

EVALUATION OF INTERVENTION PROGRAMS
DESIGNED TO ADDRESS HIGH SCHOOL RACIAL CONFLICTS

by

Gerardine St. Jean
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Committee:

Wayne Boy

Chair of Committee

David Stathis

Paul Lee

Angela Rayburn

Graduate Program Coordinator

Sara Lee

Director,
Institute for Conflict Analysis
and Resolution

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By

Gerardine St. Jean
Masters of Arts
Indiana University of Pennsylvania, 1999

Director: Dr. Wallace Warfield, Professor
Institute for Conflict Analysis and Resolution

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Fairfax, VA

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ABSTRACT

EVALUATION OF INTERVENTION PROGRAMS DESIGNED TO ADDRESS HIGH SCHOOL RACIAL CONFLICTS

Gerardine St. Jean, Ph.D.

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Dissertation Director: Dr. Wallace Warfield

This dissertation research examines racial conflict—one of the contributors to school violence—and effective intervention programs. This dissertation study presents research- and theory-based integrated intervention programs (a synthesized program with conflict resolution and multicultural components) as an effective resolution to high school racial conflicts.

Some schools in the United States have created a database that lists effective intervention programs for specific school problems, but most of the programs only deal with general violence and violence related to substance abuse—none identify effective approaches to racial conflicts at schools. This dissertation research is a unique first step to look at effective techniques and identify appropriate programs to deal with racial conflicts to these databases. It tests the following hypotheses:

1. Educational intervention programs that encompass assimilated multicultural and conflict resolution training contents (integrated programs) in its integrated lessons are more effective at impacting the reduction of racial incidents at high schools.
2. High schools that do not utilize intervention programs with a combination of multicultural and conflict resolution training contents but only rely on strict policies and practices (e.g., laws and rigid discipline) are most effective at reducing the number of racial incidents in high schools.

Lastly, the dissertation study describes the development of a model that schools can use to assess their needs and determine steps to implement a suitable intervention program.

This research project is a summative evaluation study that uses multiple methods (survey, experiment, and case study) and encompasses a selection of high schools in Pennsylvania that meet the criteria of the study. Principals, teachers, and parents from selected schools are the key participants in the study.

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the highest priorities of schools is the prevention of violence, from minor (bullying) to major, blatant (bloodshed, homicide) violence and racial conflict-as one element that influences the school violence problem. Race is an anthropological and biological term, which refers to genetically based differences between people. According to Krogman's (1945) definition of race, which still holds today, it is "a subgroup of people possessing a definite combination of physical characters, of genetic origin, the combination of which to varying degrees distinguishes the sub-group from other sub-groups of mankind" (Krogman, p. 49). Later, Casas (1984) clarifies the meaning of race to include it "does not have behavioral, psychological, or social implications" (Helms, p. 49). However, the way people believe, feel, and think about identifiable racial groups can impact individuals' interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships (Helms, p. 49). Often race and ethnicity are mistakenly used interchangeably as if they mean the same thing. Casas (1984) explains ethnicity "as a group classification of individuals who share a unique social and cultural heritage (customs, language, religion, and so) passed from

generation to generation” (p. 787). Members of different racial groups can belong to the same ethnic group; members of different ethnic groups can belong to the same racial group (Helms, p. 4).

People from different races and ethnicity tend to associate social meaning with each group’s characteristics. There is a propensity to assume that certain kinds of behavioral qualities are correlated with the physical characteristics, language, and culture of groups. Some of these qualities are considered good and bad or desirable and undesirable. The tendency to associate positive and negative images with groups causes exclusion, prejudice, stereotypes, racism, dislike and hate for outgroups. Racial conflict is a manifestation of racism, prejudice, and stereotypes. Existing tension between racial and ethnic groups are worse under conditions where resources are viewed as scarce and one group sees another as having more opportunities such as access to more teacher attention, special projects, or programs at school. This leads to tension between groups. Although there are distinctive differences between racial and ethnic conflicts, concepts used to explain sources and solutions of ethnic conflict are used to expand the understanding of racial conflict in this paper.

In the past, schools were shielded from the violence that took place in the communities and the nation. The primary focus of schools was to teach students basic knowledge as preparation for the working world. Now schools have transformed from simply preparing students for specific jobs and trades based on societal needs to child-centered educational approaches designed to meet the developmental needs of the whole

student. The following questions are used as a guide to lead educational changes with the intent to develop a healthy whole body for each student.

- a) What do children need to develop and succeed in school and in life?
- b) How is each child different and how does each student's uniqueness influence what and how he or she learns?
- c) How can adult stakeholders in schools work with families, community agencies, and service providers to render support for children and best opportunities for them to learn and live healthy lives?
- d) How can schools serve as a resource to address the multiple and interrelated physical, mental health, educational, and psychosocial needs of children?

Comer (1996) arranged the answers to these questions into six categories:

1. Physical. Schools aim to provide students with a safe environment that is conducive for learning and individual growth. A child cannot effectively learn without being sound in body and feeling a sense of security.

2. Language. Schools focus on helping children develop written and spoken language skills. Schools view language as an essential aspect of children being able to maintain good physical and psychological health. Language is seen as the vehicle that allows children to express their needs, their viewpoint, and engage in meaningful and constructive conversations with others. Comer (1996) asserted that success in school and

life largely depends on an individual's ability to communicate effectively through writing and speaking.

3. Ethical. Schools work to teach students to develop good decision-making skills. This involves helping children learn to make good judgments, especially in problematic situations.

4. Social. Schools focus on promoting students' ability to interact socially with peers and others. The ability to problem-solve in social situations and negotiate constructively is the capability to reduce incidences of violence in schools and communities, and make younger people and others much safer and more secure in schools and communities.

5. Psychological. The psychological pathway goal involves helping students develop healthy self-esteem and self-worth. This includes helping students shape a positive self-image and perception of others.

6. Cognitive. The cognitive pathway focuses on providing children with the knowledge and skills that enable them to think critically and to be creative. Schools aim to help students acquire effective problem-solving skills and the ability to apply concepts of learning in a variety of contexts.

Currently, states such as Pennsylvania are mandating schools to consider and draw concepts from assorted fields as a tool to help improve levels of learning and scores on standard tests. When the school's budget permits, administrators try to implement more art and language as part of the curriculum, for instance. The belief is that a

curriculum with a focus on art and language helps students learn better. This is related to Gardners' (1999) theory of multiple intelligence, which Comer captures in his six categories (physical, language, ethical, social, psychological, and cognitive). Most people agree that Comer's six categories are *good* goals but disagreements take place when discussions begin about how to reach these goals. For instance, teachers are asked to play a more active role in developing students in these six categories. This often takes place in the planning of class work, class projects, homework, teacher-student interactions, additional teacher training/workshops, and/or involvement in extra school projects such as peer mediation training. However, this is a responsibility that some teachers do not want but it has been imposed on them by state mandates (E. Zellner, personal communication, August 1, 2003).

Most parents and members of communities believe that schools are or should be a place where children develop intellectually and socially. It is believed that the purpose of school is to "develop self-reliant, responsible, caring, and contributing members of society" (Sautner, 2001). Schools play a supportive role to families and communities in helping students develop desirable personal characteristics and the ability to make ethical decisions. Schools help students establish responsibility for their learning and behavior, develop a sense of community belonging, and acquire an understanding of community values and how they relate to personal values (Sautner, 2001). It is a place where students are most exposed to diverse groups and have an opportunity to interact with individuals that belong to another group. This sort of interaction increases cultural awareness and community. School violence, regardless of its form or type, interferes

with the orderly operation and safety of schools that aim to meet the goals of parents and members of communities. School violence inhibits learning and creates a climate of anxiety, which can lead to fear and higher rates of absences and violent behaviors (Chandler, et al., 1998). The tendency of children engaging in violence leads to violent adults (Haynes, 1998).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section reviews published literature by scholars and researchers on the subject matter of racial conflict. The purpose of the section is to provide knowledge and ideas written about high school racial conflict and violence. In this section, the reader will find definitions of key words, analysis of the four major types of intervention programs, and background information on the method used to conduct research on the problem of high school racial conflict and solutions to the problem. The reader can look forward to learning the meaning of key vocabularies pertaining to violence and racial conflict as they are used in the educational setting, the importance of addressing the problem of racial conflict, the intervention programs to address the issues, the clear understanding of evaluation studies and its tools.

Definitions

The following definitions are identified to provide a uniform understanding of the terms used in the dissertation case study. The definitions derive from the Pennsylvania Department of Education and Title 18 Crime Code.

1. ***Aggravated assault*** is an unlawful attack by one person against another person in which the offender uses a weapon or displays it in a threatening manner, or the victim

suffers severe or aggravated bodily injury involving broken bones, loss of teeth, internal injury, severe lacerations, or loss of consciousness. This also encompasses assault with disease (e.g. when the offender knows he/she is infected with a deadly disease) against another person by biting, spitting, etc. Aggravated assault includes attack resulting in serious injury, use of a weapon, attack on school employee, student or other person, and reckless endangering.

2. **Arson** is the unlawful and intentional damage or attempt to damage any real or personal property by fire or incendiary device. An example of arson is setting a fire in the gym.

3. **Bullying** is when one or more students repeatedly expose a student to negative behavior. There are three types of bullying, which are direct bullying, indirect bullying, and relational aggression.

Direct bullying involves hitting, pushing, kicking, pinching, or restraining another by physical contact. It can also include words, threatening, taunting, teasing, and name-calling.

Indirect bullying includes making faces or dirty gestures, intentionally excluding someone from a group, spreading rumors, or refusing to comply with another person's wishes.

Relational aggression describes behaviors that undermine or destroy relationships and is often used when identifying “female” bullying.

Bullying is not restricted to a certain gender or racial/ethnic group. One person or a group of people against another individual or group can carry out bullying behaviors.

There are two components that constitute bullying, which are: (1) There is intent to harm and (2) There is intensity and duration.

4. ***Burglary*** is unlawful entry into a building or other structure with the intent to commit a felony or theft. It is not necessary that force be used in gaining entry, neither is it necessary that property loss occurs.

5. ***Fighting*** is a student confrontation with another student. It includes physical contact, which may result in physical restraint or injury or damage to property. The difference between fighting and bullying is the physical contact is mutual.

6. ***Harassment*** is an act that entails intent to harass, annoy or alarm another person. Harassment can subject the victim to physical contact, or attempts or threats to physically harm them; the harasser may follow the other person in or about a public place or places; or the harasser engages in repeated acts or a gross behavior that serves no legitimate purpose but to make the victim feel uncomfortable or hurt the victim.

7. ***Homicide*** occurs when a person intentionally, knowingly, recklessly, or negligently causing the death of a human being. Homicide is classified as murder, voluntary manslaughter, or involuntary manslaughter.

8. ***Persistently Dangerous School*** consists of any public elementary, secondary, or charter school that meets any of the following Pennsylvania's criteria in the most recent school year and in one additional year of the two years prior to the most recent school year.

Determination of persistently dangerous schools

Any public school that meets the following criteria for the most recent school year and in one additional year of the two years prior to the most recent school year:

1. For a school whose enrollment is 250 or less, at least five dangerous incidents
2. For a school whose enrollment is 251 to 1,000, a number of dangerous incidents that represents at least 2% of the school's enrollment
3. For a school whose enrollment is over 1,000, a number of 20 or more dangerous incidents.

Offenses/incidents

1. Weapons possession incidents resulting in arrest, including guns, knives or other weapons
2. Violent incidents resulting in arrest, including homicide, kidnapping, robbery, sexual offenses and assaults as reported on the PDE-360 report.

10. ***Racial/Ethnic Intimidation*** is malicious intent toward another student or property based on race, color, religion or national origin. It may be categorized as a hate crime.

11. *Robbery* is taking or attempting to take anything of value under confrontational circumstances from the control, custody or care of another person by force or threat of force or violence and/or by putting the victim in fear of immediate harm.

12. *Sexual Related Offenses* encompasses rape, indecent assault (committing a sexual act in the presence of a child under the age of 16), and sexual assault.

13. *Sexual Harassment* is discrimination against a student based on the student's submission or rejection of sexual advances and/or requests or creating an atmosphere of harassment based on sexual issues/activity. This includes students and staff.

14. *Victim* means the student/person who is experiencing the offense. The offenses entail all of the above behaviors (bullying, robbery, assault, theft, racial/ethnic intimidation, harassment, sexual inappropriate behavior, and murder).

Review of Literature

Level of Violence As A Problem In High Schools

Reviews of literature on the rate of violence in schools showed a discrepancy. The U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics showed that the serious violent crime rate in American schools has decreased during 1992 and 2001 school years.

However, there have been spurts of increased violence during the nine school years (1992-2001). During the school years of 2000 and 2001, for instance, there was an increase of violence in schools. The National School Safety Center's School Associated Violent Deaths Report (2004) showed that there has been a drastic decrease in the number of homicides in U.S. schools during 1992-1993 to 2002-2003 school years on school property. However, there was an increase in the number of homicides during the 2001-2002 to 2002-2003 school years. Based on the two reports, initially the rate of violence was high and then drastically decreased. But, violence has increased in some areas and has caused concern in some communities. In addition, the shocking mass shootings and killings by students such as the Columbine murders alerted the nation about the risk of violence on school property. Incidents like this provoked fear and outrage in America. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2003), high school students are still at high risk for violence. High school students are at risk of being both victims and perpetrators of violence. The next paragraph highlights some issues and findings discovered by the National Institute of Justice (1998), National School Safety Center's School Associated Violent Deaths Report (2004), and National Center for Injury Prevention and Control (2004).

Although the National Institute of Justice and National School Safety Center's School Associated Violent Deaths Report (2004) indicated that there was a decrease in violence-related behaviors among high school students during 1991-2003, the National Center for Injury Prevention and Control (2004) indicated that students increasingly were likely to miss school because they felt "too unsafe to attend". One in 10 high school

students reported being threatened or injured with a weapon on school property. According to the National Institute of Justice (1998), a few juveniles reported they carried weapons to gain respect from their peers, which was a form of status enhancement. For the majority of respondents, the primary reason for carrying or possessing firearms was for protection and not for criminal activity or status enhancement. In another study, there were 730 respondents. In the study, twenty-nine percent of the students possessed some type of gun. Eight percent of the respondents had easy access to 3 or more types of guns. Six percent of the students reported carrying a gun outside their home (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2004).

The previous paragraph demonstrated that there has been an increase in weapon carrying and physical fighting and aggressiveness such as bullying on school property, which is attracting attention. This includes years from 2002 to the present. Although there has been an overall decrease in violence during the last 2 decades, there were some increases of violence in particular areas such as racial/ethnic conflicts, bullying and weapon carrying since 2001 to the present. This has led to implementation of more intervention policies and programs in schools. In addition to the gross acts of violence, for example, there are other deep-rooted issues that need to be addressed in U.S. schools. The other issue relevant to the case study is racial conflict in high schools. Later, there will be a description of literature written on racial relations in America.

In sum, there has been a drastic decrease of school violence during the early 1990s to 2001. However, there has been an increase in the level of violence since 2001. This may be attributed to the September 11 (2001) attack, Iraq war, which may have

negatively increased racial tensions, economic clashes, or a combination of the issues among communities. More recent writings indicated a concern with various types of school violence that takes place such as bullying, sexual harassment, rape, etc. However, this study focuses on the racial tensions that exist in high schools. The subsequent section describes the literature on racial conflicts in high schools.

Risk Of Racial Conflicts In High School

Recent research on diversity in high schools indicated that there is a constant change in the student population. Over the years, demographics of high school students have changed and become more diverse in the classrooms. Numerous studies have reported a steady rise in the number of diverse cultural backgrounds of students in high school classrooms, which is a reflection of their communities through the United States (Dieker & Voltz, 2002). But, the makeup of teachers has remained the same. Teachers do not reflect their student population. There is a “continuing lack of diversity among teachers” (Lawrence, 1998; Stanley, 2000). Both students and staff are not prepared to deal with other groups, accept a community that is constantly changing, and becoming more diverse. Researchers noted that the number of minorities will continue to grow. Cheri (2002) predicted that the public school enrollment of minority students will increase to 40 percent by the year of 2020. According to the Division K Newsletter of American Education Research Association (1999), the projection was a 50 percent increase by the year 2035. The findings of various studies conducted on diversity show

that there is a consistent change in the student body, which is diversity. But some of the research writings contrasted on whether the change is being handled well by students. Most researchers and scholars indicated that students are not adjusting to the changing diverse background of students.

According to John O'Neil (1993), some students and school personnel are having difficulty coping with the change in the population. O'Neil also noted that "racial discord is becoming an accepted fact of life despite more interracial contacts and friendships among high school students". During a study period, between December 15, 1991 and February 15, 1992, nearly 120 racial incidents were reported across 25 different states. The Southern Poverty Law Center conducted a study and found more than 270 incidents of hate crimes in schools and colleges during 1992 (Klanwatch, 1994). In Berkeley, California, after racist leaflets were distributed on high school property, several white students were randomly selected and beaten by other students. In 2006, one of the high schools in Pennsylvania that chooses to remain anonymous had a White student and a Black student engage in a fight. Most of the students and parents reported the conflict was based on racial issues. This racial conflict between the two students spiraled and, then, involved other students. The conflict escalated to become a school wide problem. There were Black parents who reported that their students were threatened and told not to attend school on Blackout Friday. Blackout Friday is allegedly the Friday when the Black students were not allowed to attend school or they would face the risk of getting *beat up*. The anonymous high school responded to the community's outrage by denying the allegations of a Blackout Friday. Later, the school announced in the media that the

administrators resolved the issues. However, there were no reports of any change by the parents or community. The high school refused to answer any questions relating to the matter. On a statewide level, the Pennsylvania Department of Education documented that racial and ethnic intimidation has increased as the number of minority students continue to grow. Yet, some Pennsylvania schools denied that the racial tension even exists in their schools (WGAL Local News, Channel 3, 2007).

In sum, diversity is growing in classrooms and schools are not prepared to effectively handle the change. This does not only apply to students but staff too. Racial tension is rising as the demographics change. As a result, racial conflicts are occurring but not receiving serious consideration. The rise of the problem is being ignored and denied by some schools but both federal and state governments take the issue seriously and insist that schools are better prepared to deal with the changes or they face the risk of more serious injuries of students and teachers and more damage to property such as the Columbine shooting if deep-rooted issues are not properly addressed. In order to meet challenges of the rising racial tension and its violence in multicultural school settings, various interventions have been designed and implemented as an attempt to address the issue. The succeeding paragraphs describe the research findings on zero tolerance, conflict resolution, multicultural, and integrated interventions.

Most Employed Interventions- Zero Tolerance, Conflict Resolution, Multicultural, and Integrated Programs

There are four interventions programs mostly used in high schools to resolve racial conflicts.

Zero Tolerance Policy

Rose and Gallup (2004) have noted that school discipline has been a concern of parents, teachers, and general public for the last 35 years. Recent high profile school shootings and racial conflicts have created the perception that schools are not safe, which has led some school districts to implement zero tolerance policies to address the disciplinary problems (Brady, 2002). The intent of zero tolerance policies is to prevent, address, and stop serious misbehaviors by students. In cases involving schools that employ equal and consistent enforcement of rules, zero tolerance shows positive effects on addressing inappropriate behaviors pertaining to violence and racial conflicts. However, Skiba and Peterson (2000), and other scholars, have criticized the zero tolerance approach. These critics claim that zero tolerance is not typically enforced equally, fairly, and consistently among the various groups of students. According to the National School Safety Services (2006), also known as Services, educators are more lax than rigid with the enforcement of the school rules. The Services reported that “many educators bend over backwards to give students more breaks than they will ever receive out on the streets of our society and in the workplace.” In schools where zero tolerance is

implemented, Leone (2003) noted that “disciplinary practices exclude students across racial and ethnic groups, but they are of particular concern for African American students, who continue to be disproportionately suspended, expelled, detained, and incarcerated.” For instance, reports show suspension rates for Black students to be 2 and 3 times higher than suspension rates for White students at the elementary, middle, and high school levels (National School Safety Services, 2006). Researchers have found consistent evidence of significant minority overrepresentation in office referrals (Cooley, 1995; Costenbader & Markson, 1998; Skiba et al., 2002, 2003). This form of discriminating enforcement perpetuates the perception of the problem of racial tension in some schools.

In sum, zero tolerance has been implemented most frequently to address the school issue of violence and racial conflict. Research found that the zero tolerance approach does not sufficiently address violence and racial conflict. This solution is not being enforced regularly, which creates and maintains the racial tension in participating schools. More schools have selected other intervention models to try to address the issues. The following section briefly discusses conflict resolution programs.

Conflict Resolution Programs

Some schools solely rely on punishment instead of self-discipline. However, implementing conflict resolution curriculums encourages students to engage in dialogues about their interests, feelings, and needs by working collaboratively to find win-win solutions to conflicts. In school settings, conflict resolution programs provide students

with the opportunity to learn skills, knowledge, and ability to constructively respond to conflicts (A California Resource Guide, 2003). Effective conflict resolution training programs push students to comply with school rules without external coercion and promote the development of self-discipline in individuals to be internally motivated to comply with behavior expectations.

According to Bigler (1999), effective conflict resolution programs need to be theory and research-based. Bigler, and other scholars, had indicated that most successful school based intervention programs are *comprehensive* by including multiple components from various training materials. Most of the efficient programs had a short-term impact on the problem (Kivel, 2000). Although the conflict resolution programs were effective in some schools, it only focused and reduced general fights and arguments over minor issues such as cutting in line or stealing someone's boyfriend. According to Kivel (2000), if conflict resolution training on the subjects of race, gender, and class difference is not logically developed it may be detrimental to students and cause more harm than good to students.

In sum, conflict resolution programs have been found to be effective but designed to deal with conflicts on a general level in schools. The program is best used for conflicts dealing with bargaining and negotiations. They do not educate students on ways to address their deep feelings of personal biases such as anger, jealousy, and hate toward an individual because of their race. The subsequent section discusses multicultural programs.

Multicultural Programs

Multicultural programs were designed to address issues relating to racism. Many educators have also asserted that there is evidence linking multicultural programs and improved academic learning. Multicultural programs take a different perspective and approach from conflict resolution programs. Most activities of multicultural programs consist of lessons arranged around organizing particular events, such as the birthday of Martin Luther King, Jr., Kwanza, and Chinese New Year. The intent of many of the multicultural programs is to remedy ethnocentrism in the traditional curriculum; to build understanding among racial and cultural groups and to gain appreciation of different cultures; to defuse intergroup tensions and conflicts; and, to make the core curriculum relevant to cultural experiences, cultural traditions, and historical contributions for the nation's diverse population (www.ericdigests.org, accessed June 28, 2007). However, ineffective multicultural programs can also build on negative feelings, attitudes, and behaviors toward outgroup members. This is attributed to the lack of instructor training, clarity of presented information, and follow-up (e.g.: reinforcement of lessons and evaluation). There are a small number of findings to demonstrate effective multicultural programs due to the small sample size of the studies (Bigler, 1999). Most schools refuse to participate in these types of research in fear the findings will shed a negative appearance on their organization.

In sum, multicultural programs have good intentions which are to change negative racial attitudes and behaviors in schools. However, its positive intent does not always lead to positive impacts. In fact, Bigler found that the program could exacerbate racist

attitudes and behaviors if the selected program is not comprehensive, research and theory based to ensure a good fit with the school.

Integrated Programs

As mentioned in previous paragraphs, Bigler (1999) noted that most interventions are ineffective due to the lack of sophistication in the design of the approaches. Bigler described that the ideal effective intervention consists of various facets based on theory and research and skillfully compiled and built into a program. The provision of integrated interventions in school settings promised a trend, which offered a coordinated approach that serviced the various needs of youths at risk of violence, abuse of substances, and so on by providing students with a full range of necessary services (Lowenthal, 1996). Other researchers affiliated with the School-Based Conflict Resolution Programs (2003) support Bigler's assumption. These researchers believe that the most efficient school-based interventions programs are "comprehensive" in that they include multiple program components (School-Based Conflict Resolution Programs, 2003). Schools often implement one intervention program at a time, which concentrates on only one problem. Later, schools build other components into the initial intervention program to address other issues such as deep-rooted concerns and teach skills to deal with the problems associated with the concerns.

The phrase *integrated programs* is used to refer to a number of approaches used in schools. For instance, in some schools, conflict resolution is integrated into the entire school's instructional and behavior management systems. Another example of the

program is to combine conflict resolution programs with academic or an elective curriculum, citizenship and law studies, peer education classes, educational reform efforts, multicultural education, school safety and violence prevention efforts, anger management programs, classroom management strategies, schoolwide discipline policies and procedures, or cooperative learning and critical thinking strategies. However, in this case study, an integrated program is an intervention that consists of synthesized multicultural and conflict resolution components. This integrated program introduces skills and techniques to manage racial conflict and violence.

Although the intent of the integrated programs is to address issues that students are facing at their schools, there are several barriers to the development of the intervention. The barriers surrounding the implementation of integrated programs derive from cultural traditions that require new roles for schools, improved attitudes and more training of school personnel, and less financial constraints in the education field. First, school boards have traditionally separated their schools from other community and governmental agencies. Overtime, teachers have come to view themselves as solely educators and have formed “negative ideas” about incorporating social services at schools (Ooms & Owens, 1991; Lowenthal, 1996). Second, this newest model (integrated programs) requires additional training for teachers in order to participate in their school’s integrated service. This new model, integrated conflict resolution and multicultural programs, change courses and education programs in order to better prepare educators to teach diverse students. Kirst (1991) indicated that teacher education curriculums need to better prepare future teachers to educate diverse children. Part of

this new curriculum should require teachers to reflect and identify personal biases and learn different methods to address them or learn ways to prevent them from interfering with their job. This step will help future teachers to be aware of their own prejudices, which can prevent their personal biases from having a negative impact in a classroom. The intent of the new education curriculum for teachers is to help them address and minimize biases they may have toward specific student groups. Third, financial constraints also have been barriers in the development of more integrated programs at schools. Resources are limited in schools and school districts. Thus, issues that schools deem as imperative attain attention and funds such as drugs, alcohol, and tobacco abuse. Many educators feel constrained and more adverse to the idea of allocating scarce funds to the provision of more social services at high schools. This is a result of the fear that the new integrated programs will take funds away from other educational programs, which are considered higher priority (Ooms & Owen, 1991).

In sum, the concept of integrated programs is to deal with all of the dominant problems students currently facing, which may interfere with academic accomplishments. The goal of the programs is to reduce violence and racial conflicts. However, there are barriers to the development of the program. Yet, critics indicate that the lack of development of the mentioned interventions create more problems than help schools. Bigler, for example, claims that schools need to take the time to assess their problem(s), match a program to a school, and evaluate its effects. The implementation of a program should be based on findings of theories and research.

3. DEFINITION OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND RACIAL CONFLICT

The term *violence* has been defined in a variety of ways. Graham and Gurr (1969) define violence as “behavior designed to reflect personal injury on people or damage property” (Hasselt and Hersen, 1999, p. 20-21). Hasselt and Hersen (1999) depict violence to mean “intentional use of force” (p. 20-21). According to the U.S. Department of Education’s School Survey on Crime and Safety (1999-2000), *school violence* is an unacceptable social behavior ranging from aggression to violence that threatens or harms others. The definition goes beyond highly publicized incidents of mass bloodshed to include acts such as bullying, threats, extortion, rape, sexual battery other than rape, physical attack or fight with or without a weapon, threat of physical attack with or without a weapon, and robbery with or without a weapon. It also encompasses possession of a firearm or explosive device, possession of a knife, sharp object, or vandalism (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1999-2000). These types of incidents can be race related. Racial conflict is one of the subsets of school violence that fuels aggression and violence. Race motivated violent behavior is any action against an individual or an individual’s property (e.g., vandalism, arson, assault, murder, threats, harassment) because of his or her race. (www.ed.gov/pub/HateCrime/page1.html, date accessed February 15, 2004). This paper focuses on the race aspect of school violence. It has been a long lasting part of school

violence. All of the above definitions and types of violence share a similarity; violence causes pain with the intention to inflict harm onto another person in order to accomplish a goal or fulfill a need (Hasselt and Hersen, 1999, p. 20-21).

4. THE PROBLEM WITH VIOLENCE AND ONE OF ITS CONTRIBUTING ELEMENTS, RACIAL CONFLICT IN HIGH SCHOOLS

As a method to address violence, schools are implementing policies and programs without the basis of theory and research, which leads to the lack of effectiveness of dealing with or stopping the problems relating to violence such as racial conflicts that exist in schools. There is not sufficient research to determine the effectiveness of any of the intervention policies and programs and their source of information. This research hypothesizes that *educational intervention programs that encompass integrated multicultural and conflict resolution training contents in its lessons are more effective at impacting the reduction of the number of racial incidents at high schools.*

This research study plans to answer the following questions: 1) Do any of the intervention programs reduce race motivated incidents? 2) Do any of the programs change attitudes toward racial conflicts? 3) If any of the intervention programs help decrease racial conflicts then which approach has the most impact? First, the dissertation study expands on the problem of violence in schools and one of its subsets, racial conflict. Second, the study critically analyzes steps schools have taken to address the problems of racial violence by analyzing examples of these major policies and programs in selected schools. Third, the study identifies a new approach by reviewing the effects

of zero tolerance policy, multicultural education, conflict resolution courses, and integrated (conflict resolution and multicultural) programs against violence and racial conflict among students. Then, the study tries to determine the type of program that is most effective at decreasing the number of violent behaviors with racial undertones. Lastly, the dissertation study identifies a method to selecting the appropriate intervention approaches that deal with violence and its manifestation, racial conflict.

