used the term *historically underserved groups* to refer to “students from diverse racial, cultural, linguistic, and economically

disadvantaged background who have experienced sustained school failure over time (p.774).” Though, when reporting data from empirical studies and nationwide reports a different descriptor might be used in this document to accurately reflect the gathered information, statements using the previous term refers to the broad groups of students that experience the achievement and discipline gap in the United States. *Disproportionality* refers to the extent to which group membership (e.g., race, ethnicity, gender) influences the likelihood of a particular outcome (Oswald, Coutinhow, Best, & Singh, 1999). In this particular study, the focus is placed on racial discipline disproportionality which, is often used interchangeably with the racial discipline gap, to refer to a nationwide problem consistently evidenced by scholarly studies and nationwide school discipline data.

Nationwide out-of-school suspension and expulsion rates show historically underserved groups of students leading discipline disproportionality reports (i.e., 1.1 million African-American, 660,000 in special education, 600,000 Latino, and 210,000 ELL students; Losen, Hodson, Keith, Morrison, & Belway, 2015; U. S. Department of Education, 2016). In combination with law enforcement involvement, students in schools that rely on suspension are more at risk for experiencing a number of adverse events and outcomes as they grow older (Wald & Losen, 2003; Wolf & Kupchik, 2017). Data trends support that racially and ethnically diverse groups of students tend to be referred more often for office discipline referrals (ODRs; Losen, Hodson, Keith, Morrison, & Belway, 2015; U. S. Department of Education, 2014, 2016). In addition, studies support that African-American students are referred more than white students for subjectively labeled offenses (i.e., defiance, disruptiveness, disrespect), while white students are referred more than African American students for objectively defined behavior offenses (e.g., obscene language, vandalism, truancy; Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017; Skiba,

Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). Though these staggering statistics are not new, and work has been done to identify schoolwide frameworks leading to equitable outcomes, experimental work aimed at identifying and understanding disparity-reducing malleable variables and the validation of related interventions is in its infancy (McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, & Smolkowski, 2014).

Schoolwide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (SWPBIS) stand as a preventative and proactive approach to discipline practices in which educators engage in active instruction to help all students develop social skills, acknowledge appropriate behavior, develop systematic consequences for problem behavior, and consistently engage in data-based decision making to analyze problem behaviors and evaluate interventions (Sugai & Horner, 2002). The educational practice of implementing SWPBIS is grounded in applied behavior analysis and problem-solving approaches to increase prosocial behavior and academic learning at a large scale (Horner, Sugai, & Anderson, 2010). SWPBIS implementation reduces ODRs (Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010; Horner et al. 2009; Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin, & May, 2011), requests for individualized school-based services (e.g., counseling services; Bradshaw, Koth, Thornton, & Leaf, 2009; Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010), and out-of-school suspension rates (Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010; U.S. Department of Education, 2014). Furthermore, SWPBIS effects on racial discipline disproportionality have been promising but insufficient since the racial discipline gap between African-American and White students remains (Horner, Sugai, & Anderson, 2010; Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin & May, 2011; Vincent & Tobin, 2011). As a result, leading researchers have studied the racial discipline gap from different perspectives.

There is likely more than one way to reduce racial disproportionality. To address this issue in school discipline, the education literature mainly targets the study of evidence-based classroom management with an explicit focus on culturally responsive practices (e.g., Weinstein et al., 2004), while the social-psychology literature influences the movement toward identifying decision points during the school day when teacher decision-making may be most vulnerable to racially biased prejudices which are known to influence lower teacher expectations (McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, & Smolkowski, 2014; Van den Bergh, Denessen, Hornstra, Voeten, & Holland, 2010). In this study, two potential malleable variables will be targeted to better understand the racial discipline gap as measured by ODRs. As informed by emerging research, and following McIntosh and colleagues' (2014) call to identify intervention components addressing racial discipline disproportionality, the current research study aimed to explore the extent to which teachers perceived culturally responsive classroom management abilities and expectations of students predict racial discipline disproportionality in subjective and objective ODRs. The following sections provide a synopsis of the nationwide statistics and research literature relevant to the proposed study.

Reactive Discipline Practices

Federal legislation and contemporary educational leadership hold schools accountable for implementing practices grounded in empirical evidence demonstrating effective outcomes (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). Though school suspension and expulsion are two of the most commonly use measures of discipline outcomes and associated effects (Gregory & Robers, 2017), this study also considers office discipline referrals (ODRs) in discussing the non-linear process underlying discipline exclusion from the classroom environment (Skiba & Rausch, 2015). Not only does the evidence

shows a racial discipline gap when using ODRs as the outcome measure (e.g., Anyon et al., 2014; Bradshaw, Mitchell, O'Brien, & Leaf, 2011), but about 33% of ODRs result in school suspension (Spaulding et al., 2010). As cited in Skiba and Rausch (2015), negative outcomes of school suspension and school expulsion have recently been reported and advocates have suggested a moratorium on these practices (e.g., Losen & Martinez, 2013), such advocates include policy think tanks (e.g., Council of State Governments, 2011) and professional associations (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2013; American Bar Association, 2001; American Psychological Association, 2008). In the following sections, the effects of exclusionary discipline practices are discussed in accordance to each goal schools must meet to support effectiveness of their school discipline systems.

The adoption of reactive and exclusionary discipline policies is known for having considerable negative effects on schools and student outcomes (American Academy of Pediatrics Council on School Health, 2013; Skiba & Rausch, 2006). In looking at the evidence of school suspension and expulsion in relation to school safety, the American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force (2008) found no evidence supporting that exclusionary practices contribute to improving school safety outcomes. Data support that students in schools with higher use of suspension and expulsion self-reported lower ratings of safety and diminished school climate (Steinberg, Allensworth, & Johnson, 2015). Further, the literature shows no evidence supporting that reactive and punitive consequences such as suspension and expulsion yield beneficial outcomes or prevent misbehavior (Larson, 1998). On the other hand, these practices are shown to increase the intensity and frequency of problem behaviors (e.g., Mayer, 1995; Mayer & Butterworth, 1979; Mayer, Butterworth, Nafpaktis & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1983; Sugai &

Horner, 2002) and have yielded predictive associations between suspensions in earlier grades with the number of suspensions received later in middle-school and high-school (Raffaele Mendez, 2003).

Exclusionary practices predict higher rates of repeat offenses resulting in suspension, ranging from 35% (Bowditch, 1993) to 42% (Constenbader & Markson, 1998). Additionally, frequently referred students are also found to engage in defiant behavior when they are more likely to perceive teachers to have untrustworthy authority (Gregory & Weinstein, 2008). Exclusionary discipline practices fail to improve student behavior despite ethnic or racial characteristics (Hoffman, 2014; Skiba et al., 2014).

The adoption of exclusionary and punitive discipline policies also negatively influences the school climate. For example, the American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force (2008) found that teachers and students in school with higher use of suspension and expulsion reported less effective and welcoming school environments. Moreover, the use of school suspension and expulsion to deal with non-violent behavior also hinders the bond between the student and school members (Bracy, 2011; McNeely, Nonemaker, & Blum, 2002). Other studies including observation of the cost of exclusionary practices have found that school administrators and staff spend more time on discipline related matters and less time paying attention to improving or solving for school climate issues (Bickel & Qualls, 1980; Davis & Jordan, 1994; Muscott, Mann, & LeBrun, 2008; Skiba & Rausch, 2015).

Exclusionary practices are also associated with an increase of the number of suspension and expulsion rates, which paradoxically influences the risk for school failure because of increased time out of the classroom (Arcia, 2006; Skiba & Rausch, 2006; Wald & Losen, 2003; Walker et al., 1996;). Research supports that every discipline

referral results in a loss of 10 to 20 minutes of instructional time for students when referred to the office (Muscott, Mann, & LeBrun, 2008; Scott & Barret, 2004) and 6 hours of instruction per day when suspended out of school (Scott & Barret, 2004). Additionally, on average an ODR results in 10 to 15 minutes of time lost teaching and a loss of 15-45 minutes for school administrators (Muscott, Mann, & LeBrun, 2008). Lastly, school suspension and expulsions used as consequences for non-violent behavior are also found to decrease engagement with the learning process in addition to reducing instructional time (Balfanz, Byrnes, & Fox, 2015; Greenwood, Horton, & Utlely, 2002; Lassen, Steele, & Sailor, 2006).

Not only do exclusionary and punitive discipline practices lead to academic failure, they are also associated with dropout rates (i.e., Arcia, 2006; Balfanz, Byrnes, & Fox, 2015; Council of State Government, 2011; Davis & Jordan, 1994; Ekstrom, Goertz, Pollack & Rock, 1986; Raffaele Mendez & Knoff, 2003; Shollenberg, 2015, Suh & Suh 2007; Wehlage & Rutter, 1986). The Council of State Government (2011) found that school suspension and expulsion longitudinal data support a stronger likelihood, 5 times more, for excluded students to drop-out of school. Moreover, experts in the field found evidence connecting the overuse of exclusionary and punitive school disciplinary systems and future student involvement with the criminal juvenile justice system (Council of State Governments Justice Center, 2014; Kim, Losen, & Hewitt, 2010; Lerner & Galambos, 1998; Nicholson-Crotty, Birchmeier & Valentine, 2009; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002; Wald & Losen, 2003). Exclusionary discipline policies, in combination with legal involvement, are shown to moderate lower graduation and higher dropout rates system (Council of State Governments Justice Center, 2014). Additional correlations support that suspension increases the likelihood of students experiencing criminal

victimization, criminal involvement, and incarceration years later (Fabelo et al., 2011; Wald & Losen, 2003; Wolf & Kupchik, 2017).

The opportunity to learn is the strongest predictor of student academic and social success (Brophy, 1988; Greenwood, Horton & Utely, 2002; Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1997). Thus, removing learners from the school environment inherently poses the risk of reducing this protective factor (Skiba & Rausch, 2015). Exclusionary school discipline practices are found to have a negative relationship with measures of academic achievement like state accountability exams (i.e., Davis & Jordan, 1994; Rausch & Skiba, 2005), reading achievement scores (i.e., Arcia, 2006), writing achievement (i.e., Raffaele Mendez, Knoff, & Ferron, 2002), and school grades (Rocque, 2010). Moreover, a study looking at suspension and reading growth showed a negative relationship over a period of three academic years (Arcia, 2006). In thinking of historically underserved students whose primary language is not English, those who miss valuable instructional time and do not experience school as a culturally and contextually relevant environment, are more at risk for lower academic achievement, negative learning outcomes, and maladaptive social behavioral outcomes (Gettinger & Walter, 2012; Lewis, Butler, Bonner, & Joubert, 2010; Milner & Tenore, 2010). By increasing exposure to academic instruction and quality interactions between students and teachers, schools are then able to meet the goals of an effective school discipline system: 1) school safety, 2) quality learning experiences, 3) adaptive student behaviors, and 4) successful student engagement with schools and society (Brophy, 1998; Skiba & Rausch, 2006; Skiba & Rausch, 2015; Wang, Haertel & Walberg, 1997).

Students at Risk of Reactive Discipline Practices

Student enrollment in US public schools will increase to 52.1 million by the 2023-2024 academic year, and is expected to become even more racially and ethnically diverse (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014). The U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD; 2017) estimates that in the academic year 2014-2015, approximately 53% of students in elementary and secondary public schools were White. Of the remaining 47% of students, 22% were Hispanic, 16% were African American, 4% were Asian or Pacific Islander, 3% identified as multiracial, and almost 2% as American Indian. Fifty percent of students in elementary and secondary public schools in the nation qualified for free or reduced-priced lunch in the 2014-2015 academic school year (U.S. Department of Education, 2017). These schools also served approximately 12% of students in public school under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, and 8% received English Language Learner services (U.S. Department of Education, 2017).

Nearly 3.2 million school-aged students lost academic instructional time at least once for being suspended out of school during the 2011-2012 academic year (U.S. Department of Education, Civil Rights Data Collection [CRDC], 2014). Even though national reports show a reduction of out-of-school suspension rates from 3.2 million to 2.8 million school aged students during the 2013-2014 academic year (CRDC, 2016), it is estimated that one in three students across all grade levels will be suspended at some point while in school (Shollenberger, 2015). Out-of-school suspension and expulsion statistics show students receiving special education services (i.e., 660,000) and students from culturally and/or linguistically diverse backgrounds (CLD; i.e., 1.1 million African-American, 600,000 Hispanic, and 210,000 ELL students) leading discipline

disproportionality rates nationwide (CDRC, 2016; Losen, Hodson, Keith, Morrison, & Belway, 2015).

Over twenty percent of male American Indian (23%), Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander (23%), African American (25%), and/or multiracial (27%) students receiving special education services are twice as likely to be suspended out of school than White male students who also receive special education services (10%; CDRC, 2016). In other words, almost two in five male students from the identified groups were suspended out-of-school for problem behaviors, where suspension rates of White male students receiving special education services compares at a 1:10 ratio. A similar trend is seen with female students from a multiracial background who are also served under IDEIA (21%; CDRC, 2016). The problem behavior of more than one in five female students from the identified groups resulted in out-of-school suspension in comparison to one in twenty White female students (5%) with disabilities. Likewise, female and male students from African-American, American Indian, White, and multiracial backgrounds also served under IDEIA are expelled from school without education services at disproportionate rates (CDRC, 2016). The analysis of exclusionary school discipline rates provides evidence racial disparities, with most disparity documented for African-American students (Bradshaw, Mitchell, O'Brennan, & Leaf, 2010; CRDC, 2014; Costenbader & Markson, 1998; Gregory & Weinstein, 2008; Eitle & Eitle, 2004; Hinojosa, 2008; Kaeser, 1979; KewelRamani, Gilbertson, Fox, & Provasnik, 2007; Losen, Hodson, Keith, Morrison, & Belway, 2015; McCarthy & Hoge, 1987; McFadden, Marsh, Price, & Hwang, 1992; Raffaele Mendez & Knoff, 2003; Rocque & Paternoster, 2011; Skiba, Michael, Nardo & Peterson, 2002; Smolkowski, Girvan, McIntosh, Nese, & Horner, 2016; Tailor & Detch, 1998; Wallace et al., 2008; Wu, Pink, Crain, & Moles, 1982).

The alarming trends shown above aligns with the well documented inequity regarding exposure to academic instruction and access to other school services across socio-demographic groups of students (Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010; McCarthy & Hoge, 1987; Nichols, 2004; Raffaele Mendez & Knoff, 2003; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002; Townsend, 2000). In further researching racial discipline disproportionality, questions have emerged regarding the extent to which poverty and different rates of problem behaviors explain discipline disproportionality. Research findings lack empirical support for these relationships. Recent findings suggest poverty plays a role, but when controlled for statistically, racial disproportionality rates remain present in the outcomes (American Psychological Association, 2008; Skiba et al. 2005; Wallace, Goodkind, Wallace, & Bachman, 2008). Another factor contemplated by researchers is the base rate of problem behavior. Research demonstrates that historically underserved groups, particularly African American students, do not have higher base rates of behaviors (Gastic, 2017; Losen & Skiba, 2010, Skiba et al., 2014). Furthermore, in controlling for teacher rating of disruptive behavior, Bradshaw and colleagues (2010) found that African American students were found to receive more office discipline referrals than other students in schools.

Discipline patterns in schools are often found in correlation with organization characteristics, such as school location and grade-level. Discipline trends show higher school suspension and expulsion rates in urban settings when compared to suburban and/or rural school data (Massachusetts Advocacy Center, 1986; Noltemeyer & Mcloughlin, 2010; Rausch & Skiba, 2005; Wu, Pink, Crain, & Moles, 1982). Yet, racial discipline disproportionality is as likely to occur in wealthy suburban school districts as

in poor urban school districts (Skiba et al., 2002; Wallace, Goodkind, Wallace, & Bachman, 2008).

A School Framework Leading to Equitable Outcomes

The U.S. Department of Education (2000a) states that approximately four of every five discipline incidents can be traced back to school dysfunctions related to the organizational environment, professional development opportunities, or school administration leadership. For example, Mayer (1995, 2001) found that lack of administrative support, discipline policy disagreements, misapplication of behavior management practices, overreliance on punitive discipline, ambiguous rules and behavioral expectations, academic failure, and inadequate staff response to individual student needs predict antisocial behaviors. On the other hand, some promising factors predicted for school improvement are increased adult presence and positive interaction rates with students, more opportunities to respond, use of acknowledgement system, clear routines in schools, and adult support for student on task behavior and perceptions of school safety (Mayer, et al. 1993; Metzler, Biglan, Rusby, & Sprague, 2001; Walker, Ramsey, & Gresham, 2004). To achieve meaningful changes, school systems must be restructured in a way that enables change to happen (Deal & Peterson, 1999).

Schoolwide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (SWPBIS) is an organizational process in which a team of educators facilitates the implementation of school-wide preventive interventions and supports to address the needs of all students in (Horner, Sugai, & Anderson, 2010). The SWPBIS leadership team works to adopt a multi-tiered approach to address social-emotional and behavioral needs, and align school discipline systems and practices with this framework. The educational practice of implementing SWPBIS combines features from applied behavior analysis and a problem-

solving model to increase prosocial behavior and academic learning at a schoolwide scale (Horner & Sugai, 2015; Horner, Sugai, & Anderson, 2010). The SWPBIS approach to discipline emphasizes schoolwide prevention, active instruction for prosocial skills development, consistent acknowledgement of appropriate behavior and consequences for problem behavior, and data-based decision-making (Sugai & Horner, 2002).

Educational initiatives, like SWPBIS or PBIS at the classroom level, require the support of administrators and teachers to transform system policies into school and classroom practices (Coffey & Horner, 2012). When there is accuracy and consistent positive change in adult behavior, effective practices are more likely to produce the desired outcome (McIntosh, Campbell, Carter, & Rossetto Dickey, 2009). SWPBIS is found to produce sustainable desired outcomes in terms of adaptive school behavior and clearly-defined discipline systems, when skilled teams meet regularly and use data for decision-making (McIntosh et al., 2013). Among predictor variables supporting sustainable SWPBIS practices is providing access to capacity building opportunities such as access to resources like external coaching and ongoing professional development (McIntosh et al. 2013).

SWPBIS implementation can positively influence the school environment and the overall organizational health of schools (Bradshaw, Koth, Thornton, & Leaf, 2009), which is comprised of six features: resource influence, staff affiliation, academic emphasis, collegial leadership, and institutional integrity (Hoy & Tarter, 1997; Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990;). In particular, SWPBIS implementation improves the organizational health of schools in the area of resource influence, defined as the Principal's ability to allocate resources for school and staff (e.g., professional development, behavioral supports, district-level support; Hoy & Tarter, 1997), and staff

affiliation or the sense of collaboration and positive interactions perceived among colleagues (Bradshaw, Koth, Thornton, & Leaf, 2008; Tsui & Cheng, 1999).

Not only can effective implementation influence school climate outcomes, when implemented with fidelity, SWPBIS implementation reduces office disciplinary referrals (Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010; Horner et al. 2009; Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin, & May, 2011), requests for individualized school-based services (e.g., counseling services; Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010; Bradshaw, Koth, Thornton, & Leaf, 2009), and out-of-school suspension rates (Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010; U.S. Department of Education, 2014). SWPBIS implemented with fidelity can also increase the time students engage with academic content (George, White, & Schlaffer, 2007; Scott & Barrett, 2004).

SWPBIS effects on disproportionality have been promising but insufficient, as findings show reduction of racial discipline disparity but not enough to completely eliminate it (Horner, Sugai, & Anderson, 2010; McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, Smolkowski, 2014; Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin, & May, 2011). SWPBIS cannot necessarily resolve discipline disproportionality on its own (McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, Smolkowski, 2014; Scott, 2001; Vincent, Randall, Cartledge, Tobin, & Swain-Bradway, 2011; Vincent & Tobin, 2011), but it becomes an important vehicle for implementing additional strategies needed to do better. SWPBIS sets a framework for a proactive and instructional approach that may prevent problem behavior and help to expose educators to biased responses to unexpected interruptions in the classroom (Greflund, McIntosh, Mercer, & May, 2014). Through this framework, not only do educators work to increase positive student-teacher interactions that may lead to the prevention of challenges, but they also

integrate more objective referral and discipline procedures that may reduce subjectivity and influence of culture bias (Greflund, McIntosh, Mercer, & May, 2014).

A Conceptual Model of School Disproportionality

To address the issue of discipline disproportionality multi-level factors that include school-, class- and individual characteristics must be understood (e.g., structure, climate, relationships, abilities, needs; Osher, Bear, Sprague, & Doyle, 2010). In other words, the removal of a student from the classroom environment, for example, is thought to be the result of a complex interplay among factors and not a linear process of events that starts with the student misbehavior, followed by an ODR, and stops with the administrative decision to suspend or expulse a student (Skiba & Rausch, 2015). The conceptual model of bias and disproportionality by McIntosh and colleagues (2014) is explained to support the rationale for focusing on school policies and practices, and provide a theoretical model broad enough to include different variables often discussed in exploring solutions to the racial discipline gap (i.e., culturally pedagogy to classroom management, and targeting teacher expectations). This conceptual model is constructed on the assumption that some factors that influence school events are less malleable than others, and scientist-practitioners should be aware of how adaptable certain variables are when informing potential intervention plans.

The conceptual model of bias and disproportionality, which is informed by social psychology, postulates that disproportionality is explained by less flexible predictors and malleable moderators that influence student outcomes directly and distally. In explaining this conceptual model, three factors were identified as predictors of disparate outcomes in schools (i.e., implicit bias, structural variables, & explicit bias). McIntosh and colleagues (2014) explain that school administrators' and educators' racial bias can be expressed

quickly through automatic connections created by individuals for the purpose of efficiency when processing complex information (i.e., implicit bias), or it can be built slowly with effortful attention (i.e., explicit bias). This model argues that explicit bias relies on consciously held values and judgement and may be more resistant to change than implicit bias.