The Extent of the Problem

There has been a rising call for the implementation of effective intervention programs in the United States' educational system to meet goals to help the development of students by identifying at-risk profiles as well as assessing solutions for reducing violence and addressing its causes such as racial conflict (Field, 2002). Schools have reached a point where they cannot ignore the increase in the number and severity of violent incidents on their property. For instance, in Pearl, Mississippi, a 16-year-old boy allegedly killed his mother, then shot 9 students, 2 fatally, at his high school (Band & Harpold, 1999). In West Paducah, Kentucky, a 14-year-old student killed 3 students and wounded 5 others at a high school (Band & Harpold, 1999). In Edinboro, Pennsylvania, a 14-year-old student, at Parker Middle School killed a science teacher, wounded another teacher, and two students. In a typical city in America, 30 to 50 cases of school violence are reported daily with one half of these cases involving guns (Kramer, et al., 2002). American schools have five times the chance of having a student die as a result of school violence than a student in another country (Kramer, et al., 2002). The 2003 Executive Summary reported that in 1999-2000, twenty percent of all public schools experienced

one or more serious violent crimes. Secondary schools were more likely than other schools to experience a violent incident during a school year. Larger schools were more likely to experience a violent incident than smaller schools. About 89 percent of schools with 1,000 or more students experienced a violent incident, compared with 61 percent of schools with less than 3,000 students (www.nces.ed.gov/pubs2004/crime03/exsum3.asp, date accessed February 16, 2004). The 2005 Executive Summary reported that the number of aggravated assaults increased. The report indicated that the number of aggravated assaults rose to 1,040 from the previous year. There continues to be a substantial number of incidents involving weapons. The number of reported incidents involving knives rose 12% to 2,177, while the number of incidents involving other weapons also grew by 10%. The number of elementary school age students involved in violent incidents across the state of Pennsylvania indicated that there is a trend of younger students causing trouble in schools. As in previous years, the vast majority of incidents occurred on school grounds during school hours in Pennsylvania (Executive Summary, 2005).

Currently, one of the major school violence incidents took place at Columbine High School in Lakewood, Colorado. The Columbine High School was described as a typical American school (Video: Bowling At Columbine). It is a school located in the suburbs with a diverse student body (Video: Bowling At Columbine). The Columbine shootings involved two peers who killed twelve students and a teacher before taking their own lives at the high school. According to CNN, it remains the deadliest high school shooting in U.S. history. The shooting demonstrated to the nation that this sort of killing

could happen at any school if the appropriate actions are not seriously considered and taken (Video: Bowling at Columbine).

The federal government has been collecting data on the number of violent incidents on school property throughout the country. It was reported that during the 2001-2002 school year there were 34,118 separate incidents of violence and weapon possessions in Pennsylvania schools. Out of the total 34,118 incidents, 3,374 involved weapons, including 37 firearms – a decrease of 11.9 percent from 2000-2001. The type of firearms included 27 handguns, 9 rifles or shotguns and one other firearm, such as starter pistols, flare guns, or explosive devices. A total of 1,638 knives were also reported, an increase of 0.8 percent from the previous year. In addition, 1,699 other weapons were reported such as fireworks/ BB/pellet guns, and blunt objects used as weapons. The total 3,374 incidents involving weapons represents 1.85 weapons possessions per 1,000 students for a decrease of 6.5 percent over the previous year. Overall there was a decrease of 5.9 percent in the number of weapons used by students. There were increases of 2.51 percent in assaults on staff, 23.5 percent in assaults on students, and an increase in the number of offenders. See Table 1 for more details.

Table 1: This table compares reported statewide totals of number of offenders and types of violence and violation of weapons in schools from 2000-2001 and 2001-2002 by the Pennsylvania Department of Education Office of Safe Schools.

	2000-2001	2001-2002	% Change
Enrollment	1,814,311	1,821,627	0.40%
Number of Offenders	34,458	35,670	3.50%
Number of Firearms	42	37	-11.90%
Number of Knives	1,625	1,638	0.80%
Number of Other Weapons	1,918	1,699	-11.41%
Assaults on Students	8,768	10,832	23.54%
Law Enforcement Contacts	12,391	11,379	-8.17%
Arrests	3,721	3,978	6.90%
Out of School Suspensions	30,536	31,799	4.13%
Assigned to Alternative Education	2,131	2,604	22.19%

Source: Violence and Weapons Possession in Pennsylvania's Schools 2001-2002 School Years, 2003

According to a national principal reports, 66 percent of schools experienced one or more incidents of less serious violent crimes (i.e., fighting without a weapon) and 10 percent experienced at least one serious violent crime (i.e., fighting with a weapon or robbery). The study also demonstrated that schools with high levels of serious violent crimes – problem schools - were similar to all other schools on characteristics. This indicates that there is more to the problem than just physical characteristics of schools,

which involves internal, deep issues that need attention. These findings also showed that schools are experiencing a startling rise in hateful violence. During the last few decades, there has been a lot of debate on race relations. Most of the interest has focused on Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (1964/1991), which prohibits discrimination, harassment, and maltreatment of individuals and groups based on gender, race, color, religion, and national origin. Although there are laws aimed to enforce the Title VII, racial inappropriate and illegal behaviors continue to occur within organizations (Bergman et. al, 2007). For example, in New York City, two Black children and one Hispanic child were attacked at separate times and had their faces stained with white paint by Caucasian teens (O'Neil, 1993). Schools are experiencing an intensification of racial disputes between students, says Joan First, Executive Director of the National Coalition of Advocates for Students (O'Neil, 1993). The National Institute Against Prejudice and Violence estimated that 20 to 25 percent of students were victimized by racial incidents in the course of a school year (O'Neil, 1993). Teenagers and young adults, high school age, account for a significant proportion of the country's racist acts. Children are both perpetrators and victims. The racist acts and hate crimes, whether in the form of harassment, intimidation, graffiti, or other violent acts, often take place on school grounds (www.ed.gov/pubs/Hate, date accessed February 16, 2004). There are indicators that racial discord is an accepted fact of life for some students. A poll, for instance, found that more high school students said they would join in or silently support a racial confrontation than condemn or try to stop one (O'Neil, 1993). The Federal Bureau Investigation's (FBI) website (2005) shares additional information about racial and ethnic

violent incidents that each state must report to the bureau. Reported ethnic and racial incidents are considered hate crime incidents. Approximately 12, 417 types of agencies throughout the United States with a population of 245,006,413 reported the number of hate crimes that took place in their organization to help to determine the level of the problem. Schools were one of the agencies. There were 3,919 racially biased hate crimes reported to the FBI for the 2005 hate crime statistics. Of the 3,919 racial hate crimes, about 14% of the illegal violent incidents took place at schools and colleges. Hate crimes, harassment and discrimination of students based on race, color, and national origin is a disturbing phenomenon in secondary education as the number of complaints to authorities such as PHRC, EEOC, and Office for Civil Rights continue to increase. This trend is a “major concern because of the profound educational, emotional and physical consequences for the targeted students (Office for Civil Rights, 2007). As racial tensions continue years after the Civil Rights Movement, theorists have begun to conduct research to help determine the source of racial conflicts.

5. THEORIES OF AGGRESSION AND VIOLENCE IN SCHOOLS

According to the fields of educational psychology, social psychology, psychology, sociology, and anthropology, the following theories are most recognized as depicting the sources of school violence: (1) social frustration, (2) culture of violence, and (3) social learning. The first theory, *social frustration*, which is related to the frustration-aggression theory, explains the motivation of aggressive behavior as an inability to fulfill a goal(s) according to individual/group expectations. Similar to the frustration-aggression theory, individuals become angry because they are unable to repeatedly attain their goal due to illegitimate reasons. The more effort an individual exerts to attain his or her goal and is repeatedly unable to reach the goal the more frustrated the person becomes and more likely to engage in an aggressive manner. The level of anger determines whether or not the feelings of frustration escalate to violent behaviors. However, the more of the goal that is attained the less angry and frustrated a person feels and is likely not to participate in violence (Hasselt and Hersen, 1999, p.19).

The cultural and social learning theories are mostly used as an explanation for school violence. The *culture of violence theory* postulates that “differential distribution of violence is a function of cultural norms, values concerning violence” (p. 22). This theory claims that the greater degree of violence involves students who belong to a

culture or a subculture in which socialization practices are deeply embedded in violence. During childhood and adolescence, observation of how parents, for example, behave toward each other provides the earliest learning of violent behavior options that are subsequently viewed as acceptable for these relationships. In other words, it is natural for some individuals to participate in violence because it is accepted in their culture or subculture as a way to behave and attain a goal even though it deviates from the social norm (Hasselt and Hersen, 1999, p. 23). In the social learning theory, Bandura's study found that children have a tendency to model what they see at home, school, television, video games, and internet. Children model observed behavior, which can be learned from family members and other external influences. Influential parties include not only parents, relatives but also other authorities such as peers, neighbors, etc. Children encode these learned behaviors into memory and draw from the memories to respond in a situation, which may result in violent acts. Cultural values have been found to determine differences in the rates of violence among societies (Hasselt and Hersen, 1999, p. 27). The United States has a higher rate of violence than any other country. It has been asserted that this is a result of America's history of violence, from the defeat of the American Indians to the war in Iraq, television to internet, which all have illustrated aggression as acceptable (Video: Bowling at Columbine).

The first set of theories support the nurture perspective, which believes it is the environment that affects the decision of individuals to engage in aggressive acts. However, there is another thought: the nature argument. Several theorists believe aggression is an innate behavior. There is literature that implicates genetic transmission

neurochemical abnormalities, brain dysfunction, hormonal dysregulation, and autonomic nervous system irregularities as an explanation of aggressive, violent behaviors (Hasselt & Hersen, p. 50). Evidence points strongly to the depletion or insufficient activity of serotonin as one factor underlying impulsive aggression (Hasselt & Hersen, p. 50). Another possible biological contributor may be elevated testosterone level, which has been associated with increased aggression in adolescent boys.

Another argument asserts that most aggressiveness is a result of psychological predisposition. In other words, students with lower verbal ability, poor impulse, lack of control, and personalities and temperaments marked by irritability and low empathy are at a greater risk for antisocial behavior such as violence (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999). There has been evidence of a relationship between low verbal ability and serious antisocial behavior. The evidence is present in studies using standard IQ tests and investigations using more specific neuropsychological measures of verbal ability. Children with severe behavioral problems have been found to have lower verbal IQ scores than their peers. It has been confirmed that this causal relationship moves in one direction, from low verbal IQ to antisocial behavior and not vice versa. The relationship does not disappear when one controls for social class, race, or test motivation (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999, p. 52). According to contenders for the psychological predisposition argument, there is a tendency to act without thinking and an inability to delay gratification, which leads to violence.

Sandole (1993, 1999) expands on the three categories and adds a fourth one. The first category, according to Sandole, is the **biological school of thought**. Believers of the biological school of thought are not biologists, but they explain aggression in biological terms. Sigmund Freud is one example of these types of thinkers. Freud asserted that human aggression is the result of hidden drives (instincts) and an internal, never-ending struggle in each person. Another supporter, Konrad Lorenz, claimed that aggression is natural. According to Lorenz, aggression is useful and plays a functional and utilitarian role in a person's life and society as a whole, regardless of the common negative belief about aggression. The purpose of this function is survival- individuals do whatever they can to protect their own interests (Dougherty & Pfaltzgraff, 2001, ICAR COMP Preparation Notes, Summer 2001). Power is the key concept. This concept claims that people act and react toward each other in situations to increase and protect their power. This is a concept of the realpolitik-survival of the fittest- theory. According to this school of thought, people do not conform to any type of universal ethical principle(s) nor do they have to. In this theory, the only rules or ethics for behavior is self-preservation. The belief is any human interaction can lead to aggression with the goal to survive. The second category is the **physiological school of thought**. The physiological school of thought supports Bandura's finding that acts of violence can be learned and can be unlearned. Individuals have a need to identify with a group and feel a sense of belonging. These groups strengthen their group identity by excluding and demeaning other groups. This often leads to xenophobia, nationalism, ethnocentrism, and racism. Each person has the capacity to be violent. It only takes the right situation (Sandole,

1993). For instance, groups are more likely to engage in violence and riots because their identity is anonymous, they feel connected to their group, and group members feel less responsibility for their individual actions. The third category is the social **learning school of thought**. This school of thought has some similarities to the physiological school of thought. Albert Bandura is best known as a supporter of this school of thought. Bandura said that being exposed to aggression leads to modeling of aggression and violence. Supporters of the learning school of thought do not believe individuals are born violent-you do what you see. The fourth category, as Sandole describes, is the **dissonance school of thought**. The thinkers of the dissonance school of thought believe that aggression is the result of an imbalance between the preferred state of affairs and the actual state of affairs from the perspective of an individual or group. Leon Festinger (1964) asserts that dissonance exists because of what an individual expects that does not match what an individual actually holds. Individuals have a tendency to seek consistency. This may lead to attitude or behavior reaction such as aggression and violence to the dissonance between the two states. The theory of structural violence uses this concept as an explanation of group violence. Structural violence is covert violence and accepted into the mainstream of society, which asserts that the marginalized group (or victim) will respond with overt violence to accomplish their actual expectation.

Anderson and Bushman (2002) summarize four additional theories to explain the cause of aggression, violence. These theories are cognitive neoassociation, script, excitation transfer, and social interaction. Cognitive Neoassociation-Berkowitz (1993) proposed that negative affects produced by unpleasant experiences automatically

stimulates various thoughts, memories, expressive motor reactions, and physiological responses associated with fight tendencies. The fight associations give rise to rudimentary feelings of anger. The cognitive neoassociation theory assumes that cues present during an aversive event become associated with the event and with the cognitive and emotional responses triggered by the event. In the cognitive neoassociation theory, aggressive thoughts, emotions, and behavioral tendencies are linked together in memory (Anderson and Bushman, 2002). *Script Theory*-Huesmann (1998) proposed that when children observe violence in the mass media, they learn aggressive scripts. Scripts define situations and guide behavior: the person first selects a script to represent the situation they are facing and then assume a role in the script as a way to respond to the situation. Once a script has been learned, it may be retrieved at a later time and used as a guide for behavior. Scripts are sets of particularly well-rehearsed, highly associated concepts in memory, often involving causal links, goals, and action plans. When items are strongly linked they can form a script and become a concept in semantic memory. Multiple rehearsals create additional links to other concepts in the memory, thus increasing the number of paths by which it can be activated at any time. Multiple rehearsals also increase the strength of the links themselves. For example, if a child who watches several thousand instances of using a gun to settle a dispute on television is more likely to have a very accessible script of violence that can be generalized across many situations (Anderson and Bushman, 2002). *Excitation Transfer Theory*-Zillmann (1983) indicates that physiological arousal dissipates slowly. If two arousing events are separated by a short amount of time, arousal from the first event may be misattributed to the second

event. If the second event is related to anger, then the additional arousal could make the person even angrier. The notion of excitation transfer also suggests that anger may be extended over long periods of time if a person has consciously attributed his or her heightened arousal to anger. Thus, even after the arousal appears dissipated the person remains ready to aggress for as long as the anger persists within the person (Anderson and Bushman, 2002). *Social Interaction Theory*- Anderson and Bushman (2002) interpret violent behavior as social influence behavior. For example, a student uses coercive action to produce some change in the target's behavior. A student can use coercive actions to obtain something of value such as information, money, services, or safety. According to this theory, the actor, the student, for example, is a decision-maker whose choices are directed by the expected rewards, costs, and probabilities of obtaining different outcomes (Anderson and Bushman, 2002).

The two major categories of theories for the explanation of aggression/violence, nature (biological and psychological development) versus nurture (culture and socialization), produce strong arguments for the cause of violence. Most researchers focus on the nurture argument as an explanation for school violence. They also use the same theories to select methods to address the various problems of aggression/violence in schools. Schools cannot control the biological makeup of students or even students' cultural background, but they can contribute to the struggle to minimize violent tendencies within students through socialization.

6. THEORIES OF RACIAL CONFLICT IN HIGH SCHOOLS

Racial Identity Development Theory

According to the racial identity development theory, an individual's developmental stage influences the way a person accepts and interacts with a member of another race. In reference to the racial identity theory, the attribution theory describes the ability of an individual to tolerate their disadvantaged status as a minority. Attributions are either "internal" or "external". Internal attribution means that the person believes that he or she controls his or her own rewards and punishments. External attribution implies that the person believes that peripheral forces such as luck, destiny, or fate control one's rewards and punishments. In reference to racial identity, internal attribution might mean that the person believes that his or her racial group causes or is responsible for his or her own outcomes whereas external attribution means that she or he believes that external factors such as another racial group cause their outcomes (Helms, p.20), which impacts the way an individual interacts with others. Initially, research on Black identity was developed to be able to better understand and predict minority actions during the transition in history such as the Civil Rights movement. Now, racial identity theories are used to understand relationships among minorities and non-minorities. Cross (1971, 1978), a prominent researcher, developed a five stage model of race identity development for Blacks. Cross'

five stage model of racial identity development explains the way race plays a role in the social interaction between individuals and the way racial conflict arises between them. Although Cross limits his analysis by only explaining the different types of relationships between Blacks and Whites, he gives an example of how race influences relationships among the various groups. The five racial identity stages for Blacks are Preencounter, Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, Internalization, and Internalization-Commitment (Helms, p. 19). On the otherhand, Helms (1990) identifies six stages that Whites experience. The fives stages are Contact, Disintegration, Reintegration, Pseudo-Independence, Immersion/Emersion and Autonomy. The subsequent paragraphs describe the two types of identity stages and demonstrate when conflict can arise between the two groups (minorities-Blacks and Whites).

According to Cross, the *Preencounter* stage is when a Black person assumes an identity that he or she feels is acceptable by the White community. At this stage, they identify with White culture, reject and deny belonging to the Black culture. During this stage, there is an absence of a self-concept. The general theme of the Preencounter stage is idealization of the dominant traditional White worldview. The second stage, *Encounter*, begins when a person realizes that a Black person (a minority) cannot become White or be accepted as “part of the White world” (p. 25). This realization takes place after a traumatic event that touches a person’s “inner core” and demonstrates that no matter how well a person tries to conform to White standards, people will continue to see and treat them as Black (p. 25). After the traumatic experience, individuals begin to find another identity that better suits them. They begin to identify with Black culture. This

leads to the third stage, *Immersion/Emersion*. The Immersion phase of the third stage is when a person only identifies himself or herself with Blacks. They denigrate White culture. A person at this phase thinks, feels, and acts the way he or she believes is authentic for their particular race and judge other Blacks according to their standards. A person at this phase internalizes Black culture and becomes frustrated. The person becomes angry with non-minorities because of their role in past and present racial oppression (p. 28). Students at this stage exhibit hostility and anger in their demeanor, denounce the nonviolent civil rights movement as accommodating non-minorities, and begin chastising classmates, for example (Helms, p. 28). At this phase of the third stage, there is a lot of anger and resentment toward outgroups-Whites and other groups-that are perceived as contributing to the continuance of oppression. The duration of this stage is unknown. During the Emersion phase of the third stage, a person bases his/her identity on positive nonstereotypic Black perspectives. The person no longer needs to accept and deal with only Blackness in order to feel self-worth. Then the person moves into the fourth stage. At the fourth stage, *Internalization*, the person internalizes the positive aspects of Black culture. When the person establishes a stable Black identity they are able to “renegotiate one’s positions with respect to Whites and White society” (Helms, p. 29). At this point the person is able to reject racism and other forms of oppression. The fourth stage describes the *cognitive development* of a person. The fourth and fifth stages are similar with one difference. The fifth stage, *Internalization-Commitment*, involves a person fighting against all cultural oppression through *action* such as social activism.

The below table illustrates the Black Racial Identity Development theory. The table outlines each stage and a description of each stage. See Table 2.

Table 2. Black Identity Development

<u>Author</u>	<u>Name of Stage</u>	<u>Description</u>
Cross	1 Preencounter	1. Identifies with White culture, rejects or denies membership in Black culture.
	2. Encounter	2. Rejects previous identification with White culture, seeks identification with Black culture.
	3. Immersion-Emersion	3. Completely identifies with Black culture and denigrates White culture.
	4. Internalization	4. Internalizes Black culture, transcends racism.
	5. Internalization-Commitment	5. Internalizes Black culture and fights general cultural oppression.

According to Helms, White racial identity development includes six phases. The first stage, *Contact*, which involves naiveness to the racial/cultural issues. A person at this stage does not realize how race and racism influences them and other people around them. A non-minority person at this stage typically approaches Blacks (minorities) with curiosity. This person rarely thinks of herself or himself in racial terms. The second stage, *Disintegration*, encompasses an awareness of social implications of race on a personal level. At this stage, the person may feel caught between White and Black culture, oppression, and humanity. According to Helms (1990), a person at this stage “does not want to assume responsibility for discrimination by acknowledging his or her Whiteness and the benefits that result there from; on the other hand, because one and one’s social environment are not Black, one cannot identify entirely with Blacks or Black culture” (p. 68). The third stage, *Reintegration*, involves the idealization of everything associated with White people and denigration of anything affiliated with Black (minority) culture (Helms, p. 68). The fourth stage, *Pseudo-Independence*, is when there is an internalization of Whiteness. At this stage, the person recognizes personal responsibility for current relationships in order to improve relations with Blacks and avoid the reoccurrence of racism and racist acts. A person at this stage develops an intellectual understanding of Black culture and the unfairness as well as advantageous benefits of growing up White (Helms, p. 68). The fifth stage, *Immersion/Emersion*, includes redefining the positive self-identity, which requires the individual to replace White and Black myths and stereotypes with accurate information about its meaning and past meanings to be a non-minority in the United States and other parts of the world. An

individual at this stage re-evaluates and tries to learn more about themselves and minority groups. The end result of this stage is the opportunity to change to “tackle racism and oppression in its various forms” (Helms, 62). The sixth stage, *Autonomy*, the ideal phase, takes place when a White person develops a bicultural or racially transcendent worldview. At this point, a White person has internalized a positive, non-racist White identity, values cultural similarities and differences, feels a kinship with people regardless of race, and seeks to acknowledge and abolish racial oppression (Helms, p. 68). The next table illustrates the White Racial Identity Development. It identifies each stage and describes each stage. See Table 3.

Table 3. White Identity Development

<u>Author</u>	<u>Name of Stage</u>	<u>Description</u>
Helms	1.Contact	1.Obliviousness to own racial identity.
	2.Disintegration	2.First acknowledgement of White identity.
	3.Reintegration	3.Idealizes Whites/denigrates Blacks.
	4.Pseudo-Independence	4.Intellectualized acceptance of own and other's race.
	5.Immersion/Emersion	5.Honest appraisal of racism and significance of Whiteness.
	6.Autonomy	6.Internalizes a multicultural identity with non-racist Whiteness its core.

Helms, et. al., indicate that racial identity stems from a group's individual history and past interactions with other groups in society, which influences interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships. For instance, an individual at the Preencounter stage processes information about other groups that are based on stereotypical and constricted images. Individuals at this stage rely on authority figures for validation, which may lead to misinterpretations of conflictual situations and may lead to violence towards another

person of a different race (Helms, p. 121). Depending on the stage, an individual may find herself or himself fighting to defend her or his race or fighting to protect their status identified with their race. Carter (1988) agrees that race identity impacts the manner in which individuals interact with one another by the means of the influence of racial stereotypes and cultural biases. There are four types of relationships that exist between the racial groups, which are parallel, crossed, progressive, and regressive. Each one of these types of relationships between Blacks (minorities) and Whites are based on an individual's stage of racial identity development. Based on individuals' stages of racial identity determines the type of interaction, which can be placid, contested or conflictual.

Type of Dyad's

In Helms' book (1990), she further explains these relationships by using the counselor-client relationship, teacher-student relationship, and, even, relationships without power differences as examples. However, the relationship between students is used as an example in the case study to illustrate the type of relationships (parallel, progressive, regressive, and crossed) that exists between individuals during the identified stages. As mentioned earlier, there are four types of interactions, which are parallel, progressive, regressive, and crossed relationships. Parallel relationships are perhaps the least contentious of interactions because both parties (student-student) share a racial worldview. The problems that occur in this form of interaction are a result of one member's (usually the least powerful) communications being perceived by the other member as challenges to his or her worldview. The tension would most likely come from

external influences (Helms, 1990). Other individuals outside the relationship would supply racial viewpoints that are potentially disruptive to the parallel interaction. In such cases, the one student attempts to maintain the relationship as it stands by trying to reshape the other student's (less powerful) interpretation of racial events to be consistent with the other student's (more powerful) worldview. The regressive relationships, on the other hand, can vary from testy to conflictual, which depends on the advancement of one student's racial identity compared to the other student's. The level of tension increases as the students' worldviews become more different from each other. In the progressive relationship, one of the students has more leverage because he or she has advanced in his or her identity development more so than the other student in the relationship. A party is considered more powerful if he or she developed more than the other party in a relationship. The difference in stage development may cause tension in a relationship if one student's stage exceeds another student's stage by more than one stage. However, if the difference between the students' stages does not exceed each others by more than one stage then there is a lesser chance of tension and more opportunity for the less developed student (party) to learn from the other (who is more advanced and powerful). Thus, there is reduced level of racial tension. In the crossed relationship, the worldview of the two parties are opposite of each other. Thus, the two parties have problems communicating with each other because they do not share any part of a common frame of reference.

As noted in the previous paragraph, movement through the stages indicates maturation in the ability to interact with others and may cause conflict in relationships, which depends on the mental state of the parties. Table 4 illustrates the types of

relationships that can exist between minorities and non-minorities during the two types of identity stages. In Table 4, the dyad's race (Black or White) is identified, stages of each party are shown, and the general theme for the mixed interactions between races at the various stages is further explained. See Table 4.

Table 4. Summary of the Types of Relationships that Exist Between Minorities and Non-minorities Defined by Various Combinations of the Racial Identity Theory

Table 4-1. Parallel Relationships-parties co-exist

Stages of Identity			
<u>Dyad's Race</u>	<u>Student</u>	<u>Student</u>	<u>General Theme</u>
Black/Black (Minority/Minority)	1.Preencounter 2.Encounter 3.Immersion 4.Internalization	1.Preencounter 2.Encounter 3.Immersion 4.Internalization	Stable, placid, and harmonious relationship. Participants feel supported and understood. Racial attitudes are not apt to change.
White/White	1.Contact 2.Disintegration 3.Reintegration 4.Pseudo-Independent 5.Immersion/Emersion	1.Contact 2. Disintegration 3. Reintegration 4. Pseudo-Independent 5. Autonomy	
White/Black (Minority)	1. Contact 2.Reintegration 3.Autonomy	1.Preencounter 2.Preencounter 3.Internalization	

Table 4-2. Progressive Relationships-some tension but room for learning

Stages of Identity			
<u>Dyad's race</u>	<u>Student</u>	<u>Student</u>	<u>General Theme</u>
White/White	<u>White</u> 1.Disintegration, Reintegration, Pseudo-Independent, Autonomy 2.Reintegration, Pseudo-Independent, Autonomy 3.Pseudo-Independent, Autonomy 4.Autonomy	<u>White</u> 1.Contact 2. Disintegration 3 Reintegration 4. Pseudo- Independent	Reduced level of racial tension as long as there is only one stage difference, if they are not at the same stage. If there is only one stage difference then one student can become the teacher and help the other student advance to the next level of development. Some tension in relationship due to racial issues. The greater the distance between stages, the greater the tension. Greatest growth occurs because participants' expectations are not violated.
Black/Black (Minority/Minority)	<u>Black</u> 1. Encounter, Immersion, Internalization 2.Immersion, Internalization 3.Internalization	<u>Black</u> 1.Preencounter 2 Encounter 3. Immersion	
White/Black (Minority)	<u>White</u> Disintaegration, Reintegration, Pseudo-Independent, Autonomy 2.Reintegration, Pseudo-Independent, Autonomy 3.Pseudo-Independent, Autonomy	<u>Black</u> 1.Preencounter 2.Encounter 3. Immersion	

Table 4-3. Regressive Relationships – disharmony and conflict

Stages of Identity

<u>Dyad's race</u>	<u>Student</u>	<u>Student</u>	<u>General Theme</u>
White/Black-(Minority)	<u>White</u> 1.Contact 2..Disintegration 3.Reintegration, Pseudo-Independent, Autonomy	<u>Black</u> 1.Encounter, Immersion, Internalization 2.Encounter, Immersion, Internalization 3.Internalization	Conflicted relationships marked by covert and overt fights about racial issues. The greater the disparity in participants' identity, the greater the conflict. Usually these relationships are dysfunctional in which participants' growth is stifled.
Black/Black Minority/Minority	<u>Black</u> 1.Preencounter 2.Encounter 3.Immersion	<u>Black</u> 1.Encounter, Immersion, Internalization 2.Immersion, Internalization 3.Internalization	
White/White	<u>White</u> 1.Contact 2 Disintegration 3 Reintegration 4.Pseudo-Independent	<u>White</u> 1.Disintegration, Reintegration, Autonomy, Pseudo-Independent 2.Reintegration, Pseudo-Independent, Autonomy 3.Pseudo-Independent, Autonomy 4.Autonomy	

Table 4-4. Crossed Relationships

Stages of Identity

<u>Dyad's race</u>	<u>Student</u>	<u>Student</u>	<u>General Theme</u>
Black/Black Minority/Minority	<u>Black</u> 1. Preencounter	<u>Black</u> 1. Immersion	Most conflicted relationship type. Characterized by disharmony, mutual fear, covert and overt warfare. Least likely to promote individuals' growth.
White/White	<u>White</u> 1. Reintegration	<u>White</u> 1. Contact	
White/Black (Minority)	<u>White</u> 1. Reintegration	<u>Black</u> 1. Immersion	

By Janet Helms (1990)

The distinctiveness of minorities such as Blacks causes them to receive a proportionally greater share of attention because they are highly visible (Bergman et al., 2007). Race is an identity marker that has been subject to many stereotypes. This disproportional attention on minorities can cause others to highly focus on the characteristics that distinguish them among groups, heightening the sense of contrast and

distinctiveness between groups. Through various in-group/outgroup identity processes, groups incorporate information and perceive individuals in other groups as stereotypical class members. These perpetual tendencies have been associated with intergroup prejudice, racist acts, and hate crimes. Intergroup prejudice is created through social identity processes in which individuals define themselves through groups to which they belong (ingroups) and do not belong (outgroups). Due to individuals wanting to view themselves positively, they engage in ingroup preference (i.e., discrimination) and outgroup derogation (i.e., harassment) (Bergman et al., 2007).

The proceeding tables illustrate the way racial tensions can develop based on the Racial Identity Development theory. In addition to disparate views between the parties causing racial tensions, there are other explanations for racial conflict. Racial conflict involves competition - struggle for political, social and economic resources, and status - between racial groups. Racial conflict comprises of subtle (e.g., not sitting with or near a person of a different race) or overt racism (e.g., using racial slurs) (Glaser, 2003). Young people are both victims and instigators of the same brand of racial hatred and conflict that plagues America. There is evidence that the problem of racial conflict in schools, if not growing, persists at high levels. These incidents must be taken seriously or they face the risk of escalation. Most racial conflicts at schools stem from the insufficient preparation for the current increase in the number of diversity and integration at schools. More children from diverse racial and cultural backgrounds are attending schools. But students and schools are not prepared to constructively deal with the differences among the various races and cultures. Schools are experiencing an intensification of racial disputes

between students says Joan First (O'Neil, 1993). The evolution of more diversity creates an opportunity for more harmony, but there is, even, more potential for conflict unless there are interventions to improve understanding and tolerance among students regarding the difference among minorities and nonminorities (O'Neil, 1993).

Racial Conflict Theories

There are two theories that are useful in explaining elements of racial conflict and racism, which are: *realistic conflict theory* and *social identity theory*. The Sherifs (1961/1988, p. 222-266) assert that racism frequently arises out of ordinary conflicts of interest between groups. In the Sherifs' study of boys' summer camps, they discovered that ordinary group competition for valued resources led to highly negative and stereotypical views of opposing groups and their individual members. The Sherifs found that mere contact among opposing groups intensified the hostility. Events that required cooperative action, however, did function to reduce the intergroup conflicts. After each of these types of cooperative activities, cross-group friendships began to develop and intergroup hostility began to diminish. It was found that working cooperatively toward shared goals transformed the skills of individual group members into valued resources in a diverse group. So, although conflicts of interest resulted in prejudice and intense disliking between groups, action toward common goals helped foster positive opinions and mutual liking between the different diverse groups.

According to the social identity theory, people categorize other people into social groups (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Individuals appraise the value or worth of their social

identities primarily by comparing their group to other groups. The basic premise of the social identity theory is that people are motivated to maintain a positively valued social identity by creating or taking favorable comparisons with other groups. The need to maintain a positive distinction between one's group and others can lead to behaviors and attitudes that are biased in favor of one's own group and against other groups. According to this perspective, racism, intergroup conflict, and stereotyping may arise simply from the struggle to attain and maintain a positive social identity (Wolfe & Spencer, 1996). It appears that the main reason for focusing on differences between groups is not race but the need to categorize and remain distinct from other groups (Stone, 1985, p.19).

Racial conflict may also be the result of beliefs that other groups appear as threats to the norms, values, and objectives thought to be worth striving for by a group. On the other hand, Fisher and Strauss (1979) claim that racial disturbances are partially the result of isolation, exclusion, discrimination, and powerlessness, which are illustrated in the patterns of residential segregation in America. Individuals are more susceptible to racial conflict when they are isolated and have no contact or minimum contact with other groups.

Isolation only increases prejudice and dehumanization. According to Volkan (1997), prejudice serves to further differentiate one group from another. It helps individuals to retain their positive group identity, which influences their own positive identity. The dehumanizing process of external groups evolves in stages. Volkan describes the process as taking place in the following phases. First, the enemy - the other

ethnic group-is demonized but still holds some human qualities. Then, the enemy is categorized as “vermin and completely dehumanized” (p. 113). For example, in Rwanda, the Hutus first referred to the Tutsis as evil, and later began referring to the Tutsis as *cafards*, meaning cockroaches (p. 112). As part of the dehumanizing process, hurting or killing other people becomes easier by regarding the enemy, victim, as an insect or less than you. This process diminishes or eradicates the normal feeling of guilt that occurs when a person hurts or kills another person (p. 113). The attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors associated with the dehumanizing process create a hostile environment (p. 114).

What causes this prejudice and dehumanization process? According to Volkan, when anxiety about identity occurs, group members are willing to kill a person or a group that appears to be a threat rather than endure the anxiety caused by losing their psychological identity. As a result, an aggressor, an individual or a group, attempts to cleanse herself or himself of externalized and projected bad elements viewed as being created and maintained by their enemy, the outgroup. Volkan asserts that these psychological processes are unconscious. People do not rationalize these feelings but bury them with other activities. For example, during war, groups are engulfed with other activities such as assessing economic and military power, buying new weapons, organizing troops and materials, planning defense strategy, finding allies, and so on. These preparations deflect attention from the psychological processes that motivate the violent acts (Volkan, p. 115).

Understanding Racial Conflict from a Volkan's Perspective

In this research, Volkan's (1997) perspective on ethnic conflict is extended to explain racial conflicts between individuals and groups. Although there are distinct differences between racial conflicts and ethnic conflicts, Volkan's perspective helps further understand the sources of racial conflicts. In both types of conflicts (ethnic and racial) each person has an established identity and engages in action to protect the identity. The individual (or group) stresses the differences between them and acts to maintain the distinctiveness, which can erupt into bullying, harassment, racial/ethnic slurs, fighting, rape, and other types of violence such as shooting and murder.

From a Volkanian perspective, the blend of races is tolerable up to a point. However, there is a boundary to the allowance level. Once the limit is reached or exceeded, it creates a manifestation of anxiety. Volkan attributes this type of anxiety to the "need to maintain border and to preserve identity from contamination with enemy images." (p. 102).

According to Volkan, the anxiety begins at an early age. Children belonging to one group externalize their unintegrated bad self-fragments and negative images of their mother (or caregiver) onto another group. Adults such as parents, family members and other influential individuals in a child's life reinforce these negative feelings and images of other groups through verbal and nonverbal behaviors (p. 102). This strengthens the "us" and "them" attitude and behavior of children. Children develop an invisible wall

that keeps away dangerous elements such as unity and full acceptance of a person that belongs to another group (p. 103). Children internalize the dislike and hate for others when an older person unconsciously or consciously transfers their negative feelings and beliefs unto the child. This is called transgenerational transmission (p. 43). The preservation of borders protects a group's sense of shared identity. Volkan states that without the walls or a threat to the borders induces aggression against others as each group tries to recover its individual identity (p. 107).

Therefore, rituals that led to racial conflict-telling racial jokes, for example- psychologically help to secure group identity (p. 113). When anxiety about identity occurs, members of a group rather consider violence against a threatening person or a group than endure the anxiety caused by losing their psychological border (p. 115). Enemies do not have contact with each other and, as a result, are unable to eradicate the false beliefs of each other and develop other feelings that replace the hate for each other. The isolation and exclusion perpetuate the cycle of hate for generations.

Although today there are more students with friends of diverse backgrounds than in the last fifty years, students still form similar groups that resemble their world that encompasses their parents and other influential adults. Students tend to exclude those that do not fit their social image. These different groups tend to never interact on school and off school property, unless they are forced to do so because of class assignments, extracurricular activities, etc. This separation hinders interaction among the groups and continues misperceptions and hate (Lal, 1995).

Racial discord takes many forms in schools, which includes racial graffiti, slurs, and harassment, racially motivated fights, or unprovoked attacks. The National Coalition of Advocates for Students retraced newspaper stories on incidents of racial and ethnic conflict in schools for a two-month period on a nationwide basis and showed that there is a high level of these types of violence in schools. For instance, the Los Angeles County school district reported more than 2,200 hate crimes, which included race-related violent incidents, during a single school year in its region. These problems continue because students often do not have the skills to resolve conflicts with racial dimensions or any other types of conflict (O'Neil, 1993).

Is Racial Conflict A Problem? Although the above information represents some literature on school violence and racial conflict, there is a discrepancy in the remaining literature about general violence and racial conflict on school property. Some of the literature describes school violence as an increasingly intense problem. Other literature notes that violent behaviors and racial conflicts at schools are not as prevalent as some analysts protest. For instance, in a 1999 U.S. Department of Education report on school crime and safety, it was reported that all public schools reported at least one serious violent crime to a law enforcement representative (Kauffman, et al., 1999). Forty-seven percent of public schools reported a less serious violent or nonviolent crime. Another 43 percent of public schools did not report any crimes to the police. However, this last part of the report is deceiving. It creates an illusion that some schools are not at risk of violence. The last report may be the result of inaccurate submitted data or simple refusal

to submit accurate data. The contrast in the literature may also be the result of the differences in the sources of data.

National data on school violence comes from several sources. Some sources focus on criminal acts, others focus on injury from a health agency perspective, and some privately commissioned surveys (e.g., Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher) focus on various aspects of school violence. The FBI Uniform Crime Reporting Program bases its report on data submitted by local law enforcement agencies directly or through state agencies. Furthermore, some data on juvenile crime are presented in terms of arrests, whereas other data represent convictions. But, the unfortunate shooting at Columbine High School-an average American school- indicates schools that believe they are protected from bloodshed are just as receptive to the same type of killings (Kauffman, et al., 1999). Although there is a discrepancy in the perception of the severity of school violence, it is agreed that there is a problem. There are some schools with high rates, infrequent rates, or no rates of racial conflict and violence. But there is always the potential that any level of violence can escalate at each type of school. In sum, most writings conclude that there is some level of serious problems that exists with school violence and racial tension.

School Setting As A Target To Address Racial Conflicts in High Schools

Now, in addition to developing curriculums that meet the standards of educating students in subject matters such as math, science, and social studies, there are two issues that schools are facing. First, school racial conflicts exist and are a problem. Second, schools must take steps to address the problem of school racial conflicts. The U.S. Department of Education has determined that fatal and nonfatal violent incidents take place at schools throughout the nation but there has not been sufficient evidence to confirm or disprove any programs as effective at addressing school violence and its variation of types such as racial conflict. Budget plays a major role in the lack of effective programs and research on its effectiveness. Too often schools implement intervention programs that are not suitable to address their specific problem of violence. They often select programs that are convenient in terms of time and cost but the results are ineffective at addressing specific problems at different secondary schools (Bigler, 1999). Bigler and other researchers have also attributed the source of ineffective programs to the lack of research and theory-based approaches. According to Bigler, intervention programs need to include materials that actively involve students, encourage repetition, and reinforce concepts. In most of the literature, effective programs are integrated with multiple disciplines and multiple methods of teaching.

There are several theories and studies, which postulate and support Bigler's theory that these comprehensive and integrated ingredients enhance learning. One of the supporting theories is the *whole brain* theory, which claims that individuals have two

hemispheres of the brain and each half has different functions. It is believed the right hemisphere is used for the creative thinking and emotions and the left hemisphere is used for the logical thinking and reasoning. Another theory, *neurolinguistic programming* proposes that individuals have their preference of learning and communicating. The *seven intelligences* theory asserts that individuals have seven areas of abilities, which are verbal, musical, visual-spatial, interpersonal, intrapersonal, kinesthetic, and sequential linear. Kolb's (1984) learning theory suggests that individuals have four learning stages, which require concrete experiences, reflective observations, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation of students. The commonality among these theories asserts that individuals can learn using varied methods and drawing from different disciplines of learning, which taps into the different ways people think and learn. The most effective programs have materials that students can draw from both hemispheres, which helps them to develop the whole brain. Some schools do not heavily weigh these theories as they implement intervention programs (Stuart, 1992).

Reasons for Unsupported Decisions and Implementations of Programs

Federal and state mandates have imposed policies to address violence in schools. Federal and state injunctions ensure adherence to the mandates by basing funding decisions on their implementation. For several years the Safe Schools mandate encourages schools to have intervention programs and requires justification of their programs. But most schools have implemented programs without consideration of theory and research as a strategy to appear as making an effort so they can receive funds.

7. TYPICAL EFFORTS TO INTERVENE AGGRESSIVE/VIOLENT AND RACIAL BEHAVIORS IN SCHOOLS

There are four major categories that classify current intervention programs in schools, which are the following: (a) school security, (b) school discipline practices and policies, (c) school climate, and (d) prevention activities (i.e., prevention curriculum, course, instructions, or training) (Kauffman, et al., 1999).

(a) School Security. The school security category involves security staff, law enforcement personnel, and security devices/strategies. It entails monitoring of student and non-student movements. It is the most common type of prevention activity at schools. In this sort of approach, the staff and administrators are the primary responsible agents for this task. At Harrisburg High School, PA, for instance, the principal dresses in a security uniform and patrols the hallways. Or, a police officer can be permanently assigned to a school by the police department. The intent of these officers is to develop intelligence regarding potential or planned acts of violence, stop rumors, and provide positive information quickly (Band and Harpold, 1999). Other types of security strategies are implemented such as hiring special security personnel, use of metal detectors, and random searches. Unfortunately the implementation of these strategies is inconsistent. In an evaluation study, site visitors observed the number of times when the rules and procedures were not being consistently enforced (e.g., use of hall passes). Under such

circumstances, students become less fearful over time and more willing and able to engage in violent acts (Band and Harpold, 1999).

(b) School discipline practices and policies. The aversive racism theory suggests that educators need to demonstrate strong and clear norms that violent behaviors, racial, and stereotypical views are not acceptable and this will impact the number of incidents. The FBI suggests schools establish a zero-tolerance policy for students who make threats. This type of a policy might include expulsion or suspension of students who threaten to kill or assault others and, if appropriate, provide psychological evaluation or additional intervention such as counseling (Band & Harpold, 1999). Its practices and policies entail varying levels of punishment, which depends on the level of seriousness of the offense.

Origin Of Zero Tolerance In Schools

The term zero tolerance represents school policies that punish all offenses severely, no matter how minor (Skiba & Peterson, 1999). Overtime, zero tolerance began to receive a lot of attention due to the increased level of violence in communities. Soon the principle of zero tolerance spread and was applied to issues as diverse as environmental pollution, trespassing, skateboarding, homelessness, racial intolerance, and sexual harassment (Skiba & Peterson, 1999). By the late 1993, zero tolerance policies were being adopted by school boards across the country. In 1994, President Bill Clinton signed the Gun-Free Schools Act, which mandated an expulsion of one calendar year for any possession of a weapon and referral of students in violation to the criminal or

juvenile justice system. The intent was to implement a program that would severely punish students for their inappropriate behavior, and also set an example that would instill fear in others. The hope was that students would see inappropriate behavior as having serious consequences. Any form of discipline should be conducted in a manner that teaches the student more appropriate behaviors and be supported by empirical research.

Although many schools still implement and apply the zero tolerance policy, there is an argument that school discipline has become lax (Toby, 1998). According to Toby, small infractions are ignored or not addressed for correction, which leads to more severe bad student behaviors. For instance, where students are able to roam the hallways instead of being in class, where candy wrappers and empty soft-drink cans are left on the floors, where graffiti is found on the walls, illustrates that teachers and principals are not in control but lost their power to the students. In such cases students are tempted to further test the limits of acceptable behavior at the school (Toby, 1998). Another contributing factor to the lack of adherence to the rules and disruption in schools relate to the requirement to protect each student's civil rights. A generation ago, principals could easily suspend or expel students. A student would have been quickly suspended for antagonizing teachers and principals. But now, due to the concern of students' rights, school officials are required to observe due process in handling student discipline. The Supreme Court held in the *Goss v. Lopez* case that school children were entitled to due process when accused by school authorities of misbehavior. In addition, greater due process protections were required for students in danger of expulsions or suspensions for

more than ten days than for students threatened with less severe disciplinary penalties. Now hearings are necessary, charges must be specified, witnesses must confirm suspicions, and appeals are available to students. A third contributing factor in the lax of discipline involves cultural changes. According to Toby (1998), today teachers and many other authority figures such as parents, police and government officials receive less respect.

Others contest that disciplinary actions such as suspension and expulsion do not reduce behavior problems in the long run. One of the arguments against the zero tolerance policy is the inconsistent enforcement among students. It has been noted that there are a disproportionate number of minority students who receive more discipline than other students (Skiba & Peterson, 1999). A second type of the argument against the zero tolerance policy is the notion that there is a correlation between strict policies and dropout rates. It has been consistently found that school suspensions are “strong predictors of a student dropping out of school”(1999). In ethnographic studies, school disciplinarians report that suspension is sometimes used as a tool to push out particular students, troublemakers, or students who are judged as unlikely to succeed (Bowditch, 1993). It has been rationalized that suspension may accelerate delinquency. The National Center for Education Statistics (1999) conducted a study that involved sending a survey to principals. Seventy-nine percent of the principals reported having a zero tolerance policy for violence. After four years of the implementation of the zero tolerance policy, the NCES found that schools with the policy are still less safe than schools without the policy. There has not been substantial data supporting that zero

tolerance policies reduce school violence, and racial conflict. In addition, there is an uncertainty of the long-term effects of the policy.

(c) School Climate. In the 1999 U.S. Department of Education report, there were three classifications to constitute school climate, which are: staff/student relationships, school goals, and facilities and environment. The researchers gathered information about the relationships between staff and students. School facilities and environments described as *clean* were classified as *safe* (Band & Peterson, 1999). According to these findings, the key to the effectiveness of school climate against school violence lies with the school administrators and supportive parents taking threats or violent indicators seriously and addressing the matters immediately. This is viewed as the school having power and taking control over its students. The majority of these findings indicated that the sites had good communication levels between the staff and students. These findings suggest that schools with control to keep a clean environment have a strong impact on the behaviors of its students. The way students are encouraged or forced to treat school property transfers to their behavior toward each other and school administrators. But this report does not describe the findings of the existing relationship between students, where most of the violence takes place.

None of the three efforts listed above (school security, discipline, and climate) have shown effectiveness at addressing violence and racial conflicts at schools and incidents that take place off school property but only influence the physical part of school environments. Some of the violent behaviors and racial conflicts take place away from

school properties and spillover into schools and vice versa (Muscari, 2002). There has been a causal relationship established between public channels that display aggressive, violent, and racial attitudes, values and behaviors in children (Congressional Public Health Summit, 2000). Examples of these media are televisions, movies, video games, music (lyrics), and internet. There has been an increase in the content of public channels that encourage violent behaviors and other antisocial behaviors such as racist acts (Javier, Herron, & Primavera, 1998). It has been found that the public channels create an illusion of violence as an effective way of solving conflicts, developing desensitization towards violence in real life, viewing the world as a violent and a mean place, and developing a greater tendency for aggressive, violent, and racist behaviors (American Academy of Pediatrics, 1995). For instance, it was revealed that the killers of the recent shootings, including the mass murder at the Columbine High School, were exposed to various forms of public channels such as television, movies, video games, and music. These false images cause children to more likely identify with violent cues and respond in an aggressive manner as opposed to constructively dealing with a conflict and outgroup members. Thus, children learn that violence is effective, socially acceptable, and rewarding, and they become trapped in the aggression cycle (American Academy of Pediatrics, 1995).

In addition to the influence of television, movies, video games, and music, the internet is a rising outlet for aggressive behaviors that may start at school and transfer into students' home. The internet is considered the latest type of weapon. Many children have access to the internet that allows them to talk to their friends by using instant

messaging, bulletin boards, and chat rooms when they leave school property. But the chatter and gossip on the internet can spin out of control, slip into degrading abusive attacks (Witham, 2002). The internet has been used to bully students at home. David Knight is an example of a student who was often teased, taunted, and punched for years at school. But the bullying and humiliation took on a new form (Toby, 1998). In David's case, there was a website created solely about him and was active for several months before he learned about it. The pages were full of hateful comments directed at David and his family. This abuse continued for months until the harassment pushed David Knight to quit school and finish his final year of studies at home.

Now, conflicts between students take place and escalate through interactive technology. In such situations, school security, school discipline practices and policies, and school climate are not sufficient to prevent and address racial conflicts. It is difficult for schools and officials to control all behaviors of students on school property but even more difficult to stop or reprimand students for abuse on the internet or over usage of other public channels. Categories a) school security, b) school discipline, and c) school climate do not consider a preventative approach that helps students deal with deep-rooted conflicts that can lead to violent racial conflicts on and off school property.

(d) Prevention Activities. As the recent high school shootings have confirmed, school security, zero tolerance policy, and adroit school environment tactics are not sufficient approaches to deal with school violence. The National Center on Education (1999) in the Inner Cities noted that excessive restraint could undermine the speed and

immediacy of emotional reactions. In schools where there is extreme control of children, students tend to develop internalizing problems, such as anxiety disorders, social inhibition, and anti-social behaviors. The ideal situation is creating opportunities for children to practice self-regulatory strategies in diverse contexts and situations and to discuss their feelings and experiences in small and supportive groups, under adult supervision (Zins, et. al., 2001). When conflicts with racial dimensions and other types of conflicts arise, students often do not have the skills to resolve them peacefully. Students are not taught the skills of conflict resolution early enough or broadly enough to prevent conflicts from escalating to violence. For instance, an incident that does not begin as a racial conflict sometimes becomes one as the problem escalates. Such a conflict sparks deeply held racially charged beliefs, which come out in the open during a conflictual situation. Over the years, more advanced intervention activities and programs have been devised and implemented to address the core of racial conflicts (Kauffman et al., 1999). The names of these major activities are conflict resolution programs and multicultural programs. These programs do not rely on the consequence approach of aversive procedures or simply the appearances of a safe haven. Instead, they focus on reducing the probability of problem behaviors and dealing with the inner self. These activities can be considered proactive and preventive.

8. THEORIES OF RESOLUTION TO AGGRESSIVE/VIOLENT

RACIAL BEHAVIORS IN SCHOOLS

The literature shows that violent tendencies can be modified with school intervention programs that teach students essential skills to deal with conflicts (Daunic, et al., 2000; Pitkanen 1974; Goldstein, et al., 1978).

Pedagogy

School is a common factor in the life of most Americans. Without the effective intervention of schools, whether the cause of violence is biological, psychological, or environmental, an aggressive and hateful child can be expected to grow into an aggressive and hateful adult, even a consecutive criminal offender. This can be the result of students never learning alternatives to violent acts (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999). The notion is that environmental influences such as schools can affect change of attitudes and behaviors through social learning (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999).

The hope is that students will transfer the information they learn in courses, training, or other types of intervention programs and apply the learned skills in real-life situations. The aim is to have students understand prevention concepts instead of merely

memorizing the material. The ability to transfer information is heavily affected by students learning with understanding rather than memorizing sets of facts or following a fixed set of procedures. Students are often faced with lectures, class assignments, and homework that do not have clear meaning or logic to them (Klausmeir, 1985).

Control Theory

The control theory best explains the concepts supporting these types of intervention programs. Control theory asserts that intervention programs can be used to correct criminal tendencies relating to violence. Control theory claims that people behave antisocially unless they are encouraged, taught, or trained to avoid doing so (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999). The social-control model is one of the most influential examples of control theories (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999). This theory predicts that the odds of violent behaviors are lowered when youths:

- believe that laws are morally justified and must be obeyed;
- are involved in traditional school and family activities;
- are attached emotionally to other people; and,
- are committed to conventional social goals.

Effective intervention training and instructional programs teach students empathy, which fosters understanding and attachment. Unless students listen and understand other perspectives, they cannot relate to one another. Some of these programs include activities that require students to engage in assignments and projects together. These sorts of

activities force the students to work together as a team. Studies have noted that effective programs engage students to actively learn, whether this involves students working on a month or months long project or a short group activity such as role-playing. They teach students to deal with issues constructively without resorting to violence and to change attitudes and behaviors toward others. Research implies that students learn better in a course designed with formats and guidelines, consistent practices, and reinforcement such as those found in core courses in schools.

This dissertation study proposes that schools can deal with various types and sources of violence with effective programs that integrate various intervention components. The two general major intervention programs in schools are conflict resolution and multicultural programs. Conflict resolution programs teach students necessary skills such as cooperative learning, active listening, and empathy. Multicultural curriculums teach students about other cultures, languages, religions, values, beliefs within cultures, and encourage unity and acceptance among students. These types of skills teach students how to interact with one another in a world where differences are inevitable and diversity is growing. These programs teach tolerance (Avery, 2002). Tolerance is the *ability* to *take* a conflictual situation and deal with the circumstances *without causing harm*. Currently, state and federal grantors are encouraging the implementation of integrated conflict resolution and multicultural programs in schools as an approach to deal with racial conflicts.

9. CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROGRAMS

The intent of the conflict resolution programs is to teach students about self-regulation and cooperation. Self-regulation is the ability to act in socially approved ways in the absence of external monitors. Self-regulation is a hallmark of success in cognitive and social development in conflict resolution programs (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999). Conflict resolution programs allow all sides of a conflict to be aired and they teach students how to use active listening to increase their understanding of others' views. Cooperative learning helps students with diverse backgrounds work together. It helps build communication as an alternative to acts of violence.

One of the first conflict resolution programs, called *Teaching Students to Be Peacemakers*, was developed in the mid-1960s at the University of Minnesota. David Johnson and other researchers translated the theories and results of research of conflict resolution into a set of practical procedures (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999). For example, the peacemaker program, only one of many related programs, uses a cooperative context and academic controversies to train students to resolve their conflicts (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999). School conflict resolution programs are generally described as using either a cadre or a total student body approach. The cadre approach emphasizes training a small number of students to serve as peer mediators. Proponents of this approach believe that a few specially trained students can defuse and constructively resolve interpersonal

conflicts that occur among members of the student body of a school. The cadre approach is relatively easy and inexpensive for a school to adopt. The total student body approach emphasizes the training of every student to manage conflicts constructively. However, the program is relatively expensive because training every student and staff member requires considerable time and commitment. As a result, this method is the least used type of program (Hasselt & Hersen, 1999).

Peer mediation and restorative justice interventions are two frequently used conflict resolution programs. Peer mediation has become one of the most widely used conflict resolution procedures in schools (Donahue, 1996). In fact, the two words peer mediation and conflict resolution are often used interchangeably. However, there are distinct differences between them. Conflict resolution, most commonly used, provides training to an entire class, grade, or school. Conflict resolution focuses on understanding the sources and dynamics of conflict in order to develop more effective strategies and mechanisms for resolving conflicts. Peer mediation is an example of conflict resolution. Peer mediation training is provided to only a few selected students to mediate disputes between other students (Powell, et al., 1995). Peer-mediation interventions allow students who disagree the opportunity to sit face-to-face without interruptions and talk. Peer mediators have no authoritative decision-making power but assist disagreeing parties in solving and reaching mutually acceptable settlement of issues in dispute (Moore, p. 15). The goal of peer mediation includes resolving substantive issues and strengthening relationships of trust and respect between the parties (p. 15). The mediators are trained to be impartial. This does not mean that a mediator cannot have an

opinion but it must not be apparent and influence the mediation. Student mediators are the same age as the involved parties. They are often recommended to be student mediators by teachers and other personnel. During training, role-playing and mock mediation are techniques used to teach the skills to help the parties in conflict reach agreement. Mediators help parties reach agreement by facilitating communication and generating options for solution. Each party is allocated time to be heard. The peer mediator starts the session, helps to clarify the underlying issues that caused the conflict, helps the disputants to propose solutions and evaluate them, writes the agreement, and ends the session. A subset of the peer mediation intervention is the peer-support committee, which is typically used by high school students. It identifies conflicts involving one or more classmates and develops strategies for addressing them. Strategies might include establishing a peer buddy system to help students who need assistance in social skill development learn to interact with classmates during lunch, recess, or during extracurricular activities. Peer buddies serve as models or examples for peers to emulate. The belief is that by observing the reinforcement of others who are behaving appropriately it will to induce similar behavior in the observer (Leffler & Snow, 2001).