Another integral aspect of this model is a dual-process framework of bias, which refers to the interaction between the circumstances and biased judgement calls by school administrators and educators. McIntosh and colleagues (2014) explain that vulnerable decision points (VDPs) refer to the conditions under which racial bias, whether explicit or implicit, are most likely to influence school discipline decisions and its identification can lead to intervention avenues. The underlying assumption of VDPs is that the interplay between individual biases and the situation can lead to biased decision-making (McIntosh et al., 2014). Some empirically supported VDPs happen early in the school day (i.e., first 90 minutes of the school day), when teachers deal with subjective behaviors like defiance, disrespect, & disruptiveness (Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002; Smolkowski, Girvan, McIntosh, Nese, & Horner, 2014). More recently, empirical data a study looking at discipline data from 185 urban schools that served 20,166 students identified that African-American, Latino/a, and Multiracial students were no more likely than White students to have a discipline incident take place outside the classroom (i.e., bathroom, hallways) despite preliminary hypotheses suggesting that students and adults experience weaker relationships outside of the classroom and the location may be more vulnerable for implicit bias (Anyon et al., 2018). Though, more work is needed, initial evidence supports teachers being vulnerable to making disparate decisions in the

classrooms when they have to rely on their own biased judgement in assessing the intensity of a problem behavior (Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017).

ODRs are commonly used indicators of behavioral intervention needs, as well as outcome measures of behavioral and academic interventions used with individual, groups, or schoolwide initiatives (Spaulding et al., 2010). Sugai, Sprague, Horner, and Walker (2000) refer to ODRs as “an event in which (a) a student engaged in a behavior that violated a rule/social norm in the school, (b) a problem behavior was observed by a member of the school staff, and (c) the event resulted in a consequence delivered by administrative staff who produced a permanent (written) product defining the whole event” (p. 96). Legitimate interpretations of ODRs as an outcome measure representative of student or school climate related outcomes depend on the defining circumstances in which the decisions are made (Irvin, Tobin, Sprague, Sugai, and Vincent, 2004). While the use of school suspension and expulsion are consequences associated with school administrator decision-making, ODRs happen most often in the classroom by educators (Gregory & Roberts, 2017; Spaulding et al., 2010) and reflect behavioral and cultural characteristics such as prejudices, expectations, motivations and management skills (Irvin, Tobin, Sprague, Sugai, & Vincent, 2004).

In thinking of classroom discipline practices and reducing the racial discipline gap as measured by ODRs, McIntosh and colleagues (2014) argue one must explore and understand multiple predictors and moderators telling of racial disparity and the evident need to change school- or classroom-level policies and practices. Their conceptual model assumes that disproportionality occurs as the result of the interaction between elements of the situation and the person’s decision or internal state (i.e., Fiske & Taylor, 2008; Kenrick & Funder, 1988; Snyder & Ickes, 1985). This multidimensional perspective has

been shown to predict biased decision making more accurately (Pronin, Gilovich, & Ross, 2004), and seems to successfully lead to effective solution-focused interventions (Caplan & Nelson, 1973; Lai, Hoffman, & Nosek, 2013).

Teacher Decision-Making in the Classroom

Educators serve as primary agents who implement behavioral and academic classroom interventions (Bal, Thorious, & Kozleski, 2012; Sugai & Horner, 2006), yet about 50% report spending more time than they should dealing with student misbehavior (Beaman, Wheldall, & Kemp, 2007) and many feel unprepared to effectively engage in classroom management (Chesley & Jordan, 2012; Reinke, Stormon, Herman, Puri, & Goel, 2011). Additionally, many teachers report experiencing stressors throughout their school day (Borg & Riding, 1991; Boyle et al., 1995); from discipline problems, to lack of collaborative and supportive relationships, as well as limited working conditions — all of which relate back to teacher burnout and turnover in some cases (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Mitchell & Arnold, 2004; U.S. Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2007). Additionally, educators who doubt their abilities to engage in everyday problem-solving experience burnout (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007), and part of teacher burnout is emotional exhaustion, which leads to being unable to provide support for students (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010). Furthermore, people who struggle to see themselves transforming knowledge into action are at higher risk of becoming reluctant to engage in practices (Bandura, 1997). Since the social-psychological aspects of teaching, which includes managing the classroom and student-teacher relationships, are most indicative of teacher burnout (Friedman, 2006), teacher expectation of students and culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy

will be explored in association with the racial discipline gap as measured by ODRs. The following subsections will present research introducing these variables and why scholars should explore empirical associations with the racial discipline gap.

Teacher Expectations

In terms of empirical work related to teacher expectations of challenging behavior, Gilliam, Maupin, Reyes, Accavitti, and Shic (2016) found that participants who were told to expect challenging behavior when watching a video, gazed longer at African-American students though no misconduct was shown in the video. Their research suggests different levels of expectations for students; White educators seemed to hold lower expectations for African-American male students while African-American educators hold them to higher standards. Ground-breaking empirical studies looking at discipline, support that African-American students are referred more than white students for subjectively defined offenses (i.e., defiance, disruptiveness, disrespect), while White students are referred more than African-American students for objectively defined behavior offenses (e.g., obscene language, vandalism, truancy; Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). This emerging work also supports that subjectivity of ODR behavioral categories explains most of the racial discipline disproportionality variance (i.e., Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017). Additionally, the authors suggest working on self-reflection, which is known to influence discretionary decisions and interpretations of ambiguous behaviors, may be a promising avenue for achieving equity in school discipline.

A research study in the educational context of elementary schools in the Netherlands shows that teacher implicit bias, not explicit, predicts the extent of the achievement gap on standardized tests between groups of ethnically diverse students and

the effect was shown to be mediated by lower teacher expectations of a historically underserved group of students (van den Bergh, Denessen, Hornstra, Voeten, & Holland, 2010). The effects of the underlying prejudiced attitudes on teacher expectations showed that the predicted expectancy levels were lower for students of Turkish or Moroccan origin than for Dutch students. Moreover, the difference in teacher expectations widens as negative prejudiced attitudes increase in teacher scores. Initial evidence seems to indicate that implicit bias affects teacher decision-making and intensifies differences in teacher expectations. The same findings have not been answered in understanding racial discipline disproportionality.

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy

Teacher efficacy connects back to the educator's ability to establish an adequate learning environment and to deliver academic instruction (Pas, Bradshaw, Hershfeldt, 2012). An important concept related to teacher efficacy is locus of control (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993) or the extent to which the educator perceives they can control the student's learning or behavioral outcomes in the classroom (Brouwers, Tomic, & Boluijkt, 2011; McCoach & Colbert, 2010; Rotter, 1954). What teachers believe in terms of their capability for changing student outcomes has been related back to the efforts put forth, perceptions, attitudes, and success in promoting achievement (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). Not surprisingly, educators who doubt their capabilities of managing daily classroom challenges may experience higher burnout levels (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007), or the inability to engage in their job responsibilities due to job related stress (Betoret, 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010).

Teacher perceptions of self-efficacy have been associated with awareness of classroom threats, ability to implement effective strategies, and reducing disruptions in

class while increasing positive interactions (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1992; Poulou, 2007; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). The concept of classroom management self-efficacy is arguably distinct from teacher-efficacy in that the some of the expected outcomes of classroom management are not directly related to student outcomes but to achieving order and cooperation, understanding decision-making, and knowledge (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). In other words, this construct mainly contains items that reflect the way teachers perceive their ability to manage behavior in their classroom and engage in effective discipline practices. Classroom management and personal teaching efficacy have been found to correlate positively with the use of positive behavior and discipline strategies (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). Further, low self-efficacy in classroom management has been associated with higher vulnerability, or poor coping, with the negative effects of classroom disturbances due to feelings of inability and the number of disruptions experienced in the classroom (Dicke, Parker, Marsh, Kunter, Schmeck, & Leuten, 2014). In terms of teacher confidence implementing culturally responsive classroom management practices, educators report feeling less confident about dealing with disruptive behavior from a cross cultural standpoint (Siwatu, Putnam, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2015).

Systematic and empirical work in the area of culture, behavior, self-efficacy, and classroom management is needed for further understanding of their interplay (Fallon, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2012). In the context of culturally responsive classroom management (CRCM) implementation, SWPBIS school leaders could evaluate readiness, and inform professional development trainings and ongoing self-reflection with self-efficacy assessments (Fallon, Cathcart, DeFouw, O’Keeffe, Sugai, 2018). This information could

not only support self-reflection and potential changes to teacher expectations, but could also help increase teacher self-efficacy beliefs and prevent burnout.

The Proposed Study

This study explored to what extent teachers' perceptions of CRCM abilities predict racial discipline disproportionality in ODRs, and to what extent teachers' expectations mediate racially associated discipline differences. The two research questions this study explored are: 1) to what extent do teachers' perceived abilities to implement culturally responsive classroom management strategies moderate student racial discipline disproportionality in ODRs? and, 2) do teachers' behavioral expectations of students mediate the relationship between student race and frequency of ODRs? Moreover, multiple variables will be controlled (i.e., teacher burnout, socio-economic status, ELL status, Special Education Status, classroom size, classroom management implementation level, staff perceptions of behavior support systems in school, behavioral categories of office disciplinary referrals) to better understand the associations between key variables.

This study assumes that teacher expectations are influenced by implicit attitudes. However, the entirety of the model presented in Van den Bergh and colleagues (2010) was not directly explored. Assuming that teacher expectations mediate implicit bias and disproportionate student outcomes (van den Bergh et al.,2010), a first step to indirectly explore teacher implicit bias is by directly measuring the association between teacher expectations and the racial discipline gap as measured by ODRs. It was hypothesized that teachers' perceived abilities to implement culturally responsive classroom management strategies (CRCMSE) and their expectations of students predict racial discipline

disproportionality (Gilliam, Maupin, Reyes, Accavitti, & Shic, 2016; Gordon, 2001; Siwatu, Putnam, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2015; van den Bergh et al.,2010).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview

The Children's Defense Fund first denounced racial disparity in discipline outcomes for African-American students in 1975. To this date, African-American students, more than any other historically underserved group of learners, continue to be referred to the office for discipline issues and get suspended and expelled at a disproportionate rate nationwide. For decades scholars and scientist-practitioners have acted upon this concern and studied the school environment to identify practices associated with a racial gap. There is more than one way in which scholars explain and explore the racial discipline gap and possible solutions. Two common explanations for the racial discipline gap are the cultural mismatch theory and negative teacher attitudes and expectations. Though the problem has been explored in separate theoretical silos, leading scholars are calling for efforts targeting malleable school practices to bridge the racial gap.

In the following chapter, three main constructs will be discussed in relation to the racial discipline gap. First, the literature on office discipline referrals (ODRs) will be covered for better understanding of this metric of discipline outcomes as it pertains to teacher-decision making and classroom interactions. Further, empirical work related to ODR patterns and discipline disproportionality will be discussed as findings have served as initial evidence for targeting negative teacher attitudes and expectations. Then, the current work on the expectations teachers have for their students is discussed and connected with the empirical evidence supporting its influence on disproportionate student outcomes based on race. The chapter then transitions to the literature on

evidence-based classroom management and findings pertaining to the effects of teacher practices on more equitable student outcomes. This work leads to a culturally responsive lens for classroom management and where the current efforts are placed for reducing disparity. The construct of efficacy will then be considered in relation to Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-efficacy (CRCMSE), which has been suggested as a malleable variable to intervene with and potentially reduce the racial discipline gap. By the end of the chapter, the reader will be able to grasp the need for empirical evidence exploring the moderating association of CRCMSE and teacher expectations on the racial discipline gap as measured by ODRs.

Office Discipline Referrals

Nowadays, scholars use ODRs as indicators of behavioral challenges and as an outcome measure to understand global intervention effects (Spaulding et al., 2010). Sugai, Sprague, Horner, and Walker (2000) explain ODRs as “an event in which a) a student engaged in a behavior that violated a rule/social norm in the school, b) a problem behavior was observed by a member of the school staff, and c) the event resulted in a consequence delivered by administrative staff who produced a permanent (written) product defining the whole event” (p. 96). In simpler words, ODRs are schoolwide forms used to document behavioral incidents. In this study, ODRs are used as a metric for discipline disproportionality since they are most associated with classroom practices and teacher decision-making rather than administrative-based consequences like school suspension and expulsion (Gregory & Roberts, 2017; Spaulding et al., 2010).

Though extensive evidence supports the use of ODRs as a valid metric of school behavior and discipline systems, (e.g., McIntosh, Campbell, Carter, & Zumbo, 2009; Skiba, Peterson, & Williams, 1997; Sugai, Sprague, Horner, & Walker, 2000; Sprague,

Sugai, Horner, & Walker, 1999; Taylor-Green et al., 1997; Tobin & Sugai, 1999; Wright & Dusek, 1998; Walker, Steiber, Ramsey, & O'Neill, 1993), there continue to be important concerns about validity that must be considered in this discussion. The use of ODRs across schools often differs and the evaluation of such information has been challenging for informing reliable and consistent analysis of discipline (Morrison, Peterson, O'Farrell, & Redding, 2004). An empirical evaluation of the validity of ODRs revealed that the legitimacy of the interpretation depends on defining circumstances since ODRs reflect the behavioral and cultural characteristics of the individuals and their context, as well as the potential influence of prejudices, expectations, motivations, and managerial skills (Irvin, Tobin, Sprague, Sugai, & Vincent, 2004). Irvin and colleagues (2004) explain that the validity of ODRs as a data source depend on clear definitions of appropriate and problem behaviors, clear understanding of such expectations, and consistent implementation of consequences.

In addition to guidance from researchers and trainers on the importance of developing reliable and valid ODR documentation processes, technological advances in the field enabled the development of discipline data management systems such as the School-Wide Information System (SWIS; May et al., 2003). SWIS and similar management systems have been helpful in allowing school professionals to have ODR information that is easily accessible and can be used to make instructional and intervention decisions for individual or school-climate outcomes (Irvin, Tobin, Sprague, Sugai, and Vincent, 2004). When paired with comprehensive training, ongoing systematic processes for ODR data collection and analysis have resulted in valid decision-making (Irvin, Tobin, Sprague, Sugai, and Vincent, 2004). Further evidence supports that ODR validity directly relates back to data collection and implementation

fidelity of system-level interventions like SWPBIS (Payne, Gottfredson, & Gottfredson, 2006).

Research in schools with developed systems of discipline data collection shows that higher levels of ODRs have been associated with problematic behavior climate in schools (Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010; George, White, & Schlafler, 2007; Horner et al. 2009; Irvin, Tobin, Sprague, Sugai, & Vincent, 2004; Scott & Barrett, 2004; Skiba, Peterson, & Williams, 1997, Tobin, Sugai & Colvin, 1996; Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin, & May, 2011; Walker, Stieber, Ramsey, & O'Neill, 1993; Wright & Dusek, 1998). For example, ODRs are useful metrics to estimate the amount of instructional time lost. Cost analysis studies have shown that on average, ODRs result in the loss of 10 to 15 minutes of teaching, and 15 to 45 minutes out of the school administrator's day (Muscott, Mann, & LeBrun, 2008). Moreover, in terms of instruction time lost by students, 10 to 20 minutes of instruction per ODR, can also result in the loss of up to 6 hours per day when outcomes end up in out-of-school suspension (Muscott, Mann, & LeBrun, 2008; Scott & Barret, 2004). The consistent use of ODRs has also helped schools identify disproportionate discipline patterns for historically underserved groups of students, even when schools follow systematic discipline and behavior guidelines and practices (e.g., Anyon et al., 2014; Bradshaw, Mitchell, O'Brennan, & Leaf, 2010; Skiba, Horner, Chung, Rausch, May, & Tobin 2011; Tobin & Vincent, 2011; Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin, & May, 2011; Vincent & Tobin, 2011; Wright and Dusek, 1998). Though more empirical studies evidence a racial discipline gap with the use of suspension and expulsion (e.g., Gregory & Roberts, 2017), it is important to focus on ODRs as most are applied by teachers in the classroom and about 20% result in school suspension in elementary schools (Spaulding et al., 2010).

In trying to understand the racial discipline gap, researchers have been interested in whether the racial disproportionality in number of ODRs is influenced by behavioral categories on ODR forms. This line of research was introduced by Skiba, Michael, Nardo, and Peterson (2002). Using discipline data from 19 middle schools and 11,0001 students, researchers explored the influence of race, gender and socioeconomic status on the racial discipline gap. The majority of the students in this study were African-American and Latino (98%). Researchers found that a difference in numbers based on race was apparent at the classroom level, with African-American students getting referred to the office at a disproportionate rate compared to White students. Specifically, the observed patterns included African-American students getting referred to the office for subjectively labeled behavioral categories (e.g., disrespect, excessive noise, threat, and loitering), while White students were more likely than African-American students to be referred for objectively labeled behaviors (e.g., smoking, vandalism, leaving without permission, obscene language). Though the overall variance accounted for referrals by race was relatively small, this first study yielded initial evidence pointing to potential biased decision-making when more room for subjective interpretation becomes available.

Further work by Skiba, Horner, and colleagues (2011) explored disproportionality by race and type of behavior with documented ODR patterns in 364 elementary and middle schools. Their study found an apparent gap in discipline outcomes with African-American students being overrepresented and White students being underrepresented in ODR rates at both elementary and middle school levels. When ODR data were broken down by infraction type, data show higher odds ratios for African-American students being overrepresented across all infraction types with highest ratios for truancy, disruption, and noncompliance. The same was not found for Latino students. For the most

part, Latino students were underrepresented as compared to White students' ODRs, specifically for minor misbehaviors, moderate infractions, disruption, and noncompliance. At the middle school level, however, Latino students were overrepresented compared to White students for all ODR categories. Then, with another model adding administrative decisions, overrepresentation of African-American and Latino students became evident in suspension and expulsion rates relative to White students in elementary and middle schools. However, another multi-level model studying the overrepresentation of historically underserved group of students (i.e., African-American) in 381 classrooms, found not only that African-American students continued to be overrepresented in ODRs after controlling for student- (e.g., teacher rating of disruptive behavior) and teacher-level factors (e.g., teacher ethnicity, level of disruption in the classroom) but that the overrepresentation on subjective ODRs, like defiance, was no longer apparent (Bradshaw, Mitchell, O'Brennan, Leaf, 2010). In another study, Skiba, Chung, Trachok, Baker, Sheya, and Hughes (2014) found that severe but less frequent infractions (i.e., use and possession of drugs and weapons) more reliably predicted overall suspension and expulsion in comparison to behaviors such as defiance and disruptiveness. Yet, in controlling for behavior severity, race remained a significant predictor of suspension (Skiba et al., 2014).

Until recently, no work evidenced the extent to which subjectively labeled ODRs contribute to racial disproportionality in school discipline. Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, and Smolkowski (2017) explored teacher discretionary versus nondiscretionary decisions with ODR records for 1,154,686 students enrolled in 1,824 schools in the United States. For this groundbreaking study, the researchers categorized behaviors into subjective and objective ODRs using the criteria defined by a panel of expert reviewers (Greflund,

McIntosh, Mercer, & May, 2014). They used student-level risk ratios to calculate disproportionality and assessed the contribution of each type of ODR by estimating absolute and relative proportion of variation in disproportionality. Their study found that a substantial amount of the variance of discipline disproportionality is attributed to racial disparities in subjective and objective ODRs (Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017). The difference in explanatory power of subjective ODRs was more than 9 (elementary), 60 (middle school), and 10 (high school) times the magnitude of the change explained by objective ODRs. This study provides correlational inferences that support the possible explanation of discipline disproportionality, as measured by ODRs, being attributable, to some extent, to the way educators interpret a circumstance and decide about less clearly defined or less objective behaviors. As a result, recent discussions point to a need for empirical work exploring teacher practices and malleable variables that can reduce the remaining racial discipline gap.

Teacher Expectations

The overidentification of historically underserved groups of students in discipline data has been attributed to negative expectations held by teachers (Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010). Good (1987) defined teacher expectations as the inferences formed by the educator about the future outcomes of the student using the current information available, which are shaped by personal values and perspectives. The expectation of teachers is mainly explored in connection with their implication on student outcomes, as researchers argue that flawed expectations attributed to someone influences the behavior of that person based on the communicated belief (Brophy & Good, 1974; Good & Nichols, 2001; Kuklinski & Weinstein, 2001; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). For example, Rubie-Davies (2006) identified that students, who believe teachers held lower

expectations of them, tended to also believe less in their own abilities. Not surprisingly, those educators, who believe in their learners' ability to succeed, are often favored by students (Curwin, 2012; Golebiewski, 2013). Though important critics have called attention to flaws in methods used to measure teacher expectation and the extent to which findings are extrapolated as injustices in the classroom (e.g., Elashoff & Snow, 1971; Snow, 1995; Wineburg, 1987), enough evidence exists to support that under certain circumstances what teachers expect influence the outcome of students (Jussim & Harber, 2005).