Restorative justice, on the other hand, is a process that attends to both the needs of victims and offenders who are involved in a violent incident. Restorative justice offers schools a method of dealing with wrong doings, both minor and serious, with or without punishment and isolation of offending students. Offending students are given a chance to "make things right" with those who have been hurt. Victims benefit from the chance to face their offender and express how they feel. Others who have been affected by the

behavior are also included and contribute their ideas for a restorative outcome.

Restorative processes include community group conferencing, victim-offender meeting, mediation and peacemaking circles (Guerin & Denti, 1999).

A study was conducted to evaluate the effects and effectiveness of conflict resolution training among California high school students (Stevahn, et al., 2002). The researchers were investigating two issues. The first issue was the effectiveness of the conflict resolution and peer mediation training. The second issue was the impact of the training program on academic achievement. The researchers randomly assigned two of four classes to receive five weeks of conflict resolution and peer mediation training integrated into the required social studies curriculum. The remaining two classes studied the same social studies curriculum for identical amount of time without conflict resolution and peer mediation training.

The investigators used a survey. The first question asked whether students actually learned the conflict resolution and peer mediation procedures. If the students did not master the procedures, the program could only have minor effects on the way students managed their conflicts. The second question was whether students applied the procedures learned instead of resorting to violence. If the answer was no, then the program could only have little effect on how students managed their issues. The third question was whether students used integrative, problem-solving negotiation in a simulated conflict where they could choose either a distributive (win-lose) or an integrative (problem-solving) strategy. The more effective the conflict resolution training, the more students were prone to engage in integrative rather than distributive

negotiation. The fourth question was whether students' attitudes toward conflict became positive or negative as a result of their training. The fifth question was whether the conflict resolution and peer mediation increased or decreased academic achievement.

The first set of results showed that the trained students learned the integrative negotiation and peer mediation procedures better, applied the procedure completely, chose an integrative over a distributive approach to negotiate, and developed more positive attitudes toward conflict than untrained students. The second set of results indicated the training program had a positive impact on academic achievement. There are numerous studies that demonstrate conflict resolution programs as effective at changing attitudes and behaviors for a period of time. Johnson and Johnson's (1996) work in 1995 showed evidence that conflict resolution programs such as peer mediation have a positive impact on interpersonal relations among students, teachers, and administrators. In addition, their work discovered that students can learn to perceive conflict as constructive and to seek more cooperative solutions after conflict resolution training (Daunic, et al., 2000, Goldstein, et al., 1978.).

10. MULTICULTURAL CURRICULUM PROGRAMS

Multicultural programs have been used as a supplement to conflict resolution programs in schools. Conflict resolution and multicultural programs are often taught separately. Multicultural programs aim to create a harmonious environment among various groups. Schools started adapting to the cultural distinctiveness and interest of minorities by modifying textbooks, introducing new reading materials, changing examinations, and instructing non-English-speaking students in Spanish and other languages. Currently the phrase “multicultural curriculum” encompasses exposing students to materials, references, assumptions, words, and lives of various racial, ethnic, and gender groups. Such a curriculum, which most of its critics can accept, assumes that Americans come from all races and ethnic groups that have helped build America. This type of curriculum promotes unity and harmony among different groups.

In the 1990s, there have been efforts to reform the K-12 curriculum by rendering the classes more attentive to the inclusive themes of multicultural education. But these attempts have largely been overshadowed by the adoption of meeting and exceeding state and national academic standards. This moves away from the initial goals of schools to develop the whole student but only focus on the academic competitiveness among students on the state, national, and international level.

However, over the years, there has been progress. For instance, there is a charter school in Pennsylvania, called the Multi-Cultural Academy that focuses on multicultural issues. The broad objectives of most multicultural focused curriculums are:

- enhancing multiethnic and multicultural understandings;
- building healthy human relationships and self-concepts;
- improving the multicultural climate of schools; and,
- implementing new curricula, which introduce and develop feelings of multicultural awareness and appreciation (O'Neil, 1993).

Another example of a multicultural program, which specifically deals with racism and prejudice, is called 'Blood on the Streets'. This program involves a group of students who play out roles that inspire the audience to express and discuss their opinions on racism (Klein, 1993). The program aims to inculcate the idea of peaceful coexistence in the students and make them better citizens of the future. This is a form of the dialogic approach. This type of program strives to engage individuals from various backgrounds in dialogue. The dialogic approach is viewed as enabling tolerance, acceptance, and harmony. It is perceived as a process of discussion to help resolve deep-rooted conflicts (Kuinan & Auiram, 1994). Another program is the Los Angeles, California: Educating for Diversity (www.ed.gov, date accessed February 29, 2004). In 1992, the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD) implemented a plan to address diversity and cultural problems in its schools. The program contains a multi-prong approach that addresses the needs of teachers, administrators, students, and the community. Teams of teachers and

counselors from each school receive training for working with victims of hate crimes and parents are offered a one-day orientation on family and human relations' issues. The aim of the program is to improve students and increase understanding of and respect for diversity with the support of teachers and parents.

There are only a few studies that indicate that multicultural programs are effective at reducing racial conflict. There are more findings that indicate weaknesses in the multicultural programs. The implication is that there are a few programs that are deemed effective at addressing racial conflict between students.

11. LIMITATIONS OF INDEPENDENT CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROGRAMS AND MULTICULTURAL PROGRAMS

The literature on school intervention programs notes that multiple programs have demonstrated efficacy in reducing violence. However, there are findings that indicate many schools face a number of barriers, which prevent effective implementation of programs such as limited resources and lack of an infrastructure for new program development. Many school officials express concern about unavailable equipment and insufficient personnel to teach basic academic courses and inability to expand programs to address psychosocial issues that stimulate racial conflicts (Kramer, et al., 2002). In addition, although the intent of these types of programs- conflict resolution and multicultural- are to address racial conflicts, if the implementation of the programs is not carefully examined and instilled then they can cause more harm than good. Cognitive-developmental research found teaching counter-stereotypic information can increase racial stereotyping. For instance, in a study by Ayres (1973), twenty children were enrolled in an intervention program that included stories about people traveling to new parts of the country, encountering, and hearing positive stories about individuals from different racial and ethnic groups. Of the fifteen children who were initially biased against African American, six children developed non-biased or pro-African American

attitudes. Nine children remained highly biased against African Americans, and five of these children developed more biased racial attitudes as a result of the intervention. The findings indicate that some of the children included in the experimental programs developed more biased attitudes as a result of inappropriate exposure to multicultural programs and experiences (Joyner & Kao, 2000).

Another criticism is the lack of theory and research application and its negative affect on the effectiveness of intervention programs (Solomon, 1996). Another example is one of the major criticisms of multicultural curriculums, which claims that the curriculums discuss issues of the past such as slavery. Critics of the curriculum believe this provides a time for marginalized group members to learn and discuss previous maltreatment and build anger and resentment toward other groups. As a result, some of these critics question the intent of these programs. However, supporters of the programs assert that the purpose of the programs is to discuss thoughts, feelings, and experiences that influence the decision to act violently, behave aggressively towards a member of another race, and change it (Bigler, 1999).

According to Bigler, empirical data suggest that most of the intervention programs such as independent conflict resolution programs and independent multicultural programs are ineffective in changing attitudes and behaviors. Some of the reviewed intervention curriculums did help students develop more positive racial attitudes, but the effects were not consistent. Some of the students at the end of the programs showed a positive change in attitude and others did not show any change. In addition, there was a concern with the weakness of long-term effects of these programs. When posttest

attitude measures were given after a substantial time delay of several days or weeks, significant effects of the programs were weakened or disappeared (Joyner & Kao, 2000).

According to Bigler's (1999) critical research, most of intervention studies cited as "successful" do not provide convincing tests of effectiveness of particular programs.

Too often, intervention studies are characterized by very small experimental samples, the lack of control groups, and the absence of appropriate statistical tests of whether attitude change has occurred (Bigler, 1999). Most of the studies that Bigler reviewed took place several years after the case of Brown versus the Board of Education. Over the years, these intervention programs have not only increased, but also have developed into various levels.

Recommendations To The Limitations To Addressing Racial Conflicts In High Schools

Studies have found answers to the barriers of the effectiveness of these intervention programs. Joyner and Kao (2000) identified the answer as being a "combination of strategies based on several different theoretical foundations"-integration.

Effective intervention programs need to use strategies that are designed to address racial conflicts and match the cognitive skills that children bring to curriculum programs. In one study on the integration of conflict resolution programs and social studies, the results indicated a positive effect of the program on changing attitudes and behavior and, even,

improving academic achievements of students. Integration of programs that draw from different schools of thought help students to better understand and internalize concepts. However, some argue that the program may help with preventing violence and improving academic achievement but it does not address the problem of racial conflict. Social studies focus on history. Students mainly take notes in class and occasionally work on class projects. The courses are not designed to focus on subject matters such as language, culture, religion, and custom of individuals with different backgrounds. It does not help students understand differences between their culture and others that exist in America.

Integrated conflict resolution and multicultural programs are evolving towards a more transformative approach that combines insights, tools, and resources. Over the years, multicultural programs have evolved to encompass conflict resolution concepts and methods. The transition of the intervention programs to integrated programs resembles the evolution of conflict resolution processes based on research and development of more theories. At one time, peer mediation was considered the primary approach to school violence (Powell, et al., 1995). Over time, this changed. Now, research studies indicate that schools need to implement more “sophisticated” programs based on research and theory (Joyner & Kao, 2000). The term sophisticated represents more comprehensive and integrated programs so students can actively learn, relate the materials to concrete, pre-existing contexts, and retain the material. In recently designed and implemented programs, interventions are more comprehensive, drawing from various disciplines such as history, literature, arts curricula, and service learning (www.ed.gov, date accessed February 29, 2004). It is realized that simple one- or two-day training is not

sufficient to change attitudes and modify behaviors. Instead, it requires a comprehensive and integrative approach to develop concepts, skills, techniques, and methods to teach the information and to have a long-term effect. The transformative approach does not stop at merely teaching cooperation to generate win-win solutions but to change underlying attitudes and behaviors.

There are two examples of integrated programs, which are called The Youth Together Project (Project) and Stop the Hate. The *Youth Together Project* was developed by a coalition of human rights groups, teachers, school administrators, parents, and students, in response to reports of increasing racial and ethnic tensions among the students in the Oakland, Richmond, and Berkley schools. The Project aims to foster cross-cultural understanding between different ethnic and racial groups; establish preventive programs designed by and for youth; and influence hate crime policies within participating school districts. Students are grouped into multicultural teams to examine individual stereotypes and prejudices through group discussions and cooperative learning activities. This approach is based on the theory that the key to resolving ethnic and racial conflict among students is to understand student perspectives on race, power, and privilege, and to address the institution roots of racial violence in the schools. In the program, the teams work together to implement hate and violence intervention prevention programs. *Stop the Hate* is designed to combat hate-related incidents by altering how schools resolve intergroup tensions. The program is based on the premise that the first step schools must take to stop hate violence is to acknowledge the reality of hate crimes. Schools then must develop a voluntary “code of conduct” that clearly communicates that

the schools community will not tolerate acts of hate. *Stop the Hate* provides comprehensive, anti-bias, and conflict resolution training for high schools students, teachers, administrators, parents, and community members. The students are directly involved in the program as trainers and peer leaders (www.ed.gov, date accessed February 29, 2004).

It has been demonstrated by studies of integrated programs such as conflict resolution programs and a core course, social studies, that students show more successful understanding and transfer of the key concepts. The key to effective programs is the composition of essential elements, time, active, context, challenge, social opportunities, coaching, modeling, and reinforcement, which equals understanding, learning and transfer. It is believed that an integrated conflict resolution and a multicultural course can have an effective impact on reducing racial conflicts (www.ed.gov, date accessed February 29, 2004).

Independent conflict resolution and multicultural programs have been part of American schools for several years. However, the integration of the two programs is rising based on the need for more sophisticated and comprehensive intervention programs. The integration of the programs teaches students about various cultures, unity, which creates an environment conducive for the development of tolerance, acceptance, and conflict resolution skills. It is evident that as time passes, although the concept is new and there has not been much research conducted on the approach, comprehensive integrated programs is becoming the recommended solution to address racial conflict in

high schools. However, as mentioned previously, there is not substantial evidence to support this notion. The federal *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001*, and many federal K-12 grant programs, are now calling on educational practitioners to use “scientifically-based research” to guide their decisions about which interventions to implement to help address issues schools are forced to face such as racial conflicts (U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, 2003). The goal of this case study is to test the effectiveness of the new types of approaches and demonstrate steps schools may use to implement scientifically based interventions.

12. GAPS IN LITERATURE - NEED FOR MORE RESEARCH

Bigler (1999) and Joyner and Kao (2000) have examined research on intervention programs. Based on these findings, new intervention programs are developing to eliminate the weakness of previously examined programs. Most of these revised programs are integrated; some of them have been mentioned in this study. But there are not sufficient evaluations on the impact of these programs against racial conflicts.

There is a need for more data collection. There is practically no published research about the effectiveness of integrated programs. This paper proposes the following: One, effective integrated conflict resolution programs and multicultural programs teach students skills to constructively deal with conflicts with deep-rooted issues. Two, based on collected literature and research, an assessment and implementation model can be created and used by high schools as way to select and execute appropriate programs in their schools. The following questions will be answered: Does the suggested approach, integrated programs, effectively prevent and address racial conflicts in schools? Do integrated conflict resolution and multicultural programs change attitudes and behaviors? If so, what type of change takes place? What types of multicultural programs effectively impact the learning of conflict resolution techniques and skills? Does this integration change attitudes and behaviors? If not, what

elements are missing? Or, if yes, what elements are essential? What types of steps impact long-term sustainability?

This study proposes, with the support of critical examinations of intervention prevention programs, that integrated programs are the most effective method to intervene and prevent school violence and racial conflict. It is believed that an integrated program with conflict resolution and multiculturalism is suitable to teach students about tolerance, acceptance, and appropriate skills and techniques to deal with conflicts.

The subsequent paragraphs describe the methodology of the evaluation study that aims to measure the effects of school's intervention approaches (zero-tolerance policy, conflict resolution program, multicultural program, integrated conflict resolution and multicultural programs).

13. METHODOLOGY

This dissertation research studies high school racial conflict and intervention programs in Pennsylvania as a case study. Pennsylvania has 501 school districts. There are a total of 533 public high schools. The racial/ethnic background of the students is made up of 76% White, 16% Black, 6% Hispanic, and 2% Asian/Pacific Islander. Racial conflict is one of the contributors to high school violence. Previous studies on intervention programs designed to address school conflicts and its manifestation, violence, lack indication of significant effectiveness on reducing racial conflicts. This study offers research and theory-based integrated intervention programs, synthesized conflict resolution program and multicultural program, as an effective approach to deal with racial conflicts in high schools. This research assesses existing programs and attempts to determine if the existing programs are effective at reducing racial conflict.

This study aims to test the following hypothesis: Educational intervention programs that encompass multicultural and conflict resolution training contents (integrated programs) in its integrated lessons are more effective at reducing the number of racial incidents at high schools. The alternative hypothesis is: High schools that do not utilize intervention programs with a combination of multicultural and conflict resolution training contents but only rely on strict policies and practices (e.g., laws and

rigid discipline) have the most impact on reducing the number of racial incidents in high schools.

This research plans to answer the following questions.

- Has there been a change in the number of racial conflicts?
 - If so, what type of change took place?
- Has there been any attitude change toward racial conflict?
 - If so, what type of change took place?
- Do the existing policies and programs have a different impact on the level of racial conflicts among them?
- Do the existing policies and programs have a different impact on the decrease level of negative attitude change toward racial conflict?
- What policy and program has the most positive impact on racial conflict?

This study is a summative evaluation of intervention programs dealing with racial conflict and its manifestation, violence, in high schools. Schools with and without intervention programs are the units of analysis. The study specifically evaluates the Pennsylvania high school system's approach to deal with racial conflicts and its violence. Its goal is to assess the effects and effectiveness of integrated conflict resolution and multicultural programs in high schools, which are designed to help change the attitudes and behaviors of students toward racial conflicts.

Research Design

This research uses a multi-methodology (survey, experiment, and case study) and focuses on three types of data, which are: 1) principal data, 2) teacher data, and 3) parent data. The study encompasses a selection of a sample size of high schools in Pennsylvania that meet the criteria of the study. Principals, teachers, and parents are the key participants in the study.

This study entailed a methodology that takes the shape of a funnel. It gathered and analyzed large amounts of data and then seeped down to further collect and analyze more data. The approach was used as a confirmatory and exploratory tool. The collection and analysis of the larger data size helped gather general information about the effects and effectiveness of the programs throughout the state. The collection and analysis of the smaller data size gave in-depth information about the how and why, if the programs work or do not work.

The problem with case comparisons is the number of variables as possible explanations being measured rather than the factors intended to be measured in a research study. Przeworski and Tuene (1970) developed a strategy to address the problem. They suggest reducing the number of extraneous variables through the *selection of cases*. The selected cases should have similar characteristics (extraneous variables) that will not be measured in a study. This strategy is known as the Most Similar System Design (MSSD). (See Table 5) Selecting cases that have similar variables controls extraneous characteristics that may influence the dependent variable. So, if the results of the cases are different from each other then it will not be attributed to other variables (e.g.

domination of race, socioeconomic, etc.) except for those relevant to the study (conflict resolution programs, multicultural programs, integrated programs, or strict policies and procedures).

Table 5. Most Similar System Design (MSSD)

<u>Most Similar System Design</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Investigates differences in cases that are largely similar▪ Compares cases that are equal on many characteristics, but differ on the relationship(s) under investigation▪ Cases are different on the dependent variable▪ Compares cases that share many characteristics on their differences

Developed by Przeworski and Tuene (1970)

The purpose of this method is to reduce explanatory variables. The Most Similar System Design controls shared characteristics with the exception of the variables under investigation. In the study for the second part of the analysis, the cases are high schools with the intervention programs or policies with students between the ages of 13-18 and a diverse population (e.g. White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, American Indian, etc.). The goal

of the design is to determine which independent variable (intervention programs) has the most impact on the dependent variable, the number of racially motivated incidents. The focused case comparison, MSSD, emphasizes control by selection, rather than control by manipulation.

There are only experimental groups in the case study. The following types of schools were included in the research study:

- A school with only a conflict resolution program;
- A school with only a multicultural program;
- A school with an integrated conflict resolution and multicultural program; and,
- A school without an intervention program that instead relies on strict policies and procedures of discipline-zero tolerance policy.

Operationalization of variables

There is one dependent variable, which is racial conflict. In this study, there are two types of racial conflict, aggressive and violent. Aggressive racial conflicts are subtle and include any racial slurs, racial comments, and verbal disagreements toward another person or group based on race differences. For example, a disagreement stems from a student cutting in line, an argument develops, and the argument includes racial slurs. Violent racial conflicts encompass any act of physical attack or threat of physical attack against another person or group based on race difference or any conflicts with racial

undertones. This type of conflict includes bullying, fights or attacks, threats, rape, sexual harassment, vandalism, and shootings on school property with racial undertones. The independent variables are the conflict resolution programs, multicultural programs, integrated conflict resolution/multicultural programs, and strict policies and procedures against racial conflict.

In order to distinguish among the intervention programs, key components for each type of approach has been identified and listed below.

1. Conflict resolution programs include:

- Teaching understanding of conflict, cooperation, effective communication and listening skills;
- Teaching students to manage anger, control aggressive responses, avoid, and diffuse potentially physically violent confrontations; and,
- Follow-ups such as daily announcements to remind students of alternative to violence and or flyers distributed to homeroom teachers (Daunic, et al., 2000).

2. Multicultural programs teach to:

- Understand and respect diversity;
- Foster cross-cultural understanding between different racial groups;
- Develop empathy;
- Awareness and appreciation for diversity and contribution of cultures; and,
- In addition, there should be follow-ups by school personnel (e.g. newsletters)

(www.ed.gov/pubs/HateCrime/page1.html, date accessed February 15, 2004).

3. Zero tolerance policies comprise of:

- Relying on discipline such as suspension and expulsion;
- Progressive discipline;
- Developing plans and procedures to deal with disruptive behaviors that occur at a school;
- Using consistent and individualized responses to each disruptive student (Skiba & Peterson, 1999); and,
- Follow-ups

4. Integrated conflict resolution and multicultural programs include:

- Training that focuses on anti-bias and conflict resolution methods, strategies for preventing violence and racially motivated behavior;
- Teaching students that overt and subtle bias such as racial slurs, offensive name-calling, stereotyping, separation, and exclusion are hurtful and inherently wrong;
- Designing classroom setting activities and programs so children can work together and develop empathy, while practicing the critical thinking and conflict resolution skills needed to recognize and respond to various manifestations of racial behavior;
- Developing a hate prevention policy to distribute to every student, family, and every employee of the school;
- Implementing a range of corrective actions for those who violate the school's hate prevention policy;
- Continue to provide structured opportunities for integration among the students (www.ed.gov/pubs/HateCrime/page1.html, date accessed February 15, 2004); and,

- Follow-ups

Type Of Data Needed

In order to determine whether or not the intervention programs are effective in the schools, this study compares the number of reported racial conflicts after the implementation of the three intervention programs and strict policies and procedures. The purpose of this method is to show if there was any change in the number of racial conflicts since the implementation of the policies and programs. Finally, the study compares changes, if it exists, among the programs (conflict resolution program, multicultural program, integrated program, and strict policies and procedures) and determines which program has the most effective impact on decreasing the number of racial conflicts.

Instruments

The goal of the methodology was triangulation, each type of data-secondary, interview, and survey-should show similar findings. The multi-method approach was designed to control extraneous variables and show reliability and validity. There are two instruments used to measure the variables in the study. The two instruments are surveys and interviews. The survey was used to gather data from principals and parents. The interviews were used to collect information from teachers.

Survey

During the first phase of the case study, the survey collected information from principals, which encompasses schools' record (secondary data) of racial conflict on their school property. The secondary data allowed a comparison of the number of racially motivated incidents before the implementation of each intervention program and to-date incidents. These records helped to determine whether there was a behavioral change toward racial conflict. For instance, if there is no change or an increase in the number of racial conflicts on school property then the records imply that the intervention programs and strict policies and procedures have no impact or heightened the problem. If there is a decrease in the number of racial conflicts then the data supports the hypothesis that intervention programs contribute to the change of attitude and behavioral change of students.

After the collection of the secondary data, each school was placed under its appropriate category (a school with a conflict resolution program, a multicultural program, an integrated program, or a zero tolerance policy - strict policy and procedure). Next, the rates (before and after the training) among the four categories were compared to each other. This helped determine which type of approach has the most impact on decreasing the level of racial conflicts. For instance, if the data shows that there is a significant lower rate of racial conflicts with one particular program then the results would indicate that a certain approach is more effective than the other programs. However, if there is no significant difference between the four categories then the intervention programs have similar impacts or no impact on the level of racial conflicts.

During the second phase of the study, the survey was used to collect data from parents. The parent survey attempted to gather data about students relating to parents' perception of any distinguishable change or lack of change in their child's (or children's) attitude and behavior toward racial conflict.

The survey questions consisted of items that have been measured and found reliable and valid at measuring attitudes and behaviors toward racial conflicts from the perspective of parents and principals of their students. The surveys were designed to collect data from a large population such as parents and principals and to determine if parents and principals observe any difference in their students' attitude and behavior since the implementation of the intervention program or strict policy and procedure at their respective school. The principal surveys gathered information about the number of violent and racial conflicts, polled the name and types of intervention programs, and information about their schools (i.e. number of teachers, number of students, etc.). Parents reported any attitude and behavioral change in their student(s) based on school interactions, contact information by the schools, and observation of the students at home.

Interview

The second type of instrument used during the second phase was interviews with semi-structured open-ended questions. The interviews were with teachers. In the interview sessions, a series of questions related to the specific topics similar to the principal survey questions were asked and answered by teachers. This type of tool provided more freedom in the sequencing of questions, wording, and ability to extract

more in-depth responses to the relevant topics that were being measured in the case study. The interview sessions expanded on the information collected through the surveys. Many of the teachers were short with their responses and they had to be prompted to gather detailed information about the problem and solutions from their perspectives. The teacher data was used to confirm or disprove the findings based on the principal and parent data.

Study Location

In Pennsylvania, each school falls under a school district. A school board governs each school district. The school board members live in the school district. Each school board employs a superintendent who serves as the chief executive of the school district. The school board may hire additional administrators, which may include a business manager, assistant superintendent, curriculum director, transportation director and food service director. The student enrollment in the school districts ranges from 267 to 214,288. A school district may operate from one to 264 schools, which includes elementary, middle, and high schools. The Pennsylvania School Code provides school boards with a broad authority to establish, equip, furnish and maintain all public schools in the district. School boards also have the authority to employ the necessary qualified personnel to operate its schools. In order to support various activities such as intervention programs and alternative education, school boards are provided with the authority to levy taxes, borrow funds, obtain grants and expend funds as outlined in the Pennsylvania

School Code and by other state and federal laws. Public school districts spend more than \$14.8 billion each year to provide educational services to more than 1.8 million students.

Pennsylvania's public schools are operated and funded under the authority of the Commonwealth's General Assembly and the locally elected school boards of directors. Public schools take many different forms and include: elementary, primary, intermediate, middle school, junior high, high, junior-senior high, area vocational-technical, independent, alternative education and charter schools. In this study, public high schools are the focus. A school principal, who is responsible for the day-to-day operation of the school and reports to the school district superintendent or assistant superintendent, heads each public school. Principals must evaluate classroom teachers and other professional staff each year. In addition, principals are the academic leaders of the school and work with teachers to address the needs of students through curriculum and instructional practice. The philosophy of *local control* is a strong tradition in Pennsylvania. Each school district through its locally developed strategic plan outlines how it will assist students in meeting the state's academic standards, including requirements for high school graduation, and other activities and programs. However, school boards must approve school district policies and educational practices including the school district's curriculum and policies for grading, promotion, grade retention, student discipline and athletic teams.

Selection of Participants

This case study examines a sample of Pennsylvania high schools' approach toward racial conflicts. Pennsylvania was the selected state because it is one of the states facing critical examination on its approach to fight violence, racism, and to improve academic achievements. However, its programs and others need further evaluation. There are a total of 5,686 schools in Pennsylvania, which comprised of 533 public high schools. The Commonwealth of Pennsylvania has 501 school districts. Approximately 250 school districts were contacted and asked to participate in the study and 31 agreed to participate in the case study. Thirty-one high schools and 31 principals, 27 teachers, and 28 parents were participants in the study. These schools were located in urban, suburban, and rural areas with a diverse student body. School districts with at least 10% minority representation were selected to participate in the study.

Why are high schools used as the focus of the case study? According to Piaget's Cognitive Theory, students at the high school level are more mentally developed to learn complicated concepts required to accomplish change of attitudes and behaviors toward racial conflict. Piaget's Cognitive Development Theory refers to the changes that occur in an individual's cognitive structures, abilities, and processes from their birth into adulthood (Driscoll, 1994). Although, high school students' attitude and behavior toward racial conflict and its manifestations are the focus of this study, data could not be directly collected from the children. The Human Subject Review Board considers high school students as a vulnerable population to research. Therefore, parents, principals, and

teachers are the selected participants for the study. There are three measures: principals' perceptions of students' attitude and behavior toward racial conflict; teachers' perceptions of student attitudes and behaviors toward racial conflict; and, parents' perception of students' attitude and behavior toward racial conflict. The attitudes and behaviors include actions relating to fighting, harassment, use of weapons, and other types of aggression with racial undertones such as bullying, racial slurs and jokes, fights, rape, sexual battery other than rape, vandalism, robbery, use of weapons, shootings, and homicides. This combination of measures will indicate any level of change in attitude and behavior towards racial conflict in students.