The study of teacher expectations has focused on identifying student characteristics that could lead to the formation of low or high teacher expectations, teacher behaviors that communicate a difference in expectancy, and teacher beliefs that can moderate expectation effects (Rubie-Davies, Peterson, Sibley, & Rosenthal, 2015). In a study looking at student characteristics, Tenenbaum and Ruck (2007) identified student ethnicity as a variable that influences the expectation of teachers. Their study results showed teachers holding White and Asian students to higher expectations than other ethnic minority groups (i.e., African-American & Latino students). Further, research focusing on the perspective of students have captured a difference in the way teachers hold lower academic expectations for historically underserved groups of students (Pringle, Lyons, & Booker, 2010; Stevens, 2009), as well as a differentiation between which students teachers believe are respectful or not (Andrews & Gutwein, 2017), and an apparent discrepancy in the way students are treated in the classroom (Andrews & Gutwein, 2017; Soumah & Hoover, 2013; Stevens, 2009).

In terms of teacher behaviors in association with expectations, researchers have found differences by student race in the amount of questions teachers ask. For example,

teachers have been observed to pose more questions and provide more encouraging words to White students than other racial groups of students in the classroom (Tenenbaum & Ruck, 2007). Another difference in teacher behavior, as influenced by expectations, has been identified as teacher wait time. Brophy (1985) found that the wait time of educators, when it came to students they hold to lower expectations, was less than the wait time they showed for students they hold to higher expectations. Teachers were also found to criticize students more often for failure when compared to students they hold to higher expectations. Additionally, these students were praised less frequently for success and were called on less frequently to answer questions. In terms of empirical work related to teacher expectations and behavior, a study by Gilliam, Maupin, Reyes, Accavitti, and Shic (2016) found that participants who were told to expect challenging behavior when watching a video, gazed longer at African-American students. Though, no misconduct was shown in the video. They also found a difference in expectations in relation to teacher race. It seemed that White educators hold African-American male students to lower expectations, while African-American educators hold them to higher standards.

Ethnographic work analyzing teacher expectations and school discipline action suggest the negative interactions between teachers and students are influenced by negative perceptions and portrayals of the student racial/ethnic group (Ferguson, 2000). Scholars furthered indicate that biased views of African-American male students incite misinterpretation of behaviors and the overrepresentation of this group in school suspension and expulsions (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010; Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010). A research study in the educational context of elementary schools in the Netherlands shows that teacher implicit bias, not explicit, predicts the extent of the

achievement gap on standardized tests between groups of ethnically diverse students and such effects were shown to be mediated by lower teacher expectations for a historically underserved group of students (van den Bergh, Denessen, Hornstra, Voeten, & Holland, 2010). In other words, prejudiced attitudes predicted lowered expectancy levels teacher held of Turkish or Moroccan origin students than of Dutch students. Thus, the difference in teacher expectations widened as negative prejudiced attitudes increased in scores. Initial evidence seems to indicate that implicit bias affects teacher decision-making, and intensifies differences in teacher expectations. The same findings have not been answered in understanding racial discipline disproportionality.

Classroom Management

Emmer and Sabornie (2015) define classroom management from an authoritative discipline approach, which combines an ecological, behavioral, and social-emotional learning approach. An authoritative approach to classroom management balances structure within the classroom with the level of support teachers provide students (Bear, 2015; Bear, Gaskin, Blank, & Chen, 2011). They refer to it as the act of establishing and maintaining the order of a group-based educational setting with the goal of creating learning experiences and social-emotional growth for all students. Teacher engagement in classroom management includes the use of strategies that prevent, correct, and redirect inappropriate behavior (Emmer & Sabornie, 2015). Teachers who implement an authoritative discipline approach to classroom management prevent problem behaviors by: 1) establishing order with routines that enhance predictability and safety, 2) ensuring compliance with a continuum of strategies and services, 3) developing the ability of students to self-regulate without adult support (Bear, 2015). The authoritative approach to classroom management has been labeled as the most effective approach to balancing

clear and high expectations alongside warm interactions with students (Bear, Gaskin, Blank & Chen, 2011; Brophy, 1996; Gregory et al. 2010; Pellerin, 2005).

SWPBIS serves as a framework for effective classroom management (Farmer, Reinke, & Brooks, 2014). Educators implementing SWPBIS in their schools first agree upon expectations and rules to be implemented consistently across settings, work to develop clear structures for preventative interventions and supports that address the needs of all students, and advocate for the use of teaching and reinforcement to support appropriate behavior rather than punish inappropriate ones (Horner, Sugai, & Anderson, 2010; Lewis, Butler, Bonner, & Joubert, 2010). A universal approach to classroom level PBIS implementation includes key elements that fall within an authoritative discipline style. The evidence for classroom management strategies are organized as follows: 1) teacher-student relationship, 2) classroom structures, 3) instructional management, 4) responding to appropriate behavior, and 5) responding to inappropriate behavior (Lewis, Mitchel, Trussell, & Newcomer, 2015; Reinke, Herman, and Sprick, 2011).

Research looking at SWPBIS seem to suggest that implementation is associated with reducing exclusion of students. Vincent and Tobin (2011) showed initial evidence for the reduction of exclusion (i.e., suspension) in elementary and secondary schools. Their results support that lowered suspension rates in elementary schools were associated the most with classroom level PBIS implementation, while non-classroom implementation of PBIS seemed to be associated the most with reduction of exclusion at the secondary-level (Vincent & Tobin, 2011); though caution in interpreting results is recommended due to the small sample size of African-American students. Another study that evidenced racial disproportionality between African-American and White students resulted in intriguing associations with features of SWPBIS implementation. Tobin and

Vincent (2011) found that schools in which educators reported improved use of praise or acknowledgement of student appropriate behavior (4:1 ratio of positive to negative remarks), as well as effective and orderly transition between instructional and non-instructional activities, were the buildings to show largest reduction of disproportionate discipline outcomes for African-American students.

Within a SWPBIS model, the acknowledgement of appropriate behavior consists of a continuum of evidence-based strategies educators use to identify and recognize appropriate behaviors in the classroom (Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers, & Sugai, 2008). These range from simple and powerful strategies like specific praise (i.e., positively stated responses teachers provide when observing a desired behavior), to behavior contracts (i.e., written documents that defined expected behavior and outcomes for complying or not with it), and individual or group reinforcement strategies (i.e., earning a positive outcome by engaging in the appropriate behavior; Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers, & Sugai, 2008). The simplest response for acknowledging appropriate behavior consists of teachers using specific praise to tell the student exactly what they did well. The use of specific praise yields strong evidence supporting the increase of correct academic responses (Sutherland, Wehby, 2001), performance of class work (Craft, Albert, & Heward, 1998; Roca & Gross, 1996; Wolford, Heward, & Alber, 2001), and academic engagement in general (Hall, Lund, & Jackson, 1968). Moreover, teachers who consistently provide specific behavior praise are shown to positively influence student on-task behavior (Ferguson & Houghton, 1992; Sutherland, Wehby, & Copeland, 2000), attention (Brodin, Bruce, Mitchell, Carter, & Hall, 1970) and compliance behavior (Wilcox, Newman, & Pitchford, 1988), as well as appropriate

behavior of students disrupting in classrooms (Reinke, Lewis-Palmer, & Martin, 2007; Reinke, Lewis-Palmer, & Merrell, 2008).

Effective and orderly transitions occur when clear and explicit expectations, rules, and classroom routines have been taught; such expectations serve as the foundation and infrastructure for effective classroom management (Reinke, Herman, & Sprick, 2011). The setting of clear expectations consists of teachers identifying clear statements that relate back to school standards for conduct or positive characteristics promoted across school settings (e.g., Be respectful, Be responsible, Be ready to learn; Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers, & Sugai, 2008). Effective classroom rules are kept between 3 to 5 guidelines that are age appropriate, comprehensible, and easily demanded (Burden, 2006; Grossman, 2004; Scheuermann & Hall, 2008). Moreover, specific and observable rules that are taught and re-taught over time allows for predictable learning environments experienced by students (Grossman, 2004). Classroom teachers observed to teach expectations, rules, and routines tend to experience the lowest levels of disruptive incidents and have students show higher levels of academic success (Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980; Evertson & Emmer, 1980). Additionally, combining instruction on behavioral expectations with the provision of clear feedback result in lower student off task and disruptive behaviors and increased academic engagement, student leadership, and conflict resolution skills (i.e., Johnson, Stoner, & Green, 1996; Lane, Wehby, & Menzies, 2003; Lo, Loe, & Cartledge, 2002; McNamara, Evans, & Hills, 1986; Sharpe, Brown, & Crider, 1995; Rosenberg, 1986). Nonetheless, combining teaching, clear feedback, and reinforcement are shown to exhibit the largest gains (Greenwood, Hops, Delquadri, & Guild, 1974). Well-structured classrooms are efficient and predictable, and

additionally, they seem to support the reduction of stress experienced by students and teachers in the classroom (Conners, 1983).

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

The racial disproportionality gap in schools is explained by some as differences in teachers' and students' values, communication styles, and language patterns (Cholewa & West-Olatunji, 2008). A culturally responsive framework for classroom management literature base grew from the lack of discussion related to cultural diversity and sensitive teaching practices (Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). The first conceptual papers built their definition from qualitative observations describing safe, caring and orderly classrooms, grounded in culturally responsive pedagogy, and including diverse populations of learners (Corbett & Wilson, 1998; Gay, 2000; Irvine, 2003; Siwatu, Putnam, Starker-Glass, & Lewis., 2015; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). A fundamental assumption of culturally responsive classroom management is that identified evidence-based strategies are not culturally neutral and nor do they only represent the expressions of a predominantly white, middle-class viewpoint (Cartledge, Lo, Vincent, & Robinson-Ervin, 2015; Cartledge & Johnson, 2004; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). Thus, this work focuses on training educators to recognize their own cultural identities as they influence their expressions or actions (Cartledge, Lo, Vincent, & Robinson-Ervin, 2015).

Though socially and culturally appropriate procedures in alignment with the values of all members of the school community are necessary for successful implementation of high-quality and durable behavioral supports (Sugai, Sprague, Horner, & Walker, 2000), the literature lacks systematic guidance on ways to incorporate cultural and contextual considerations in school (Bal, Kozleski, Schrader, Rodriguez, & Pelton,

2012). In other words, the concept of culture has been used inconsistently throughout studies exploring its interplay with classroom management, behavior and discipline (Fallon, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2012). For this study, culture is defined as:

“the extent to which a group of individuals engage in overt and verbal behavior reflecting shared behavioral learning histories, serving to differentiate the group from other groups, and predicting how individuals within the group act in specific conditions. That is, culture reflects a collection of common verbal and overt behaviors that are learned and maintained by a set of similar social and environmental contingencies (i.e., learning history), and are occasioned (or not) by actions and objects (i.e., stimuli) that define a given setting or context (Sugai, O’Keeffe, Fallon, 2012, p.200).”

This definition assumes that culture: 1) regulates individual and group conventions, 2) influences daily routines, and 3) filters the interpretation of daily circumstances (Artiles, Kozleski, Trent, Osher, & Ortiz, 2010). Nonetheless, flexibility within culture exists and members of a subgroup are thought to engage in different levels of interactions within the broader culture (Sugai, O’Keeffe, & Fallon, 2011). It is assumed then that educators who practice culturally responsive classroom management 1) recognize their ethnocentrism and broader sociopolitical context, 2) actively seek to build their knowledge of students’ cultural background, implement responsive classroom strategies, and 4) commit to the development of a caring classroom community (Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). This framework views cultural relevance and validation as a mediator between evidence-based practices and student behavior (Vincent, Randall, Cartledge, Tobin, & Swain-Bradway, 2011).

In the past decade, researchers leading this field have worked to forward a culturally responsive approach for classroom behavior management (Bal, King Thorius, & Kozleki, 2012; Fallon, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2012; Sugai, O’Keeffe, & Fallon, 2011; Vincent, Randall, Cartledge, Tobin, Swain-Bradway, 2011). A systematic literature review conducted by Fallon, O’Keeffe, & Sugai (2012) included a compilation of evidence of classroom management strategies that were associated with positive outcomes of culturally diverse learners, including positive student-teacher interactions in the classroom. Recommendations gathered from the literature came down to two broad categories, classroom context and teacher preparation (Fallon, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2012). In terms of classroom context, the evidence recommends for: 1) increasing positive interactions, 2) decreasing negative interactions, 3) engaging in equitable interactions, 4) teaching social skills, 5) including culture and language of students, 6) using effective instruction (Brown, 2004; Bullara, 1993; Cartledge, Singh, & Gibson, 2008; Cartledge & Kourea, 2008; Cartledge, Tillman & Johnson, 2001; Day-Vines & Day-Hairston, 2005; Green, 2005; Grossman, 1991; Jones, Caravaca, Ciznek, Horner, & Vincent, 2006; Markey, Markey, Quant, Santelli, & Turnbull, 2002; McIntyre, 1996; Monroe, 2005a; Monroe & Obidah, 2004; Rivera & Rogers-Adkinson, 1997; Sheets & Gay, 1996; Townsend, 2000; Utley, Kozleski, Smith, & Draper, 2002; Walker-Dalhouse, 2005; Weinstein, Curran, & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2003; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). The teacher preparation component referred to: 1) understanding that behavior is learned and influenced by culture and context, 2) self-assessing the implication of culture and context in decision-making, 3) learning about culture and families, 4) including families and the community as resources, 5) using data to evaluate outcomes (Brown, 2004; Cartledge et al., 2001; Cartledge, Singh, & Gibson, 2008; Cartledge & Kourea,

2008; Day-Vines & Day-Hairston, 2005; Green, 2005; Grossman, 1991; Jones et al., 2006; Markey et al., 2002; McIntyre, 1996; Monroe & Obidah, 2004; Monroe, 2005a, 2005b; Rivera & Rogers-Adkinson, 1997; Sheets & Gay, 1996; Townsend, 2000; Utley, Kozleski, Smith, & Draper, 2002; Walker-Dalhouse, 2005; Weinstein, Curran, & Tomlinson-Clarke, 2003; Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). Further, Fallon, O’Keeffe, and Sugai (2012) found that quantitative articles, including discipline data supporting overrepresentation of historically underserved groups of students, suggest the need to reorganize behavior management in schools to better meet their needs.

Most recently, scholars have pondered ways to address disproportionate discipline outcomes by targeting teacher professional development on culturally responsive classroom management (e.g., Cramer & Bennett, 2015; Fallon, Cathcart, DeFouw, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2012; Pas et al., 2016). One scholar initially applied culturally responsive strategies to classroom PBIS strategies and developed a checklist for teachers to assess implementation of practices in the classroom (Cramer & Bennett, 2015). This work was presented as an exploratory qualitative case study that narrated the reflection of one classroom teacher on her learning experience using this check-list and ways she learned to manage behavior in a more culturally sensitive way. A larger study by Pas and colleagues (2016) focused on integrating a culturally responsive approach to an already established classroom management coaching model called the Classroom Check-Up (CCU; e.g., Reinke, 2006; Reinke et al., 2011). Their training consisted of adding professional development on cultural competence related to creating student connections with the curriculum, developing authentic relationships, engaging in reflective thinking, effective communication, and sensibly approaching students’ culture within the coaching process established in CCU (Pas et al., 2016). The efforts of this study focused on the

implementation of this school-based coaching program with 146 teachers in 18 elementary schools and the acceptability of the process as entailed in practice. While promising teacher reports support the CCU approach with culturally responsive components as an acceptable, efficient and beneficial coaching model, this study did not measure effects on students discipline outcomes.

Then, Debnam, Pas, Bottiani, Cash, & Bradshaw (2015) called for advancing efforts by developing quantitative measures looking at culturally and contextually appropriate classroom practices. They gathered data on 142 K-8 teachers from six schools who self-reported on their cultural beliefs, multicultural efficacy, teacher self-efficacy beliefs. Further, researchers compared teachers' self-reports with the Assessing School Settings: Interactions of Students and Teachers (ASSIST; Rusby, Crowley, Sprague, & Biglan, 2011) observational measure of social processes happening in the classroom (e.g., proactive behavior, opportunities to respond, approval, disapproval, and reactive behavior management). This tool is also comprised of six teacher subscales: teacher control of the classroom, teacher anticipation and responsiveness, teacher monitoring, teacher proactive behavior management, teacher and student meaningful participation, and culturally responsive teaching strategy scales. This multi-method assessment approach to measure culturally responsive teaching practices yielded intriguing findings. Teacher self-report on culturally responsiveness and self-efficacy beliefs positively predicted teacher behavior and decision-making in the classroom. Nonetheless, teachers self-reported higher culturally responsive practices than the behavior observed using the ASSIST culturally responsive teaching strategy subscale. This study is unique in that it explored teacher self-reported culturally responsive beliefs in combination with observational data representative of culturally responsive teaching

practices. Debnam, Pas, Bottiani, Cash, and Bradshaw (2015) suggest developing additional measures to assess effectiveness of practices, as well as professional development efforts to address the racial discipline gap.

Another study looking at culturally responsive classroom management, teacher training, and student outcomes was conducted by Fallon, Cathcart, DeFouw, O’Keeffe, and Sugai (2018). They aimed to reduce disciplinary incidents through culturally responsive classroom management by using a self-efficacy tool to inform the development of a class-wide behavior plan, and provided a continuum of supports to participating teachers to enhance implementation of the plan. This single-case research design study was conducted with three teachers from different racial backgrounds who completed the Assessment of Culturally and Contextually Relevant Supports (ACCRoS; Fallon et al., 2019) self-assessment. This tool measures culturally and contextually relevant classroom practices as more than one construct, including instructional and behavioral/social practices, data-based decision-making, access to training and support systems, as well as teachers’ beliefs about their ability to deliver practices in the classroom.

Teacher self-report on the ACCROs was then used to develop a personalized classroom behavior management plan that was presented to the teacher, and if implementation fidelity dropped, further support was provided through weekly performance feedback. This study empirically demonstrated that teachers are able to implement a class-wide plan better when self-monitoring their progress and even more when doing so and receiving performance feedback. Nonetheless, large differences in terms of student academic engagement and disruptive behaviors were not observed across the baseline, self-monitoring, and self-monitoring and performance feedback phases. Two

of the classrooms demonstrated increases in academic engagement during the self-monitoring and performance feedback phases, while the third classroom showed an overall decrease in disruptive behavior. As previously mentioned, the work of Fallon, Cathcart, DeFouw, O’Keeffe, and Sugai (2018) is the first known empirical attempt to evaluate the impact of self-assessment and teacher training on the use of culturally and contextually relevant strategies in the classroom that also gathered some observational data measuring student academic and behavioral outcomes.

Another study with 86 teachers and 1,195 students, Gregory, Hafen, and colleagues (2016) coached teachers on the program My Teaching Partner Secondary (MTP-S; Pianta et al., 2003; Pianta, Mashburn, Downer, Hamre, & Justice, 2008) and assessed its influence on discipline referral differences. This program targeted training on quality teacher-student interactions by strengthening teacher emotional and instructional supports, as well as classroom organization. Though their study was informed by social-equity research in classrooms, and not necessarily by culturally responsive classroom pedagogy, the dimension addressed by MTP-S training overlapped with the recommendations compiled by Fallon, O’Keeffe, and Sugai (2012). This work emphasizes developing safe, caring, and orderly classroom environments by working on warm connections between members, using effective methods that encourage desirable behavior, redirecting misbehavior, and the ongoing reflection of performance and areas of need through coaching. The implementation of this teacher-coaching program shows a difference in the way teachers used discipline referrals by race, specifically comparing African-American and White students ODRs (Gregory, Allen, Mikami, Hafen, & Pianta, 2015).). Teachers receiving MTP-S coaching referred African-American students less than teachers who did not receive professional development support using this model

(Gregory et al., 2015). These effects remained during a second school year after coaching was withdrawn (Gregory, Allen, Mikami, Hafen, & Pianta, 2015). African-American students in the control classrooms were over two times more likely to be issued a referral compared with their White peers (Gregory, et al., 2016). Though initial efforts exist in trying to better understand the use of culturally responsive classroom management practices and develop ways to support the consistent implementation of such skills, less is known about the interplay between culturally responsive classroom management, teacher self-efficacy, and their influence on the racial discipline gap.

Most recently, Bradshaw and colleagues (2018) conducted a randomized controlled trial testing the impact of a novel systematic schoolwide approach to address discipline disproportionality by addressing classroom management and culturally responsive practices. For this study, the authors used one element of the Double Check to augment SWPBIS Tier 1 efforts through five professional development trainings that targeted culturally responsive instruction, equity, and student engagement (Bottiani et al., 2012; Bradshaw & Rosenberg, 2018), and paired it with coaching support to a group of teachers. Educators received coaching within a modified structure of the Classroom Checkup Model (Reinke et al., 2011). This modified version of the CCU targets the adoption of classroom management strategies and culturally responsive practices (Pas et al., 2016). Initial evidence found that such systematic combination of intervention efforts led to the improvement of teacher self-reported culturally responsive behavior management and self-efficacy scores, as well as a reduction in the use of ODRs for teachers receiving coaching. Though relative effect sizes were small, this study is one of only a few that has systematically tested an approach to promoting culturally responsive

practice and behavior management and measure a decrease in the use of ODRs by coached teachers in comparison to noncoached teachers (Bradshaw et al., 2018).

Self-Efficacy Theory and Culturally Responsive Classroom Management

In the current study, the construct of self-efficacy is grounded in social cognitive theory, which emphasizes changes in and use of human agency (Bandura, 2006a).