Steps used to Collect Data

In the beginning of the study, the Department of Education provided their 2004-2005 *Pennsylvania Education Directory*. The Department of Education's directory entails the names of each school district, contact information for each superintendent, name of all of the high schools, the contact information for principals. The initial schools were randomly selected from the Department of Education's directory. The Department of Education's website, <http://edna.ed.state.pa.us/>, provided the same information. In addition, the website provided email addresses for superintendents, principals, and teachers. This information was useful for the follow-ups. The original set of calls was made to superintendents at 150 school districts and an additional 100 school districts were contacted due to the lack of slow affirmative responses. The 2000 Census was used to determine the school districts with a diverse population. Counties and school districts

with 10% or more diverse population were selected as a focus for the follow-ups. The purpose of the first set of calls was to determine if the school district had an IRB. If the school district did not have an IRB then permission to conduct the study was collected from the superintendent, principal, or a guidance counselor. Once the appropriate person or persons were identified, a package with a description of the study, copy of the surveys, and consent forms were sent to the person(s) with the authority to grant permission to conduct the study. The cover letter of the package asked the contact person(s) to call or send an email to the researcher with their answer of whether or not they plan to participate in the study.

Most of the high school contacts with the authority to give permission to conduct the study were principals due to the *local control* tradition. The participating school districts responded by email or regular mail. Most of the respondents answered by mail. Some contacts initially responded by phone call and followed up with a letter or email message to confirm. Most of the school districts refused to participate in the study. The nonparticipating school districts reported they chose not to engage in the study because of the following reasons:

- The superintendent or principal believed the subject matter would be detrimental to the school(s) accomplishing its goals,
 - The school district was in the midst of administration changes and did not have anyone to respond to the questions,
 - The superintendent or principal did not have time to answer the survey questions,
- or

- The school district does not allow administrators to answer external surveys due to previous negative experiences with other students.

SUMMARY OF METHODOLOGY - PART ONE

I. Summary of Methodology

- In Pennsylvania, there is local control. Approval to conduct the research at selected high schools was obtained through the highest-ranking official. The researcher contacted each school district's superintendent to determine the appropriate steps to take to retrieve permission to conduct research in their schools. If there was an Institutional Review Board (IRB) in a school district then the researcher sought permission from the board. If a school district did not have an IRB then the researcher obtained permission through the highest-ranking official at each school or school district (e.g. superintendent, principal, or school counselor).
- Phase I- Requested permission to collect data from 250 schools in Pennsylvania. The researcher contacted the superintendent of each selected school district, described the evaluation study, and asked for the name of the contact person who had the authority to grant permission for each of the selected schools. Then, the researcher contacted the listed designees (who have the authority) by phone, described the evaluation study, and asked each contact person if they were willing to participate in the study. If yes, the researcher asked each contact person to send the researcher a letter giving permission to collect data from the selected schools. In the letter from the Institutional Review Board, superintendents, communication coordinators, or principals, the designees, it was noted that the contact person understood the content,

purpose of the study, and agreed to allow the collection of data from their schools.

Once the researcher received the permission in writing to collect data, the consent forms were forwarded to George Mason's Human Subject Review Board.

- The investigator used follow-up phone calls when there was an insufficient and a slow response rate with the letters.
- Phase II-Once permission was received, a consent form and a survey was sent to the principals of each selected school (250 schools). Interested principals completed and returned the survey to the researcher.
- The investigator used follow-up phone calls when there was an insufficient and a slow response rate with the return of the principal surveys and consent forms.
- Phase III-Collected and analyzed returned survey. Secondly, executed a frequency, t-test, and ANOVA, which was used to show whether there was a significant change (less or more violent) or there was no change in the level of racial conflicts.

PART TWO

- Phase IV- Created four lists that categorized the intervention programs. The four categories were schools with conflict resolution programs, multicultural programs, integrated programs, and strict policies and procedures. Selected eight of the 250 school districts that met the criteria, which included: two schools with a conflict resolution program, two schools with a multicultural program, two schools with an integrated program, and two schools with no intervention programs (strict policies and procedures) with similar characteristics.

- Phase V- Eight schools were selected from the list of principals that responded to the Principal Survey. The researcher sent a consent form to parents informing them about the study and asked them to complete and return the survey to the researcher. The Parent Survey was sent out to a sample size of parents. The instructions on the survey told the selected parents to send their responses directly to the researcher. Self-stamped and self-addressed envelopes were included in the survey package. The frequency, t-test, and ANOVA tests were used to analyze the teacher data
- Phase VI- Interviewed teachers of the selected 8 schools and gathered additional detail oriented information about relevant variables. The questions used for the interviews were similar to questions designed for the parents but asked the questions from the teacher's perspective. The data helped to expand, confirm, or disprove the information collected from the parents and principals. Then, a content analysis was executed to analyze the interview responses (of the teachers, staff, and administrators) based on constructive coding. The next chapter describes the data collected.

Data Collection

The principal data was collected during Spring 2005 through Spring 2006 relating to the 2003 through the 2004 school years. After seeking and receiving approval to conduct the study at participating school districts, a letter with the approval letter from the person(s) with the authority to describe the study, copy of the principal survey, and consent form was sent to the principal or another person who had the data. The

principals were allocated two weeks to review and respond to the request to participate in the study. The principal survey took approximately 30 minutes to complete. After two weeks, when there was a slow response rate from the principals, the participating principals were given a follow-up phone call, a second and third phone call after the fourth week and so on until they returned the survey. Counties and school districts with 10% or more of a diverse population were selected to help narrow the focus for the follow-ups. The 2000 Census was used to determine the school districts with a diverse population. The majority of the principals returned their surveys by mail. A few principals sent their survey through email.

The participating school districts in the second half of the study were selected based on the principal responses. The principal participants noted the type of program and policy they have at their schools. Principals who reported having a zero tolerance policy, conflict resolution program, multicultural program, and integrated programs were contacted for further data collection. There were 8 participating schools for the data collection from teachers and parents. There was a total of 27 participating teachers. Once the participating teachers were identified, interview sessions were scheduled. A few interviews took place over the phone. The teacher interviews took place at their schools or homes. The teacher interviews took approximately 30 minutes. Teachers were selected from a list provided by the schools and teacher associations within the community. The teachers that refused to participate in the study reported they did not have sufficient time to meet and participate in the study. The teachers that agreed to participate in the study freely answered the interview questions. The teacher interview

questions consisted of the same sort of questions found on the principal survey. The purpose of the teacher interviews was to confirm or disprove the principal data collection and help enhance the understanding of the secondary data.

The parent data was collected from the same schools as the participating teachers. The parents were selected based on suggestions from principals, teachers, and community members. Other parents were selected from their affiliation with external organizations attached to the selected high schools. There were 28 participating parents in the study. The parent survey took approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The parent surveys and consent forms were mailed to those who were willing to participate in the study after being contacted by phone. The participating parents returned the completed surveys and consent forms by mail. The parent survey inquired about any noticeable changes in their child's attitude and behavior toward racial conflict.

Table 6: Data Collected

<u>Data Source</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Total Number</u>
Principal Surveys	The principals' survey questions measured the level of change in attitude and behavior of students toward racial conflict. The survey also polled the name, type, and description of intervention programs and/or policies at schools. Principal survey was sent to a sample size of principals at high schools throughout Pennsylvania.	31
Teacher Interview	Teacher interviews involved semi-structured open-ended questions. In the interview sessions, a series of questions similar to topics on the principal survey. This type of tool provided more freedom in the sequencing of questions, wording, and ability to extract in-depth responses to the relevant topic. The interview sessions expanded on the information collected through the principal survey.	27
Parent Survey	After a large distribution of surveys were sent to a sample size of principals in Pennsylvania then a sample of parents of the selected schools also received surveys. The parent survey aimed to gather data about students relating to any distinguishable change or lack of change in their attitude and behavior.	28
Department of Education's Data	Determine overall status of the level of racial incidents on school property.	501 School Districts & 533 Public High Schools

In addition, secondary data was collected from the Department of Education's 2002-2003 and 2003-2004 Safe School's Report. The report provided detailed information on the status of safety and violence in Pennsylvania schools, schools districts, and the citizens of the Commonwealth. This report encompasses information collected by Pennsylvania's 501 school districts. The local school administrators were responsible for the accuracy of the report. The annual report covered July 1st to June 30th of each year.

This annual report is a requirement mandated from the following programs:

- [Act 26 of 1995](#), the Safe Schools Act
- Unsafe Schools Choice Option
- Special Education Reporting

The report provided an Executive Summary, State Summary, County Summary and School District Summary. For this study, only the Executive, State, and School District Summary are relevant and analyzed in this study.

Data Finding

There were three groups of findings in this study, which derive from the collected principal, teacher, and parent data. This chapter reports the findings according to each group (principal, teacher, and parent). In the first group, principal, the following tests were executed to analyze the collected principal data:

1. Frequency,

2. T-test, and
3. Anova

PRINCIPAL DATA FINDINGS

FREQUENCIES

Table 7. Principal-Frequency of Highest Occurrence of Inappropriate and Illegal Conduct

<u>Type of Concern</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Drugs Alcohol Tobacco	42%
Bullying	42%
Fighting	7%
Theft	7%
Sexual Harassment	2%

Table 8. Principal-Frequency of Second Highest Occurrence of Inappropriate and Illegal Conduct

<u>Type of Concern</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Fighting	25%
Drugs Alcohol Tobacco	23%
Theft	23%
Bullying	13%
Sexual Harassment	13%
Racial Slurs	3%

Question #10 and Question #11 asked principals to note the highest rate and second highest rate of occurrence of misconduct at their schools. The principals used the list of concerns to determine the options response. An equal percentage of principals (42%) indicated that Drugs, Alcohol, and Tobacco and Bullying were the highest type of occurrences at their school. The second sort of problem marked as a highest type of occurrence was Fighting and Theft (7%). The third on the list was Sexual Harassment (2%). See Table 7. For the Second Highest Type of Occurrence was first, Fighting (25%-first on the list), second, Drug, Alcohol, Tobacco and Theft (23%-second on the list), third, Bullying and Sexual Harassment (13%-second on the list), and fourth, Racial Slurs (3%-fourth on the list). See Table 8.

Table 9.

Principal-Frequency of Reported Changes of Behavior Toward Racial Conflict

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
No	65%
Yes, Decreased	19%

Table 10.

Principal-Frequency of Reported Changes of Attitude Toward Racial Conflict

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
No	68%
Yes, Decreased	32%

Question #11 on the principal survey asked, “*Have you noticed a change of behavior toward racial conflict between the 2002-2003 and 2003-2004 school years?*” The response options were: *Yes, if yes, then what type of change (increase of racial conflict or decrease of racial conflicts), or No.* Question #12 asked, “*Have you noticed a change between the 2002-2003 and 2003-2004 school year in the attitude of students toward racial conflict?*” The response options were: *Yes, if yes, then what type of change (increase of racial conflict or decrease of racial conflicts), or No.* Sixty-five percent of the principals reported that there was no change of behavior toward racial conflict among the students and 19% of the principals reported a change, a decreased change of racial conflict behaviors among the students. Sixty-eight percent of the principals reported that there was no change of attitude toward racial conflict among the students and 32% of the principals reported a change, a decreased change of attitude toward racial conflict among the students. None of the principals reported that there was any negative change of attitude toward racial conflict.

Table 11. Principal-Frequency of Reported Number of Racial Incidents

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Increased	6%
Remained the Same	52%
Decreased	42%

Question #17 asked, “*Do you think the number of racist incidents increased, decreased, or remained the same since the implementation of the program or policy?*” The response options were: *increased, decreased, or remained the same.* Fifty-two percent of the

principals reported that the number of racial incidents remained the same, 42% of the principals reported that the number racial incidents decreased, and 6% of the principals reported that the number of racial incidents increased since the implementation of the intervention.

T-Test

There is a significant difference between the number of racial incidents and recent change attitude change toward racial conflict. The test resulted in a t value of -6.061, with 30 degrees of freedom and a probability of 0.00. Because the probability is less than 0.05, the conclusion is that there is a difference in the number of racial incidents and recent change attitude change toward racial conflict at high schools based on the principal surveys.

ANOVA

The ANOVA test was used to determine if there is a difference in impact among the intervention policy (zero tolerance policy) and programs (conflict resolution, multicultural, and integrated programs) on the measured variables in this study (racial conflict). The test illustrated that there was no significant difference of impact among the policy and programs on the number of racist incidents and attitude change toward racial conflict. The ANOVA analysis for the impact of the policy and programs on the number of racial incidents was F ratio 0.767, with a probability of 0.621. Since this exceeds 0.05 for statistical significance, the level of racial conflicts at schools with the one policy and

3 intervention programs had similar means and no difference of impact among the policy and programs on the variable. The ANOVA analysis on the impact of the policy and programs on any attitude change toward racial conflict is F ratio 1.488, with a probability of 0.223. Since this exceeds 0.05 for statistical significance, the level of any attitude change toward racial conflicts at schools with the zero tolerance policy and conflict resolution, multicultural, and integrated intervention programs had similar means. As a result, this did not show a difference of impact of the policy and programs on level of attitude change toward racial conflict.

Based on the Descriptives of the ANOVA test to determine difference of impact between the number of racist incidents and recent attitude change toward racial conflict and the types of intervention policy and programs, the following means were found:

Table 12-Principal-ANOVA Descriptives (Mean) for Number of Racist Incidents, Recent and Recent Attitude Change Toward Racial Conflict

<u>Category</u>	<u>Type of Policy or Program</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Number of Racist Incidents	Zero Tolerance	2.20
	Conflict Resolution	2.25
	Multicultural	2.33
	Integrated (conflict resolution and multicultural)	2.71
Recent Attitude Change Toward Racial Conflict	Zero Tolerance	1.20
	Conflict Resolution	1.50
	Multicultural	1.00
	Integrated (conflict resolution and multicultural)	1.71

Note 1: Values for the response options for the questions relating to the number of racial incidents:

1=Increased level of racial conflict; Lower level of positive behavior toward racial conflict; 2=Remained the same; no change in any of the categories; and, 3=Decreased level of racial conflict; Higher level of positive behavior toward racial conflict

The lower the mean the lesser the value for a positive response. The higher the mean the more positive the response.

Note 2: Values for the response options for the questions relating to attitude change toward racial conflict:

3=Increased level of negative attitude change toward racial conflict; Lower level of positive attitude toward racial conflict; 2=Remained the same; no change in any of the categories; and, 1=Decreased level of negative attitude change toward racial conflict; Higher level of positive attitude toward racial conflict

The higher the mean the lesser the value for a positive response. The lower the mean the more positive the response.

TEACHER DATA FINDINGS

In the second group, teacher data, the following tests were executed:

1. Frequency and
2. ANOVA

FREQUENCIES

Teachers were also asked to report the highest type of occurrence of inappropriate behavior at their school. The teachers used a sheet with a list of concerns and selected from the list to answer the question. Forty-seven percent of the teachers reported that drugs, alcohol, tobacco was the highest occurrence of misconduct, 35% of the teachers reported bullying was the highest rate of occurrence, 7% of the teachers reported that fighting and theft was the highest occurrence, 4% of the teachers reported that racial incidents were the highest rate of occurrence of misconduct at their schools. See Table 13.

Table 13: Teacher-Frequency of Highest Occurrence of Inappropriate and Illegal Conduct

<u>Type of Concern</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Drugs Alcohol Tobacco	47%
Bullying	35%
Fighting	7%
Theft	7%
Racial Slurs/Incidents	4%

Seventy-four percent of the teachers indicated that the number of racist incidents remained the same, 19% of the teachers indicated that the number of racist incidents decreased, and 7% of teachers indicated that the number of racial incidents increased at their schools. See Table 14.

Table 14: Teacher-Number of Racist Incidents

<u>Response</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Increased	2	7%
Remained the Same	20	74%
Decreased	5	19%

ANOVA

The ANOVA test was used to determine if there was a difference of impact among the policy and programs on the number of racist incidents and attitude change toward racial conflict based on the teacher data. The ANOVA analysis for the impact of the policy and programs on the number of racial incidents was F ratio 0.333, with a probability of 0.801. Since this exceeds 0.05 for statistical significance, the level of racial conflicts at schools with the one policy and 3 intervention programs had similar means. The ANOVA analysis for the impact of the policy and programs on the level of recent attitude change toward racial conflict resulted in F ratio 0.381, with a probability of 0.767. As the probability number exceeds 0.05 for statistical significance there was no

difference of impact between the one policy and 3 intervention programs on attitude change toward racial conflict at the schools. In sum, the test illustrated that there is no significant difference of impact among the policy and programs on the number of racist incidents and any recent attitude change toward racial conflict.

Based on the Descriptives for the ANOVA test for the number of racist incidents and attitude change toward racial conflict and the types of intervention policy and programs, according to the teacher data, the following means were found:

Table 15. Teacher-ANOVA Descriptives (Mean) for Number of Racist Incidents and Recent Attitude Change Toward Racial Conflict

<u>Category</u>	<u>Type of Policy or Program</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Number of Racist Incidents	Zero Tolerance	2.00
	Conflict Resolution	2.17
	Multicultural	2.22
	Integrated (conflict resolution and multicultural)	2.00
Recent Attitude Change Toward Racial Conflict	Zero Tolerance	1.29
	Conflict Resolution	1.50
	Multicultural	1.56
	Integrated (conflict resolution and multicultural)	1.40

Cont'd Teacher's ANOVA Analysis

Note 1: Values for the response options:

1=Increased level of racial conflict; Lower level of positive behavior toward racial conflict; 2=Remained the same; no change in any of the categories; and, 3=Decreased level of racial conflict; Higher level of positive behavior toward racial conflict

The lower the mean the lesser the value for a positive response. The higher the mean the more positive the response.

Note 2: Values for the response options for the questions relating to attitude change toward racial conflict:

3=Increased level of negative attitude change toward racial conflict; Higher level of negative attitude toward racial conflict; 2=Remained the same; no change in any of the categories; and, 1=Decreased level of negative attitude change toward racial conflict; Higher level of positive attitude toward racial conflict

The higher the mean the lesser the value for a positive response. The lower the mean the more positive the response.

PARENT DATA FINDINGS

In the third group, parent data, the following tests were executed:

1. Frequency and
2. T-test

FREQUENCIES

Fifty-six percent of the parents reported that racial conflict is not a current problem, 26% of parents reported that racial conflict is a current problem, and 18% of parents do not know or are not sure of whether racial conflict is a current problem at their student's school. Note: Fifty-six percent of parents that reported that there is no racial problem represents the population of people who deny, or do not want to face the issue.

Unfortunately, ignoring the issue does not make the problem disappear, which is demonstrated by violent incidents that took place at Jenna High School and Warwick High School. See Table 16. Fifty percent of the parents reported that the number of racial slurs made at their student's schools did not change, 27% of the parents reported that the number of racial slurs increased, and 23% of the parents reported that the number of racial slurs decreased in the last two school years. See Table 17. Forty-six percent of the parents indicated that there was no change in the number of racial incidents, 35% of the parents indicated that the number of racial incident decreased, and 19% of the parents indicated that the number of racial incidents increased during the last 2 school years. See Table 18.

Table 16: Parent-Frequency of Racial Conflict Is A Problem

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Do Not Know or Not Sure	18%
No	56%
Yes	26%

TABLE 17: Parent-Frequency of Racial Slur

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
No Change	50%
Decreased	23%
Increased	27%

TABLE 18: Parent-Frequency of Racial Incident

<u>Response</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
No Change	46%
Decreased	35%
Increased	19%

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION DATA FINDINGS

The Department of Education’s 2002-2003, 2003-2004, and 2004-2005 annual Safe School report is also reviewed in this study. Table 19 illustrates the number of enrolled students, number of incidents, number offenders, number of incidents involving local enforcements, and number of racial/ethnic intimidation throughout Pennsylvania high schools in 2002-2003 and 2003-2004. In 2003, there was an enrollment of 1,816,747, in 2004, there was an enrollment of 1,821,146, and in 2005, and there was an enrollment of 1,828,089 of students in Pennsylvania schools. In 2003, there were 70,475 incidents, in 2004 there were 68,438 incidents on school property, and in 2005 there were 66,974 incidents on school property. There were 83,050 offenders in 2003, 52,221 offenders in 2004, and 51,658 offenders in 2005. In 2003, there were 18,080 incidents that involved the local law enforcement, which resulted in 9,527 arrests. In 2004, there were 17,727 incidents that involved the local enforcement, which resulted in 12,758 arrests. In 2005, there were 16,880 incidents that involved the local enforcement, which

resulted in 11,991 arrests. In 2003, there were 295 reports of racial/ethnic intimidations, in 2004, there were 313 reports of racial/ethnic intimidation, and in 2005, and there were 236 reports of racial/ethnic intimidation. See Table 19.

Table 19. Pennsylvania's Annual Safe School Report

<u>Type of Records</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Enrollment</u>	<u>Incidents</u>	<u>Offenders</u>	<u># of Incidents Involving Local Enforcement</u>	<u>Total Arrests</u>	<u>Racial/ Ethnic Intimidation</u>
State	2005	1828089	66974	51658	16880	11991	236
State	2004	1821146	68438	52221	17727	12758	313
State	2003	1816747	70475	83050	18080	9527	295

14. DATA ANALYSES

This study is designed to answer the following questions.

- Has there been a change in the number of racial conflicts in Pennsylvania high schools?
 - If so, what type of change took place?
- Has there been any attitude change toward racial conflict?
 - If so, what type of change took place?
- Do the existing policies and programs have a different impact on the level of school racial conflicts among them?
- Do the existing policies and programs have a different impact on the level of attitude change toward racial conflict?
- What policy and program has the most positive impact on racial conflict?

The frequency, correlation, t-test, and ANOVA statistical tests were used to analyze the collected principal, teacher, and parent data. According to the state's data collection and the results of this case study, there are some discrepancies between the two types of findings. The state's annual report shows that there has been an increase in the level of racial/ethnic intimidation from the 2003 to 2004 school years. But, the annual

report indicates that the number of racial/ethnic intimidation decreased in 2005.

However, this case study reports that the frequency of racial incidents mostly remained the same during the last two years. Although the principal and teacher data indicated that most perceived the number of racial incidents as the same, 42% of the principals and 19% of the teachers reported the number of racial conflicts decreased during the last 2 years (2003-2005). The discrepancy may be a result of the timing of the reporting. Some of the principal reporting in the case study was given during the 2005 school year. When the 2005 annual report and the findings of the case study are compared they both are reporting some level of decrease in racial incidents. Thus, there is a confirmation between the two types of sources during the 2005 school year. This showed that positive change is taking place instead of racial conflicts increasing over that time. Overall, the case study demonstrated that the level of racial conflict could be reduced with the appropriate intervention.

The t-test demonstrates that there was a significant difference between the number of racial incidents and recent change in attitude toward racial conflict. The number of racial incidents and level of change in attitude toward racial conflict have different means on racial conflict. Thus, it may be concluded that the intervention policy and programs have different impacts on the two variables. In other words, the intervention may help to change attitude toward racial conflict but may not significantly change the number of racial incidents or it may take more time for one variable to demonstrate change.

The ANOVA test used to analyze the principal data, which showed that there is no significant difference of impact on the number of racial incidents and attitude change toward racial conflict among the intervention policy and programs. The ANOVA test also illustrated which approach had the most impact on the 2 variables (number of racist incidents and change toward racial conflict), even if the difference was minute, it helps to describe the type of impact that exists among interventions. See Table 20.

Table 20. Principal-Type of Impact of Intervention Approaches

<u>Category</u>	<u>Type of Policy or Program</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Type of Impact</u>
Number of Racist Incidents	Zero Tolerance	2.20	Remained the Same
	Conflict Resolution	2.25	(65%)
	Multicultural	2.33	Decreased
	Integrated (conflict resolution and multicultural)	2.71	(19%)
Recent Attitude Change Toward Racial Conflict	Zero Tolerance	1.20	Remained the Same
	Conflict Resolution	1.50	(67%)
	Multicultural	1.00	
	Integrated (conflict resolution and multicultural)	1.71	Decreased (32%)

Note 1: Values for the response options for the questions relating to the number of racial conflict:

1=Increased level of racial conflict; Lower level of positive behavior toward racial conflict; 2=Remained the same; no change in any of the categories; and, 3=Decreased level of racial conflict; Higher level of positive behavior toward racial conflict

The lower the mean the lesser the value for a positive response. The higher the mean the more positive the response.

Note 2: Values for the response options for the questions relating to attitude change toward racial conflict:

3=Increased level of negative attitude change toward racial conflict; Lesser level of positive attitude toward racial conflict; 2=Remained the same; no change in any of the categories; and, 1=Decreased level of negative attitude change toward racial conflict; Higher level of positive attitude toward racial conflict

The higher the mean the lesser the value for a positive response. The lower the mean the more positive the response.

The integrated intervention program was noted to being used the most and influenced the number of racial incidents, which resulted in a decrease (mean=2.71) of the number of racial incidents. The multicultural program was implemented the most and influenced the level of attitude change toward racial conflict (mean=1.71). Although the means showed that one independent variable was used the most, there was no *significant* difference of their impact on the number of racial conflict and attitude change toward racial conflict but there were some change.

Limitations of Data

The test results may have been different and showed more significant difference if there were larger sample groups used in the data analysis. However, the fact that there were positive change within the study's sample population and the findings were confirmed by the Department of Education data (which has a larger population and indicated positive changes) showed that the findings of the small sample size is reliable

and valid. Unfortunately, many school districts refused to participate in the study due to the subject matter, racial conflict. This resulted in a smaller sample size than planned for this study. However, the results showed reliability and validity. Pennsylvania's Department of Education's annual reports, which encompassed data from all public schools in the state, showed similar findings as this case study's results. This illustrated external validity. Comparable questions on the survey and the interview questions received parallel responses. One group of responses did not contradict another set of responses to questions measuring the same variable. This helped demonstrate reliability and internal validity.

The Department of Education's annual reports and this case study shared a similar limitation. Reporting from the principals is based on information provided to them from others in the school such as teachers and guidance counselors. Every incident was not reported to the principals and, thus, some of the incidents were not reported and included in the studies. Some of the incidents were not reported because the end results were pending. The hold on some of the incidents was due to legal proceedings or disciplinary hearings and the final outcomes were not determined until the conclusion of the school year and report periods. Specifically in regards to the case study, some of the data were collected during the 2003, 2004, and 2005-even though the focus was the 2 previous school years (2003 and 2004). However, the case study's data finding was comparable to Education's 2005 annual report. The following chapter discusses the applicability of the data collected during the case study.

15. DISCUSSION

Racial incidents are considered antisocial behaviors, described as “recurrent violations of socially prescribed patterns of behavior” and, as a result, scholars and U.S. Department of Education deems it a necessity for school districts to implement *effective* interventions to deal with conflicts and violence in schools (Van Acker, 2007).

Student antisocial behavior is recognized as one of the most pressing concerns of educators today (Van Acker, 2007). Between 1980 and 2000, there was an increase in antisocial behavior that resulted in community concerns and subsequent solutions (e.g., the Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act and the Gun-Free Schools Act 1994) (Van Acker, 2007). School districts across the nation have since increasingly invested in intervention policies and programs. Initial attempts to reduce conflicts on school property included measures such as security guards, metal detectors, and video surveillance of public areas. However, these practices did not actually prevent conflicts; instead, the rate of suspensions, expulsions, dropouts, incarcerations, and minority overrepresentation in juvenile detention skyrocketed across the United States (Skiba, 2001; Ritter, 2004).

Alternative education is one of the earliest solutions used to deal with students who continued to disrupt the school environments with antisocial attitudes and behaviors.

Alternative schooling can be traced back to colonial times, when education was offered to the general population by the wealthy or through religious groups. Today's alternative schools include diverse educational programs and service delivery models intended for students with special education needs, at-risk students, disruptive students, advanced-placement students, charter schools, and home-schooled children. This includes students labeled with severe behavioral problems at a regular school and, as a result, is sent to an alternative education setting. Approximately 2% of American youths, or 280,000, receive alternative education (Grunbaum et al., 1999).

These schools typically strive to provide a caring, collaborative, and engaging learning environment and develop a community of learners that demonstrates acceptance, leadership, and academic achievement. Cash (2004) reports that alternative education is effective in reducing truancy, improving attitudes toward school, helping students accumulate high school credits, and reducing behavioral problems. However, in a 5-year evaluation of alternative educational programs in North Carolina, researchers reported that students within these settings rarely maintained their ties to the schools they were forced to leave (Cobb et al., 1997). Students found that alternative education settings had staff members who were generally caring, but they did not have adequate training and support to provide their students with quality education. These programs also often lack the adequate facilities, materials, and budgets necessary for success. As with other original practices, there is little empirical research that supports or detracts from the effectiveness or long-term outcomes of alternative education for students with antisocial

behavior. Thus, alternative education has not been proven to be effective in addressing racial conflicts.

This study hypothesizes that educational intervention programs with multicultural and conflict resolution training contents in its lessons are the most effective approach at dealing with racial incidents at high schools.