Bandura (1986) refers to self-efficacy as the judgment people pass on their abilities to organize and perform the necessary behavior and successfully meet a task at the expected level of competency. Underlying this theoretical framework is the assumption that a person is able to self-organize, -regulate, and -reflect to proactively form intentions, set goals, and anticipate outcomes (Bandura, 2006a). Thus, self-efficacy is thought of as a future-oriented belief related to the way someone expects to show themselves under certain circumstances. When a person experiences personal mastery they are most likely to initiate and persist in coping behaviors, as this construct is considered to be the most influential source of self-efficacy (Bong, Skaalvik, 2003; Pajares, 1997). In other words, the accumulation of successes is thought to predict an altered sense of personal efficacy (Bandura, 1986). It is commonly believed that the extent to which a person engages in coping behaviors or sustains efforts in the face of adversity is determined by their belief of successfully achieving a desired outcome (i.e., efficacy expectation). Nonetheless, expectations alone will not necessarily produce the desired performance if a person lacks the necessary skills (Bandura, 1986).

In the field of education, self-efficacy has been explored similarly to Bandura's definition, but with a few differences (i.e., self-efficacy theory, teacher self-efficacy; Dellinger, Bobbett, Oliview, & Ellet, 2008). The research in education refers to teacher self-efficacy as teachers' beliefs that will affect the performance of students given their

own action in addition to the influence of the home environment (Armor, Sumner, & Thompson, 1976; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, & Ellet, 2008). An important concept related to self-efficacy is locus of control (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993) or the extent to which the educator perceives they can control the student's learning or behavioral outcomes in the classroom (Brouwers, Tomic, & Boluijkt, 2011; McCoach & Colbert, 2010; Rotter, 1954). Nonetheless, this definition can be problematic if used interchangeably with self-efficacy theory as defined by Bandura (1986) since each theory focuses on two different underlying assumptions. Self-efficacy theory focuses on whether a behavior can be performed, while teacher self-efficacy targets if a specific teacher behavior leads to a specific student outcome (Dellinger, Bobbett, Oliview, & Ellet, 2008).

Bandura (1997) suggests that teacher efficacy can be described with seven categories: efficacy in influencing student decision-making, efficacy in influencing the acquisition and use of school resources, teaching efficacy, efficacy in disciplinary matters, efficacy in enlisting parental assistance, efficacy in involving the community, and efficacy in generating an open school climate. Factor analyses conducted on teacher self-efficacy measures support a multi-dimensional view of this construct. For example, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) found six separate yet correlated dimensions of teacher self-efficacy (i.e., Instruction, Adapting Education to Individual Students' Needs, Motivating Students, Keeping Discipline, Cooperating with Colleagues and Parents, and Coping With Changes and Challenges). The study of teacher self-efficacy connects back to the educator's ability to establish an adequate learning environment and to deliver academic instruction (Pas, Bradshaw, Hershfeldt, 2012).

The concept of classroom management self-efficacy is arguably distinct from teacher-efficacy in that some of the expected outcomes of classroom management are not directly related to student outcomes, but instead they relate to the teacher being capable of achieving order and cooperation in the classroom by having vast knowledge of pedagogical practices and knowing what decisions to make across various classroom circumstances (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). In other words, this construct mainly contains items that reflect the teachers' perceptions of their ability to manage behavior in their classroom and engage in effective discipline practices.

Siwatu, Putnam, Starker-Glass, and Lewis (2015) developed a staff perception ($N= 380$) measure of self-efficacy in correlation with culturally responsive classroom management practices and called it the Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy (CRCMSE) Scale, a needs assessment tool for successful identification of teacher perceived skills and knowledge of culturally responsive implementation practices that aligns with CRPBIS at the classwide level. Initial evidence supports strong internal consistency and reliability of the CRCMSE Scale ($\alpha=.97$; Siwatu, Putnam, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2015). Additionally, this tool related positively with previous teacher self-efficacy scales like the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE; Siwatu, 2007) and the Teacher Sense of Efficacy (TSE; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). This initial validation study resulted in overall teachers' CRCMSE strength index scores falling closer to feeling completely confident than not ($M=80.73$; $SD= 11.53$; Siwatu, Putman, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2015). The item-level descriptive analysis shows that this group of teachers felt most confident communicating classroom policies and least confident communicating with parents whose primary language is one other than English (Siwatu, Putman, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2015). Though the CRCMSE has

been criticized for measuring a single construct of culturally and contextually relevant practice or the belief of teachers in relation to their ability (Fallon, Cathcart, DeFouw, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2018), more work is currently being conducted to comprehensively assess this construct multidimensionally to include instructional and behavioral practices, data-based progress monitoring and decision-making, as well as access to training and support systems (Fallon et al., 2019).

The Current Study

The present study first examined the relationship between student race or ethnic background and the number of ODRs as reported for the current school year, followed by exploring if perceived confidence in the ability to engage in culturally responsive classroom management (CRCMSE) and their behavioral and academic expectations influenced the number of ODRs received by student racial groups. Given the evidence that the racial discipline gap remains despite class- and systemwide implementation of Positive Behavior and Intervention Supports (PBIS), an approach known for leading to more equitable discipline outcomes (Kaufman et al., 2010; McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, & Smolkowski, 2014; Skiba et al., 2008; Scott, 2001; Vincent, Randall, Cartledge, Tobin, & Swain-Bradway, 2011; Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin, & May, 2011; Vincent & Tobin, 2011), it is essential to expand on empirical work looking at the interrelation between classroom management, culture, behavior, and teacher decision-making. This research, as guided by the conceptual model of bias and disproportionality (i.e., McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, & Smolkowski, 2014), attempts to provide empirical support for targeting two classroom variables (i.e., CRCMSE, teacher expectation) that may or may not be associated with the racial discipline gap as measured by ODRs. Additionally, the present study also sought to contribute to the existing literature by addressing the issue of the

racial discipline gap from a multi-level perspective that includes student- (i.e., race, socio-economic status, ELL status, special education status), teacher- (i.e., classroom management implementation, teacher burnout, class-size), and school-level (i.e., SWPBIS implementation) factors previously connected with discipline disproportionality, difference in teacher decision-making, and student discipline outcomes (e.g., Morrison, Anthony, Storino, Cheng, Furlong, & Morrison, 2001; Osher, Bear, Sprague, & Doyle, 2010; Skiba & Rausch, 2015).

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Participants

Thirty-three licensed elementary (K-6) teachers working in four schools from two districts in the Northeastern region of the United States participated in this project. Of the total sample of educators, 26 (79%) were female and 7 (21%) were male. Teachers were asked to identify their race/ethnicity: 22 (67%) identified as Caucasian, 5 (15%) indicated that they were African-American/African-American, 3 (9%) were Hispanic/Latino, 2 (6%) described as Bi-racial, and 1 (3%) as Asian. Participants also identified their highest level of education: 30 (91%) completed a Master's degree, 1 (3%) completed some postgraduate coursework, and 2 (6%) completed their Bachelor's degree. Their average age and teaching experience were 42.4 ($SD= 9.1$) and 14.5 ($SD= 7.6$) years, respectively. On average, participating teachers reported working in their current school for 8.4 ($SD= 7.35$) years. Class sizes ranged from 12 to 23 students, with an average of 18.05 students ($SD = 2.37$).

Table 3.1
Teacher socio-demographic characteristics by participating school

	<i>School A</i>		<i>School B</i>		<i>School C</i>		<i>School D</i>	
	<i>Sample</i> <i>(n=9)</i>		<i>Sample</i> <i>(n=16)</i>		<i>Sample</i> <i>(n= 6)</i>		<i>Sample</i> <i>(n= 2)</i>	
	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
Gender								
Female	7	78	13	81	6	100	2	100
Male	2	22	3	19	0	0	0	0
Race/Ethnicity								
White	7	78	7	44	6	100	2	100
African-American	1	11	4	25	0	0	0	0
Latino	1	11	2	13	0	0	0	0
Asian	0	0	1	6	0	0	0	0
Multiracial	0	0	2	13	0	0	0	0

Each teacher rated their behavioral and academic expectations for students in the classroom ($N= 496$). Of the total sample of students, 239 (48%) were female and 257 (52%) were male. Based on socio-demographic information reported for school-records, 290 (58%) students were identified as Caucasian, 86 (17%) were Latino/Hispanic, 49 (10%) were Asian, 44 (9%) were African-American, and 27 (5%) were multiracial. Out of the total sample, 116 (23%) students received special education services, 74 (15%) were classified as English Language Learners, and 215 (43%) received economic supports from at least two state-administered programs.

Table 3.2
Student socio-demographic characteristics by schools and participating teachers

	<i>School A</i> <i>Sample</i> <i>(n= 121)</i>		<i>School B</i> <i>Sample</i> <i>(n= 238)</i>		<i>School C</i> <i>Sample</i> <i>(n= 101)</i>		<i>School D</i> <i>Sample</i> <i>(n= 36)</i>	
	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
Gender								
Female	60	50	110	46	53	52	16	44
Male	61	50	128	54	48	48	20	56
Race/Ethnicity								
White	63	52	113	47	88	87	26	72
African-American	12	10	30	13	2	2	0	0
Latino	29	24	44	18	9	9	4	11
Asian	12	10	30	13	1	1	6	17
Multiracial	5	4	21	9	1	1	0	0

The four schools were located in two districts in Western Massachusetts. Per the 2017-2018 data from the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (MA DESE, 2018), School A and School B of the first district served a total of 738 students with the support of 82 teachers. The majority of students in these schools identified as Caucasian/White (48.1%). Thirty-five percent of the student body was considered economically-disadvantaged. Fourteen percent of students receive ELL services and 22% have special education needs. School C and School D, from the second

participating district, served a total of 752 students and 61 teachers. The majority of students in these schools identified as Caucasian/White (77.8%). Forty-three percent of the student body was considered economically-disadvantaged. Seventeen percent of students have special education needs and 42.6% received ELL services.

Measures

Independent Variables

Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy (CRCMSE). CRCMSE represents one independent variable. Teachers' perceived abilities to implement culturally responsive classroom management strategies were measured using Siwatu, Putnam, Starker-Glass, and Lewis' Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy (CRCMSE; 2015) measure. The CRCMSE Scale consists of 35-items that measure perceived confidence in performing specific CRCM tasks. For example, teachers are asked to rate themselves on items such as "I am able to use culturally responsive discipline practices to alter the behavior of a student who is being defiant," "I am able to design classroom in a way that communicates respect for diversity," and "I am able to modify lesson plans so that students remain actively engaged throughout the entire class period or lesson." Participants respond to each statement on a scale of 0 to 100 (0 being "no confidence at all" and 100 being "completely confident") according to ways they identify how each statement describes them. Total scores range from 0 to 3,500. A strength index is calculated by dividing the total score over the total number of items. The strength index can range from 0 to 100. The CRCMSE scale consists of one factor and yielded promising initial reliability and validity score (i.e., $\alpha = .97$; Siwatu, Putnam, Starker-Glass, & Lewis, 2015). The Cronbach's alpha of this scale for this study was .98. Please find attached a copy of the measurement in Appendix B.

Teacher expectations. Teacher expectations represents another independent variable. A nine-item scale was developed to measure teacher expectations of individual students. This scale is a modified version of van den Bergh and colleagues (2010) six-item teacher expectation scale based upon Joseph's (1983) definition of academic expectations. Their teacher expectation scale included item responses ranging from 1 (not applicable) to 5 (totally applicable) and was found to yield strong internal consistency scores (Cronbach's $\alpha = .97$). Two items regarding behavioral expectations were added to modify the scale to include for behavioral expectations (i.e., He or she is a student who behaves in accordance to school behavioral expectations; He or she is able to follow classroom rules). Please find attached a copy of the measurement in Appendix B.

Outcome Variable

Office Discipline Referrals (ODRs). ODRs are standardized forms used nationwide to document when a student engages in problem behaviors that involve delivery of a consequence by an administrative staff in school (Sugai, Sprague, Horner, & Walker, 2000). ODRs represent the discipline system within a school and are found to be reliable and valid indicators of problem behavior when operationally defined and when used within a school system metric (Irvin, Tobin, Sprague, Sugai, & Vincent, 2004; McIntosh, Campbell, Carter, & Zumbo, 2008; Tobin & Sugai, 1999a, 1999b). In looking at the outcome variable, the number of students' ODRs will be taken into account, as well as subjective and objective ODR categories. Subjective and objective ODRs refer to behavior definitions reflecting teacher judgement (Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017). The school systems in this study used behavioral categories that follow the behavior definitions suggested by the Schoolwide Information System (SWIS). Subjective and objective categories were classified as suggested by Greflund,

McIntosh, Mercer, & May (2014). In this article, subjective behaviors refer to categories that warrant a significant value judgement of the intensity of an incident requiring an ODR, in addition to the observation of a discrete and objective event (e.g., a student using substances; Greflund et al., 2014). Out of the reported behavioral categories, the following behaviors were categorized as subjective: defiance, insubordination, non-compliance, disrespect, disruption, threats, inappropriate language, harassment/bullying, dress code violation, and inappropriate display of affection. The following behaviors were categorized as less subjective: physical aggression/fighting, inappropriate location/out of bounds, skipping, property damage/vandalism. Outcome data was collected from the school's disciplinary tracking systems (i.e., Educators Handbook ©, School-Wide Information Systems [SWIS]).

Control Variables

Socio-demographic characteristics. Scholars studying disciplinary disparity by student race/ethnicity have proposed multiple mechanism that may account for the gap in numbers. The following variables were controlled for per student at the school level: racial background, socio-economic status (SES), special education status, English language learner status. Research has consistently found SES to be interconnected with societal outcomes in the United States (McLoyd,1998; Skiba et al., 2011). This variable was controlled for in light of it being found to be a risk factor for school suspension (e.g., Brantlinger, 1991; Wu et al., 1982), and for contributing to disproportionate outcome for groups of students based on race (e.g., Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). Nonetheless, the racial discipline gap remains despite SES (e.g., American Psychological Association, 2008; Skiba et al., 2005). Additionally, race and English language learner (ELL) status were controlled for since a possibility of a cultural mismatch and racial

stereotyping has been seen as contributing to ODR disproportionality (e.g., Skiba et al., 2011) and nationwide trends support discipline disproportionality for members in these groups (Civil Rights Data Collection [CRDC], 2018). Similarly, special education status was controlled for due to the history of discrimination associated with the processes experienced by student receiving services independent from race or ethnicity (e.g., Gregory, Skiba, Noguera, 2010). These factors were considered but are not the primary concern within the present study. Sociodemographic information was acquired as disaggregated data from student school records.

Schoolwide Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (SWPBIS)

implementation. SWPBIS implementation is hypothesized to influence the environment and potential experiences of teachers when facing unexpected interruptions in the classroom (e.g., Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010; Chesley & Jordan, 2012; Horner et al. 2009; McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, & Smolkowski, 2014). SWPBIS implementation fidelity has been associated with the reduction of ODRs of all students including African-American students (e.g., Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin, & May, 2011). PBIS implementation fidelity was measured using the Tiered Fidelity Inventory (TFI; Algozzine et al., 2014). This tool is divided into three sections Tier I: Universal PBIS Features, Tier II: Targeted PBIS Features and Tier III: Intensive PBIS Features. PBIS teams can look at each scale and assess implementation separately by tiers or all together for overall implementation evaluation. In looking at the TFI, teams use a Likert-type scale to indicate whether the content of each item is not implemented, partially implemented, or fully implemented. The Tier I scale assesses 15 critical features of school-wide supports such as “School policies and procedures describe and emphasize proactive, instructive, and/or restorative approaches to student behavior that are

implemented consistently.” The Tier II scale evaluates 13 critical features of targeted interventions such as “Tier II behavior support interventions provide (a) additional instruction/time for student skill development, (b) additional structure/predictability, and/or (c) increased opportunity for feedback (e.g., daily report progress report). Tier III includes 17 items (e.g., “For each individual student support plan, a uniquely constructed team exists (with input/approval from student/family about who is on the team) to design, implement, monitor, and adapt the student-specific support plan). The overall internal consistency of the measure is .96 while Tier 1, 2, and 3 internal consistency are .87, .96, and .98 respectively (McIntosh, Mercer, Nese, & Ghemraoui, 2016; McIntosh et al., 2017).

Classroom Management. Classroom management was also measured and controlled for in the multi-level regression model since many teachers report it as the most challenging part of their job (e.g., Reinke, Stormont, Herman, Puri, & Giel, 2011) poor implementation has been associated with negative student and teacher outcomes like more stress (e.g., Klassen & Chiu, 2010), as well as lower teacher self-efficacy scores and more disruption in the classroom (e.g., Reinke, Herman, & Stormont., 2013). The Classroom Check-Up 10-Minute Classroom Observation Form measures the following five critical classroom management variables: opportunities to respond, correct academic response, disruptive behavior, praise either specific or general, and reprimand either explicit or critical (Reinke, Herman, & Sprick, 2011). Each classroom variable can be tallied each time they are observed during a classroom visit. Total numbers of behaviors observed are used to calculate the rate of each by dividing the total number of minutes observed (Reinke, Herman, & Sprick, 2011). For the analysis of this study, classroom management was captured by the ratio of positive to negative teacher statements as like

prior studies controlling for this variable in relation to teacher self-efficacy (e.g., Reinke, Herman, & Stormont., 2013).

Teacher burnout. Further, educators self-reported burnout was controlled for in this study considering that higher indicators are associated with classroom management difficulties (e.g., Kokkinos, Panayiotou, & Davazoglou, 2005; Kokkinos, 2007) and could represent a vulnerable state in teachers for appropriate decision-making in the classroom (e.g., McIntosh, Girvan, Horner, & Smolkowski, 2014). Educator burnout was measured using the fourth edition of the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educator Survey (MBI-SE; Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, & Scwab, 2010). This tool is a modified version of the original MBI and measures the same three burnout dimensions (i.e. Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (D), and Personal Accomplishment (PA)). Teachers take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete the 22 self-report items that captures the frequency of occurrence using an ordinal seven-point scale ranging from 0 - 6. The higher the number, the more frequently a person experiences the feeling described on each item (i.e., daily, once per week, once per month). The MBI-ES has yielded strong internal consistency scores (EE, $\alpha = .88-.90$; DP, $\alpha = .74-.76$; PA, $\alpha = .72 - .76$; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter (1997). They also reported a significant positive intercorrelation between the MBI subscales of Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization (.52) and significant negative intercorrelations between Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Accomplishment (-.22), and Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment (-.26). Please see Appendix B for an example item of this measure.

Procedure

The principal researcher trained two school psychology graduate students in conducting the systematic classroom observations. The training consisted of three 1 hour

and 30-minute sessions, and covered the theoretical foundations of the critical classroom management components, review of operational definitions and examples, and provided opportunity to practice systematic observations using video clips. This training was done to increase the graduate students' abilities to reliably assess treatment integrity of classroom management practices in the teachers' classroom. Each training session consisted of review of variable definitions, examples and non-examples, practices using classroom video examples, and discussion of observations and consensus in unclear circumstances. By the end of the 3rd training sessions, observers reached an average interobserver agreement of 96.5% accuracy. Interobserver agreement (IOA) was computed using point-by-point agreement, which allows a more exact method of recording of whether the behaviors occurred or not (Kazdin, 2011).

$$\textit{Point by point agreement} = \frac{\textit{Agreement}}{\textit{Agreement} + \textit{Disagreement}} \times 100$$

Classroom teachers were invited to participate and read the online consent form during a school staff meeting and three follow-up emails sent to all teachers in school, after obtaining approval from the district and school administrators and UMass Human Subjects Review Board. The invitation letter and online consent form informed teachers of the purpose of the study, steps to completion, and participants' rights (see Appendix A). Teachers were given a three-week window to agree and/or disagree to participate. After receiving participant contact information, the principal investigator created unique identifiers for each participant.

Data collection in district 1 schools occurred in February and March, while district 2 schools data collection happened in late April and May. Teachers who agreed to participate received one trackable personal Qualtrics © link that directed them to the

sociodemographic and educational background questions, the CRCMSE survey, and MBI-ES. Qualtrics © protects participants' information from third parties. Teachers also received a Google Form © link on that same email invitation. This link directed them to the nine-item questionnaire pertaining to teacher academic and behavioral expectations of each student in their classroom. Completing all questionnaires took approximately one hour and thirty minutes. To avoid having access to student identifying information, the data analyst of each district served as an intermediary step in the process by receiving student-level data directly. Data analysts were FERPA approved district personnel and had access to identifying information shared by teachers through the Google Form ©, a district sponsored system. The data analysts stripped student identifiable information, replaced it with unique identifiers, and sent the disaggregated data to the principal investigator. After completion of measures, the lead researcher with the support of trained graduate students, conducted at least three observations of classroom management critical components (i.e., opportunities to respond, correct academic responses, general and specific behavior praise, reprimand explicit and critical, disruptive behavior) in each of the participant's classrooms. Observations occurred throughout the course of a month, between February and March, for the first district and three consecutive days in May for the second district. IOA data of 40% of the observations were gathered. IOA scores of included observations ranged from 85% to 100% ($M= 93.3, SD=4.47$). Lastly, teacher survey data, school discipline data, and classroom observation data were analyzed using the software STATA®.

Data Analysis Plan

The data for this project consists of units nested within higher level units. More specifically, students are nested within classrooms which are in turn nested within

schools. The nested structure of the data results in correlated errors within higher level units. This correlation of errors results in incorrect standard errors if standard OLS regression models are used. Therefore, this analysis used methods that account for the correlation of errors within higher level units and thus produce the most efficient coefficient estimates and correct standard errors (Goldstein, 2011). Multi-level models are used in dealing with the violation of the independence assumption (Garson, 2013). To check for multicollinearity, or high correlation among independent variables, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was conducted.