According to the findings of the Pennsylvania case study, there was a 0.55 correlation between violence and racial conflict at a 0.01 significant level (2-tailed) based on the principal data. The principal data also illustrated a significant correlation of 0.59 at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) between change of attitudes toward violence and change of attitudes toward racial conflict. The teacher data confirmed that there is a strong relationship between attitude changes toward violence and racial behaviors, with a significant correlation of 0.76 at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). The teacher and parent surveys did not collect the same type of information about the level of violence, thus a correlation test could not be executed between violence and racial incidences based on that type of data. However, the principal data demonstrated that there is a strong relationship between racial and violent behaviors, as well as between change of attitudes toward violence and change of attitudes toward racial conflict. The correlation tests revealed that when the number of violent incidents increased, the number of racial incidents increased, and when the number of violent incidents remained the same, the number of racial incidents remained the same. In addition, when the number of violent incidents decreased, the number of racial behaviors decreased. The same relationship existed between change of

attitudes toward violence and toward racial conflict. In other words, when there was a decrease in positive attitude changes toward violence, there was a decrease in positive change in racial attitudes; when there was no change in attitudes toward violence, there was no change in attitudes toward racial conflict; and when there was no increase in positive attitude changes toward violence, there was no increase in positive attitude changes toward racially motivated behaviors. Although there was strong evidence of these relationships, this paper collected and analyzed data specifically relating to racial conflict. However, general violence is often mentioned herein to help understand the impact of one policy (zero tolerance) and three intervention programs (conflict resolution, multicultural, and integrated) for improving school environments.

Studies of earlier intervention programs show that high schools have focused only on general violence and do not address more specific problems at schools such as racial tension, whose incident rates have fluctuated up and down over the years. But currently the rates of racial incidents are decreasing (2003-2004 and 2004-2005). Today, schools in the United States serve a more diverse population of students than earlier years, and the proportion of students from diverse cultural backgrounds is still rising, resulting in increased racial conflicts. In 1998, the National Center for Educational Statistics reported that 37% of students in public schools were from minority groups. As a response to more widespread racism, school districts have implemented new intervention policies and programs to help prevent racial conflict. The subsequent paragraphs further describe the most used interventions by summarizing the type of impact of the policy (zero tolerance

policy) and programs (conflict resolution, multicultural, and integrated conflict resolution and multicultural) on racial conflict in high schools, according to the case study findings.

Zero Tolerance Case Study Finding

Zero tolerance is an intervention approach that relies on strict policies and rule enforcements. The true meaning of zero tolerance involves punishing all offenses severely, regardless of how minor (Skiba & Peterson, 1999). The intent of zero tolerance is to implement an intervention that sternly punishes students for any inappropriate behavior and thus tries to deter other students from engaging in similar behaviors. Discipline must be conducted in a manner that teaches the student(s) more appropriate behaviors. As all other interventions, any zero tolerance policy and its discipline should be supported by empirical research.

In this case study, ANOVA was executed to analyze the data collected from the principal and teacher data to determine if there was a difference in the effects among the intervention policy and programs on the number of racial incidents and change of racial attitudes in high schools. Zero tolerance had the smallest level of impact (mean=2.20) on positive racial behavioral change (less racially motivated antisocial behaviors) than the three intervention programs, according to the principal data. Based on the teacher data, zero tolerance had the smallest impact (mean=2.00) on positive racial behavior change than the three intervention programs. Overall, the zero tolerance policies had the least impact on decreasing the number of racial incidents.

The previous paragraph explains the impact of zero tolerance on the number of racial behaviors in schools. The following paragraph explains the type of influence zero tolerance policies made on changing racial attitudes. The principal data indicated that zero tolerance had the second most impact on the positive change of racial attitude among students. The teacher data slightly differed from the principal data. The teacher data showed that zero tolerance had the most influence on changing racial attitudes toward racial conflict.

The passage of the Gun-Free Schools Act of 1994 and the provision of discretionary federal grants to schools designed to improve safety have led to the increased implementation of zero-tolerance policies (Brady, 2002). Several studies have been conducted to determine the effectiveness of zero tolerance. In each of the studies, there is a common concern with the zero-tolerance approach to address racially motivated acts. The common concern is the increase in the rates of suspensions and expulsions, as well as disproportionate rates of suspensions and expulsions of minority students (Krezmien, Leone, Achilles, 2006). It does not stop racial behaviors. Studies have found consistent evidence of significant minority overrepresentation in office referrals (Lietz & Gregory, 1978), suspension (Cooley, 1995; Costenbader & Markson, 1998; Skiba et al., 2003), and expulsion (Skiba et al., 2002). In one study, Skiba and his colleagues (2002) found racial differences in office referrals, suspensions, and expulsions, with African American students receiving more suspensions than nonminority students, even when controlling for socioeconomic status. In a Massachusetts study during the 2000–2001 school year, Rabernovic and Levin (2003) found that Hispanic and African American

students comprised only 19% of the public school student population, yet they represented 57% of school exclusions. Zhang et al. (2004) found similar patterns of suspension practices nationally. They also reported disproportionate expulsions of African American and Native American students, who were suspended more often than students from other racial subgroups. Such school exclusion places children at risk of future negative social outcomes, increasing likelihood of academic failure and subsequent drop out (Costenbader & Markson, 1998). This puts the excluded students at higher risk for involvement in juvenile courts and corrections (Ledone et al., 2003).

There are various explanations for the racial disparities in disciplinary suspension and expulsion practices. One possibility is that the disproportionate discipline of African American students is a result of sociocultural factors within the classroom that influence a teacher's decision to remove a student (Vavrus & Cole, 2002). This notion is supported by Bullara (1993), who contends that racial and cultural differences between teachers and staff result in unequal treatment of minority students. Vavrus and Cole similarly suggest that the decision to suspend or expel a student is contextualized on subtle race relations that cannot be addressed in school discipline policies. Another perspective is that "the unequal treatment of students may be a function of complex and systematic influences that pervade public school systems" (Imich, 1994). In this Pennsylvania case study, some teachers and parents reported a similar concern. They mentioned that in some incidents there are unequal reinforcement of the rules on students, which they described as being based on socioeconomic status and race.

To address the disproportionate rates of discipline, participating teachers in this Pennsylvania case study recommended the following actions be taken to help develop and implement an effective zero tolerance policy, which confirms national findings.

First, schools need to maintain zero tolerance at all times. School administrators must be consistent with the enforcement of the policy at every part of the school such as the classroom, cafeteria, sport events and library. It is important for students to perceive that enforcement of the policy is equally distributed throughout the school. The same punishment should be applied for the same inappropriate behavior regardless race, ethnicity, gender or socioeconomic status of the offender. Students need to believe the discipline is fair and just or they will rebel and the discipline may cause more problems than resolution. *Second*, school administrators need to follow through with discipline. School administrators need to conduct expeditious and thorough investigations. Once an investigation is complete and discipline is warranted, the assigned discipline for the inappropriate behavior should be put into practice immediately. There should be no leniency on the enforcement of the discipline at any time. If there is any tolerance in one situation then students, teachers, and parents begin to believe the rules unfairly apply to only a few. This will lead to the lack of respect and adherence to the rules. *Third*, students need to be held accountable for their behavior. Students need to learn the type of behaviors that are deemed inappropriate and realize consequences follow. Hopefully, this teaches students to think before acting and lead to long lasting effects. *Fourth*, teachers are requesting more training to be better equipped to educate a diverse population. Teachers are asking school districts to invest more resources on them in

order for them to have the tools to reach the children in their classrooms. This type of investment also helps improve morale among the teachers. Many of the teachers complained about being overworked, underpaid, and under appreciated by their school districts. School administrators should consult with teachers about new programs. Teachers tend to react more positively toward transitions when they feel involved, trained, and prepared to embrace the changes. *Fifth*, teachers, who participated in the case study, suggested schools use more scare tactics. A common example of the scare tactic is taking students to visit jails and hearing sad stories of other children their age. The scare tactic demonstrates the severity of the possible consequences to inappropriate behavior. The previous paragraph summarizes the case study findings regarding the zero tolerance. Next, the subsequent paragraphs discuss the case study findings pertaining to the conflict resolution programs.

Conflict Resolution Program Case Study Finding

Conflict resolution training programs teach students to communicate between two or more individuals or among groups to resolve disputes. Studies show that a lack of conflict resolution training is a significant contributor to general conflicts in schools (Ketti, 2001; Shafii & Shafii, 2001). One of the key conflict resolution concepts is the win-win solution. Peer mediation is the most common type of conflict resolution process implemented at high schools. In the Pennsylvania case study, the principal data demonstrated that conflict resolution programs had the third highest decrease in the rate of racial incidents. The teacher data showed that conflict resolution programs had the second highest significant impact on reducing the number of racial conflicts. In the case

study, conflict resolution programs did not have the most significant impact on racial behavior or attitude. According to the principal data in the case study, conflict resolution programs were third at impacting the level of change of racial attitude. According to the teacher data, conflict resolution programs had the third most influence on changing negative racial attitudes.

Based on the interviews with the teachers, it was observed that the conflict resolution programs were weak at addressing racial behavior and attitude because the intervention at the participating high schools only reached a few students who volunteered to undergo the training. Most of the students who hold high level of negative racial attitude and most prone to act on these negative thoughts do not volunteer to participate in these intervention programs. It is usually students who want to address their issues and avoid inappropriate and illegal behaviors who volunteer to participate in the training. It was also found that there were no follow-ups to the training and students were not consistently encouraged to use or share the learned constructive skills with others. Thus, the learned information does not reach all of the students, especially the ones who engage in racial conflicts often at school. The lack of follow-up was not only found in schools with conflict resolution programs. The same problem existed at schools with multicultural programs. The next few paragraphs further discuss the case study's findings on multicultural programs.

Multicultural Intervention Program Case Study Finding

As an attempt to specifically address racial tension in schools, multicultural programs were selected and implemented in some high schools. The goal of multicultural programs is to help promote understanding among different races and cultures (O'Neil, 1993). Multicultural curriculums expose students to the norms and practices of various cultures and explain how various cultures have contributed to America. It is assumed that students are more likely to understand and value diversity when common ground is established through the commonality of being American and living in America. Multiculturalism is often replaced with such terms as "antibias," "bias-free," "diversity," "bicultural education," "acculturation," "cross cultural education," "mainstreaming" and "inclusion." These terms can take different meaning depending on the author. However, in this study, they share underlying theories and philosophies that help students meet diverse educational needs. According to the principal data, multicultural programs had the most impact on changing negative racial attitude than the other interventions. The data also showed that the multicultural programs had the second most impact on reducing racial conflicts. The ANOVA test showed that multicultural programs had the most impact on racist behaviors, according to the teacher data. Yet, the teacher data illustrated that the program had the third most influence on changing negative attitudes toward racial conflicts.

Multicultural education seeks to recognize and embrace group similarities and differences. In addition, it encompasses commonality among groups. There is a perception that multicultural programs create a division and aggravate diversity problems

among the various minority groups and nonminority group. However, the multicultural programs in the Pennsylvania case study had the most positive impact on attitudes toward racial conflict than the other programs, according to the principal data. The reviewed multicultural programs in the case study celebrate diversity by acknowledging national celebrations such as Hispanic Heritage Month and Black History Month. The next paragraph describes the findings on integrated programs.

Integrated Intervention Program Case Study Finding

Integrated intervention programs are defined differently depending on the school. A school may categorize an intervention with a zero tolerance policy and an anti-drug policy as an integrated program. However, in this case study, integrated programs are interventions with conflict resolution program and multicultural program components. According to the principal data, integrated intervention programs had the most positive influence on racial incidents (2.71). The case study showed that integrated programs affected racially motivated behaviors, but it had the least impact on changing racial attitudes. As the diversity of the student population increases, cultural conflicts are exacerbated by the variation in background, language, value systems, and socioeconomic status, which form individual's deeply held principles and perspectives, and the lack of understanding, handling of differences. When any conflict or antisocial behavior occurs, deeply held racial beliefs may be revealed. But these sorts of incidents may take the form of a general conflict between two or more individuals then spiral to a more serious conflict. This results in strained interpersonal relationships among and between groups

(Brinson, Kottler, Fisher, 2004). Contenders of integrated programs assume that effective integrated programs should be able to address the sources of these deeply rooted tensions.

Most integrated programs (conflict resolution and multicultural programs) are designed to address various racial conflicts and violence in general. Studies demonstrate that there is a need to find alternative resolutions to address these issues and integrated programs are the new models, thus there is increasing interest in creating and improving integrated multicultural and conflict resolution programs, so the interventions incorporate the key concepts of each program to address the multifaceted problem. The subsequent paragraphs discuss the findings from the Pennsylvania Department of Education.

The Department of Education's Results on the Intervention Policy and Programs

The Department of Education collected data from each school district regarding the number of antisocial behaviors. Student enrollment has been steady (2003: 1,816,747; 2004: 1,821,146; 2005: 1,828,089), and the overall number of antisocial incidents has decreased over the past 3 years. The number of antisocial offenders has also drastically decreased since 2003, when there were 83,050 offenders. In 2004, there were 52,221 offenders and in 2005, 51,658 offenders. Most of the intervention programs were implemented during the past 5 to 6 years, and school districts are beginning to notice a change in the number of incidents and a smaller change in attitudes toward racism. During the 2002–2003 school year, for instance, there were 295 racial/ethnic incidents. In 2004, there was a minor increase of racial/ethnic incidents (313 incidents), but during the

2004–2005 school year, there were fewer racial/ethnic incidents (236) than the 2 previous years. The number of physical fights over matters other than race/ethnicity issues showed slight decrease: in the 2002–2003 school year, there were 6,855 fights, in 2003–2004, 6,746, and in the 2004–2005 school year, 6,152 fights.

According to the teacher case study data, racial incidents are inappropriate behaviors and are treated more seriously than general fighting—that can lead to severe consequences (e.g. juvenile detention). The discipline for the two types of antisocial behaviors is different, which may explain why there are fewer racial incidents than general fights.

Based on the findings of the case study, the hypothesis, *educational intervention programs that encompass assimilated multicultural and conflict resolution training contents (integrated programs) in its integrated lessons are more effective at impacting the reduction of the number of racial incidents at high schools*, is accepted. The principal data demonstrated that integrated programs had the most impact on reducing the number of racial incidents at high schools. The teacher data demonstrated that multicultural programs had the most influence on reducing the number of racial incidents than the other interventions. It appeared that integrated and multicultural programs had the most effect on reducing racist acts. The common denominator is the multicultural components designed to address factors that can lead to racial behaviors. However, direct cause and effect were not proved during the case study. But, participant reports indicated that positive change took place after the implementation of the two interventions. The

principal and teacher data did not provide evidence that zero tolerance policies had the most impact on racist incidents at high schools. Thus, the alternative hypothesis, *high schools that do not utilize intervention programs with a combination of multicultural and conflict resolution training contents but only rely on strict policies and practices (e.g., laws and rigid discipline) are most effective at reducing the number of racial incidents in high schools*, is rejected.

Comparison of the Impact of Zero Tolerance, Integrated, and Multicultural Intervention Methods

The subsequent paragraphs identify underlying reasons for the success and failure of the individual interventions at decreasing racial attitudes and behaviors at their participating high schools.

I. Zero Tolerance

In some instances, teachers, as well as some parents, rely on zero tolerance of antisocial behaviors to deal with students' social and psychological problems (Begley, Foote, King, Clemetson, 1999). In fact, they are more familiar with zero tolerance than any other approach. In a school with only a zero-tolerance policy to deal with racially motivated behaviors, teachers do not have to attend additional training, and there is less work for teachers (e.g., they do not have to teach an extra course or material). Thus, this approach works best for schools that lack funds, and the will (due to the required extra effort) to offer prevention or intervention programs. Many schools resort to such a policy to deal with racist and other antisocial behaviors because it does not require extra funds or resources to implement, monitor, or enforce. In large schools, where resources are

scarce, it is cheaper to implement a zero-tolerance policy. For instance, during the interviews with teachers and brief conversations with principals, it was reported that they felt overworked, underpaid, and forced to work with minimal resources. In addition, zero tolerance creates and presents clear rules for students, parents, teachers, and principals to easily follow and enforce (Paskoff, 1996). A zero-tolerance policy helps schools instill fear by setting an example of students who engage in inappropriate behaviors. For example, if a student is suspended for using a derogatory comment during a conflict, it demonstrates that the high school does not support such behavior and makes other students notice that it can lead to serious discipline. However, a zero-tolerance policy does not take a preventive approach, thus there has been more criticism about the failure of schools to design more effective programs. Bigler (1999) attributes this failure to the lack of sophisticated development, selection, and implementation of the interventions.

II. Conflict Resolution

Conflict resolution programs are mostly used to address general violence regardless of the type of conflict that triggers the tension. The popularity of this program is based on its designed purpose, which involves training students to constructively deal with conflicts. Although there are several kinds of conflict resolution programs, generic types of the programs are applied without regard to the specific make-up of a school. Most of the conflict resolution programs take the form of peer mediation programs, which teach skills of problem-solving as part of the formal (during school hours) or informal (after school) curriculum at the participating schools. Normally, the peer

mediation training of the program does not reach all of the students but only a few. Conflict resolution helps students develop critical skills and abilities for constructive conflict management. However, the training does not help students learn to deal with deep rooted issues instilled in them at an early age and continued to develop into adulthood. The program gives false hope that the intervention can address all sources of conflicts. Most of the programs only reach a percentage of students. In addition, racial issues normally cannot be resolved during one mediation session. However, there has been an abundant amount of research and theory established to explain the benefits of the conflict resolution, peer mediation, intervention. Many schools implement this program to deal with violence in hope it will reduce the number of all incidents relating to conflict and violence. But the program does not help students understand why and how they hold their negative feelings toward outgroup members. Nor does the program help students work beyond just identifying their deep-rooted issues when change of attitude and behavior is needed to reduce racial tensions. At an early age students need to learn to address their hateful thoughts and feelings to prevent or reduce their chances of participating in racial conflicts and hate crimes.

III. Multicultural Education

There are two types of multicultural intervention programs designed to address racist attitudes and behaviors: multicultural education (MCE) and antiracist education (ARE). MCE was developed as a response to the civil rights movement of the 1960s. The goal of the civil rights movement was to eliminate discrimination in public accommodations, housing, employment, and education (Banks, 1993). Grounded in this

historical context, MCE has a dual purpose of addressing racism and the educational achievement inequities of minorities (Banks, 1992). MCE's three primary goals are equivalency in achievement, positive intergroup attitudes, and pride in heritage (Kehoe, 1984; Leonard-Elliott, 1992; Young 1984). The ARE approach assumes that racism is an ideology based on learned attitudes of white superiority over groups that were historically exploited in Europe and North America (Grinter, 1992). MCE and ARE are similar in content and activities to the extent that both curricula are designed to develop more positive intergroup attitudes and pride in heritage. However, ARE addresses the historical roots of racial prejudice and discrimination by directly confronting "prejudice through the discussion of past and present racism, stereotyping, and discrimination in society. It teaches the economic, structural, and historic roots of inequality" (McGregor, 1993, p. 2). It often causes debates and divisions.

MCE takes a different approach, which encompasses diversity and multicultural training. Ungerleider and McGregor (1992) examined the effects of race-relations training by studying their impact and intercultural training on the attitudes of police and military personnel. The positive effect of MCE intercultural treatment was significantly larger than the mean effect size for ARE. The researchers concluded that police and military personnel appeared to be more responsive to programs with a positive orientation (i.e. MCE) rather than approaches that challenged or criticized their treatment of ethnic minority group members (i.e. ARE).

According to Paskoff, the common flaws of multicultural programs are their lack of tangible standards, failure to incorporate conflict resolution, and failure to consider individual and group differences. The underlying goal of these programs is to explore differences and understand other individuals with various backgrounds, which minimizes misunderstandings, then stereotypes, prejudice and hate. In addition, students need to learn skills and techniques to constructively deal with a conflict if it occurs with another person, whether the other party belongs to his or her ingroup or outgroup. Multicultural programs normally do not consist of components that teach core conflict resolution concepts. The purpose of integrated programs is to capture the key concepts of conflict resolution and multicultural programs and teach core skills (insight into other cultures' contributions, cooperation, and active listening to help prepare students for a diverse world).

IV. Integrated Programs (Combined Conflict Resolution and Multicultural)

Recently, scholars are re-examining current intervention programs at schools. The recommended programs are beginning to resemble integrated programs. The most effective interventions are comprehensive because they are comprised of multiple program components. Many schools institute one component as an intervention then add other components as other needs of the schools are recognized as a problem. In most schools that employ integrated conflict resolution and multicultural programs, they usually implement conflict resolution programs first then add a multicultural component. There are various forms of integrated interventions in schools throughout the U.S. In

some schools, conflict resolution is integrated into a schoolwide instructional and behavior management systems. In others, the conflict resolution strategies are presented as a separate program with specialized curriculum and activities. In others, conflict resolution program components may include integration through the academic or elective curriculum, citizenship and law studies, educational reform efforts, school safety, violence prevention efforts, anger management programs, classroom management strategies, schoolwide discipline policies and procedures, or multicultural education. In this case study integrated programs refer to the combination of conflict resolution and multicultural programs in one intervention approach.

In the Pennsylvania case study, the principal data, the largest data set, indicated that integrated programs had the most impact on the number of racial incidents in schools. Integrated programs were developed to address complex conflicts, such as those with underlying racial issues. Integrated programs explore differences and build relationships, thereby they: (1) Teach students and third parties who are trying to resolve conflicts among and between groups to define, understand, and make sense of conflict within the cultural context of the groups involved in the dispute (Lederach, 1995). Overreliance on traditional problem-solving techniques and strategies when working in cross-cultural situations could increase vulnerability to emotional and behavioral problems. (3) Cross-cultural strategies provide a framework for understanding the role of culture in human behavior and interactions and, consequently, how culture can affect the problem-solving process (Tyler, Lind, and Huo, 2000).

Integrated programs help students to address stimulus that incite racial attitude and behavior, which may lead to violence. The conflict resolution program aims to equip students with tools to deal with disagreement after they begin. Whereas, multicultural education aims to help students identify the sources of their personal biases, which aims to prevent racial conflict by addressing negative thoughts and feelings in students. This notion does not mean students will not disagree and need to discuss matters but the program tries to help alleviate negative influence of racist feelings. The combination of these two programs is a new concept but more research is being conducted on the novel approach. Integrated (conflict resolution and multicultural) programs are encouraging schools to promote more awareness and understanding of racism and human relations. It creates safe learning environments that offer the opportunity for students to examine broad social perspectives in light of our multiracial society, and they sensitize students about the dangers of extremism-hate. The integrated programs provide training that helps students resolve deep-rooted issues pertaining to prejudice and hatred before they escalate to racial conflict and hate crimes. The combination of the components associated with each approach only strengthens the effects of the intervention.

However, schools tend to shy away from employing the new concept of the integrated program. *Why?* Many schools have not used the program. This new form of intervention requires even more training than the other ones. It requires teachers and instructors to be knowledgeable about both approaches (multicultural and conflict resolution components) and require a higher level of comfort with the subject matter to truly address racism and teach peace to high school students. As a result, there are not

many models and no “real” proof of success in the education field. Thus, there is an assumption that integrated programs are most effective at addressing racial conflict. This case study did not demonstrate that integrated programs were the most effective approach above the other intervention. Overall, there was not one intervention that prevailed over the ones. However, the findings shed light on the problem of racial conflict and options to resolve the problem.

In the introduction to the case study, there were 4 questions that it aimed to answer to help gain better understanding of the intervention policy and programs. The next section identifies the questions asked in the beginning of the study with the answers to each question.

Questions and Answers

Question #1: Has there been a change in the number of racial conflicts in high schools?

Yes. Forty-two percent of the participating principals reported that the number of racial incidents decreased during the past 2 to 3 years. Nineteen percent of the teachers reported that there was a decrease of racial conflicts, and only 7% reported an increase in the number racial incidents. Thirty-five percent of the parents indicated that there was a decrease in the number of racial incidents, and 19% reported that there was an increase in racial conflicts. The frequency of the racial incidents in the Pennsylvania case study was confirmed by the state’s reporting of frequency of racial and ethnic incidences: Racist

violent behaviors among high school students decreased during the 2001–2003 school years in the United States (www.education.pa.us). However, there are isolated racial incidents still taking place (Channel 2 News, October 8, 2007).¹ Especially, at schools that do not recognize that there is or was ever a racial problem such as the Warwick High School in Lancaster, Pennsylvania.

Question #2: Were there any attitude changes toward racial conflicts? If so, what type of changes took place?

Yes. Thirty-two percent of the principals reported that there was a decrease of negative attitudes toward racism. The changes were small, but there was an increase of positive attitude change. Multicultural programs had the most influence on racial attitude change.

Question #3: Did the existing policies and programs have a different impact on the level on the number of racial incidents?

An ANOVA test was executed to determine if there were any differences of impact on the number of racial incidents and racial attitudes among the interventions. According to the principal and teacher data results, there were small differences of impact on the number racial incidents and racial attitudes. However, the ANOVA test did not show *significant* differences among the interventions on the number of racial incidents

¹ On Friday, October 3, 2007, at Warwick High School, a few White students in vehicles waved Confederate flags, shouted racial slurs and threw trash at several Black students before school in the student parking lot (Channel 2 News, October 8, 2007). School district administrators reported that they did not know there was a problem and now they need to address the issue.

and racial attitudes. This may be a result of the size of the sample population. Although there was intent to have a larger sample size, authorities of some of the school districts did not support the study due to political reasons or misperceptions of the study's purpose. These schools feared if they were shown to have racial problems, they would gain a bad reputation, which may raise concerns of parents and the community. They also worried that this might cause a reduction in their financial support. Yet other school districts felt that they were invincible to the problem of racial conflict because of the lack of diversity at their schools and thus felt they did not need any intervention programs or policies to address racial tension.

Question #4: What policy and program had the most positive impact on racial conflict?

According to the ANOVA test on the principal data, integrated programs had the most impact on the number of racial incidents. However, according to the teacher data, multicultural programs had the most impact on the number of racist attitudes. The integrated program's mean of influence on racial incidents (2.71), according to the principal data, was higher than the teacher's reporting on multicultural program's (2.22). (Note: The higher the mean, the more positive the response). In sum, although there was a difference between the means among integrated programs, multicultural programs, and zero-tolerance policies, it was not significant. Measuring the impact of the interventions on racial attitudes and behaviors is not easy to accomplish, but *actually* changing

attitudes and behaviors is the ultimate goal. The following paragraphs describe the way the interventions are able to influence racial behaviors and attitudes.

Changing Attitudes and Behaviors

There are two theories that explain how zero tolerance, conflict resolution, multicultural, and integrated programs help change attitudes and behavior toward racial conflict: contact theory and cognitive dissonance theory.

Contact Theory

The contact theory hypothesizes that individuals who had prior experience with interracial contact in schools and neighborhoods are more likely, as adults, to have more racially diverse social groups and friendship circles (Emerson, Kimbro, & Yancey, 2002). When there is contact there is new learning, which corrects negative views of the outgroup and reduces stereotypes and prejudices. The assumption is that those who have prior interracial contact are significantly less fearful of outgroups and less punitive. Rothbart and John (1985) conclude that disconfirming evidence, due to positive interactions, for example, alters stereotypes only if the outgroup's behavior is starkly inconsistent with their stereotype and prejudice. Confirmation of inconsistency occurs often and in many different situations, and the outgroup members are then seen as typical. New positive information about an outgroup can improve attitudes and interactions among members of the ingroup. For instance, in a study conducted by Stephan and Stephan (1984), contact allowed nonminority students to learn more about the Asian culture, which in turn led to more positive attitudes and treatment toward Asian

classmates by other students. Stephan and Stephan assert that “ignorance promotes prejudice” (Triandis, 1994; Gardiner, 1972, Weldon et al., 1975).

One obstacle to the optimal intergroup contact is that prejudiced people avoid intergroup contact. There are two additional problems that limit the contact hypothesis. The contact only predicts when positive contact effects will occur, not how and why, and does not address process. The theories also fail to specify how the effects of positive relations generalize to other situations. Many effects do not generalize beyond the immediate contact situation and other participants. However, there are three strategies to enhance generalization: decategorization, salient group categorization, and recategorization. Since similarity attracts, initial stages of intergroup contact benefit from not making group membership salient. Later, as anxiety subsides, group membership must become salient to maximize the generalization of positive effects beyond the immediate situation. Then recategorization becomes possible if the participants adopt an all-encompassing group identification (Pettigrew, 1998).

Cognitive Dissonance

The cognitive dissonance theory, on the otherhand, hypothesizes that there is an uncomfortable tension that derives from holding two conflicting thoughts at the same time or from engaging in behavior that conflicts with one’s beliefs. It is the perception of incompatibility between two cognitions, where “cognition” is defined as any element of knowledge, including attitude, emotion, belief, or behavior. The theory of cognitive dissonance states that contradicting cognitions serve as a driving force that compels the

mind of a person to acquire or invent new thoughts or beliefs, or to modify existing beliefs to reduce the amount of dissonance between cognitions. Dissonance can be reduced either by eliminating dissonant cognitions or by adding new consonant cognitions (Festinger, 1956). According to the cognitive dissonance theory, once attitude changes, the behavior of an individual must also change in order to avoid mental conflict. Or, if the behavior is forced to change (adhere to school policies), the attitude must also mentally process and adjust to the physical change, which can take place at schools when students are forced and molded to behave in a certain way. Thus people who change their behavior due to stricter rules also change their attitude to justify their actions.