Multi-level models were constructed using the software STATA® with variables at the student, teacher/classroom, and school levels. To explore the first research question, a multi-level model including only control variables was conducted to assess first for racial discipline disproportionality. A second model including CRCMSE was run to explore associations with student race/ethnicity and ODR numbers. Model 2 included CRCMSE and the interaction between CRCMSE and race to understand its associations with discipline disproportionality. Due to high levels of multicollinearity in the interaction terms for Model 2, Models 3a, 3b, 3c were estimated separately for African-American, White, and Latino/Hispanic students respectively. Models 3a, 3b, and 3c were estimated by three OLS regression but with standardized errors corrected. These were conducted to analyze the influence of CRCMSE separately by student race/ethnicity.

Model 1

$$\text{ODR}_{ijk} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Race}_{ijk} + \beta_3 \text{ELL}_{ijk} + \beta_4 \text{SES}_{ijk} + \beta_5 \text{Special_education}_{ijk} + \beta_6 \text{Class_Management}_{jk} + \beta_7 \text{Teach_Burn}_{jk} + \beta_8 \text{Class_size}_{jk} + \beta_9 \text{School_level_implementation_PBIS}_k + v_{jk} + \varepsilon_{ijk}$$

v_{jk} : teacher specific error (unobserved characteristics)

ε_{ijk} : student specific error (unobserved characteristics)

Model 2

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ODR}_{ijk} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Race}_{ijk} + \beta_3 \text{ELL}_{ijk} + \beta_4 \text{SES}_{ijk} + \beta_5 \text{Special_education}_{ijk} + \\ & \beta_6 \text{Class_Management}_{jk} + \beta_7 \text{Teach_Burn}_{jk} + \beta_8 \text{Class_size}_{jk} + \\ & \beta_9 \text{School_level_implementation_PBIS}_k + \\ & + \beta_{11} \text{Teacher_Perceived_Ability_CR_Classroom_management}_{jk} \\ & + \beta_{12} \text{Teacher_Perceived_Ability_CR_Classroom_management}_{jk} * \text{Race}_{ijk} + v_{jk} + \varepsilon_{ijk} \end{aligned}$$

v_{jk} : teacher specific error (unobserved characteristics)

ε_{ijk} : student specific error (unobserved characteristics)

Model 3a, 3b, 3c

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ODR}_{ijk} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Race}_{ijk} + \beta_3 \text{ELL}_{ijk} + \beta_4 \text{SES}_{ijk} + \beta_5 \text{Special_education}_{ijk} + \\ & \beta_6 \text{Class_Management}_{jk} + \beta_7 \text{Teach_Burn}_{jk} + \beta_8 \text{Class_size}_{jk} + \\ & \beta_9 \text{School_level_implementation_PBIS}_k + \\ & + \beta_{11} \text{Teacher_Perceived_Ability_CR_Classroom_management}_{jk} + v_{jk} + \varepsilon_{ijk} \end{aligned}$$

v_{jk} : teacher specific error (unobserved characteristics)

ε_{ijk} : student specific error (unobserved characteristics)

The mediation effects of teacher expectations on the relationship between CRCMSE and the racial discipline gap was not explored due to possible unreliable outcomes (e.g., high VIF) from Model 2. Instead, a model analyzing the impact of teacher expectations was conducted using a simple mediation model (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Due to potential multicollinearity, an indirect way to assess for the influence of teacher expectations on racial discipline disparity was to compare Beta 1 in model 4 with the coefficient of Beta 1 in model 1. In comparing the beta coefficients, the process

shows how much of the total racial disparity in ODRs is accounted for by the direct effect of student race/ethnicity on ODRs after controlling for teacher expectations (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Model 5 explored teacher expectations and the interaction between teacher expectation and student race. Because of high levels of multicollinearity in the interaction terms for Model 5, Models 4a, 4b and 4c were also estimated separately for African-American, Latino/Hispanic, and White students respectively. Models 4a, 4b and 4c were estimated using OLS regressions with standardized errors corrected. These were analyzed to understand the influence of teacher expectations on ODR numbers for African-American, White, and Latino students separately.

Model 4

$$\text{ODR}_{ijk} = \beta_0 + \beta_3 \text{ELL}_{ijk} + \beta_4 \text{SES}_{ijk} + \beta_5 \text{Special_education}_{ijk} + \beta_6 \text{Class_Management}_{jk} + \beta_7 \text{Teach_Burn}_{jk} + \beta_8 \text{Class_size}_{jk} + \beta_9 \text{School_level_implementation_PBIS}_k + \beta_{13} \text{Teacher_expectation}_{jk} v_{jk} + \varepsilon_{ijk}$$

v_{jk} : teacher specific error (unobserved characteristics)

ε_{ijk} : student specific error (unobserved characteristics)

Model 4a, 4b, 4c

$$\text{ODR}_{ijk} = \beta_0 + \beta_3 \text{ELL}_{ijk} + \beta_4 \text{SES}_{ijk} + \beta_5 \text{Special_education}_{ijk} + \beta_6 \text{Class_Management}_{jk} + \beta_7 \text{Teach_Burn}_{jk} + \beta_8 \text{Class_size}_{jk} + \beta_9 \text{School_level_implementation_PBIS}_k + \beta_{13} \text{Teacher_expectation}_{jk} v_{jk} + \varepsilon_{ijk}$$

v_{jk} : teacher specific error (unobserved characteristics)

ε_{ijk} : student specific error (unobserved characteristics)

Model 5

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{ODR}_{ijk} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Race}_{ijk} + \beta_3 \text{ELL}_{ijk} + \beta_4 \text{SES}_{ijk} + \beta_5 \text{Special_education}_{ijk} + \\
 & \beta_6 \text{Class_Management}_{jk} + \beta_7 \text{Teach_Burn}_{jk} + \beta_8 \text{Class_size}_{jk} + \\
 & \beta_9 \text{School_level_implementation_PBIS}_k + \beta_{13} \text{Teacher_expectation}_{lk} \\
 & + \beta_{14} \text{Teacher_expectation}_{lk} * \text{Race}_{ijk} + v_{jk} + \varepsilon_{ijk}
 \end{aligned}$$

v_{jk} : teacher specific error (unobserved characteristics)

ε_{ijk} : student specific error (unobserved characteristics)

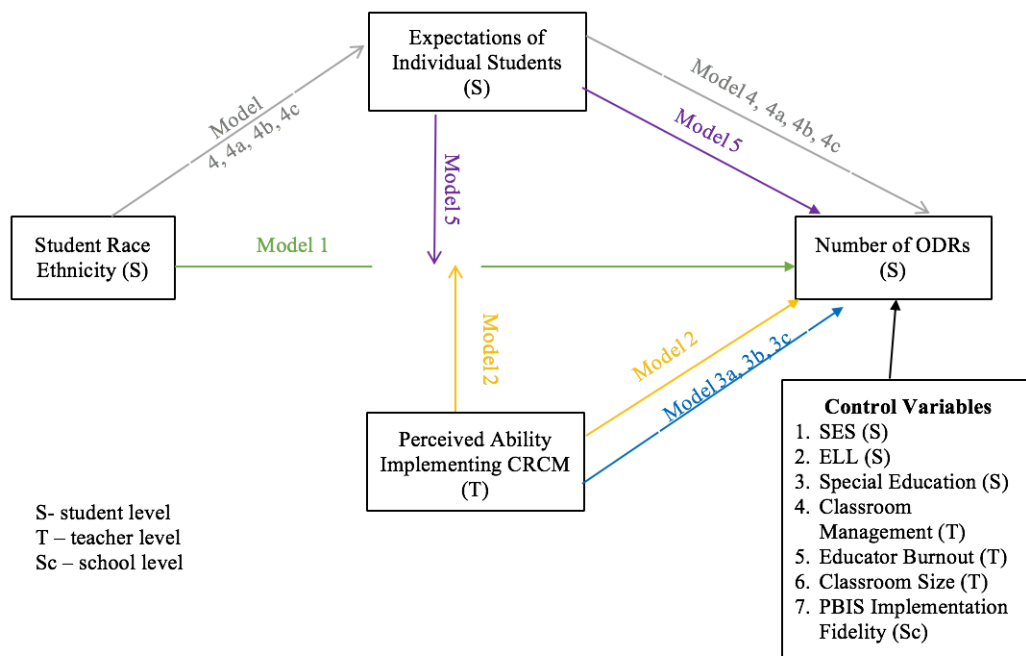


Figure 3.1. Multi-level models showing direct and indirect effects of CRCMSE on student race/ethnicity on ODRs, and mediating effects of Teacher Expectations of Students on ODRs.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

To understand the extent to which teachers' perceptions of culturally responsive classroom management abilities (CRCMSE) moderate student racial discipline disproportionality in office discipline referrals (ODRs), and whether teachers' expectations mediate racially associated discipline differences, regression models were estimated to address the predictive power of student level (i.e., teacher expectations, race/ethnicity) and teacher (i.e., CRCMSE) level data in explaining numbers of ODRs. An estimation technique used in this study was multi-level model, which incorporates the clustering of errors within schools into the estimation process. Multi-level modeling methods account for the correlation of errors within higher level units (e.g. teachers or classrooms; Goldstein, 2011).

Descriptive Statistics of Key Variables

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the following variables: ODRs, CRCMSE, teacher expectations of students. Figure 4.1 shows that most students in participating

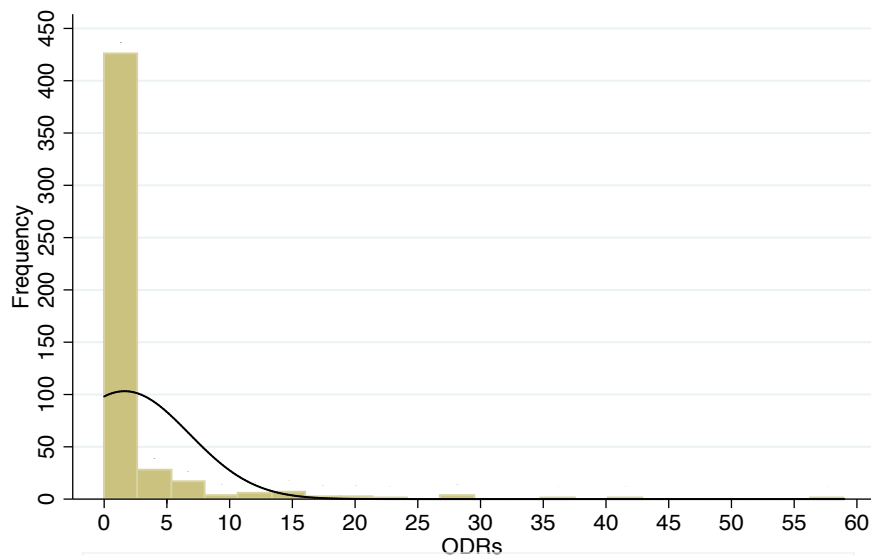


Figure 4.1. Histogram of Total Number of ODRs by student with estimated curve overlay.

classrooms did not receive an ODR during the 2017-18 academic year. Out of 496 participants, a total of 141 elementary students received at least one ODR. The average number of times students received an ODR was 1.63 ($SD= 5.14$) with the amount ranging from 0 to 59. A total of 124 students received at least one ODR for more subjective behavioral infractions. The average number of times students received an ODR for more subjective infractions was 1.16 ($SD= 3.96$) with the individual amount ranging from 0 to 24. A total of 74 students received at least one ODR for objective disciplinary infractions. The average number of times each student was reported was .47 ($SD= 2.18$) with the individual amount ranging from 0 to 35.

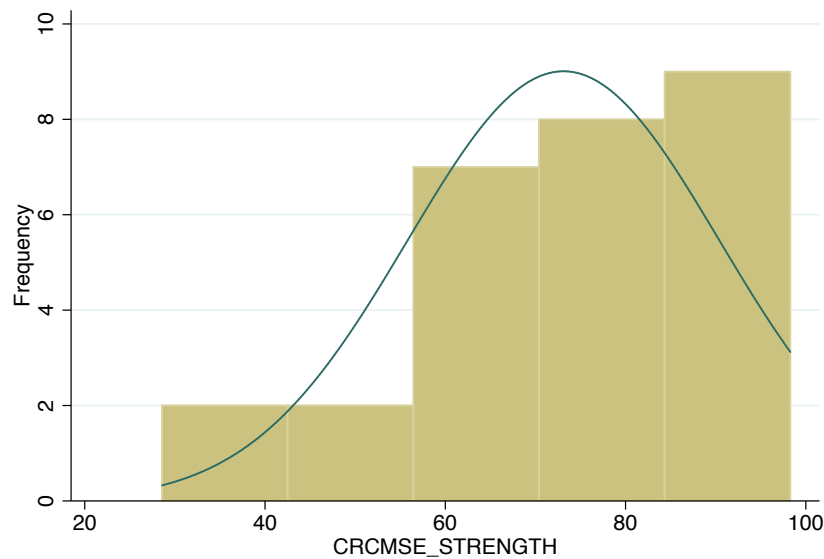


Figure 4.2. Histogram of CRCMSE Strength Index scores with estimated curve overlay.

In looking at the distribution of CRCMSE Strength Index scores, data shows that most teachers rated themselves in the 80 to 100 range (Figure 4.2). Data describing the teachers' item-level CRCMSE scores are presented in Table 4.1. The CRCMSE mean total score could range from 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident) with a midpoint of 50 (moderately confident). The average CRCMSE Strength Index was 73.11 ($SD= 17.29$), which falls closer to feeling moderately confident than completely

confident. Overall, educators felt most confident encouraging students to work together when appropriate, yet felt least comfortable modifying aspects of the classroom and matching those with the students' home culture. Table 4.2 shows the average CRCMSE Strength Index score for different groups of teachers.

Table 4.1
Descriptive data on CRCMSE item-level group score.

Item	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% CI
Assess students' behaviors with the knowledge that acceptable school behaviors may not match those that are acceptable within a students' home culture.	73.04 (18.17)	[65.98, 80.08]
Use culturally responsive discipline practices to alter the behavior of a student who is being defiant.	60.89 (22.61)	[52.12, 69.66]
Create a learning environment that conveys respect for the cultures of all students in my classroom.	79.82 (16.07)	[73.58, 86.05]
Use my knowledge of students' cultural backgrounds to create a culturally compatible learning environment.	69.11 (22.65)	[60.32, 77.89]
Establish high behavioral expectations that encourage students to produce high quality work.	78.57 (24.15)	[69.21, 87.93]
Clearly communicate classroom policies.	84.29 (19.18)	[76.84, 91.72]
Structure the learning environment so that all students feel like a valued member of the learning community.	84.64 (16.66)	[78.18, 91.10]
Use what I know about my students' cultural background to develop an effective learning environment.	69.29 (22.84)	[60.43, 78.14]
Encourage students to work together on classroom tasks, when appropriate.	86.25 (14.70)	[80.55, 91.95]
Design the classroom in a way that communicates respect for diversity.	83.21 (17.01)	[76.62, 89.81]
Use strategies that will hold students accountable for producing high quality work.	76.25 (22.25)	[67.58, 84.91]
Address inappropriate behavior without relying on traditional methods of discipline such as office referrals.	78.75 (19.23)	[71.29, 86.21]
Critically analyze students' classroom behavior from a cross-cultural perspective.	63.21 (21.05)	[55.05, 71.36]
Modify lesson plans so that students remain actively engaged throughout the entire class period or lesson.	75.89 (17.75)	[69.01, 82.77]
Redirect students' behavior without the use of coercive means (i.e., consequences or verbal reprimand).	72.32 (20.66)	[64.31, 80.33]
Restructure the curriculum so that every child can succeed, regardless of their academic history.	71.07 (27.02)	[60.59, 81.55]
Communicate with students using expressions that are familiar to them.	73.57 (23.41)	[64.50, 82.65]

Personalize the classroom so that it is reflective of the cultural background of my students.	64.64 (23.13)	[55.67, 73.61]
Establish routines for carrying out specific classroom tasks.	84.10 (16.22)	[77.82, 90.40]
Design activities that require students to work together toward a common academic goal.	81.79 (17.17)	[75.13, 88.44]
Modify the curriculum to allow students to work in groups.	83.04 (17.71)	[76.17, 89.90]
Teach students how to work together.	81.25 (18.69)	[74.00, 88.50]
Critically assess whether a particular behavior constitutes misbehavior.	75.00 (23.88)	[65.74, 84.26]
Teach children self-management strategies that will assist them in regulating their classroom behavior.	71.43 (23.09)	[62.48, 80.38]
Develop a partnership with parents from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds.	68.04 (20.61)	[60.04, 76.07]
Communicate with students' parents whose primary language is not English.	66.61 (21.82)	[58.15, 75.06]
Establish two-way communication with non-English speaking parents.	66.25 (25.81)	[56.24, 76.25]
Use culturally appropriate methods to relate to parents from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.	62.50 (24.27)	[53.01, 72.00]
Model classroom routines for English Language Learners.	73.57 (21.77)	[65.13, 82.01]
Explain classroom rules so that they are easily understood by English Language Learners.	75.36 (19.53)	[67.78, 82.93]
Modify aspects of the classroom so that it matches aspects of students' home culture.	54.64 (23.92)	[45.37, 63.92]
Implement an intervention that minimizes a conflict that occurs when a students' culturally based behavior is not consistent with school norms.	60.54 (23.03)	[51.61, 69.46]
Develop an effective classroom management plan based on my understanding of students' family background.	63.75 (22.47)	[55.04, 72.46]
Manage situations in which students are defiant.	71.61 (23.22)	[62.60, 80.61]
Prevent disruptions by recognizing potential causes for misbehavior.	74.64 (19.76)	[66.98, 82.31]
Total (N=28)	73.11 (17.29)	[66.41, 79.82]

Table 4.2
Average CRCMSE Strength Index score by groups of teachers

	<i>School A</i>	<i>School B</i>	<i>School C</i>	<i>School D</i>
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
White	63.83 (17.74) <i>n=7</i>	73.18 (11.19) <i>n=7</i>	85.90 (8.29) <i>n=6</i>	85 (10.30) <i>n=2</i>

African-American	74.28 <i>n</i> =1	74.5 (21.32) <i>n</i> =4		
Latino	50.28 <i>n</i> =1	84.71 (7.87) <i>n</i> =2		
Asian		38.85 <i>n</i> =1		
Multiracial		71.14 (2.42) <i>n</i> =2		
Non-White	62.28 (16.97) <i>n</i> =2	72.06 (18.97) <i>n</i> =9		
Female	62.97 (21.41) <i>n</i> =5	72.54 (16.24) <i>n</i> =13	85.90 (8.29) <i>n</i> =6	85 (10.30) <i>n</i> =2
Male	64.14 (10.70) <i>n</i> =4	72.57 (15.34) <i>n</i> =3		
Total	60.79 (16.52) <i>n</i> =9	72.15 (15.98) <i>n</i> =16	85.34 (8.04) <i>n</i> =6	85 (7.39) <i>n</i> =2

Figure 4.3 shows that most teachers rated students high in thinking of their academic and behavioral expectations. The total teacher expectation mean score could range from 0 (not applicable) to 5 (totally applicable) with a midpoint of 2.5 (moderately applicable). The average teacher report fell in the higher range of academic and behavioral expectations.

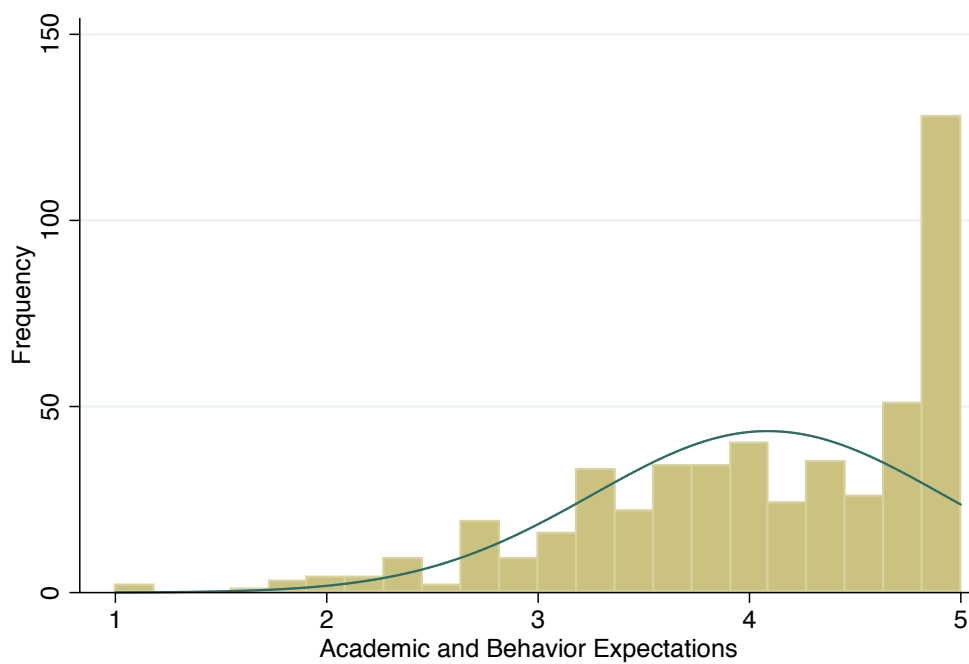


Figure 4.3. Histogram of teachers expectations of students with estimated curve overlay.

Table 4.3 shows the group's average on each item of the teacher expectation survey. Teachers rated lowest the ability of students to follow rules, while rating highest their expectations of students' overall school career success. Table 4.4 demonstrates the average score of by student-level characteristics.

Table 4.3

Descriptive data of item-level Teacher Expectation scores

Item	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% CI
He or she is a smart student.	4.35 (.80)	[4.28, 4.42]
He or she is a student who behaves in accordance to school behavioral expectations.	3.96 (1.07)	[3.86, 4.05]
He or she will probably have a good school report card at the end of this school year.	3.94 (1.24)	[3.83, 4.05]
He or she performs well in school.	3.07 (1.77)	[2.92, 3.23]
He or she is able to follow classroom rules.	1.84 (1.22)	[1.74, 1.95]
He or she will probably have a successful school career.	4.37 (.79)	[4.30, 4.44]
He or she is able to modify their behavior when asked by the teacher.	4.09 (.95)	[4.00, 4.17]
He or she is an intelligent student.	4.06 (1.06)	[3.97, 4.16]
He or she will probably have a high score on the final elementary school achievement test.	3.86 (1.09)	[3.77, 3.96]
Total	4.08 (.82)	[4.01, 4.15]

Table 4.4

Average Teacher Expectation of students by groups

	<i>School A</i>	<i>School B</i>	<i>School C</i>	<i>School D</i>
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
White	4.13 (.88) <i>n</i> =63	4.32 (.70) <i>n</i> =113	4.16 (.76) <i>n</i> =88	3.94 (.86) <i>n</i> =26
African-American	3.70 (.82) <i>n</i> =12	4.07 (.72) <i>n</i> =30	2.77 (.15) <i>n</i> =2	
Latino	3.25 (.78) <i>n</i> =29	3.99 (.80) <i>n</i> =44	3.35 (.84) <i>n</i> =9	4.61 (.33) <i>n</i> =4
Asian	3.77 (.89) <i>n</i> =12	4.57 (.60) <i>n</i> =30	3.22 <i>n</i> =1	3.40 (.93) <i>n</i> =6
Multiracial	3.66 (.86) <i>n</i> =5	4.20 (.81) <i>n</i> =21	3.66 <i>n</i> =1	
Non-White	3.42 (.81) <i>n</i> =46	4.06 (.77) <i>n</i> =143	4.20 (.78) <i>n</i> =53	4.61 (.33) <i>n</i> =4
Female	4.23 (.71) <i>n</i> =60	4.28 (.76) <i>n</i> =110	4.20 (.78) <i>n</i> =5	4.38 (.60) <i>n</i> =16
Male	3.43 (.92) <i>n</i> =61	4.23 (.71) <i>n</i> =128	3.87 (.81) <i>n</i> =48	3.56 (.90) <i>n</i> =20

Total	3.82 (.91) <i>n</i> =121	4.25 (.74) <i>n</i> =238	4.04 (.81) <i>n</i> =101	3.93 (.87) <i>n</i> =36
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Differences in number of ODRs

Next, the way in which various variables influenced the number of ODRs students received were studied through the results of the multi-level regression model. The first regression model looked at student and classroom characteristics, in particular student race and ethnicity, and the difference on the number of ODRs by group (Table 4.5)¹.

Table 4.5

Summary of Multi-level Analyses for Variables Predicting Differences in ODRs (student N = 496, classroom N=28)

<i>Model 1</i>	<i>Total ODRs</i>		<i>Subjective ODRs</i>		<i>Objective ODRs</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Male	1.621**	(0.440)	1.015**	(0.291)	0.606**	(0.189)
African-American	2.515**	(0.824)	1.107*	(0.546)	1.409**	(0.354)
Asian	-.943	(0.799)	-.862	(0.529)	-.808	(0.343)
Multiracial	0.722	(0.969)	0.509	(0.641)	0.213	(0.416)
Latino	-.220	(0.672)	-.147	(0.445)	-.731	(0.289)
ELL	-.081	(0.711)	0.291	(0.471)	-.110	(0.305)
Low SES	1.496**	(0.213)	1.065**	(0.345)	0.431	(0.224)
Special Ed	1.730**	(0.549)	1.173**	(0.364)	-.557*	(0.236)
CM	0.680*	(0.311)	0.571**	(0.205)	0.108	(0.134)
Class size	-.115	(0.092)	-.040	(0.061)	-.075	(0.039)
Teacher Burnout	0.015	(0.250)	-.056	(0.165)	0.070	(0.107)
PBIS Fidelity	-.097	(0.072)	-.056	(0.048)	-.041	(0.031)
<i>WALD X²</i>	77.18**		74.11**		59.46**	

Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), special education (Special Ed), classroom management (CM)

p* < .05. *p* < .01.

Table 4.5 shows that after controlling for multiple socio-demographic, teacher-level, and school-level variables, African-American students on average received 2.51

¹ A different regression model looking at race and ethnicity without control variables, and the difference on ODRs by group, support a significant racial discipline gap for African-American and Latino students when compared to White peers. African-American students received 3.46 and Latino students received 1.34 more ODRs than their White peers.

more ODRs than White students. The difference in ODRs received by African-American students, in comparison to White students, is statistically significant. The size of ODR difference for Asian, Latino, and Multiracial students was not statistically significant. Data also show that students who receive special education services on average received 1.7 more ODRs than non-special education students, the difference between groups was statistically significant. Another statistically significant difference was found in looking at number of ODRs by gender. On average male students received 1.62 more ODRs than female students. Likewise, the ODR difference by socio-economic status yielded statistically significant results. Economically disadvantaged students on average received 1.50 more ODRs than students with less socio-economic needs. Lastly, students in classrooms of teachers with lower positive to negative response ratio were found to receive .68 more ODRs on average than students whose teachers have a higher positive to negative acknowledgement ratio. This was a statistically significant finding.

In looking at subjective ODRs only, statistically significant differences remained for the same groups. African-American students on average received 1.11 ODRs more than White students. Male students received, on average, 1.02 more ODRs than females. Students from low socio-economic background received, on average, 1.07 more ODRs than students with less socio-economic needs; and students in classrooms with higher negative to positive acknowledgement ratio received .57 more ODRs in average than students in classrooms of teacher with higher positive to negative acknowledgement ratios. Objective ODRs data only supported statistically significant differences for the number of ODRs received by African-American students ($\beta = 1.41$) and male students ($\beta = 0.61$).

CRCMSE influence on racial discipline disproportionality

The second multi-level regression model adds both a variable for CRCMSE Strength Index scores and the interactions between CRCMSE Strength Index scores and student race/ethnicity. This model was used to explore how differences between African-American, Latino, White students and the number of ODRs received, (which is the same as studying racial disproportionality in ODRs), might vary depending on teachers CRCMSE Strength Index scores (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6
Summary of Multi-level Analyses for CRCMSE scores and the interaction between CRCMSE and student race/ethnicity (student N = 496, classroom N=28)

<i>Model 2</i>	<i>Total ODRs</i>		<i>Subjective ODRs</i>		<i>Objective ODRs</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Male	1.584**	(0.438)	0.992**	(0.291)	0.591**	(0.187)
African-American	-5.317	(3.494)	-2.283	(2.320)	-3.03*	(1.495)
Asian	-0.208	(3.265)	-.936	(2.168)	0.728	(1.396)
Multiracial	-2.098	(3.613)	-1.351	(2.399)	-.746	(1.545)
Latino	-0.269	(2.711)	0.657	(1.800)	-.388	(1.159)
ELL	-0.091	(0.723)	-.0154	(0.480)	-.076	(0.309)
Low SES	1.406	(0.522)	1.005**	(0.346)	0.402	(0.224)
Special Ed	1.706	(0.550)	1.178**	(0.366)	0.258*	(0.236)
CM	0.644*	(0.325)	0.541*	(0.216)	.103	(0.139)
Class size	-0.116	(0.091)	-.041	(0.061)	-.074	(0.391)
Teacher Burnout	0.010	(0.272)	-.067	(0.181)	.0796	(0.116)
PBIS Fidelity	-0.076	(0.080)	-.039	(0.053)	-.036	(0.340)
CRCMSE	-.0122	(0.020)	-.008	(0.130)	-.004	(0.008)
African-American* CRCMSE	0.111*	(0.48)	0.048	(0.032)	0.063**	(0.020)
Asian* CRCMSE	-0.011	(0.046)	0.001	(0.030)	-.012	(0.019)
Multiracial* CRCMSE	0.040	(0.050)	0.027	(0.033)	0.139	(0.021)
Latino* CRCMSE	-0.007	(0.036)	-.011	(0.024)	0.004	(0.015)
<i>WALD X²</i>	84.54**		78.08**		71.51**	

Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), special education (Special Ed), classroom management (CM), positive behavior interventions supports (PBIS), culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy (CRCMSE);

p* < .05. *p* < .01.

Though the model does not overall support that higher CRCMSE scores lead to lower ODRs, it shows that the interaction term between CRCMSE and African-American students is statistically significant. Data show that the teachers with higher ratings on the CRCMSE, had African-American students who received .111 more ODRs on average.

An analysis of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was used to measure multicollinearity in the model. The interaction term between African-American students and CRCMSE scores yielded high VIF (21.53). The multiracial variable, and its interaction with CRCMSE scores, both had a VIF higher than 10. The variables showing the direct effect of CRCMSE on student race (i.e., Latino, African-American, and Asian) on ODR differences, as well as the indirect effects of CRCMSE on racial discipline differences, all had VIF above 20. The high variance inflation factors indicate that results from this model may be unstable and unreliable.

The limited number of students from diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds in this study may have limited the ability to find statistically significant findings. Due to this limitation, a non-white non-Asian student variable was created to explore if CRCMSE scores moderate the racial discipline gap between the identified groups. This model did not support that educators' perceived abilities of CRCMSE implementation moderated the number of ODRs by race/ethnicity. Further, the multicollinearity analysis also showed that the interaction term between Non-white Non-Asian and CRCMSE scores had a VIF of 19.51. The only other variable in this model with a VIF above 10 was Latino students.

Because of the instability of the model with interaction terms between students' race/ethnicity and CRCMSE scores, separate models by race/ethnicity were used. These

models allowed us to examine whether CRCMSE scores predict ODRs for students of each racial/ethnic background. When dividing students by race/ethnic background, the number of classrooms that include students from each group fall under 30. Thus, the technique of Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regressions with standard errors adjusted for clustering of classrooms was used rather than the multi-level level analysis. CRCMSE did not significantly predict number of ODRs for any specific ethnic group². However, because the number of students for each ethnic group is small, strong conclusions cannot be yielded from the data.

Table 4.7
Summary of OLS Regression with SE Adjusted Analyses Predicting CRCMSE influence on African-American students ODR rates (n=44)

<i>Model 3a</i>	<i>Total ODRs</i>		<i>Subjective ODRs</i>		<i>Objective ODRs</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Male	8.111	(3.545)	4.586*	(1.855)	3.526	(1.811)
ELL	1.552	(3.203)	0.232	(1.675)	1.320	(1.716)
Low SES	7.464	(5.741)	1.092	(1.864)	-.456	(1.004)
Special Ed	0.636	(2.767)	3.134	(2.590)	4.330	(3.319)
CM	1.658	(1.659)	1.008	(1.139)	0.649	(0.703)
Class size	-1.704	(0.873)	-.793*	(0.378)	-.911	(0.513)
Teacher Burnout	0.918	(1.473)	-.275	(0.735)	1.193	(0.885)
PBIS Fidelity	0.099	0.780	-.038	(0.361)	0.137	(0.439)
CRCMSE	0.079	0.058	0.021	(0.033)	0.057	(0.032)
<i>R</i> ²	.3671		.3943		.3280	
<i>F for change in R</i> ²	1.45		1.97		1.09	

Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), special education (Special Ed), classroom management (CM), positive behavior intervention supports (PBIS), culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy (CRCMSE);

p* < .05. *p* < .01.

² Similar models without control variables were conducted to explore the influence of CRCMSE on the racial discipline gap due to the small sample of students per group. In this version, CRCMSE was found to significantly influence the number of ODRs White students received in comparison to the rest of the students. White students received .02 total ODRs and .01 objective ODRs less.

Table 4.8
Summary of OLS Regression with SE Adjusted Analyses Predicting CRCMSE influence on Latino students ODR rates (n=86)

<i>Model 3b</i>	<i>Total ODRs</i>		<i>Subjective ODRs</i>		<i>Objective ODRs</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Male	1.245	(1.804)	1.420	(1.420)	0.282	(0.449)
ELL	.4454	(1.125)	0.383	(0.991)	0.062	(0.365)
Low SES	1.108	(0.947)	0.674	(0.718)	0.433	(0.294)
Special Ed	2.265	(1.310)	1.681	(1.057)	0.584	(0.387)
CM	1.754*	(0.746)	1.618*	(0.614)	0.135	(0.150)
Class size	-0.206	(0.271)	-0.123	(0.198)	-0.083	(0.079)
Teacher Burnout	-0.539	(0.593)	-0.185	(0.498)	-0.354	(0.125)
PBIS Fidelity	-0.064	(0.170)	0.004	(0.126)	-0.067	(0.055)
CRCMSE	-0.005	(0.033)	-0.005	(0.026)	0.000	(.008)
R^2	0.1689		0.1810		0.1106	
F for change in R^2	10.77**		11.49**		7.61**	

Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), Special Education (Special Ed), Classroom management (CM), positive behavior intervention supports (PBIS), Culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy (CRCMSE);

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4.9
Summary of OLS Regression with SE Adjusted Analyses Predicting CRCMSE influence on White students ODR rates (n=290)

<i>Model 3c</i>	<i>Total ODRs</i>		<i>Subjective ODRs</i>		<i>Objective ODRs</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Male	0.986*	(0.435)	0.743*	(0.334)	0.242	(0.124)
ELL	-1.217	(1.059)	-1.023	(0.804)	-0.193	(0.281)
Low SES	1.903*	(0.872)	1.903*	(0.644)	0.422	(0.241)
Special Ed	0.365	(0.680)	0.349	(0.507)	0.016	(0.234)
CM	-0.083	(0.293)	-0.054	(0.214)	-0.029	(0.086)
Class size	0.104	(0.072)	0.035	(0.052)	-0.024	(0.025)

Teacher Burnout	0.146	(0.248)	0.049	(0.183)	0.096	(0.076)
PBIS Fidelity	-0.022	(0.082)	-0.002	(0.064)	-0.020	(0.023)
CRCMSE	-0.017	(0.012)	-0.010	(0.009)	-0.006	(0.004)
R^2	0.0928		0.0882		0.0829	
F for change in R^2	2.11		1.95		2.84*	

Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), Special Education (Special Ed), Classroom management (CM), positive behavior intervention supports (PBIS), Culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy (CRCMSE);

** $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.*

Lastly, for all analyses observing the predictive relationship of CRCMSE scores on the racial discipline gap, additional estimated models that treated CRCMSE as a categorical variable (i.e., 0-40, 40-60, 60-80, 80-100) and as a binary variable with a threshold of 80 (as informed by distribution of scores) were attempted. None of these models were found to yield findings supporting a statistically significant predictive relationship between teachers self-rated CRCMSE and numbers of ODRs based on race or ethnic characteristics.

Teachers' expectations influence on racial discipline disproportionality

Question number two aimed to answer if behavioral expectations mediate the relationship between CRCMSE, student race/ethnicity, and number of ODRs. In creating the proposed mediation model, given that the interaction terms between CRCMSE and student race/ethnicity were not reliable due to multicollinearity, a model including teacher expectations but not including CRCMSE, was estimated to understand how teacher expectations by itself accounts for racial disproportionality in ODRs. The results of a multi-level estimation of these models are on table 4.5. Table 4.10 shows the multi-level regression model that includes Teacher Expectations.

The first model shows that students whose teachers expect more of them academically and behaviorally have significantly fewer ODRs. As explained earlier in the

chapter, racial discipline disparity was found in comparing the difference in ODR numbers for African-American and White students ($b = 2.515$, see Table 4.5). In a model where we also account for teacher expectations, African-American students receive on average 2.199 more ODRs than White students (see Table 4.10). Thus, some of the difference between the number of ODRs received by African-American and White peers appears to be due to the distinction in teacher expectations for these students.

Table 4.10
Summary of Multi-level Analyses for Variables Predicting Differences in ODRs (student $N = 496$, classroom $N = 28$)

<i>Model 4</i>	<i>Total ODRs</i>		<i>Subjective ODRs</i>		<i>Objective ODRs</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Male	1.102*	(0.429)	0.619*	(0.280)	0.484*	(0.190)
African-American	2.199**	(0.798)	0.846	(0.523)	1.364**	(0.350)
Asian	-0.648	(0.773)	-0.680	(0.506)	-0.001	(0.340)
Multiracial	0.363	(0.938)	0.509	(0.641)	0.138	(0.412)
Latino	-0.292	(0.647)	-0.220	(0.430)	-0.091	(0.285)
ELL	-0.788	(0.706)	-0.488	(0.464)	-0.290	(0.307)
Low SES	0.950	(0.510)	0.669*	(0.333)	0.289	(0.225)
Special Ed	0.081	(0.601)	-0.067	(0.394)	0.145	(0.262)
CM	0.820*	(0.339)	0.677**	(0.232)	0.141	(0.134)
Class size	-0.137	(0.101)	-0.056	(0.069)	-0.081	(0.040)
Teacher Burnout	-0.029	(0.273)	-0.088	(0.187)	0.060	(0.108)
PBIS Fidelity	-0.058	(0.079)	-0.028	(0.054)	-0.031	(0.031)
Teacher Expectations	-2.020**	(0.321)	-1.528**	(0.211)	-0.485**	(0.134)
<i>WALD X²</i>	120.63**		132.22**		72.73**	

Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), Special Education (Special Ed), Classroom management (CM), positive behavior intervention supports (PBIS), Culturally responsive classroom management self-efficacy (CRCMSE);

** $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.*

In the next model, an interaction term between teachers' academic and behavioral expectations and student race or ethnicity was also included to examine the extent to which racial disproportionality in ODRs varies by teacher expectations and vice-versa. Table 4.11 shows that as teacher expectations increase, the racial disproportionality between African-American/Latino and White students significantly decreases. For the

outcomes of subjective ODRs, differences between African-American and White are no longer moderated by teacher expectations but differences between Latino and White students are moderated by teacher expectations. For objective ODRs, outcomes show that teacher expectations do not moderate the difference between Latino and White students, but does moderate disparity between African-American and White students. The interaction term between African-American students and teacher's expectation scores yielded high VIF (28.81). Variables showing the impact of Latino, Multiracial, and Asian race/ethnicity on ODR differences, as well as the interaction terms between each and teacher expectations, also show VIF above 20. These high variance inflation factors indicate that results from these models may be unstable or unreliable.

Table 4.11
Summary of Multi-level Analyses for Teacher Expectation (TE) scores and the interaction between TE and student race/ethnicity (student N = 496, classroom N=28)

<i>Model 5</i>	<i>Total ODRs</i>		<i>Subjective ODRs</i>		<i>Objective ODRs</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Male	1.010**	(0.423)	0.619*	(0.278)	0.485**	(0.187)
African-American	12.268**	(3.848)	5.004*	(2.523)	7.238**	(1.693)
Asian	-1.398	(3.648)	-1.739	(2.393)	0.419	(1.606)
Multiracial	6.214	(4.769)	4.729	(3.129)	1.438	(2.010)
Latino	6.063*	(2.698)	3.942*	(1.770)	2.083	(1.186)
ELL	-0.810	(0.707)	-0.530	(0.465)	-0.276	(0.308)
Low SES	0.990	(0.509)	0.673*	(0.334)	0.323	(0.224)
Special Ed	0.030	(0.597)	-0.088	(0.393)	0.120	(0.260)
CM	0.761*	(0.348)	0.651**	(0.234)	0.110	(0.140)
Class size	-0.117	(0.104)	-0.042	(0.070)	-0.076	(0.042)
Teacher Burnout	-0.009	(0.280)	-0.076	(0.188)	0.068	(0.112)
PBIS Fidelity	-0.027	(0.082)	-0.006	(0.055)	-0.022	(0.329)
Teacher Expectation	-1.468**	(0.499)	-1.213**	(0.263)	-0.240	(0.174)
African-American*TE	-2.533**	(0.953)	-1.034	(0.628)	-1.487**	(0.420)
Asian*TE	0.174	(0.851)	0.251	(0.445)	-0.101	(0.374)
Multiracial*	-1.414	(1.141)	-1.092	(0.749)	-0.310	(0.502)

TE					
Latino*TE	-1.621*	(0.679)	-1.067*	(0.045)	-0.548 (0.298)
<i>WALD X²</i>	136.44**		144.91**		88.34**

Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), Special Education (Special Ed), Classroom management (CM), positive behavior intervention supports (PBIS), Teacher Expectation (TE);

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

An interaction term between non-White non-Asian students and teacher expectations was also used to explore if teacher expectation scores moderate the racial discipline gap between the identified group. The multicollinearity analysis shows that the interaction term between Non-white Non-Asian and teacher expectations yielded high VIF (24.08). The only other variables in this model with VIF above 10 were Latino and African-American students. Therefore, this multi-level analysis model was not helpful in answering the question.

Because of the high multicollinearity analysis in the previous model with interaction terms, separate models looking at the impact of TE on ODRs were estimated for each racial/ethnic group. When dividing students by race/ethnic background, the number of classrooms that include students from each group falls under 30. Thus, the technique of Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regressions with standard errors adjusted for clustering of classrooms was used rather than the multi-level level analysis. These models looking at the impact of teachers' academic and behavioral expectations on ODRs (i.e., total, subjective, objective) for African-American students did not show that high teacher expectations resulted in lower ODRs for African-American students. Though, it is important to note that there were only 44 African-American students in this study's sample.

However, for Latino students, the higher the academic and behavioral expectations of teachers the lower the number of total ODRs. For each unit that the TE expectation goes

up for Latino students, the number of ODRs goes down by 3.44. Subjective and objective ODR outcomes, also support that higher teacher expectations were related to lower ODR numbers for Latino students.

Table 4.12
Summary of OLS Regression with SE Adjusted Analyses Predicting if Teacher Expectation mediates the difference of ODRs between African-American students (n=44)

<i>Model 4a</i>	<i>Total ODRs</i>		<i>Subjective ODRs</i>		<i>Objective ODRs</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Male	7.725	(3.432)	4.274*	(1.675)	3.451	(1.890)
ELL	1.067	(3.517)	0.002	(1.903)	1.067	(1.747)
Low SES	0.967	(2.845)	1.144	(1.851)	-0.176	(1.059)
Special Ed	6.596	(6.303)	2.358	(2.940)	4.237	(3.639)
CM	.884	(2.009)	0.599	(1.193)	0.285	(0.985)
Class size	-1.905	(0.974)	-0.896*	(0.408)	-1.009	(0.584)
Teacher Burnout	0.123	(1.432)	-0.566	(0.720)	0.689	(0.845)
PBIS Fidelity	0.377	(0.762)	0.098	(0.344)	0.278	(0.437)
Teacher Expectation	-1.696	(2.193)	-1.191	(1.202)	-0.505	(1.091)
<i>R</i> ²	0.3656		0.4081		0.3119	
F for change in <i>R</i> ²	2.58*		2.20		1.63	

Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), Special Education (Special Ed), Classroom management (CM), positive behavior intervention supports (PBIS)

p* < .05. *p* < .01.

Table 4.13
Summary of OLS Regression with SE Adjusted Analyses Predicting if Teacher Expectation mediates the difference of ODRs between Latino students (n=86)

<i>4b</i>	<i>Total ODRs</i>		<i>Subjective ODRs</i>		<i>Objective ODRs</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Male	1.015	(1.388)	0.801	(1.125)	0.213	(0.348)
ELL	-0.029	(1.081)	-0.183	(1.007)	-0.151	(0.314)
Low SES	0.791	(1.251)	0.452	(0.925)	0.339	(0.372)
Special Ed	-0.029	(1.260)	-0.012	(0.969)	-0.017	(0.404)

CM	2.117**	(0.637)	1.893**	(0.546)	0.224	(0.112)
Class size	0.011	(0.244)	0.037	(0.176)	-0.206	(0.762)
Teacher Burnout	-0.408	(0.629)	-0.083	(0.514)	-0.325	(0.149)
PBIS Fidelity	0.219	(0.186)	0.209	(0.153)	0.011	(0.044)
Teacher Expectation	-3.442*	(1.446)	-2.530*	(1.010)	-0.9130*	(0.393)
R^2	0.3322		0.3319		0.2233	
F for change in R^2	7.49**		6.68**		7.51**	

Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), Special Education (Special Ed), Classroom management (CM), positive behavior intervention supports (PBIS)

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Teachers' academic and behavioral expectations were also shown to predict a difference in number of ODRs for White students. White students whose teachers rated their expectations one unit higher received 1.75 lower ODRs. Subjective and objective ODR outcomes yield similar results (see table 4.14).

Table 4.14

Summary of OLS Regression with SE Adjusted Analyses Predicting if Teacher Expectations mediate the difference of ODRs between White students ($n=290$)

Model 4c	Total ODRs		Subjective ODRs		Objective ODRs	
	B	SE B	B	SE B	B	SE B
Male	0.601	(0.335)	0.443	(0.256)	0.158	(0.102)
ELL	-2.363	(1.209)	-1.939	(0.717)	-0.425	(0.311)
Low SES	1.386	(0.734)	1.075	(0.554)	0.311	(0.198)
Special Ed	-1.404	(0.734)	-1.002	(0.717)	-0.401	(0.339)
CM	0.237	(0.321)	0.177	(0.240)	0.060	(0.087)
Class size	-0.080	(0.068)	-0.035	(0.047)	-0.455	(0.025)
Teacher Burnout	0.801	(0.275)	0.062	(0.205)	0.127	(0.080)
PBIS Fidelity	-0.014	(0.073)	0.011	(0.057)	-0.025	(0.020)
Teacher Expectation	-1.746**	(0.576)	-1.349**	(0.442)	-0.398	(0.160)
R^2	0.1765		0.1719		0.1303	

F for change in R ²	2.30*	2.61*	1.60
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Notes: English language learner (ELL), low socio-economic status (Low SES), Special Education (Special Ed), Classroom management (CM), positive behavior intervention supports (PBIS)

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

A z-score test was used to compare the impact of teacher expectation on the number of ODRs Latino and White students received in comparison to peers from the same race-ethnic group. The impact of teacher expectations on ODRs is stronger for Latino students than White students ($p= 0.027$).

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Overview

While empirical studies have found supporting evidence for the use of School-Wide Positive Behavior and Intervention Supports (SWPBIS) to reduce the number of office discipline referrals (ODRs), including for historically underrepresented groups of students (e.g., Gage, Grasley-Boy, Peshak George, Childs, & Kincaid, 2019; Kaufman et al., 2010; McIntosh et al., 2014; Scott, 2001; Skiba et al., 2008; Vincent, Randall, Cartledge, Tobin, & Swain-Bradway, 2011; Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin, & May, 2011; Vincent & Tobin, 2011), evidence shows that the racial discipline gap remains and that more research is needed to examine the interrelation between key factors such as classroom management, culture, behavior, and teacher decision-making (e.g., Fallon, Cathcart, DeFouw, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2018; Fallon, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2012). The current study first examined the relationship between student race or ethnic background and the number of ODRs as reported for the current school-year. For each question, three different models were conducted to analyze the results with an added differentiation for behavior infraction type (i.e., subjective, objective). After addressing if a racial discipline gap was evident, the present study explored first if perceived confidence in the ability to engage in culturally responsive classroom management (CRCMSE) influenced the number of ODRs received by students. Then, a different model including the interaction between CRCMSE and student race was analyzed to explore if the presence of this variable strengthened or weakened the relationship with ODRs. Guided by the call for targeting school practices that may be malleable variables that reduce disproportionality (i.e., Cook et al., 2018; McIntosh et al., 2014), this exploratory study is the first known

effort to measure teacher CRCMSE scores and examine its interaction with the racial discipline gap as measured by numbers of ODRs.

Another aspect of this study was to explore the relationship of teacher expectations of students and ODRs as a behavioral outcome by student racial group (i.e., African-American, Latino, White). Then, it explored the relationship between teacher expectations and the number of ODRs received by African-American students in comparison to White students. While ground-breaking work suggests that teacher expectations mediate prejudiced attitudes and the academic outcomes of students (van den Bergh et al., 2010), the field lacks work exploring the relationship between teacher expectations and discipline discrepancy based on student race (Gregory & Roberts, 2017). This is important to explore as student membership to a stigmatized group has been associated with lower teacher expectations and lower academic achievement (Jussim & Harber, 2005).

As part of this multi-level research design study 33 teachers representing 28 classrooms in four public elementary schools self-reported their perceived confidence to implement CRCM practices and rated students ($n= 496$) on a scale representative of behavioral and academic expectations. Teacher reports were compared with student disaggregated socio-demographic data and 810 discipline referrals. The following sections further elaborate on a summary of findings, limitations to this work, contributions to the literature, and possible implications for future research.

Summary of Findings

Prior to addressing the main questions of this study, descriptive analyses of the independent (i.e., CRCMSE, teacher expectations) and dependent (i.e., ODRs) variables were conducted. In terms of ODR patterns, as expected in elementary schools

implementing SWPBIS with fidelity (Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010; Horner & Sugai, 2015), most students in the sample (72%) had no discipline infractions recorded as an ODR. This is consistent with research at the elementary school level that shows a smaller number of referrals (e.g., Arcia, 2007; Petras, Masyn, Buckley, Ialongo, & Kellam, 2011; Raffaele Mendez & Knoff, 2003; Rausch, Skiba, & Simmons, 2005; Thetriot & Dupper, 2010). The outcomes of this study show students receiving more infractions under subjective behavioral categories, which is consistent with previous findings stating that minor behaviors like defiance and disruptiveness explained the majority of the infractions found in elementary schools (Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017). In terms of the CRCMSE descriptive findings, most teachers rated their confidence level higher than moderately confident ($M=73.11$; $SD= 17.29$). These scores are slightly lower than the average strength index score reported during the initial validation of the CRCMSE scale ($M=80.73$; $SD= 11.53$; Siwatu et al., 2015), which was mostly comprised of pre-service teachers. While one might expect for in-service teachers to yield higher self-efficacy beliefs than preservice teachers (e.g., Putnam, 2012), the difference between scores could be the result of a variety of personal, social, and situational factors that may influence interpretation of events and the way they integrate such experiences to their self-efficacy concept (e.g., Siwatu et al., 2015). The item-level analysis patterns also varied between pre-service and in-service teachers' confidence rankings consistent with what is reported in prior research (Siwatu et al., 2015). In-service teachers felt most confident encouraging students to work together but least confident modifying and matching aspects of the classroom to the student home culture. Prior reported patterns included teachers feeling most confident communicating the

classroom policies and least confident communicating with parents whose primary language is one other than English (Siwatu et al., 2015).

Lastly, descriptive analysis of academic and behavioral expectations shows teachers ranking students highly ($M= 4.08$, $SD= .82$). Higher teacher expectation scores are often found in the literature and have been associated with better student academic outcomes (e.g., de Boer, Bosket, & van der Werf, 2010; Peterson, Rubie-Davies, Osborne, & Sibley, 2016; Weinstein 2002). Item-level scores show the lowest expectations pertaining to the ability of students to follow classroom rules ($M= 1.84$, $SD= 1.22$). Though this study did not formally measure the accuracy of teacher expectations and student behavior, it did include classroom observations in which the average number of disruptive behaviors in classrooms was 2.45 disruptions across all three 30-minute observation periods. This number does not seem to represent an accurate representation of the overall rule breaking behavior observed in the classrooms. While teachers held lower expectations related to student's ability to follow classroom rules, observed disruptions remained relatively low for the observation durations. Nonetheless, this study, like many efforts, did not measure for teacher expectation accuracy (e.g., Jussim & Harber, 2005). The item teachers rated highest for student expectations relates back to the overall experience and success they predict students will experience throughout their school career. This outcome is not surprising as educational institutions are responsible for providing a safe place that prepares students for becoming constructive members in society (e.g., Casey, Jones, & Hare, 2014). It also supports findings of educators rating their values as egalitarian (e.g., Hachfeld, Hahn, Schroeder, Anders, & Kunter, 2015; van Den Bergh et al., 2010) as well as the societal expectations placed on teachers in regards to student future success (Phi Delta Kappa, 2017). Moreover, results related to behavioral

expectations may reflect the on-going challenge reported by teachers in terms of classroom management training and dealing with disruptive behavior efficiently (e.g., Begeny & Martens, 2006; Cakmak, Gündüz, & Emstad, 2018; Farmer, Reinke, & Brooks, 2014, Siwatu et al., 2015; U.S. Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2007; NCES, 2011).

A first multi-level model was conducted to explore the difference in ODRs by specific characteristics of students, classrooms and schools. The first model yielded significant disparities associated with student gender, race/ethnicity, socio-economic status, learning disabilities status, and teacher implementation of classroom management. Like prior nationwide reports and findings from empirical studies (e.g., Anyon et al., 2014; Bradshaw, Mitchell, O'Brennan, & Leaf, 2010; Costenbader & Markson, 1998; Gregory & Weinstein, 2008; Losen, Hodson, Keith, Morrison, & Belway, 2015; Raffaele Mendez & Knoff, 2003; Rocque, 2010; Skiba, Michael, Nardo & Peterson, 2002; Taylor & Detch, 1998; Tobin and Vincent, 2011; U.S. Department of Education, 2016, 2018; Vincent, Swain-Bradway, Tobin, & May, 2011, Wallace et al., 2008), the study found an evident racial discipline gap for African-American students receiving between two to three more referrals than White students in elementary schools. Similar to previous work exploring discipline disparity by behavior categories (i.e., objective, subjective; Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002), this study suggests that the racial discipline gap remained for African-American students across behavior type (i.e., subjectively defined versus objectively defined). An exploratory version of this model that did not account for control variables supported a significant racial discipline gap between Latino and White students, where Latino students received 1.33 more total ODRs and .97 subjective ODRs than the reference

group. Moreover, this study supports the racial discipline gap in ODRs between African-American and White students remains after controlling for socio-economic status. Though scholars report inconsistent findings regarding the influence of socio-economic factors on the racial discipline gap (Skiba et al., 2013), the findings in this study support the numbers found with larger samples (e.g., American Psychological Association, 2008; Gage, Whitford, Katsiyannis, 2018; Raffaele Mendez, Knoff, & Ferron, 2002; Skiba et al. 2005; Wallace, Goodkind, Wallace, & Bachman, 2008). Also consistent with prior studies was the discipline gap shown between male and female students (i.e., Costenbader & Markson, 1998; Gregory, 1996; Raffaele Mendez, Knoff, & Ferron, 2002; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002; U.S. Department of Education, 2018; Wu et al., 1982), with males receiving 1.6 more ODRs than females. The present study also concurs with typically reported patterns showing a gap in discipline for students in special education in comparison to students in general education (e.g., U. S. Department of Education, 2018; Losen, Hodson, Keith, Morrison, & Belway, 2015; Raffaele Mendez & Knoff, 2003; Skiba, et al., 2011). Lastly, findings of this multi-level model support that students in classrooms of teachers who engaged in lower rates of positive to negative acknowledgements received a disproportionate amount of ODRs. Like in previous studies (e.g., Bradshaw, Mitchell, O’Bernnan & Leaf, 2010; Tobin & Vincent, 2011; Reinke, Herman, & Sotrmont., 2013), findings support the use of proactive classroom management strategies and ODR reduction for all students. Unlike previous findings related to school-wide procedures and practices (e.g., Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010), no significant associations were found between SWPBIS implementation fidelity and numbers of ODRs for students. This is likely due to the lack of variability in scores across schools and the small sample of schools.

In following the call for more studies observing the interrelation of culture, behavior, and classroom management (e.g., Fallon, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2012), a multi-level regression model that included the CRCMSE strength index score was conducted. Another regression model including the interaction between CRCMSE and student race/ethnicity was also conducted to answer the main research question. Following the review of teacher self-efficacy and classroom management self-efficacy literature (e.g., Bradshaw, Pas, Bottiani, Reinke, Rosenberg, 2018), it was hypothesized that lower perceived abilities to implement culturally responsive classroom management strategies would be a significant predictor of racial discipline disproportionality. First, the findings of this study do not support that CRCMSE influence the reported amount of student ODRs. There are two possible explanations for these outcomes related to existing literature. Initially, there are known differences between self-reported efficacy and the observable implementation of skills (e.g., Noell et al., 2005; Reinke, Hermann, & Stormont, 2013; Wheatley, 2005). Moreover, culturally responsive training targets bias by teaching people to explicitly learn of their cultural biases and cultural values. It is said that targeting explicit biases tend to be more resistant to change in comparison to implicit biases (e.g., Anand & Winters, 2008; McIntosh et al., 2014; Paluck & Green, 2009). Secondly, in exploring the moderating effects of CRCMSE on the racial discipline gap, the statistical findings of this study are inconclusive. The interaction between CRCMSE and African-American students showed a statistically significant positive association. African-American students received more ODRs as teachers reported higher CRCMSE scores. Nonetheless, in the same model, CRCMSE was significant in the opposite direction, stating that overall, the higher the CRCMSE scores, the fewer ODRs were reported for all students. The results are thought to be inconclusive as the analysis of

variance inflation factor (VIF) supports high multicollinearity in this model. No significant outcomes were found in conducting a different multi-level regression model exploring the association of CRCMSE with a variable combining African-American, Latino, and Multiracial students in one category (i.e., Non-White/Non-Asian variable). The VIF analysis also indicated likely unreliable outcomes. Though, the model including Non-White/Non-Asian showed less multicollinearity, it was still significant enough to not reliably interpret findings. Additionally, three separate OLS regressions with standard errors adjusted were conducted to understand the moderating relationship between CRCMSE and student ethnicity. In other words, each model analyzed the relationship for one specific ethnic group (i.e., African-American, Latino, and White). These OLS regressions with standard error adjusted were found to not be significant. The multi-level models were also conducted treating CRCMSE as a categorical and binary variable, but no significant nor logical findings were found. Only in an exploratory model looking at the influence of CRCMSE on the number of ODRs received by race/ethnic groups without accounting for control variable, significant CRCMSE findings were found for White students. This group received .02 less total ODRs and .01 less objective ODRs than the reference group.

In terms of the second research question, it was hypothesized that teacher expectations of students mediate the relationship between CRCMSE and racially associated discipline differences (van den Bergh et al., 2010), considering that low teacher expectations have been associated with poor academic outcomes (e.g., Jussim & Harber, 2005; van den Bergh et al., 2010) and low feelings of self-efficacy are associated with teacher stress and burnout (e.g., Dicke, Parker, Marsh, Kunter, Schmeck, & Leuten, 2014). Due to unreliable statistical interpretations of the interaction effect between

CRCMSE and the racial discipline gap, instead of a mediation analysis, this research explored the associations between teacher expectations and number of ODRs. A first multi-level model, including teacher expectations, supports that students whose teachers expect more of them academically and behaviorally have significantly fewer ODRs regardless of behavior category. This outcome supports the positive associations found between expectancy effects and better student achievement outcomes (Kuklinski & Weinstein, 2001; van den Bergh et al., 2010). Then, to better understand the moderating effects on the racial discipline gap, a multi-level model including teacher expectations and the interaction term between teacher expectations and student race/ethnicity was conducted to better understand the moderating effects on the racial discipline gap. This model also yielded high levels of multicollinearity as supported by a VIF analysis. Nonetheless, the coefficient for African-American students in a multi-level model that did not include teacher expectations was compared to a different model including the variable. Findings support that part of the ODR racial gap between African-American and White students is associated with teacher expectations. Though to the best of our knowledge, no study has directly explored teacher expectations and effects on behavioral outcomes as measured by ODRs, these results follow a similar relationship to prior connections found between teacher expectations and student academic outcomes (e.g., van den Bergh et al., 2010) where lower expectations are associated with detrimental achievement outcomes.

Further, OLS regression models with standard errors adjusted were conducted to further explore teacher expectations for African-American, Latino, and White students independently. This study found that for every unit that teacher expectations increased, the number of ODRs went down for Latino and White students. In comparing the

difference in associations, findings support that teacher expectations influence the amount of ODRs reported for Latino students more than White students. This work however is unable to tease apart if high teacher expectations is associated with a reduction of ODRs because of accurate perception of student abilities or due to an expectancy effect between lower expectations and more problematic behavior (e.g., Jussim & Harber, 2005). In other words, this study lacks the necessary analysis to differentiate if these “expectation gaps” are evidence of biases in teachers’ expectations or if they reflect accurate predictions of student academic and behavior. Moreover, these findings support an association between teacher expectations and number of ODRs as well as the associations being stronger for historically underserved groups (i.e., African-American and Latino students) are thought to yield preliminary evidence supporting the *Conceptual Model of Disproportionality* developed by McIntosh and colleagues (2014). In this model, teacher expectations are associated with implicit bias and are thought to be sensitive to capturing prejudiced attitudes (e.g., McIntosh et al., 2014).

The current research available on CRCM is limited, and evidence suggests that culturally responsive behavior management fosters positive interactions between students and teachers in the classroom and reduces negative ones (Fallon, O’Keeffe, & Sugai, 2012). In the present study, while the main questions focused on CRCMSE and teacher expectations, classroom management as measured by positive to negative ratio of teacher statements, was controlled for across models. The findings of this study evidenced a statistically significant negative relationship between classroom management and number of ODRs received by students. These results concur with empirical studies supporting a reduction of classroom disruptive behavior when higher rates of positive to negative praise was achieved by teachers (e.g., Reinke, Herman, & Stormont, 2013). The same

study found that teachers with higher use of positive to negative statements reported higher classroom management self-efficacy and lower emotional exhaustion. Though, this study did not test for such relationship, in general, the average scores for this group of teachers fell within similar parameters based on descriptive analyses. Additionally, maintaining higher positive to negative ratios has been linked to setting high expectations for students (Cook et al., 2017). Thus, making it a plausible explanation for why the overall tendency of the group was to rate students highly.

Limitations

Upon completion of this study, several limitations must be discussed before considering contributions to the field. A primary limitation to this study was selection of participants and sampling restriction. School districts were chosen by convenience sampling based upon prior established professional relationships that allowed access to participating sites with similar training on classroom management and SWPBIS, as well as developed discipline data systems. Such sampling impedes asserting causal statements by introducing unexpected factors (Emerson, 2015). That is, it is possible that systematic differences such as variance in school climate, classroom management support for teachers, professional development on culturally responsive practices among other uncontrolled factors (e.g., motivation to engage in culturally responsive classroom management) could also explain the observed association between CRCMSE and/or teacher expectations on ODR differences based on student race/ethnicity. Furthermore, the small number of participating sites and teachers as well as lack of diversity in student population across sites, restrict the generalization of findings to a larger population. Thus, a randomized trial, with a larger and representative sample, that measure independent variables at the end of the school year across multiple years would provide a stronger test

of whether controlled and unmeasured factors may relate to changes in number of ODRs per student race/ethnicity, or difference in discipline disparity rates.

An additional limitation restricting the generalization of results include the study design and sampling, the unequal sample size of teachers across school sites as well as differences in the sites' teaching models (i.e., co-teaching model or pairing of general and special education teachers in the classroom co-teaching model vs. one teacher per classroom model) affected the way in which the two independent variables were calculated for each classroom and sampling size needed for multi-level model analysis. Additionally, this study had a small sample of African-American students so one can't be sure the results are representative. A power analysis of the regression models that the sample of students would have to be too large (i.e., 30,000+) for practical purposes. Nonetheless, a larger sample is needed to capture a better representation of what might be going on among these variables of interest. In addition, outcome data did not differ much in the number of ODRs reported with most students not being referred to the office for a discipline infraction. While these numbers follow the expected percentages in schools implementing SWPBIS (Horner & Sugai, 2015), it is possible that the reduced range of ODRs in this small sample weakens the relationship among variables.

Further, when measuring self-reported efficacy beliefs, one must consider a variety of limitations related to measurement error. Those looking at teacher self-efficacy measurement agree that a clear understanding of what global and item-level self-efficacy scores represent are unclear to some extent (e.g., Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). That is, from a normative standpoint, it is challenging to answer whether a global self-efficacy score is good or high (e.g., Coladarci & Breton, 1997), or whether the score reflects cultural differences of the individual values of

confidence and humility (e.g., Ho & Hau, 2004). Additionally, studies looking at variation in teachers' self-efficacy beliefs found that a considerable percentage of what global scores represent vary when teaching various content areas and working with students who have different needs (e.g., Raudenbush et al., 1992; Ross, Cousins, & Gandella, 1996). Likewise, while items of a self-efficacy scale that begin with statements like "I am able to" facilitate interpretation of perceived abilities, one cannot answer what about the situation gets in the way of teachers feeling confident about the rated item (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, Skaalvik, & Skaalvik, 2007).

Another possible limitation related to measurement error may relate to teachers' experiencing efficacy confidence, which refers to strong confidence ratings despite doubts on individual teaching skills (Wheatly, 2005). Similarly, in using self-reports the presence of social desirability bias, or the possibility systematic error due to the respondent's desire to show themselves in the best light, must be considered (Fisher, 1993). In other words, it is possible that higher CRCMSE and/or teachers' expectation scores evidenced in this study might be explained by the presence of social desirability bias. While interpretation of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is a limitation of this study, this measure was chosen to capture individuals' subjective perception of their ability to influence classroom management change, similar to most studies observing teacher self-efficacy of different types of instructional practices (e.g., Reinke, Herman, & Stormont, 2013). In the attempt to address mono-method bias related to measurement of classroom management, and as recommended from previous self-efficacy work (Reinke, Herman, & Stormont, 2013), this study included observational recordings of key classroom management practices implemented in the classrooms by participating teachers.

Finally, the survey items used to assess teachers' expectations of student academic and behavior outcomes was adapted from the six-item scale constructed by van den Bergh and colleagues (2010) to measure academic expectations as defined by Dusek and Joseph (1983). This six-item scale was selected in this study as the result of prior research indicating strong internal consistency of the measure (Cronbach's $\alpha = .97$; Hornstra, Denessen, Bakker, van den Bergh, & Voeten, 2010; van den Bergh et al., 2010). Currently, no known validated measure assessing teachers' expectations of student behavior outcomes has been developed. Thus, as part of this study, three items observing student behavioral outcomes were added and administered to teachers. While this measure is not supported by previous validation attempts, Cronbach's alpha analyses of behavior outcomes by themselves ($\alpha = .83$), as well as all items including the academic outcome items ($\alpha = .93$), indicated high reliability among teacher responses. Thus, it was decided to use a combined approach to measure teacher expectation of students.

Contributions to Research

School administrators and educators face the challenge of knowing that a racial discipline gap exists, without enough clear guidance or cohesive evidence to completely eliminate it in schools (e.g., Gregory & Roberts, 2017; McIntosh et al. 2014). Advances in the work have led to the support for an authoritative approach to discipline practices and implementation of such through a framework that focuses on the development of consistent school policies and practices, as well as the development of system changes that influence the culture and context in schools, also known as SWPBIS (e.g., Bear, 2015; Horner & Sugai, 2015; Skiba & Rauch, 2015). Though such work continues to grow in schools nationwide and discipline reductions have been evidenced by the research of many leaders transforming the field (Gage, Whitford, & Katsiyannis, 2018),

more theoretically sound research of racial discipline disparity is needed to enact cohesive changes that translate into everyday classroom practices (e.g., Cook et al., 2017; Gregory & Roberts, 2017; Fallon et al., 2012; Larson, Bradshaw, Rosenberg, Day-Vines, 2018; McIntosh et al. 2014).

Leading researchers exploring the racial discipline gap found evidence supporting a difference in the way historically underrepresented groups of students, in particular African-American students as well as Latinos, are sent to the office when observing infractions by types of behaviors. The evidence shows that historically underserved groups of students are sent to the office more frequently than White peers for behaviors more open to subjective interpretation (e.g., defiance, disruptiveness, disrespect; Girvan et al. 2017; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). While this line of work has built initial support examining how bias infiltrates teacher decision-making when interpreting student behavior, or managing a disruption in the classroom (Girvan et al. 2017; McIntosh et al., 2014; Skiba et al., 2011), less empirical evidence exists explaining the connection between classroom management, CRCMSE and ODRs. A thorough search of the relevant literature suggests this study is the first known to empirically explore the moderating effects of CRCMSE and teacher expectations, and mediation effects of teacher expectations, in relation to the racial discipline gap as measured by ODRs.

Further, this work attempts to understand two malleable classroom variables thought to influence the way teachers handle an unexpected event (e.g., Cook et al., 2017; Cook et al., 2018; Gregory & Weinstein, 2008; Sprague, 2018) and are representative of two different cognitive processing systems an individual may experience within a context (McIntosh et al., 2014). While experts have explored the adaptation of culturally responsive pedagogical practices, the refinement of culturally responsive self-efficacy

(e.g., Fallon et al., 2018; Fallon et al., 2019) and building upon effective classroom consultation models (e.g., Bradshaw et al., 2018; Gregory et al., 2016), this study contributes to the literature by presenting initial empirical understanding of the way CRCMSE relates to the racial discipline gap as measured by ODRs. This study also expanded upon Siwatu, Putnam, Starker-Glass, and Lewis's (2015) initial validation efforts of the CRCMSE scale which lacked initial validity with a larger sample of in-service teachers. As previously reported, this study found no evidence supporting that CRCMSE strengthened or weakened the relationship between student race and difference in number of ODRs when controlling for multiple student, teacher, and school-level variables. Such findings raise questions regarding the construct of CRCMSE and the way it lines up with current measurements, though the lack of effects may be explained by statistical limitations.

Further, though not the primary focus of this study, exploratory analyses did provide initial support stating that higher positive to negative ratio of teacher statements is positively associated with the reduction of ODRs for all students. Though studies have connected teacher self-efficacy and classroom management as represented by higher positive to negative ratios (Reinke et al., 2013), this study captures the influence of these variables using ODRs as the behavioral metric. Additional exploratory analysis of models 3a, 3b, and 3c were conducted but defining classroom management differently. The first set of exploratory models used components of the Classroom-Management Check-Up (CCU) scoring rubric (Reinke, Herman, & Sprick, 2011) to transform the number of disruptions, opportunities to respond, correct academic responses, and positive to negative ratios in scores falling on a 1 to 5 Likert scale, before adding these altogether for each observation and then averaging a single score across participants. The second

exploratory models 3a, 3b, and 3c included all components of the CCU observation separately. Unique results were found when looking at classroom management and CRCMSE specifically and their influence on the number of ODRs received by White students. The model looking at the CCU score altogether as one supports a significant negative relationship, where White students receive less ODRs when classroom management scores were higher. The same moderating relationships were not found when looking at the same model for African-American and Latino students. Model 3c looking at classroom management components separately supported that higher rates of reprimand and more observed disruptions resulted in White students receiving 1.43 and .53 total ODRs, respectively. Results remained when looking at subjective and objective ODRs. Moreover, CRCMSE was found to be significant. For every one unit increase on the CRCMSE scale, White student received .008 less ODRs than the reference group. These exploratory findings suggest revising CRCMSE as a construct, and the possibility of such representing high-quality classroom management strategies and not distinctive culturally responsiveness techniques. Moreover, findings of this research question if direct observational measurement might best capture practices and dynamics occurring in the classroom environment, including culturally responsive strategies.

This work also questions the possibility of culturally responsive classroom management trainings being less receptive to change since biases tend to be targeted explicitly (e.g., Anand & Winters, 2008; McIntosh et al., 2014; Paluck & Green, 2009); the previous could possibly explain why the racial discipline gap was not influenced though teachers rated themselves highly on the CRCMSE scale. The collected data may also have implications in terms of research on professional development training for CRCM. Instead of the traditional model of one or two-day trainings on the topic, it may

be that the focus of the work could come from ongoing support with implementing practices and reflecting upon challenges faced (e.g., Kelm & McIntosh, 2012) as well as teachers' own belief systems that make them vulnerable to biased decisions (McIntosh et al. 2014).

Moreover, outcomes of this study included support for potentially targeting teacher expectations to address the racial discipline gap. Like some studies examining student academic outcomes (i.e., van der Bergh et al., 2010), this study is the first to study the relationship between teacher expectations influencing racial discipline disproportionality. This study provides initial evidence supporting that teacher expectations slightly explain a reduction of ODRs experienced by African-American students, suggesting that lower expectations were associated with a slight increase in ODR numbers for African-American students. Additionally, though no racial discipline disparity was evident for Latino students as measured by ODRs, the evidence suggests a significant difference in the influence teacher expectations have on the number of ODRs for Latino students in comparison to White students. This empirical evidence adds to the argument for teachers becoming more aware of negative beliefs (Gregory & Roberts, 2017), which aligns with the theory of change bias proposed by McIntosh and colleagues' (2014) conceptual model of disproportionality and bias. This model aims to describe conditions under which racial bias is most likely to influence school discipline decisions and highlights these circumstances as avenues for intervention. Even when teachers have the best intentions and consciously believe in egalitarian values (e.g., van Den Bergh et al., 2010), their actions may differ and could be influenced by implicit bias which is known to be a cognitive process more susceptible to change than explicit racial bias (e.g., Pronin, Gilovich, Ross, 2004). Bias research in the educational context shows that teacher

implicit bias, not explicit, predicts the extent of the achievement gap on standardized tests between groups of ethnically diverse students (van den Bergh et al., 2010). In other words, the negative effects of implicit bias on academic outcomes were shown to be mediated by lower teacher expectations of CLD students (van den Bergh et al., 2010). Though the current study did not measure implicit bias, it did capture teacher academic and behavioral expectations of students and yielded initial support linked with prior research on the racial discipline gap.

This study was the first to explore the relationship between CRCMSE and teacher expectations with ODRs by behavior type. This study categorized ODRs as subjectively or objectively defined, following the work of Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski (2017) which was validated by a panel of experts in the field (Greflund, McIntosh, Mercer, & May, 2014). In terms of looking at racial disproportionality by type of ODRs, African-American students were disproportionately referred more often to the office across behavioral infractions when compared to White students. These findings are consistent with previous studies in elementary school (Skiba et al., 2011). Additionally, though not part of the primary research questions for this study, there was evidence to support that the ODR discipline discrepancy experienced by students in special education and from households with lower socioeconomic income is mainly explained by subjective behavioral infractions (e.g., Girvan et al., 2017). These findings further support the hypothesis of biased judgement influencing decision-making in the classroom (Girvan et al., 2017; McIntosh et al., 2014; Skiba et al., 2002). Overall, these results provide empirical evidence to further the rationale for using alternative approaches to exclusionary school discipline practices, specifically by focusing on supporting teacher coping abilities and culturally responsive classroom management practices as well as

considering the implications of biased attitudes possibly influencing their expectations of students.

Future Directions

This work is the first study known to explore the associations between CRCMSE and teacher expectations with the racial discipline gap, as measured by ODRs. These associations were also explored looking at the type of behavioral infraction the ODRs represented. Though this study provided preliminary evidence for mediation effects of teacher expectations on the racial discipline gap as measured by office referrals, and explored the moderating effects of CRCMSE as well, this work is an initial attempt to provide empirical evidence to further a theoretical and cohesive way of addressing underlying bias that may contribute to racial disparity in school. Future research is needed to replicate and expand upon the findings in this study.

First, this study should be replicated with a larger sample of classrooms at the elementary level to clarify the moderating effects of CRCMSE on the racial discipline gap. Additionally, this work can be expanded by using a CRCMSE tool that approaches the construct multidimensionally. An example could be using a self-assessment tool such as the Assessment of Culturally and Contextually Relevant Supports (ACCRoS; Fallon et al., 2019) self-assessment, which measures culturally and contextually relevant classroom practices multidimensionally (i.e., instructional and behavioral/social practices, data-based decision-making, access to training and support systems, teachers' beliefs about delivering practices in the classroom), and compare if a more systematic approach thought to be part of a teacher's perception of culturally and contextually relevant strategies in the classroom yield similar associations to teacher decision-making as

measured by ODRs. Using such a tool in addition to the CRCMSE survey could also clarify if the outcomes of this study remain the same or if they may reflect measurement error. Another way to potentially expand this research is by including a measure of Teacher Self-Efficacy, in addition to the CRMSE, and explore if this construct yields associations to the racial discipline gap and would potentially be a better malleable variable to target with intervention. Such effort could help us understand if training efforts should focus on classroom management from a culturally responsive perspective, or should they globally target resiliency and ability to cope with unexpected circumstances faced in the classroom. Additionally, results of this findings questioned if the CRCMSE scale may better capture changes to the racial discipline gap in the context of an intervention study were pre and post data is collected.

The replication of this study with a more diverse population of teachers and students would also be helpful in clarifying the relationship of these variables. Further, expanding this work to the secondary school level would open exploration in settings where the racial discipline gap peaks and remains higher with more frequent and intense behavior problems reported, as well as suspension and expulsion. The examination of this work would be helpful to understand if the existing associations found in elementary school remains or not. Additionally, at a school level in which suspension and expulsion are found to a higher degree, the interaction of these variables can be further explained by looking at the decision-making of school administrators. In other words, researchers can explore if CRCMSE and teacher (and administrator) expectations strengthen or weakened the racial discipline gap as measured by suspension and expulsion.

APPENDIX A

TEACHER SURVEY RECRUITMENT LETTER

Teacher Participation Consent Letter

Online Survey Consent Form

You are being invited to participate in a research study titled “Teachers’ Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Scores: Relations to Teacher Expectations and Office Discipline Referrals. This study is being conducted by María R. Santiago-Rosario from the University of Massachusetts Amherst School Psychology Program as part of her doctoral dissertation requirement.

The purpose of this research study is to better understand how teachers’ perceptions of classroom practices influence discipline outcomes of students from various backgrounds and to develop ways to support teachers in implementing culturally responsive classroom management. If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to complete a set of questionnaires. In addition, you would also be agreeing to letting the principal investigator conduct three classwide observations of **approximately ten minutes each time**.

The questionnaires will ask to report socio-demographic and educational background characteristics, will assess how confident you feel implementing culturally responsive classroom management practices, will examine levels of emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishments at work, as well as eight yes or no items regarding academic and behavioral outcomes for all students in your classroom. **Completion of the questionnaire and observation processes will take approximately one hour and thirty minutes.**

Your participation may provide insight into teacher’s self-efficacy perceptions in regards to culturally responsive classroom management, school discipline, and ways school consultants could collaborate with educators in supporting culturally responsive classroom management and reflective practices.

We believe there are no known risks associated with this research study; however, as with any research online activity, the risk of a breach of confidentiality is always possible. To the best of our ability your answers in this study will remain confidential by minimizing any risks. Only the principal investigator will have access to the consent forms and answers to all questionnaires. In regards to the student academic and behavioral expectation questionnaire, the FERPA approved data-analyst of the district will have access to answers for the purpose of de-identifying student-level information before providing Ms. Santiago-Rosario with access to teacher answers.

All digital data files (online consent form, questionnaire database) will be stored on Ms. Santiago-Rosario’s password protected computer. Answers to both documents will be kept separately on two passwords protected excel spreadsheets. Classroom observations tools will be identified using participant codes to impede tacking back to identifying participant information. Classroom observation tools will be scanned and saved on Ms. Santiago-Rosario’s password protected computer. Afterwards, these documents will be shredded. All materials will be stored for five years past the completion of the study. After this time, all materials will be destroyed.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you can withdraw at any time. If you have further questions about this project or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact me by phone (787-388-9709) or by email (msantiagoros@educ.umass.edu). You may also contact the principal investigator's academic advisor, Dr. Sara Whitcomb, via email at swhitcomb@educ.umass.edu. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact the University of Massachusetts Amherst Human Research Protection Office (HRPO) at (413) 545-3428 or humansubjects@ora.umass.edu.

By clicking "I agree" below you are indicating that you are at least 18 years old, have read and understood this consent form and agree to participate in this research study. If you consent and are chosen to participate in this study you will get a \$40 Amazon gift card for completing all steps to this project. Please print a copy of this page for your records.

Please provide me with your name and email address below. This information will allow the principal investigator to create a unique identifier for each participant.

- I agree to participate**
- I do not agree to participate**

APPENDIX B
SURVEYS ADMINISTERED TO TEACHERS

Section 1. Sociodemographic Questionnaire

Please read each statement and answer the questions carefully.

1. Age: _____
2. Gender
 - Male
 - Female
 - Prefer not to say
 - Prefer to self-describe (please specify): _____
3. Ethnicity
 - White
 - African-American or African American
 - American Indian or Alaska Native
 - Asian
 - Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
 - Latino or Hispanic
 - Other _____
4. Years of teaching experience: _____
5. Highest level of education:
 - Bachelor's degree
 - Completed some postgraduate degree
 - Master's degree
 - Doctoral degree
6. How many years have you worked in the current institution as a teacher: _____

Section 2. Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Self-Efficacy Scale

Q1 Directions: Rate how confident you are in your ability to successfully accomplish each of the tasks listed below. Each task is related to classroom management. Please rate your degree of confidence by recording a number from 0 (no confidence at all) to 100 (completely confident). Remember that you may use any number between 0 and 100.

I am able to:

	0 No Confidence at all	10	20	30	40	50 Moderately Confident	60	70	80	90	100 Completely Confident
1. Assess students' behaviors with the knowledge that acceptable school behaviors may not match those that are acceptable within a student's home culture.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Use culturally responsive discipline practices to alter the behavior of a student who is being defiant.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Create a learning environment that conveys respect for the cultures of all students in my classroom.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Use my knowledge of students' cultural backgrounds to create a	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<p>culturally compatible learning environment.</p> <p>5. Establish high behavioral expectations that encourage students to produce high quality work.</p> <p>6. Clearly communicate classroom policies.</p> <p>7. Structure the learning environment so that all students feel like a valued member of the learning community.</p> <p>8. Use what I know about my students' cultural background to develop an effective learning environment.</p> <p>9. Encourage students to work together on classroom tasks, when appropriate.</p> <p>10. Design the classroom in a way that communicates respect for diversity.</p> <p>11. Use strategies that will hold</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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students accountable for producing high quality work.										
12. Address inappropriate behavior without relying on traditional methods of discipline such as office referrals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. Critically analyze students' classroom behavior from a cross-cultural perspective.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. Modify lesson plans so that students remain actively engaged through- out the entire class period or lesson.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. Redirect students' behavior without the use of coercive means (i.e., consequences or verbal reprimand).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. Restructure the curriculum so that every child can succeed, regardless of their academic history.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. Communicate with students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

using expressions that are familiar to them.											
18. Personalize the classroom so that it is reflective of the cultural background of my students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. Establish routines for carrying out specific classroom tasks.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. Design activities that require students to work together toward a common academic goal.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. Modify the curriculum to allow students to work in groups.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22. Teach students how to work together.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. Critically assess whether a particular behavior constitutes misbehavior.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24. Teach children self-management strategies that will assist them in regulating their classroom behavior.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

25. Develop a partnership with parents from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26. Communicate with students' parents whose primary language is not English.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27. Establish two-way communication with non-English speaking parents.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
28. Use culturally appropriate methods to relate to parents from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
29. Model classroom routines for English Language Learners.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
30. Explain classroom rules so that they are easily understood by English Language Learners.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
31. Modify aspects of the classroom so that it matches	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

aspects of students' home culture.											
32. Implement an intervention that minimizes a conflict that occurs when a students' culturally based behavior is not consistent with school norms.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
33. Develop an effective classroom management plan based on my understanding of students' family background.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
34. Manage situations in which students are defiant.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
35. Prevent disruptions by recognizing potential causes for misbehavior.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 3. Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educator Survey

Instructions: On the following pages are 22 statements of job-related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, write the number “0” (zero) in the space before the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by writing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way. An example is shown below.

Example:

How often
0-6

Statement:

1. _____ I feel depressed at work.

If you never feel depressed at work, you would write the number “0” (zero) under the heading “How often.” If you rarely feel depressed at work (a few times a year or less), you would write the number “1.” If your feelings of depression are fairly frequent (a few times a week but not daily), you would write the number “5.”

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Teacher Expectation Survey

Please complete one survey for each student in your classroom.

Mark only one oval at a time.

- Student ID 1
- Student ID 2
- Student ID 3

Rate the academic and behavioral performance of the identified student by recording a number from 1 (Not applicable) to 5 (Totally Applicable).

	0	1	2	3	4	5
1. He or she is an intelligent student.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. He or she is a student who behaves in accordance to school behavioral expectations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. He or she will probably have a good school report at the end of this school year.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. He or she performs well in school.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. He or she is able to follow classroom rules.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. He or she is a smart student.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. He or she will probably have a successful school career.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. He or she is able to modify their behavior when asked by the teacher.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. He or she will probably have a high score on the final elementary school achievement tests.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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