Contact Theory and Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Optimal intergroup contact acts as a form of behavior modification, which is often the precursor of attitude change. This can occur as a result of new contact opportunities and situations, which can lead to new expectations. If these expectations include acceptance of outgroup members, this behavior has the potential to produce positive attitude change. People can resolve their cognitive dissonance between old prejudices and new behavior by revising behaviors or attitudes (Aronson & Patnoe, 1997). Repeated contact, preferably in varied settings, helps with this behavioral process of change (Jackman & Crane, 1986). Repetition makes intergroup encounters more comfortable, even for those who hold strong prejudices and stereotypes (Zajonc, 1968).

Emotion is also a critical factor in effective intergroup contact. Anxiety is a common initial feeling during encounters between groups and can spark negative

reactions, and previous bad experiences can increase it (Islam & Hewstone, 1993; Stephan, 1992; Stephan & Stephan, 1985; Wilderman 1993). *Empathy* plays a significant role in the development of intergroup relationships. For example, Oliner (1988) found that non-Jews who risked their lives to save Jews during World War II reported more close friendships as children with other groups than nonminorities who did not help. Another example involves a study of soldiers in Western Europe in which more than 3,800 respondents from France, Great Britain, the Netherlands, and West Germany were asked about their racial attitudes toward minority groups in their country and whether they had friends of another nationality, race, culture, religion, or social class (Moscovici & Butler, 1996). In each case, Europeans with outgroup friends scored significantly lower on five prejudice measures, even after controlling for several variables. These soldiers expressed sympathy and admiration for the outgroup. The World War II research confirmed major improvements on White attitudes toward Black soldiers after facing combat together (Stouffer et al., 1949). However, according to some of the findings, White soldiers continued to prefer separate post exchanges based on race. It was not until the U.S. Army offered many types of optimal interracial situations that its program of racial desegregation was successful at minimizing stereotypes and prejudices (Moscovici & Butler, 1996; U.S. Department of Defense, 1955).

Allport (1958) identifies four conditions for optimal contact: (1) equal group status, (2) common goals, (3) intergroup cooperation, and (4) authority support (e.g. institutional supports and sanctions for the interaction). There is a fifth element, which is friendship potential-the emotional facet, or empathy. Intergroup friendship has strong

positive effects because it potentially entails all four processes. These conditions provide opportunities for learning about the outgroup, changing behavior, generating ties, and ingroup reappraisal, which creates and strengthens relationships. The following are examples of the impact of empathy.

- A 15-month old boy, Michael, responds to the crying of his friend Paul by offering him his own teddy bear. When Paul continues to cry, Michael brings Paul's security blanket to him (Coleman, 1995, p. 98).
- A White high school student describes her participation in a multicultural summer program in which she was battered with stories of white racism, oppression, and genocide that left her feeling "like ripping off [her] White skin." (Howard, 1999, p. 20).
- I attended a diversity training that changed my life. I was embarrassed by our American history and I wanted to help make changes (Interview with W.T., Spring 2000).

All of these stories demonstrate the capacity for one human being to see through the eyes of another, which leads individuals away from egocentrism to a multicultural worldview. Empathy is a powerful force that needs to be carefully titrated; too little or too much can be defeating (Miller, 2007). For instance, in the second story with the high school girl, who felt so much empathy with the suffering of the minority groups that she felt ashamed of herself. Although this is not the intent of any of the intervention programs, it exemplifies attitude change. Or, in the third scenario, exposure to diversity

training changed a woman's life; she committed herself to justice for all in her community during the last 10 years. These scenarios demonstrate that the intervention programs heighten empathy and change in attitude and behavior.

In sum, finding commonalities between the groups is not sufficient to change the attitudes and behaviors of individuals who belong to different groups. Durkeim (1960) discloses that similarity is only one form of social bond; time sequence is also crucial. After extended contact, people begin to think of themselves in a larger group perspective. The repetitive contacts can lead groups to focus on similarities between the groups and obscures the "we" and "they" boundaries (Perdue et al., 1990).

Assumptions on the Prevalence of Multicultural Programs in Changing Racist Attitudes and Behaviors

In the Pennsylvania case study, multicultural programs included monthly celebrations of diversity in the participating schools, such as Black History Month, Hispanic History Month, and St. Patrick's Day. The celebrations incorporated reading about a specific culture and sometimes presenting a project, listening to music, and/or sampling food. The multicultural education fostered cultural pluralism and respect for diversity, promoted social justice, and denounced prejudice and discrimination (Sleeter & Grant, 1994).

Several schools reported that they did not have a diverse student population, so they did not need to implement a multicultural program in their schools. But research

findings indicate that this should not be a factor in the decision to implement such an intervention program. The aim of “multicultural education should always be the same, regardless of the setting. However, the entry points and methods may have to be contextualized” (Banks, 1997). The purpose of the multicultural programs is to open up and broaden the worldview of the participants by helping them see that their own world is not representative of the world at large. This prepares students to interact with others in a diverse world. The following is a list of the benefits of multicultural education in a nondiverse setting:

- Knowledge: understanding prejudice, stereotypes, discrimination, and the definitions of ethnicity and culture; learning about different cultures; recognizing diversity and pluralism as strengths; learning how various cultures contribute to a pluralistic society; discovering one’s own roots, as well as others’
- Attitudes: appreciating the value of cultural diversity and human rights; accepting one’s own differences; appreciating others’ experiences; being prepared to take action on behalf of others
- Skills: cooperating, sharing, and gaining the human relations skills of self-awareness, interpersonal communication, group process, problem solving, and decision making; seeing from different perspectives (Howard, 1981)

The ultimate goal of multicultural programs and all other intervention programs is transformation. The transformation approach consists of implementing a curriculum that

enables students to view concepts, issues, events, and themes from the perspective of diverse ethnicities (Banks, 1994). This is a way to encourage students to view events from different cultural perspectives and to help them develop a richer understanding of other backgrounds and while building working relationships.

16. CONCLUSION

Hate is learned and can be unlearned, thus the goal of school intervention strategies is to help students discover their deep feelings, thoughts, and beliefs and teach alternatives to hate, nurtured by prejudices and stereotypes. Studies have indicated that intervention programs that are designed (based on theory and research) for a specific problem can change attitudes and modify behaviors. Effective programs aim to help students understand, learn, and transfer conflict resolution and multicultural concepts and develop into adults who know how to constructively deal with conflict and accept others.

The findings of the Pennsylvania case study confirmed that interventions are effective at decreasing the level of racial incidents and changing racial attitudes. Although there were small differences among the interventions, there was no significant difference. The case study demonstrated that any intervention is better than none and that programs designed to address a particular problem have the most positive effect. Multicultural programs were developed to correct racist antisocial attitudes and behaviors and thus had the highest mean at improving racial attitudes and behaviors in high schools. Multicultural education supported educational engagement; a noncompetitive environment; student-centered curricula and instructional techniques; and strong teacher and student relationships (Young, 1990).

In this case study, each participating school designed an intervention based on its school's needs, which were key to the success of the selected approach. There is no single recipe for successfully influencing racial attitude and behavior in a positive long lasting manner. The commonality among the schools with effective interventions, which achieved the best results, was encouraging active participation, giving students a sense of responsibility, enabling them to build up confidence in themselves and in their identity, and teaching them about consequences of their actions (Wagner, 1992; Achieve Global, 2001). The key to a successful multicultural education is that the lessons are nonthreatening and do not focus on negative conflicts. Proponents of effective multicultural programs value differences among groups and show students how to take and share pride in their distinct group identity and peers' history. This approach embodies both the acceptance of the fact that people are different and a celebration of plurality of perspectives as a valued source of knowledge (Edwards, 2004). This study showed that students' lack of understanding of other cultures contributes to tension, and sometimes conflict, among peers (O'Neil, 1993).

The findings of the case study also confirmed that integration programs have also changed the level of racial conflicts and negative racial attitudes. The concept of integration programs is to address violent and racist tendencies in students, instill skills to interact with others, expose students to various cultures, and learn to constructively deal with conflict. According to Stevahn (2004), effective integrated programs consists of 8 elements, which are described in the below.

Elements Contributing to the Effectiveness of Integrated Programs

One, effective integrated programs establish cooperative classroom conditions conducive to teaching, practicing, learning about differences among individuals and using constructive conflict resolution skills and techniques. Cooperative learning is an instructional style, which allows students to work to maximize their own and each other's learning. Cooperative efforts in the classroom result in participants striving for mutual benefits so that all group members gain from each other's efforts. Knowing that one's performance is mutually caused by oneself and one's colleague leads to feeling proud and jointly celebrating when a group member is recognized for achievement (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Research conducted on cooperative learning and other styles (e.g. competitive and individualistic efforts) show that cooperation typically results in higher achievement and greater productivity, more caring, supportive, and committed relationships, as well as greater psychological health, social competence, and self-esteem (Johnson, 1993). Cooperative learning is not an automatic practice or easy to implement in a classroom. Instead, social skills must be taught to students purposefully and precisely as academic skills are taught to children. Classroom cooperative activities need to be structured to link students together in a way that one cannot succeed unless everyone succeeds in a group. Each group member needs to be held accountable for his or her contribution to the activity. Cooperative learning gives students lifelong interpersonal life skills and the abilities to work collaboratively regardless of race, gender, and class. It forces students to work together, which forces individuals to set aside personal feelings and focus on accomplishing the common goal.

Two, effective integrated programs have students practice conflict resolution components by applying integrative negotiation and peer-mediation procedures to resolve the conflicts. As described in previous paragraphs, peer mediation is the most commonly used conflict resolution program in schools. According Stevahn, in the peer mediation programs instructors should have students practice integrative negotiation. Integrative negotiation (also known as interest-based bargaining and win-win bargaining) is a strategy where parties collaborate to find a win-win solution to their disputes. This strategy focuses on developing mutually beneficial agreements based on the interests of the disputants. Interests include the needs, desires, concerns, and fears important to each side. This approach requires parties to identify interests that are important to them and negotiate to resolve their problems by putting aside superficial factors such as race. The approach makes individuals ask themselves how race impacts the conflictual situation. Creative integrative solutions can potentially meet everyone's needs, desires, concerns, fears and any underlying factors.

Three, effective integrated programs have students practice the learned skills for future refinement. Productive practice requires planning. A school setting is a safe environment for students to be able to rehearse and actually use the learned concepts. The location should be in area where it is easily accessible to the students and they can feel comfortable to attend the training and rehearsal sessions. Each session should have a goal. Instructors should know the objectives they want to accomplish before each practice session. It is important to help the students plan long-range as well as short-range goals. Long-range goals are self-set goals for six months or a year, such as "I want

to be able to say the introduction as a mediator during a peer mediation. Students should be encouraged to practice with real situations so they can apply learned procedures and skills to constructively resolve actual conflicts in schools. This permits students to observe the way a real conflict can be addressed using the taught techniques. Students should also be able to review learned materials during training practices (Myers, 1988).

Four, effective integrated programs provide ongoing education about the benefits of reducing racism and applying learned concepts. In addition to practicing, the opportunity for ongoing education should be offered to students. It should take place after the training. It is a form of follow-up. On-going education provides students the chance to build and improve the previously learned skills and techniques. It provides students the opportunity to continue to identify and confront their own biases, stereotypes, and misconceptions that can be lessened with consistent visits to the subject matter. It is a period for students to observe, rehearse, apply, and refine the comprehensive, integrated multicultural and conflict resolution processes they learned during training sessions. On-going education provides students a chance to gain a better understanding of building on already learned skills and implementing new ones.

Five, effective integrated programs include positive recognition for the use of both multicultural and conflict resolution concepts in school. Reinforcement after the desired behavior encourages the appropriate attitude and behavior to occur in future situations. There are two types of behavioral reinforcers: positive and negative reinforcement. Positive reinforcement increases attitude and behavior by the adding of a

reinforcer after a desired behavior. For example, giving or adding food for a dog is contingent on the dog remaining in a sitting position for a specified length of time. Negative reinforcement increases in the likelihood of a behavior when the consequence involves the removal of an aversive stimulus. An example is turning off or removing a shock when a rat correctly presses a bar. Finally, six, effective integrated programs are placed in schools that create and implement policies that promote diversity (Morelli, Tanemura, & Spencer, 2000). Diversity policies demonstrate the school's position and support of multiculturalism and harmony among the students. Diversity policies also state behavior that will not be tolerated and indicate the discipline that will be a result for inappropriate acts at school. This sort of policy will increase awareness and need for equality and make it clearer to all students the acceptable behavior. It is also essential for staff to be aware of the school's policy and help enforce the rules. The lack of clear, consistent policies incapacitates antiracism efforts, perpetuates a nonconfrontational attitude toward racism, and contributes to fear in communities (Morelli, Tanemura, & Spencer, 2000). Although it is logical to assume that integrated programs always entail the same components as they are presented independently to students but there are variations to each program depending on the school. A comparison of effective integrated programs and multicultural educations revealed seven common denominators from which to propose strategies for implementing the comprehensive program. The following lists the seven common denominators contributing to the effective programs:

(a) Meets Individual Needs

It is important to understand each child as a unique individual in order to efficiently meet their needs and address their specific issues with racial differences. No person is the same. This includes planning for individual learning (Deiner, 1993; King, Chipman & Cruz-Janzen, 1994). When students are diverse, teachers can have an option to “teach to the middle” and hope for the best, or they can face the challenge of diversifying their lessons to teach to all of their students. Today, more and more teachers are choosing the second option. School districts are encouraging teachers to reach all students. However, teachers are struggling to tailor their instructions to meet individual needs. They are trying to deliver instructions to meet the needs of auditory, visual, and kinesthetic learners and cultural diverse students (Continuing Professional Development Scheme, Winter 2000). This goal requires differentiating three aspects of the classrooms curriculum: content, process, and products. Content refers to the concepts, principles, and skills that teachers want students to learn. Process is the means that teachers use to give students access to skills and knowledge. For example, a teacher might direct a recent Spanish immigrant to Spanish tests or websites to gain additional information relating to a lesson. Teachers can modify these activities to provide the information in different forms, which can help students challenged by materials make sense of the ideas being taught. Product is the tool and equipments used to deliver the content and implement the process teach the desired concepts, principles, and skills.

(b) Create an Atmosphere of Acceptance

Schools should address racial issues in the same manner as they would with other matters such as substance abuse. Students should be allowed to post images representing their background around the classroom. Allowing students to personalize the classroom to have images representing each of their cultures gives them a sense of belonging and acceptance. It also introduces students to the differences among them and illustrates that variety is not unknown or scary so stereotypes can be minimized, appreciation and acceptance can begin. Also, teachers can alleviate many fears by creating a language-nurturing environment in their classrooms. The first week of classes is crucial. A good relationship between the classroom teacher and students will provide the assistance and support to individuals that belong to a minority group, who need to cope with the challenges they face at the school due to their race. The more comfortable a student feels in a classroom, the quicker they will be able to learn. It is helpful to give students encouragement and praise for appropriate behavior, which encourages students to be accepting. Teachers should give students different opportunities to learn and understand other cultures. This helps children to respect the cultures of other people and, at the same time, it helps children from diverse backgrounds to develop pride in their heritage. When students see their culture, language, and issues relevant to their culture being studied in a classroom, it validates their culture and existence. This helps to develop positive self-esteem in culturally and linguistically diverse children. In addition, it will help develop accurate opinions, feelings and behaviors in students (Continuing Professional Development Scheme, Winter 2000).

(c) Address Personal Biases

Edward Dunbar (2004) suggests several approaches that can help individuals address personal bias. The first and foremost important step is identifying individual biases. Programs should help students reframe negative outgroup generalizations (i.e., bias attribution) and approach interactions on an individualize basis. This involves assessing and understanding the individual in the situation and not applying stereotypes as a shortcut for dealing with them. Reducing the dilemma to an individual level often alleviates the distress experienced by the person with strong racial biases. The programs also encourage students, during interactions, to ask themselves questions to help them reflect on the matter. The questions may include “How does the outgroup membership to another race play a role in the matter?”, “Why does the outgroup membership to another race play a role in the matter?” or “How does this change the way you feel about the other?” These questions help identify stereotypes and prejudices. It helps parties filter negative thoughts and comments rather than focus on the real issues. Frequently, the individual with racial biases tries to seek to extinguish their “reflection” when they begin to notice their stereotypical and prejudice way of thinking (Dunbar, 2004). However, third parties, such as peer mediators, teachers, and counselors should motivate students to examine the undesirable affects and help students resolve those issues. Empathy is another addition, which draws on individual’s understanding and sympathy toward another. It elicits connection between parties. Empathy is discussed in-depth in a previous section. Other components such as identifying prejudices and reflecting allow a person to determine triggers that activate aversive arousal toward other groups. It helps

students to avoid stimulants that may lead to inappropriate behavior. For instance, Dunbar (2004) indicates that students need to disassociate themselves from people who support negative thoughts, feelings, and behaviors toward other groups.

(d) Promote Attitudes of Acceptance

Changing negative attitude to a positive one manifests itself into accepting tendencies. Fostering social interactions and friendships among students from different backgrounds promotes attitudes of acceptance (Dean, Salend & Taylor, 1993); Derman-Sparks, 1994). Well-organized and cooperative learning activities have been found to increase positive social interaction in multilingual classrooms (Enright & McCloskey, 1988). Cooperative learning helps to develop a sense of community and identity (Enright & McCloskey, 1988). Instructors should model respect and acceptance in the classroom. This shows students appropriate ways to interact with others. Developing acceptance requires individuals to step out of their comfort zone. Class discussions among students and teachers should be encouraged to seek different points of view. The subject matter for discussion may cover politics, religion, and creations versus evolution, for instance (Continuing Professional Development Scheme, Winter 2000). It is important to emphasize, “it is okay to agree to disagree” (Billing-Harris, 2005). School administrators must communicate and support intolerance of inappropriate and disrespectful behavior. Administrators need to monitor behaviors at schools consistently.

(e) Encourage Open Communication

Schools need to create a policy, which includes the input of teachers who will help enforce the rules, and implement it. It is not enough to simply write a policy, it is essential that the policy is shared with the students and staff as well as parents. The policy should be presented to the teachers and there should be discussions on a regular basis to evaluate the status of students adhering to the policy. This helps monitor the effectiveness of the policy and other interventions. The policy can be shared during training on the subject matter of diversity.

During diversity lessons, students must be encouraged to think critically. Students must feel comfortable to share their thoughts and feelings without sensing judgment by others. The students need to share their perspective and teachers must be well informed to ensure critical thinking and constructive dialogue. Encouraging open communication requires students and trained staff to be open. Teachers need to create an atmosphere that allows students to discuss their thoughts whether it is socially acceptable or not and have discussions about these honest thoughts without judgment. During these discussions, it is imperative to have students listen to each other. If a question or subject matter arises that a teacher cannot speak on then they should refer the topic to an expert, who is another student or another faculty with the needed background information. In addition to teaching students to speak honestly, it is essential to teach students to be good listeners by learning not to interrupt but to empathize, validate, clarify and summarize (Continuing Professional Development Scheme, Winter 2000).

(f) Build Cultural Competence in Children

Cultural competence is the ability to know and be comfortable with people of different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. According to the Ohio State Family and Consumer Sciences (2000), the way to help build cultural competence requires the willingness to talk openly and honestly about differences. Adults must learn how to comfortably talk to children about the difficult topics such as racism, prejudice, and stereotypes. Research suggests that not talking to children about cultural differences may actually fuel the development of prejudices and stereotypes. Conversations about cultural differences should honor and respect the differences, as well as remind young people about the similarities we all have in common. For example, it is not unusual for a child to ask why someone has a different skin color than they do. If a student asks a parent or teacher why her classmate has darker skin, a parent or teacher should see this a teachable moment. Even if the adult may feel more comfortable avoiding the question and not answering the question, ignoring this comment will send the message that the student should not talk about differences. This is where misconceptions, discomfort, fear and rejection of differences can develop in a child. Instead, the adult should acknowledge the classmate's darker skin and discuss the answer with the child. Depending on the child's age a teacher may say, "Yes, Ashanti does have darker skin than you. Just like you got your lighter skin color from your parents, Ashanti got his darker skin color from his parents" (Ohio State Family and Consumer Sciences, 2000). This response acknowledges the difference in skin color, while at the same time making skin color a common aspect we all share. The multicultural programs often stimulate reflection, which may cause students to

empathize and feel guilt. Instead, effective multicultural programs plan ways and try to build students' self-esteem. The development of cultural competence never ends. It is a continual journey.

(g) Incorporate Instructional Technology

Instructional technology is a component of secondary education at schools with sufficient funds to afford it. Unfortunately, every school does not provide access to computers to all of its students. Instructional technology is most beneficial when it is closely aligned with the teachers' instructional objectives. It can help emphasize important concepts within lessons, stimulate student interest, enhance comprehension, and prevent boredom. For example, if a teacher has to spend more time on a topic that a few students already grasp then instructional technology allows the advance students to further expand their knowledge by performing additional tasks to stay busy and continue to learn. The technology permits the addition of visuals, sound, and motion to lessons and can be an effective means of enhancing teaching and learning. The objectives of the class should determine the choice of media and not the other way around (Brown, 2000).

Technology can be useful. It is another method to teach the main ideas of the class. Computers and other electronics also help children function on a more equitable level. Computers can be utilized as a common bond to facilitate friendships (Winter, 1994). Powerpoints, projectors, films and videotapes can be used to show images of various parts of the world, expose students to places distinct to particular cultures such as mosques and churches of different denominations (Brown, 2000).

The seven common denominators are elements in multicultural programs and integrated programs found to be effective at changing racial attitudes. However, due to the variations at high schools, one program does not successfully fit all schools. But the common denominators comprise of components that should be included in all intervention programs. Thus, the subsequent section depicts the steps school districts can use to select and implement effective intervention programs-strategic planning- to address racial attitudes and behaviors.

RECOMMENDED RESOLUTION: STRATEGIC PLANNING

Strategic planning is a method that high schools can use to select, design, and implement effective interventions. There are a number of intervention policies and programs designed to address problems in high schools; however, there is no one model solution that suits all school environments and can effectively resolve their problems. Each school has its own history, culture, and personality, thus each school needs to design its selected intervention to fit its specific problem(s). A school has two choices. A school may choose to use a consultant to perform the strategic planning or conduct the strategic planning themselves.

Consultants

There are few organizations that identify strong research approaches versus weaker ones to select effective programs to address issues that manifest into violence. There are

fewer resources available to schools. For this reason, the U.S. Department of Education has imposed expectations on school districts to implement strong researched based programs to select interventions. As the need for more theory and research-based interventions grow, more resources are becoming available. The U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Education Sciences established The What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) in 2002, for example. The WWC aims to promote informed education decision-making through a set of easily accessible databases and user-friendly reports to help schools. They try to provide customers with high-quality reviews of effective educational interventions that intend to improve their student outcomes. Its staff consists of leading experts in the field of education research (www.w-w-c.org, accessed July 9, 2007). Lenora Billing-Harris, another consulting firm, provides organizations with a base of information that can be used to specifically train staff and students on diversity, which is known as "Respect in the Workplace" (2005). Billing-Harris recommends customers to evaluate the organizational benefits of effectively managing diversity and how to implement an intervention. Billing-Harris identifies six major stages to evaluate an organization's problems and needs, which is a form of strategic planning.

Stage 1: Assess the need. Review the organization's business objectives, mission, and goals and determine which of them may be impacted by diversity in a positive or negative way. **Stage 2: Analysis.** Analyze the results of the assessment as they relate to business directives and objectives such as decreasing racial slurs, sense of safety among the students, and so. After this phase, then it becomes more apparent of the contents to include in a training and any other additional initiatives. **Stage 3: Awareness.** Develop

and deliver a customized diversity awareness training to all involved and start at the top. During this stage, research and theory based decisions are used to develop and implement an intervention. It is important to attain support at all levels of authority.

Stage 4: Evaluate business systems. Billing-Harris recommends forming one or several committees to evaluate the organization's process and procedure to determine if there are barriers or bridges to "valuing diversity" among the students and if the training is accomplishing its intended goal. **Stage 5: Evaluation and re-assessment.** At this stage, the committee determines if there has been any progress after the implementation of the diversity initiatives. It can take the form of surveys, interviews, or focus groups. The next step is determined by the results of the evaluation. **Stage 6: Business results.** This is different from the other evaluations. It concentrates on analyzing business results (e.g. improved student attendance, less teacher complaints of inappropriate racial behaviors, etc.) (Billing-Harris, 2005).

The designed training program creates a baseline of understanding of the issues. According to Billing-Harris, additional steps are needed to meet the needs. But, the consultant does not specify the process to follow on how to determine and select additional components. Although Billing-Harris' strategic planning is geared towards diversity, her approach only focuses on providing training to a few such as the authority figures of an organization and a few of the work leaders within the organization in hope that the learned information is shared with others and spreads, which is similar to conflict resolution programs. Although there are not many consultants that center their attention

solely on diversity as Billing-Harris, they are still costly to hire. The difference between WWC and Billing-Harris' approaches is WWC conducts all of the research work and presents a solution to the organization, which selects the best solution to its problem. While Billing-Harris guides the organizations as they progress through each stage. Billing-Harris' stages are a good starting point but she does not provide detailed steps to follow to further develop the program after the initial training to the leaders of an organization, which could require more of the consultant's assistance, time, and more money to the participating entity in order to continually evaluate and improve their intervention.

Most schools choose not to hire a consultant for advice on selecting, designing and implementing an intervention for several reasons. First, schools are fearful of someone telling them how to operate their business and gaining a reputation as inadequately providing services to students. Second, hiring an external entity to perform the strategic planning takes power away from the school district's decision makers, which causes resistance to new ideas as opposed to if the fresh concepts were developed internally. Finally, nearly all school districts face financial restraints and do not have extra funds to pay for a consultant to perform the job. For these reasons, most schools attempt to conduct the strategic planning themselves. The second choice a school has to design and implement an effective intervention program is conducting strategic planning themselves.

The professional arena has recently mastered a process to help assess, implement, and evaluate programs to further develop interventions. This process is known as strategic planning. The Society for Human Resource Management (2004) best describes the process as the art and science of formulating, developing, implementing, and evaluating decisions that enable an organization such as a high school to achieve its objective, prevent racial incidents, and change negative attitudes toward racism. The strategic planning process is divided into four phases: formulation, development, implementation, and evaluation. See Figure 1.

Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4
Strategy Formulation	Strategy Development	Strategy Implementation	Strategy Evaluation

Figure 1. Strategic Planning Process

Phase 1: Strategy formulation

At the first stage, strategy formulation, mission and vision statements are developed and organizational values are defined. In the second phase, strategy development, the organization's internal strengths and weaknesses and external opportunities and threats are analyzed. In addition, long-term organizational objectives are established and strategies to achieve those objectives are defined. The strategic plan is put into action in phase 3, strategy implementation, during which short-term

organizational objectives are established; action plans to achieve those objectives are developed; resources are allocated to work toward the objectives; and there is a focus on motivating employees to manage the plan. The final phase of strategic planning is strategy evaluation. During this point, strategies are reviewed; performance toward objectives is measured; and, corrective action is taken.

Strategic planning is a continuous process and does not always occur sequentially. An adaptation in any one part of the model can necessitate a change in any or all of the other phases. For instance, a change in legislation, which impacts school districts, could introduce a new priority that forces attention and resources on another school program and school objective.

Schools must have mission and vision statements, which policy statements mirror. Mission and vision statements start the strategic planning process by providing the school with direction. The difference between a mission and vision statement is that a vision statement is a guiding image of a school's success and a mission statement specifies the activities the organization intends to pursue and the course to be taken in the future. The mission statement outlines the specifics of how the organization will achieve the vision. See Figure 2. A mission statement answers the following questions:

- Who is the school?
- What does the school do for the students?

- Where is the school/school district heading?
- Who are the customers/stakeholders?

Phase 1			
Strategy Formulation			
Develop mission and vision statements. Define organizational values	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4

Figure 2. Strategy Formulation

Phase 2: Strategy development

During this phase of strategic planning, administrators assess the school environment and dynamics of the organization, for instance, discovering the most frequent type of racial incidents and offenders. See Figure 2. A school must know and understand its current state and look at itself through the eyes of others, such as students, parents, and teachers. Both internal and external stakeholders' perceptions of the organization can provide valuable information regarding the current situation surrounding a problem and help create a resolution. A SWOT analysis is used to identify an organization's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats. SWOT answers the following four questions:

S—What are the organization's internal **strengths** (e.g., credentials of teachers, teacher and parent support)?

W—What are the organization’s internal **weaknesses** (e.g., frequent racial incidents, lack of teacher training, understaffing, uncontrolled student growth, shortage of funds and resources)?

O—What external **opportunities** might move the organization forward (e.g., parent volunteers, donation of resources)?

T—What external **threats** might hold the organization back (e.g., politics, laws and regulations)?

Successful organizations should not only focus on their weaknesses but should also nurture and build on their strengths. Once an organization has developed its mission and vision and completed a SWOT analysis, it is time to establish objectives. These objectives are generally achieved within 3 to 5 years. For example, in 2 years, every student will attend or take the school’s integrated curriculum. Establishing long-term objectives provides direction, creates synergy, and aids in establishing guidelines for evaluation.

In addition to setting objectives, administrators must also consider strategies on *how* to achieve the long-term objectives. Identifying strategies must involve top administrators and as many teachers, students, and parents as possible. See Figure 3.

Phase 2			
Strategy development			
Phase 1	Conduct a SWOT analysis Establish long- term objectives Identify strategies	Phase 3	Phase 4

Figure 3. Strategy Development

Phase 3: Strategy implementation

Phase 3 encompasses establishing short-term objectives, creating action plans to meet those objectives, allocating resources, and motivating employees to act. Short-term objectives help establish benchmarks that must be achieved in order to reach the long-term objectives: stopping racial conflicts in high schools. See Figure 4. Short-term objectives are usually completed within 6 months to 1 year. For example, in 6 months, 25% of the student body will attend the school's integrated curriculum. Identifying short-term objectives is a decentralized activity that directly involves all administrators, principals, teachers, and parents. Active participation in establishing short-term objectives can lead to more acceptance and commitment among all employees and parents. Short-term objectives are also essential because they

- represent the basis for allocating resources

- are a mechanism for evaluation
- are the primary measures for monitoring progress toward long-term objectives
- establish unit and functional priorities

Strategic planning also involves allocating resources to meet the objectives. The resources are distributed based on priorities established by the short-term objectives. There are usually four types of resources used to achieve the state objectives: financial, physical, human, and technological. At this stage, the highest authorities are involved and assigned the resources.

Motivating staff to buy into the mission, vision, and objective is another important step. They are the ones who have to implement the intervention policies and programs, so a school must first ensure that the staff clearly understands how they will personally benefit if the intervention succeeds. See Figure 4.

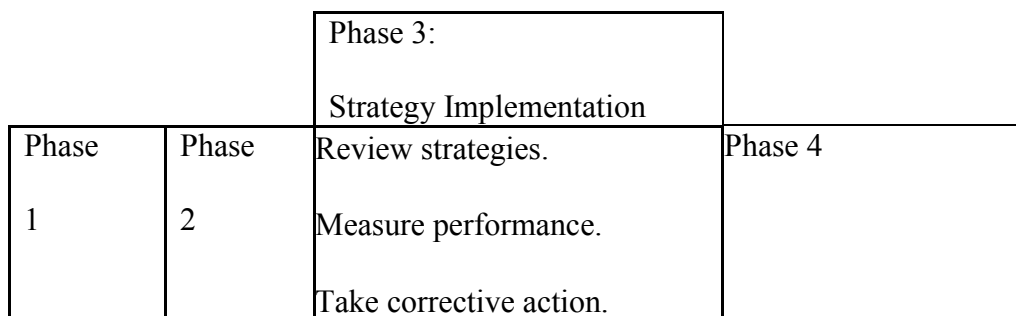


Figure 4. Strategy Implementation

Phase 4: Strategy evaluation

The last phase is equally important; however, most schools select a program that has displayed positive effects in one environment and follow Phase 1 to Phase 3 but neglect Phase 4, which includes reviewing strategies, measuring performance, and taking corrective action. See Figure 5.

Strategy review is vital to the success of strategic planning. Timely review of established strategies may alert administrators to unseen or future problems. The timing of these evaluation periods should be planned before beginning. Whether the review is scheduled on a quarterly, semiannual, or annual basis, it is important that it is not a one-time evaluation at the end of the process. The earlier a potential problem is detected, the quicker the plan can be adjusted, and there is more assurance of effectiveness.

The goal of strategy evaluation is to measure effects and effectiveness of intervention policies and programs in a school (how well the school is achieving its strategic plan's objectives). To help evaluate intervention policies and/or programs schools should ask probing questions such as the following:

- Have racial conflicts decreased?
- Have racial incidents decreased?
- Have attitudes toward racism improved?

- Have teachers noticed a difference in student behavior toward individuals from other racial groups?
- Is there empathy among the groups?
- Have more interracial friendships developed?

After an evaluation, corrective action may need to take place. Corrective action requires making changes in order to reposition a school's strategies based on changes in the SWOT analysis. For example, changes could include:

- Establishing new objectives
- Revising old objectives
- Allocating resources differently
- Developing new performance incentives for students and teachers (SHRM, 2004)

			Phase 4:
			Strategy Evaluation
Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review strategies. • Measure performance. • Take corrective action.

Figure 5. Strategy Evaluation.

All three approaches (WWC, Billing-Harris, and SHRM) to strategic planning encompass evaluation as a needed step to design an effective intervention program. U.S. Department of Education (2003) also recommends a process for evaluating whether an educational intervention is supported by rigorous evidence to help with the development of an intervention. It involves evaluating the research before implementing a program. It expands on Billing-Harris and SHRM's evaluation stage. There are three parts to the process to help determine methods to conduct research to select effective interventions, which are: I. Establishing the randomized controlled trial and understanding it is a critical factor in establishing "strong" evidence of an intervention's effectiveness; II. Evaluate whether an intervention is backed by "strong" evidence of effectiveness; and, III. Important factors to consider when implementing an evidence-based intervention in your schools or classrooms (U.S. Department of Education, 2007).

I. The Randomized Controlled Trial Is A Critical Factor

Well-designed and implemented randomized controlled trials are considered the "gold standard" for evaluating an intervention's effectiveness. Randomized controlled trials are studies that randomly assign individuals to be in an intervention group or to be part of a control group, in order to measure the effects of the intervention. For example, suppose a researcher wants to test whether a new Math curriculum for tenth-graders is more effective than a school's existing Math curriculum for tenth-graders. The researcher would randomly assign a number of tenth-grade students to either an intervention group, which uses the new curriculum, or to a control group, which uses the

existing curriculum. A researcher would then measure the Math achievement between the two groups to determine the effects of the new curriculum compared to the existing curriculum. A variation to this concept may include individuals being randomly assigned to two or more intervention groups as well as to a control group, in order to measure the effects of different interventions. Also, in some tests, an entire classroom, school, or school district-rather than individual students- can be randomly assigned to intervention and control groups. Random assignment enables a researcher to evaluate whether the intervention itself, as opposed to other factors, causes the observed outcomes.

Specifically, the process of randomly assigning a number of individuals to either an intervention group or a control group ensures that there are no systematic differences between the groups in any characteristics except one, the intervention. Therefore, the resulting difference in outcomes between the intervention and control groups can be confidently be attributed to the intervention and not to other factors.

II. Strong Evidence of Effectiveness

Quality of evidence is needed to establish “strong” evidence of effectiveness. As previously mentioned, randomized controlled studies are a critical factor in establishing “strong” evidence of an intervention’s effectiveness (PA Department of Education, 2007). In addition, experiments to test effectiveness must be well-designed and implemented to be constituted strong evidence. In order to accomplish this goal, several key items must take place. First, the study should clearly describe the intervention (who administered the program, what were the contents of the program, who were the

participants in the program, and what was the cost for the implementation), the difference between the impact of the intervention on its participants and the control group, and the expected outcome of the intervention. Second, the researcher should be alert to any indication that the random assignment process may have been compromised in some way and, if yes, correct the situation, if needed. For example, did any individual randomly assigned to the control group unexpectedly transfer into the intervention group? Third, the study should provide data showing that there were no systematic differences between the intervention and control groups before the intervention. The random assignment process ensures that there are no systematic differences between the characteristic of the intervention and control groups prior to the intervention. However, there is a risk that random assignment might include intervention and control groups with different characteristics. These types of differences could lead to inaccurate results. Thus, the study should provide data showing the intervention and control groups, before the intervention, did not differ systematically in the vast majority of measured characteristics. Fourth, the study should use outcome measures that are valid, which accurately assesses the true outcomes that it is designed to affect. Objective measures should be used as a tool, for instance. If interviews or observation tools are used to collect data then the interviewers/observers preferably should be kept unaware of who is in the intervention and control groups. This helps prevent any bias, which could influence the outcome measurements. Or, if self-reporting is used then the study should be corroborated by independent and/or objective measures. Fifth, the study should obtain data on long-term outcomes of the intervention, so that a researcher can judge whether

the intervention's effects were sustained over time. This measures the longevity of the positive influence, if any exists, in the long run. Six, if the study finds improvements due to an intervention then the report should note the positive finding and also include the size of the effect, and the statistical tests showing that the effect is unlikely to be due to chance. Seven, a study should report the impact of the intervention on everyone. Eight, all findings should be reported, which includes both positive and negative effects. Thus, the study should report the intervention's effects on all measured outcomes so that a researcher can judge whether the positive effects are the exception or the pattern (U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, 2003).

III. Factors To Consider While Implementing Evidence-Based Intervention In Schools

It is important to closely adhere to the details of an evidence-based intervention when implementing a program in a school or classroom (U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, 2003). The details of the implementation can sometimes make a major difference in the intervention effects on the latter program. Collecting outcome data is important because it is always possible that slight differences in implementation or setting between schools or classrooms could lead to substantially different outcomes. This can help identify and find methods to implement effective intervention programs (U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences national Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, 2003).

Many successful organizations throughout the world use strategic planning. A school has an option to hire a consultant or conduct the strategic planning themselves. The U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Education Sciences established *The What Works Clearinghouse (WWC)* (<http://www.w-w-c.org/>) to provide educators, policymakers, and the public with a central, independent, and trusted source of scientific evidence of what works in education. The U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Education Sciences provides several additional resources to give access to schools to provide resources. Some of the resources are: The Promising Practices Network (<http://www.promisingpractices.net/>) website, which highlights programs and practices that credible research indicates are effective in improving outcomes for children. The International Campbell Collaboration (<http://www.cambellcollaboration.org/Fralibrary.html>), which offers a registry of systematic reviews of evidence on the effects of interventions in the social, behavioral, and educational arenas. Social Programs That Work (<http://www.excelgov.org/displayContent.asp?Keyword=prppcSocial>), which offers a series of programs developed by the Coalition for Evidence-Based Policy on social programs that are backed by rigorous evidence of effectiveness. Agencies such as School Mediation Associates of Cambridge, MA, and the International Center for Cooperation and Conflict Resolution in New York City, also work with schools and community groups to plan, set goals, and mediate in the context of resolving conflicts that arise because of race, ethnicity, class, and gender issues within institutions. Follow-up training and support are provided as the school or

organization forms a permanent mediation team (www.pde.state.pa.us, accessed July 10, 2007).

All of these approaches and resources are encouraging school districts to make their decisions and selections of interventions based on research and theory before and after the implementation of an approach. It will help minimize the implementation of weak programs that lead to no positive change or make situations worse. This newly emphasized approach may intimidate schools but it is required by the federal and state government and communities.

Change Can Happen and Be Positive

Change is inevitable during the strategic planning process, but it is positive. Taking corrective action is necessary to keep an organization on track with its vision and mission. The results of the case study demonstrate that integrated programs, multicultural programs, conflict resolution, and zero-tolerance policies have a positive impact on preventing and decreasing racial incidents and changing negative attitudes toward racism. However, some policies and programs do not positively influence the problem due to a lack of strategic planning.

There is no one intervention model that can resolve all racial tensions at all schools, but there are interventions that are research and theory based that have shown effectiveness at addressing racial tension at various types of schools. However, it is up to each individual school to mold the best intervention to address their particular problem,

implement the plan, and evaluate the plan designed to address their specific problems such as racial conflicts.

APPENDIX A

COVER PAGE FOR SURVEY - PRINCIPAL SURVEY QUESTIONS

Name of person completing form: _____ Telephone: _____

Title/Position: _____ Number of years at this school: _____

Best days and times to reach you (in case of need for follow-up call): _____

PLEASE RETURN COMPLETED FORM TO:

Gerardine St. Jean
Home Address
City, State Zip Code

If you have any questions, contact Gerardine St. Jean at 717-526-4532 or
gerardinestjean@hotmail.com.

COVER PAGE FOR SURVEY - PARENT SURVEY QUESTIONS

Name of person completing form: _____

Number of children in your high school: _____

Telephone: _____

Best days and times to reach you (in case of need for follow-up call): _____

PLEASE RETURN COMPLETED FORM TO:

Gerardine St. Jean
Home Address
City, State Zip Code

If you have any questions, contact Gerardine St. Jean at 717-526-4532 or
gerardinestjean@hotmail.com.

COVER PAGE FOR INTERVIEW – TEACHER INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Name of person completing form: _____

Number of children in your high school: _____

Telephone: _____

Best days and times to reach you (in case of need for follow-up call): _____

PLEASE RETURN COMPLETED FORM TO:

Gerardine St. Jean
Home Address
City, State Zip Code

If you have any questions, contact Gerardine St. Jean at 717-526-4532 or
gerardinstjean@hotmail.com.

Appendix B

EVALUATION OF PROGRAMS DESIGNED TO ADDRESS HIGH SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND RACIAL CONFLICT

PRINCIPAL'S INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Dear *Name Of Participant*,

I have received permission from Your Institutional Review Board, (Superintendent or Communication Coordinator) for your school district to collaborate with you to collect data about the type of intervention program that your school has implemented and its impact on the number of racial incidents at your school. (Alternative, if the principal grants the permission: I have received your permission letter to collect data about the type of intervention program that your school has implemented and its impact on the number of racial incidents at your school.) The research study is called *Evaluation of Programs Designed to Address High School Violence and Racial Conflict*. The subsequent paragraphs further describe the research study.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

This research is being conducted to collect data that identifies existing effective intervention strategies to address violent behavior and racial conflict at schools. This information aims to provide comprehensive data that illustrates useful methods to deal with violent behaviors and racial conflicts in high schools. The information will be collected from principals, teachers, and parents. If you agree to participate in this research study, you are asked to complete a survey. The survey should take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

RISKS AND BENEFITS

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts. There are also no direct benefits to you for participating. The indirect benefits include:

- The results of the research study will identify whether or not an intervention program is effective.
- The results will identify weaknesses and strengths of programs. The discovered information may be applied to improve and strengthen programs.
- The findings of the study will help with future decisions about programs.
- In addition, if a program is effective or becomes effective due to the findings of the study, it may be listed in the Pennsylvania's database as an effective program or model program. Decision-makers can refer to the database to select an effective intervention to specifically deal with racial conflict and violence.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Confidentiality is guaranteed. Information about your specific school will remain confidential. Each participant is given an identification code. These codes are used as a tracking system for possible follow-up calls. The codes will be stored on one master list, which will only be seen by the researcher. Additionally, new identification codes will be assigned for collected parent surveys and face-to-face interviews with teachers. The survey, the page containing contact information, and the consent form will be held separately after the researcher has received the survey. As mentioned earlier, the survey, address, and master list with the codes and contact information will be limited by identification codes. Therefore, none of the files and surveys will contain any identifying information.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decided not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party for participating. Enclosed is a postage-paid, pre-addressed return envelope for your convenience.

CONTACT

This research is being conducted by Gerardine St. Jean, doctoral candidate at George Mason University. Should you have any questions or need to report a research-related problem you may contact her at 717-526-4532 or her advisor, Dr. Wallace Warfield, at 703-993-3649. You may also contact the Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 if you have any questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research.

CONSENT

I have read this form and agree to participate in this study.

Name

Date of Signature

EVALUATION OF PROGRAMS DESIGNED TO ADDRESS HIGH SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND RACIAL CONFLICT

PARENT'S INFORMED CONSENT FORM

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

This research is being conducted to collect data that identifies existing effective intervention strategies to address violent behavior and racial conflict. This information aims to provide comprehensive data that illustrates useful methods to deal with violent behaviors and racial conflicts in high schools. The information will be collected from principals, teachers, and parents. If you agree to participate in this research study, you are asked to complete a survey. The survey should take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The data collection can be done in your spare time.

RISKS AND BENEFITS

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts. There are also no direct benefits to you for participating. The indirect benefits include:

- This project gives parents a channel to express their views.
- It also allows parents to contribute to the research study that may bring positive change to the school environment.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Confidentiality is guaranteed. Information about your specific school will remain confidential. Each participant is given an identification code. These codes are used as a tracking system for possible follow-up calls. The codes will be stored on one master list, which will only be seen by the researcher. Additionally, new identification codes will be assigned for collected parent surveys. The survey, the page containing contact information, and the consent form will be held separately after the researcher has received the survey. As mentioned earlier, the survey, address, and master list with the codes and contact information will be limited by identification codes. Therefore, none of the files and surveys will contain any identifying information.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decided not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to

you or any other party for participating. Enclosed is a postage-paid, pre-addressed return envelope for your convenience.

CONTACT

This research is being conducted by Gerardine St. Jean, doctoral candidate at George Mason University. Should you have any questions or need to report a research-related problem you may contact her at 717-526-4532 or her advisor, Dr. Wallace Warfield, at 703-993-3649. You may also contact the Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 if you have any questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research.

CONSENT

I have read this form and agree to participate in this study.

Name

Date of Signature

EVALUATION OF PROGRAMS DESIGNED TO ADDRESS HIGH SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND RACIAL CONFLICT

TEACHER'S INFORMED CONSENT FORM

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

This research is being conducted to collect data that identifies existing effective intervention strategies to address violent behavior and racial conflict. This information aims to provide comprehensive data that illustrates useful methods to deal with violent behaviors and racial conflicts in high schools. The information will be collected from principals, teachers, and parents. You have been chosen to participate in the study by answering a few questions in person.

The interview session should take approximately 30 minutes. The interview session can be done in your spare time at your convenience.

RISKS AND BENEFITS

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts. There are also no direct benefits to you for participating. The indirect benefits include:

- The results of the research study will identify whether or not an intervention program is effective.
- The results will identify weaknesses and strengths of programs. The discovered information may be applied to improve and strengthen programs.
- The findings of the study will help with future decisions about programs.
- In addition, if a program is effective or becomes effective due to the findings of the study, it may be listed in the Pennsylvania's database as an effective program or model program. Decision-makers can refer to the database to select an effective intervention to specifically deal with racial conflict and violence.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Confidentiality is guaranteed. Information about your specific school will remain confidential. Each participant is given an identification code. These codes are used as a tracking system for possible follow-up calls. The codes will be stored on one master list, which will only be seen by the primary researcher. Additionally, new identification codes will be assigned for face-to-face interviews with teachers. The survey, the page containing contact information, and the consent form will be held separately after the

primary researcher has received the survey. As mentioned earlier, the survey, address, and master list with the codes and contact information will be limited by identification codes. Therefore, none of the files and surveys will contain any identifying information.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decided not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party for participating. Enclosed is a postage-paid, pre-addressed return envelope for your convenience.

CONTACT

This research is being conducted by Gerardine St. Jean, doctoral candidate at George Mason University. Should you have any questions or need to report a research-related problem you may contact her at 717-526-4532 or her advisor, Dr. Wallace Warfield, at 703-993-3649. You may also contact the Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 if you have any questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research.

CONSENT

I have read this form and agree to participate in this study.

Name

Date of Signature

Appendix C

PRINCIPAL SURVEY QUESTIONS

1. What is the approximate population of students at your school?

- ☐ Less than 1,000
- ☐ 1,000 – 3,000
- ☐ 3,000 – 12,000
- ☐ More than 12,000

2. How many full-time teachers do you have at your school? _____

3. Type of community

- ☐ Urban
- ☐ Suburban
- ☐ Rural

4. Please indicate the approximate percentage of students in each race/ethnicity category

White: _____

Black: _____

Hispanic: _____

Asian: _____

Indian: _____

Other: _____

5. Please indicate the approximate percentage of teachers in each race/ethnicity category

White: _____

Black: _____

Hispanic: _____

Asian: _____

Indian: _____ Other: _____

6. In general, do you feel violent or aggressive behavior was a problem in your student's school?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

7. In general, do you feel violent or aggressive behavior is now a problem in your student's school?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

8. Of the following, which, if any, is a concern to your students' safety? (Place an X beside the one(s) that apply.)

- ☐ Drugs, alcohol, tobacco
- ☐ Bullying
- ☐ Sexual harassment
- ☐ Fighting
- ☐ Students carrying weapons
- ☐ Racial slurs
- ☐ Race related incidents (race tension)
- ☐ Theft
- ☐ Attack against teachers
- ☐ Physical conflict between teacher and student
- ☐ Shooting/stabbing
- ☐ Homicide
- ☐ Other

9. Does your school have specific policies that address any of the following behaviors? (Check all that apply)

Drugs, alcohol, tobacco	___ Yes	___ No
Bullying	___ Yes	___ No
Sexual Harassment	___ Yes	___ No
Fighting	___ Yes	___ No
Students carrying weapons	___ Yes	___ No
Racial slurs (racial conflict)	___ Yes	___ No
Theft	___ Yes	___ No
Attack against teachers	___ Yes	___ No
Physical conflict between teacher and student	___ Yes	___ No
Shooting/stabbing	___ Yes	___ No
Homicide	___ Yes	___ No

10. Of the listed behaviors above, which two have the highest rate of occurrence at your school? (a) _____ (b) _____

11. Have you noticed a change of behavior toward racial conflict between the 2002-2003 and 2003-2004 school year? (Check the one that applies)

Yes _____ No _____

(a) If yes, what type of change? (Circle your answer.)

Increase of the behavior Decrease of the behavior

Please explain (Optional) _____

12. Have you noticed a change between the 2002-2003 and 2003-2004 school year in the attitude of students toward racial conflict? (Check the one that applies)

Yes _____ No _____

11(a) If yes, what type of change? (Circle your answer.)

Increase of the behavior Decrease of the behavior

Please explain (Optional) _____

13. What measures has your school taken to prevent/reduce racial conflict? (Mark all that apply.)

☐ Zero Tolerance Policy (i.e. expulsions, suspensions, transfers to alternative schools)

☐ School Security

____ a. School security patrols the halls.

____ b. Cameras have been installed.

____ c. Metal detectors at the entrance of buildings

____ d. A police officer occasionally checks on the school.

____ e. An armed police officer is stationed at the school.

____ f. Armed security guards patrol the halls

____ g. Occasional random weapon and drug searches.

____ h. Other

☐ Conflict Resolution Program(s)

If applicable, please note the name and briefly describe the program:

☐ Multicultural Program(s)

If applicable, please note the name and briefly describe the program:

☐ Integrated Programs

If applicable, please note the name and describe the program:

14. If any of the above applies, when did you implement the intervention program and/ or policy? _____

15. How many students have participated in (or will participate in) the intervention program(s) that directly serves students and are intended to prevent or reduce school violence? (Circle one)

All or almost all (91-100%)..... 1

Most (61-90%)..... 2

About half (41-60%)..... 3

Some (11-40%)..... 4

Few (1-10%) 5

None..... 6

(a) Number of one-day, one-time programs? _____

(b) Number of ongoing programs (more than one day)? _____

16. Do you think the number of violent incidents (a) increased (b) decreased (c) remained the same since the implementation of the program or policy? (Circle answer)

17. Do you think the number of racist incidents (a) increased (b) decreased (c) remained the same since the implementation of the program or policy? (Circle answer)

18. Do you attribute the current level of violent incidents to your existing policy and/or program?

(Circle answer)

Yes

No

19. Has there been any recent attitude change in students towards violence? (Circle answer)

Yes

No

20. Has there been any recent attitude change in students towards racial conflict? (Circle answer)

Yes

No

TEACHER INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1.Race/Ethnicity: _____

2. How long have you taught at this school: _____

3. Did or do you teach any parts of the intervention program against violence? (Check answer)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

4.In general, do you feel violent or aggressive behavior is a problem at your school? (Check answer)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

5.Of the following, which, if any, is a major concern to school safety? (Check answers all answers that apply)

- ☐ Drugs, alcohol, tobacco
- ☐ Bullying
- ☐ Sexual harassment
- ☐ Fighting
- ☐ Students carrying weapons
- ☐ Racial slurs
- ☐ Race related incidents (race tension)
- ☐ Theft
- ☐ Attacks against teachers
- ☐ Physical conflict between teacher and student
- ☐ Homicide
- ☐ Other: _____

6.Does your school have specific policies that address any of the following behaviors? (Check answer)

Drugs, alcohol, tobacco	___ Yes	___ No
Bullying	___ Yes	___ No
Sexual Harassment	___ Yes	___ No
Fighting	___ Yes	___ No
Students carrying weapons	___ Yes	___ No
Racial slurs (racial tension)	___ Yes	___ No
Theft	___ Yes	___ No
Attacks against teachers	___ Yes	___ No
Physical conflict between teacher and student	___ Yes	___ No
Shooting/stabbing	___ Yes	___ No

Homicide
Other

____ Yes ____ No
____ Yes ____ No

7. Of the listed behaviors above, which two have the highest rate of occurrence at your school? (a) _____ (b) _____

8. Did you notice a change between the 2002-2003 and 2003-2004 school year? (Check the one that applies)

a) Yes _____ b) No _____ c) Did not teach here during that time _____

(a) If yes, what type of change? (Circle your answer.)

Increase of the behavior Decrease of the behavior

Please explain (Optional) _____

9. What measures has your school taken to prevent violence? (Mark all that apply)

☐ Zero Tolerance Policy (i.e. expulsions, suspensions, transfers to alternative schools)

☐ School Security

____ a. School security patrols the halls.

____ b. Cameras have been installed.

____ c. Metal detectors at the entrance of buildings

____ d. A police officer occasionally checks on the school.

____ e. An armed police officer is stationed at the school.

____ f. Armed security guards patrol the halls

____ g. Occasional random weapon and drug searches.

____ h. Other: _____

☐ Conflict Resolution Program(s)

If applicable, please note the name and briefly describe the program:

☐ Multicultural Program(s)

If applicable, please note the name and briefly describe the program:

☐ Integrated Programs

If applicable, please note the name and describe the program:

10. Do you feel these programs and/or policies are effective? Please explain (i.e. which programs, reason for perception) (Circle response)

11. Do you think the number of violent incidents (a) increased (b) decreased (c) remained the same since the implementation of the program or policy? (Circle response)

12. Do you think the number of racist incidents (a) increased (b) decreased (c) remained the same since the implementation of the program or policy? (Circle response)

13. Have you noticed a recent change in attitudes toward violence? (Circle response)

Yes No

14. Have you noticed a recent change in attitudes toward racial conflict? (Circle response)

Yes No

15. Do you have any suggestions to help prevent school violence? Please explain on the space below.

PARENT SURVEY QUESTIONS

Grade of Student: _____ th grade Age: _____

1.How many years have you had your student in this school? _____

2.In general, do you feel violent or aggressive behavior is a problem in the high school your child (student) attends? (Check response)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Do not know or not sure

3.In general, do you feel racial conflict is a problem in the high school your child (student) attends? (Check response)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Do not know or not sure

4.During the last two school years, 2002-2003 and 2003-2004, do you think the number of the incidents increased, decreased, or remained the same (Circle response):

- | | | | |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Drugs, alcohol, tobacco | Increased | Decreased | No change |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Bullying | Increased | Decreased | No change |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sexual harassment | Increased | Decreased | No change |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Fighting | Increased | Decreased | No change |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Students carrying weapons | Increased | Decreased | No change |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Racial slurs | Increased | Decreased | No change |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Race related incidents (race tension) | Increased | Decreased | No change |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Theft | Increased | Decreased | No change |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____ | Increased | Decreased | No change |

5.Do you feel violent or aggressive behavior is getting worse in your student's high school? (Check response)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Do not know or not sure

6.Have you noticed a recent attitude change toward violence by your child? (Circle response)

Yes No

7.Have you noticed a recent attitude change toward racial conflict by your child? (Circle response)

Yes No

8. Do you have any suggestions to help prevent school violence? Please explain on the space below.

LIST OF REFERENCES

LIST OF REFERENCES

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CURRICULUM VITAE

Gerardine St. Jean earned a Master's Degree in Industrial and Labor Relations from Indiana University of Pennsylvania and a Bachelor's Degree in Psychology, minor in Sociology, from Stetson University.

Gerardine has been employed as a senior level manager with the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania since 2000. She has 6 years experience as a trainer, facilitator, and mediator. She recently served as the Director of Administrative Services for the Department of Revenue. She simultaneously held the Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) Officer and Contract Compliance Officer positions. In these positions, she managed the agency's EEO and Contract Compliance Officer programs, which included civil rights compliance activities mandated by state and federal laws such as the American Disability Act (ADA).

She is certified by the Human Resources Certification Institute as a Professional in Human Resources (PHR) and has held professional certification since 2005. She also holds a trainer and facilitator certification from Achieve Global/Zenger-Miller and Excel Development Systems. She is a member of the Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM).