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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, SAN DIEGO
CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, SAN MARCOS

Proactive Campus Supervision: A High School Case

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the
requirements for the degree Doctor of Education

in

Educational Leadership

by

Matthew Harold Steitz

Committee in charge:

California State University, San Marcos
Professor Delores B. Lindsey, Chair
Professor Lorri Santamaría

University of California, San Diego
Professor Hugh Bud Mehan

2010

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The Dissertation of Matthew Harold Steitz is approved, and it is acceptable
in quality and form for publication on microfilm and electronically:

Chair

University of California, San Diego
California State University, San Marcos

2010

DEDICATION

I began my work toward this dissertation at the same time that my wife and I were moved to find our family. After the completion of the first class, my wife and I were notified by Faithful Adoptions that we would be traveling to Omsk, Siberia in Russia to meet our children. We were told the process of international adoption could take years, but in this case it would take only nine months. I took a leave of absence from the dissertation program and adopted two beautiful siblings, one-and-a-half year old (Sedona) Olya and two-and-a-half year old (Benjamin) Gennadiy. One year later, I reentered the dissertation program. My drive was now fueled by the family that I believe I was destined to form. This dissertation is first dedicated to them and our journey of over twelve thousand miles to find true love.

To my wife, words cannot express the love and support that you have provided me during both of these journeys. Thank you for the sacrifices that I know you have made. You have made this all possible.

Secondly, this dissertation is dedicated to my father. Growing up, I watched my dad move up through the ranks in the United States Navy to become a Senior Chief. Throughout his time in the Navy he worked as an instructor. His passion for educating others is only matched by his drive to educate himself. Today he is retired from the Navy and still continues to invest in his own education while continuing to work. I believe that my father provided me with the best model of success. I feel that the completion of this dissertation speaks to the strength of the foundation that he has given me. For that and so much more, I am thankful.

Professionally, there are several people that made this dissertation possible. First and foremost, is my mentor and close friend Nancy Peterson. She saw my abilities before I knew they existed. She took the time to teach me about leadership, relationships, and the balance of life. The idea for this dissertation was shaped through countless rides on golf carts across the school campus with Dean Spinos. Dean works as a campus supervisor at our school. He is a retired Drug Enforcement Agent. His unique background provided me with real life experiences that opened my eyes to the potential dangers that face school campuses. Together we blended law enforcement and education to come up with our proactive campus supervision program.

Personally, my friends that I have to thank for their support are as close to me as family. Leandro and Marie, you listened to me, challenged me, and argued with me. I cannot tell you how important that has been in shaping my thinking, my creating, and my teaching.

Lastly, this dissertation is dedicated to the students that I have been able to work with. They make all of the long hours, tough conversations, and stressful deadlines worth it. I have grown because of their questions, I have agonized over their decisions, and I have celebrated in their promotions. I thank all of you.

EPIGRAPH

The epigraph for this dissertation comes from an anonymous quote found on the Ring of Healing at the Columbine Memorial in Clement Park in Littleton, Colorado.

“It brought the nation to its knees,
but now that we’ve gotten back
up how have things changed;
what have we learned?”

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VITA

1994	Bachelor of Science, Biology California State University, San Diego
1996	Single Subject Teaching Credential Authorized Field: Life Science Supplementary Authorization: Chemistry California State University, San Diego
1997-2002	High School Biology Teacher Grossmont Union High School District
2003	High School Biology Teacher Murrieta Unified School District
2001-2003	Master of Science, Educational Administration National University
2001-2003	Administrative Services Credential
2004-Present	Assistant Principal San Marcos Unified School District
2010	Doctor of Education, Educational Leadership University of California, San Diego California State University, San Marcos

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Proactive Campus Supervision: A High School Case

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Professor Delores B. Lindsey, Chair

University of California, San Diego
California State University, San Marcos

2010

An embedded, single-case study was conducted to make a disciplined inquiry into campus supervision at South Main High School¹. The study examined the campus supervision program currently being used by the school. At the time of this dissertation, very little literature existed in the area of campus supervision programs. The goal of this dissertation was to answer the following research questions: How can a proactive campus supervision program that focuses on the concepts of resiliency can create a safer

¹ South Main High School is a pseudonym for the school in this study to increase the anonymity of the participants.

school environment, how do teachers view campus supervisors, how do administrators view campus supervisors, and how do students perceive the role of campus supervision? Five data sources contributed to the results section of this case study. The five data sources include: 823 student surveys, 52 teacher surveys, 3 administrator questionnaires, 4 campus supervisor interviews, and 4 student interviews.

The student survey was designed to measure students' rapport with campus supervisors, students' perception of the work that campus supervisors do, and student trust of campus supervisors. The survey consisted of five descriptive questions followed by twenty statements requiring a degree of "unlikely or likely" responses along a Likert scale. The teacher survey was a modification of the student survey. The administrative questionnaire was designed as a series of open ended questions designed to probe into the administration and campus supervision relationship. The campus supervisor and student interviews were also given a series of open ended questions with some probing questions as well.

The significant findings include the discovery of four elements of proactive campus supervision and the creation of a model of proactive campus supervision at South Main High School.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to make a disciplined inquiry into campus safety at South Main High School¹ (SMHS). The inquiry examines the campus supervision program at SMHS. The campus supervisor is a position that was established to provide safety on campus. This study examines interactions among campus supervisors, administrators, teachers, and students. It creates a model that focuses on the campus supervisor role in providing safety. This model can serve as a starting point for future studies on campus supervision programs as they relates to student and adult safety.

Context of the Problem

School violence has directly impacted my roles as classroom teacher and school administrator. On March 5, 2001, during my third year of teaching at El Capitan High School in Lakeside, California, a significant event occurred. Just over five miles to the west of our campus, a student, Andy Williams, opened fire on our sister campus of Santana High School. As soon as the shooting started, cell phones in my classroom began to ring. Many students at El Capitan had relatives and close friends at Santana. In the moments following the shooting, students relayed first-hand accounts of the terror that had engulfed Santana's campus. Seventeen days later, just six miles south, Jason Hoffman, in an eerie imitation of Williams, attacked Granite Hills High School. Again, our campus was sent into a state of confusion, speculation, and this time, even more so than before, fear consumed our entire

¹ South Main High School is a pseudonym for the school in this study to increase the anonymity of the participants.

campus. The worst of school violence had come closer to me than I ever imagined possible.

Currently, safety is a primary concern in my role as an assistant principal of a high school in southern California. Parents, guardians, and relatives do not send their students to school expecting them to become victims of school violence or crime. Teachers and other staff members do not arrive at school expecting to witness or become victims of school violence or crime. As an educator, and an administrator, none of my training had prepared me to become a custodian of this responsibility. The constant reminder of my responsibilities as an administrator, paired with my experiences as a teacher in the Grossmont Union High School District, compels me to learn more about school safety and school violence.

Rationale for Study

Guaranteed school safety is one of the hallmarks of public education in California (Ed Code 32261). School safety is the first step in ensuring student learning takes place; therefore, the prevention of crime on a campus is an essential part of creating a sense of security so students can learn. It is impossible to have a positive learning environment when students are fearful of being victimized. In 2004, students from ages 12-18 were victims of about 1.4 million nonfatal crimes at school (Dinkes, Cataldi, Kena, & Baum 2006). The Dinkes, et al. study indicates that in 2005, six percent of students in the study reported they had avoided a school activity or one or more locations on a school campus because of fear of attack or harm. These statistics demonstrate the severity of the safety problems on school campuses.

When students avoid areas on a school campus or avoid participating in school activities because of fear, less likelihood exists for students to bond and connect to their school experiences in positive ways. In my experience as an assistant principal, students who are not positively connected to school are often the same students who engage in poor behavior. When adolescents feel cared for by people at their school and feel a part of their school, they are less likely to use illegal substances, engage in violence, or initiate sexual activity at an early age (McNeely, Nonnemaker, & Blum 2002). The idea of being connected to school has been studied extensively within the theory of resiliency. Henderson and Milstein (2003) define six steps to building resiliency in students in their book, *Resiliency in Schools: Making it Happen for Students and Educators*. These six steps include (1) increase bonding, (2) set clear, consistent boundaries, (3) teach life skills, (4) provide caring and support, (5) set and communicate high expectations, and (6) provide opportunities for meaningful participation. By purposefully using the concepts of these steps, the school as an organization can begin to prepare students for the difficult situations that life will bring. For the purpose of this study resiliency will be defined as the ability to come back from a difficult situation and learn from it.

How Does Student Behavior Link to Student Achievement

The association between student behaviors and student achievement was the focus of an article (Fleming, Haggerty, Catalano, Harachi, Mazza, & Gruman, 2005) published in the *Journal of School Health*. The study found that higher levels of school bonding and better social, emotional, and decision-making skills were related to higher test scores and higher grades. This longitudinal study was conducted to determine if social and behavioral characteristics of seventh graders targeted by preventive interventions were

predictive of academic performance in high school. The sample size consisted of 576 seventh-grade students. The students were assessed for risk and protective factors for problem behavior. The risk factors were defined as poor self-regulation of attention or emotions, poor social and decision-making skills, depression, and substance abuse. The protective factors were defined as attention regulation, commitment to school, as well as social and problem-solving skills. As tenth graders, the same students' academic achievement was assessed with the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL) and a self-report of grades. The results indicated a correlation between risk and protective factors and academic achievement. In addition, violence and safety issues on a school campus are also responsible for countless hours of administrator and staff time that could be better spent assisting in the learning process. Therefore, as studies have indicated, the overarching effect that school safety can have on the student's connection to school, academic achievement, and use of school officials' time indicates the importance of continued study of this topic.

Where and When Does Violence and Crime Occur on a High School Campus

The following sections identify the locations on a school campus where the largest amount of violence and victimization occurs. This section also identifies school personnel that are responsible for supervision in these locations and the tools that these individuals have been given to maintain safety. Last, the section explores the relationships that these employees have with students and how this relationship may hold the key to unlocking the seemingly inaccessible links in the chain of events that can potentially become school violence.

The majority of school violence occurs in areas that have few or no adults present (Astor & Meyer, 2001). Using maps to plot incidents of violent behavior Astor and Meyer were able to determine that these areas are generally bathrooms, hallways, locker rooms, and cafeteria areas. Another critical finding was that time plays an important factor as well. For example, hallways are not an area of concern until students occupy them as they pass from one class to another. During passing period times supervision is needed; during class time, less supervision of the hallways is necessary. Another example of how time plays a role can be seen in respect to the school cafeteria. Anywhere students congregate over an extended period of time, as during lunch time, becomes a concern during the time that they spend there. Astor and Meyer (2001) found that students felt that they were “on their own” when they entered these “free spaces.” For future discussion, the term “free space” will be used when addressing times and places of concern when students feel unsupervised.

Who is Actually Providing the Supervision of Students in Most Schools

Most schools across the nation have supervision personnel assigned to these areas of free space. These people have titles such as campus security, school security, school police, or campus supervisor. Campus supervisor will be the term used in this study to describe the person hired by the school site to monitor students in these areas of free space throughout the course of the day. This position is not in any way affiliated with a law enforcement agency. These personnel are employees of the school district who are charged with following district policies, school procedures, and the education code that governs the state. Usually they are only armed with a visibly colorful jacket or vest and a radio.

In my experience I have found that two components need to be in place for campus supervision to have any authority at all. The first component is a consistent and fair behavior code that is being adhered to by the administration as the expected behavior of the campus. Henderson and Milstein's (2003) work also found that to foster resiliency in students, clear and consistent boundaries must exist. The administration and campus supervision at SMHS are often in contact and frequently follow up with one another to insure students are receiving a consistent message. The second component is that students must perceive the campus supervision as an extension of the administration in terms of enforcing the behavior code. In other words, students need to know that when a campus supervisor indicates a behavior infraction; most assuredly the administration will follow up on the referral. With these two components in place, campus supervisors can begin to reclaim the free space.

Proactive Supervision as a Way of Increasing Campus Safety

Identifying free space as the focus of concern on a school campus puts the spotlight on campus supervisors as personnel responsible for maintaining safety and security. Wielding the power of a well-supported behavior code, campus supervisors take on the responsibility of securing the areas of free space. The behavior code, however, is just one of the tools that campus supervisors use to help generate a safe environment. Research has shown that the most effective way to reduce the likelihood of violence is to have students supervised by adults who know them (Astor, Meyer & Williams, 1999). This suggests that campus supervisors could get to know the students who tend to occupy a given free space; this could result in a more effective reduction in violence. The tool of getting to know the students who are being supervised is a

proactive approach to dealing with campus safety. The concept of getting to know students is a major component within resiliency theory found in educational research. Henderson and Milstein (2003) identify six steps for fostering resiliency in students. The first step is increasing bonding between adults and students. The second step is the setting of clear, consistent boundaries. The third step is the teaching of life skills. The fourth step is providing caring and support for students. The fifth is setting and communicating high expectations. The sixth and final step is providing opportunities for meaningful participation. If the concepts within these steps were part of a campus supervision program, the program could support what the research suggests about getting to know the students being supervised. I believe that students will be better served when campus supervisors know and understand how to develop these concepts. The research question then becomes this: how can a proactive campus supervisor program, focusing on the concepts of resiliency, create a safer school environment?

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

This study took place at South Main High School. In 2008, SMHS enrolled 1,804 students. Over half the students were Latino, with 35% of the total population being identified as being socioeconomically disadvantaged. The purpose of this study was to examine the campus supervisor program at SMHS and to answer the research question: How might a proactive campus supervision program focused on the concepts of resiliency create a safer school environment? This researcher paid careful attention to the relationships that the campus supervision needs to have with administration, teachers, and students to establish a safe campus. The specific research questions include:

1. How can a proactive campus supervision program that focuses on the concepts of resiliency create a safer school environment?
2. How do teachers view campus supervisors?
3. How do administrators view campus supervisors?
4. How do students perceive the role of campus supervision?

At South Main High School, campus supervisors are employed to occupy and supervise the free space on campus. The administrative team believes it is important for campus supervisors to get to know students. The more students that the campus supervisors know, the more accurate and comprehensive information is passed on to school leaders. At SMHS the administrators believe that every student contact, regardless of the origination, positive or negative, is an opportunity to build rapport. When talking to students at lunch or escorting a student to the office, the campus supervisor needs to realize these are opportunities to demonstrate the support available to the student(s). If campus supervisors are to increase school safety they will have to know the students, be known by the students, and be supported by teachers and administrators. This study examines the proactive campus supervision at SMHS.

Preview of the Literature Review

Very little research literature focusing on campus supervision programs or the campus supervisor position exists. In an effort to provide a theoretical grounding for this study, a review of literature outside of the field of education was necessary. The field that provided the best insight into security and supervision of students was criminology, specifically the concept of juvenile delinquency. It is through the lenses of such foundational theories as Differential Association Theory (Sutherland & Cressey, 1960),

the Labeling Theory (Becker, 1991/1963), Differential Association – Reinforcement Theory (Burgess & Akers, 1966), and Social Control Theory (Hirschi, 1969) that a baseline understanding of youth violence can be established. From this baseline, the researcher explored the best possible interventions and best security techniques. Three themes resonated through the literature as keys to creating this security: the organization of the school, the school culture, and student-teacher relationships.

Overview of Methodology

This study explored the campus supervision program at South Main High School. The purpose was to understand the role proactive campus supervision plays in supporting students and improving campus safety. The methodology best suited for addressing the research questions purposed was an embedded, single-case study. A multiple case design was very appealing due to the attractiveness of determining over arching themes within the realm of campus supervision. However, the sensitivity of the topic of campus safety could expose the campus supervision staff at one school to an unnecessary comparison against another school. The research questions, the unnecessary comparison between sites, and the lack of research on campus supervision helped to make the decision to use an embedded, single-case study approach. With regard to the limitations of an embedded, single-case study, Yin (2003) warns against focusing on only one subunit and failing to return to the larger unit of analysis. This case study presents five units of analysis: student surveys, senior student interviews, campus supervisor interviews, teacher surveys, and administrator questionnaires. Discipline records, suspension and expulsion rates, the California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS), and the national Youth Risk

Behavior Survey will provide the data for determining the safety record on the SMHS campus.

Using a survey to gauge resiliency, student data provided insight as to how students perceive the campus supervisors and the work that they do (see Appendix A). The survey design used was a cross-sectional design. A cross-sectional survey is designed to take a snapshot in time that examines current attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and practices (Creswell, 2005). The students who have been selected to participate in this study were ninth and eleventh graders at SMHS who were participating in the CHKS. An opt-out type of consent was used for the CHKS and the campus supervision survey. Parents and students received consent forms that requested a signature only if the student was not willing to participate in the survey. This sampling did not include students with severe handicapped conditions or students in off-campus functional skills or transitional special education programs. Students in these programs have very little opportunity to interact with the campus supervision staff and therefore have been intentionally excluded from participating. By giving the students the CHKS and the campus supervision survey at the same time, students were able to take the survey without discrimination of being singled out or having to go to an alternate location. Instructions given to teachers informed students that the campus supervision survey is completely voluntary and that no students would be punished for not choosing to participate. The campus supervision survey was collected from the students at the same time the CHKS was collected. The teacher separated them immediately to assure that no correlation between the two surveys would be made.

The strength of student voice was greatly enhanced by including a series of one-on-one student semi-structured interviews (see Appendix B). Students were selected for the interviews by the administration team, specifically the assistant principals. All student participants were seniors and eighteen years of age. Students were interviewed by a colleague not associated with SMHS, and the recording was sent to a transcription service for processing. Students were asked to participate after they have attended their last day of class. These steps helped reduce the risks of being retaliated against for being critical during their interview. This researcher expected that these steps would enable the students to be honest and reflective. In a 2007 article *How listening to students can help schools to improve*, Noguera stated the following, “Students may not have all the answers to the problems plaguing urban high schools. This does not mean that they may not have ideas on improving schools on a wide variety of issues, including school safety and student achievement” (p. 209) These interviews provided the student voice component to this case study that made the other data collected more meaningful.

Teachers were invited to voluntarily take a survey about the campus supervision at SMHS (see Appendix C). A modified version of the campus supervision survey was sent to the teaching staff to be taken electronically. The only demographic information collected was gender and range of years employed at SMHS. It was the belief of this researcher that requiring more demographic information would bring a higher degree of risk when dealing with the relatively small staff at SMHS. The survey was administered in electronic form using Survey Monkey. This assured teachers anonymity and diminished any risk of being linked back to their survey responses. The data collected from this survey were viewed only through the lens of analysis for purpose of this study

and not for evaluation purposes or any other school site decisions. The researcher is a superior to the teaching staff, and in some cases he is the evaluator as well.

Semi-structured interviews with SMHS campus supervisors provided their perspective of their position and the effort they put forth to build resiliency with students (see Appendix D). Miles and Huberman (1994) address the need for structure as a correlation to the amount of study of a given phenomenon. The more studied the phenomenon, the greater the need for structure; the less studied the phenomenon, the less need for structure. The lack of literature on campus supervision programs and the campus supervision position validates the use of a semi-structured approach to the interviews. Maxwell (2005) adds the idea that multiple case-studies tend to require more structure in order to make the comparisons, while single case-studies leave room for the researcher to let the findings guide the process. A snowball sampling technique was used to select the participants within the campus supervision staff. The sampling began with the lead campus supervisor. At the conclusion of the interview he was asked whom he thought the interviewer should talk to next. All interviews were conducted by a colleague not associated with SMHS, and recordings were sent to a transcription service. This insured that the researcher's contact with the data was only through the lens of analysis for the purpose of this study only. This reduced the risk that the campus supervisors may feel because the researcher is also their superior and evaluator.

The administrative staff was asked to fill out a questionnaire about the campus supervisor position (see Appendix E). The questionnaire was designed to determine the administrator's practice, belief, and attitude about campus supervision. Due to the small number of people on the administration team, anonymity was not possible. Each member

of the administration team was given an opportunity to go over their answers prior to the data entering the analysis phase. The administration team was debriefed on the findings of the questionnaire in a meeting prior to the publishing of the results. As part of the administration team, it is the researcher's belief that the team eagerly welcomes the opportunity to investigate the area of campus supervision and improve upon our practices. The findings were not reflected on a performance evaluation.

In an effort to provide the detail needed to clearly present an embedded case study of South Main High School's proactive campus supervision program, data were collected in five different ways. The first data to be collected came from the student survey. The second data collected were the teacher surveys, followed by the administrator questionnaires. The interviews with campus supervision were followed by the exit interviews for senior students. With information coming from campus supervisors, students, teachers, and administrators, a complete picture was provided of the campus supervision program at South Main High School.

Significance of Study

The significance of this study lies in the examination of the proactive campus supervision program. If these are the people that we, as educators, have tasked with the job of maintaining the areas of our campuses with the greatest potential for violence, then we owe them the most comprehensive training and information we can provide. Current studies have provided little insight into this important position. With the current preoccupation with student achievement and test scores, limited attention is being given to creating a safe and positive learning environment for students, a hallmark of an effective school. As researchers, educators, and parents, we must put forth the most

disciplined of inquiries into the position of campus supervisor if we are to assign them such an important task. This study will only begin to dislodge the wheel that needs to be turned numerous times in order to give this topic its just inspection. South Main High School has been fortunate to have a very consistent group of campus supervisors. With this researcher being the person charged with oversight of the campus supervisors, we have begun to change the way we approach campus supervision. This study provides SMHS with an in-depth look at this approach and how it is being perceived by students, teachers, administrators, and the campus supervisors themselves. Is SMHS a safer campus because we have changed the focus of campus supervision from reacting to student disruption to proactively demonstrating support for students? This study will help answer this question and serve as a starting point for future research on campus supervision.

CHAPTER 2

Review of Related Literature

As discussed in the previous chapter, my experiences have led me to an interest in the area of school crime and violence. As a current assistant principal at a high school, I work very closely with campus supervision staff to insure student safety on campus. A large part of my work involves interactions with campus supervision staff. Starting with the broad interest in the area of school crime and violence, I began to investigate the literature. The topic of school violence and crime has been studied significantly, especially since the Columbine High School massacre on April 20, 1999 (Newman et al., 2004). As I delved further into the research, I found a significant lack of research on campus supervision programs and the campus supervisor position. This was noticeable to me because of my close ties to the campus supervisors at my school where, as a team, we work every day to keep students safe. Also elusive was any kind of theory related to school crime and violence. These gaps helped to increase my drive to review the literature and formulate my research questions.

In discussing the topics of school safety and school violence, working definitions need to be established. For the use of this review, school safety is defined as having fewer occurrences of those behaviors that would be in violation of the California Education Code, sections 48900 and 48915. These behaviors include: physical injury; willful use of force or violence; possession of a weapon; possession of, use of, the sale or furnishing of a controlled substance, robbery or extortion; damage to school or private property; theft of school or private property; use or

possession of tobacco; obscenities; disruption of school activities; receiving stolen property; possession of replica firearms; intimidation; and sexual assault or battery. School violence is defined as those violations that cause physical or mental harm to another unwilling participant. In the case of furnishing a controlled substance, this would normally not be seen as causing physical or mental harm to another person because, in most cases, the person is a willing participant. However, if the person were not a willing participant, the violation would qualify as an act of violence.

Statistically, schools remain a safe place for students and staff (Dinkes et al., 2006); this is in spite of the recent school shooting tragedies that have seemed to plague our nation. Educational researchers have studied many of these school shootings. However, in order to gain more understanding of all levels of school violence, it is necessary to look beyond the field of education and into the field of criminology. The research in the area of juvenile delinquency is much more extensive. It is with the lens of criminology that a theoretical background for juvenile delinquency can begin to be explored. Four theories will provide the foundation for this study: the Differential Association Theory (Sutherland & Cressey, 1960), the Labeling Theory (Becker, 1991/1963), the Differential Association – Reinforcement Theory (Burgess & Akers, 1966), and the Social Control Theory (Hirschi, 1969).

Juvenile delinquency is a unique area of criminology. By embedding this topic within the structure of a high school, a different construct of behavior and its consequences has been created. Juvenile delinquency is treated differently from adult crime by law enforcement officials. Adult crime often results in harsher punishments

than juvenile crime. However, add the element of the school and the education codes that govern them, and another set of consequences for misbehavior becomes necessary.

In order to understand the events or crimes that occur on a high school campus, an investigation of the organization of a high school is needed. High schools operate within policies and procedures shaped by past practices, local policies, and state mandates that make them different from other organizations. From this understanding of school organization, a link can then be made to the crimes that occur on school campuses. Crime on a school campus has its own unique configuration and deserves its own explanation. An example of this uniqueness can be seen in the concept of “bullying.” This concept has surfaced in our nation’s schools in face-to-face encounters and cyber-space encounters (Sullivan, Cleary, & Sullivan, 2004). The organization of secondary schools, students moving to and from multiple classes, the social subcultures, the varied grade levels, and an increasing number of and greater diversity of students all provide fertile ground for bullying. This setting is unique in that the student body of a secondary school would not be likely to spend the six and half hours together in any setting if they were not required by law to attend school. By bringing these students of varying backgrounds, ages, and beliefs together, schools become potential powder kegs for violence.

School safety is the first step in ensuring that student learning can take place; therefore, the prevention of crime on a campus is an essential part of creating a sense of security so students can learn. Three themes have resonated through the literature as keys to creating this security: the organization of the school (Crepeau-hobs & Filaccio, 2005; Fox & Harding, 2005; Gottfredson, 1986, 2001; Jonsberg, 2000; Kaplan & Evans, 1997;

Noguera, 1995; Schaefer-Schiunio & Ginsberg, 2003), the school culture itself (Astor & Meyer, 1999, 2001; Bowen & Bowen, 1999; Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Haselswerdt & Lenhardt, 2003; Hawkins & Weis, 1985; Kingery, Coggeshall, & Alford, 1998; Lawson, 1998; Libbey, 2004; Makecki & Elliott, 1999; Noguera, 2001; Schreck, Miller & Gibson, 2003; Willert, 2002; Wilson, 2004), and student-teacher relationships (Axelman, 2006; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Gladden, 2002; Hudson, 1995; Noguera, 2007). Each plays a role in developing the school climate that fosters student success, and more importantly, safety. The foundational study on school environment by Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston and Smith (1979) found that neither a school riddled with behavior problems nor under-achieving students can explain the differences in how students perform academically. Students of similar backgrounds and skills can be examined with the only difference being the school that they attend. The data from this study concluded that the difference in experience that the students have at the school may influence their academic progress. This study provides validity to the themes that I found in the literature review that are key for providing security on a school campus: the organization of the school, the school culture itself, and student-teacher relationships. These themes dictate to a large degree the experience students will have during their time in high school.

The literature review that follows looks at school safety and violence through the eyes of a practitioner responsible for the safety of a high school campus. The first part of the review is the theoretical foundation. This sets the stage for the discussion of why students commit acts of violence and crime. The next part examines the school's organizational structure. School culture makes up a large portion of the review. In this section, the concepts of school environment, consistent discipline, academic mission, and

school connectedness are discussed. The next section is an in-depth study of the student-teacher relationship. The following section discusses resiliency theory and its correlation to the themes found within the topic of school safety. It is within this section that a closer look into the student population at SMHS drives the discussion toward the largest ethnic demographic group. Following this is a brief review of “Cultural Proficiency” (Lindsey, Graham, Westphal, & Jew. 2008). The final section of the review describes the case study rationale.

A Theoretical Background of Delinquency

The field of criminology has developed a rich resource of research relative to the study of criminal behavior and other aspects of crime. It is my intent to provide the theoretical background necessary to explore the area of school violence. In doing so, a focus on the criminal behaviors of adolescents or juveniles is necessary. Criminology discusses crime at its most basic level with juveniles as delinquents. The research in the area of school violence points to four theories in an effort to understand delinquency: the Differential Association Theory (Sutherland & Cressey, 1960), the Labeling Theory (Becker, 1991/1963), the Differential Association – Reinforcement Theory (Burgess & Akers, 1966), and the Social Control Theory (Hirschi, 1969).

The Differential Association Theory

The Differential Association Theory was one of the earliest theories on the topic of delinquency. The theory first appeared in the *Principles of Criminology*, in 1939. In order to explain the idea of criminal behavior in a more scientific manner, the original authors, Edwin Sutherland & Donald Cressey (1960), suggested that the conditions that

cause a criminal act to occur should always be present when there is a criminal act. This suggests that the opposite would also hold true, that these conditions would be absent when no criminal act was occurring. Using this logic, Sutherland & Cressey (1960) were able to dismiss various conditions that are often associated with criminal acts from being the cause of the criminal act. Poverty would be an example of such a condition that is often associated with crime. However, there are times when poverty is not present, such as in the case of white-collar criminal activity where a crime has occurred despite the lack of poverty. There are, of course, also people living in poverty who are not criminals. Essentially, Sutherland & Cressey dismissed variables that were not specifically linked to the criminal act as being insignificant. The researchers went on to give two explanations of criminal behavior. The first explanation is described as being situational. A person leaves the garage door open when leaving for work. A neighborhood teenager can see this as a criminal opportunity or not. The second explanation is historical. In this case, criminal behavior is learned. The researchers explain various ways in which the behavior of being a criminal is passed on from one person to another. The circle of criminals essentially set up their own beliefs about law and order that make it easier for an initiate to feel comfortable committing crimes when in the presence of someone from the circle.

The researchers formulated nine propositions that defined their theory:

1. Criminal behavior is learned.
2. Criminal behavior is learned in interaction with another person in a process of communication.
3. The principal part of the learning of criminal behavior occurs within intimate personal groups.
4. When criminal behavior is learned, the learning includes (a) techniques of committing the crime, which are sometimes very complicated, sometimes

very simple; (b) the specific direction of motives, drives, rationalizations, and attitudes.

5. The specific direction of motives and drives is learned from definitions of the legal codes as favorable or unfavorable.
6. A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favorable to violation of law over definitions unfavorable to violation of law.
7. Differential associations may vary in frequency, duration, priority, and intensity.
8. The process of learning criminal behavior by association with criminal and anti-criminal patterns involves all of the mechanisms that are involved in any other learning.
9. While criminal behavior is an expression of general needs and values, it is not explained by those general needs and values since non-criminal behavior is an expression of the same needs and values (Sutherland & Cressey, 1960).

In 1999, May published a study that included an index that followed the Differential Association Theory and the activities of peer groups. Using responses from 8,000 high school students, he determined that 637 students had carried a gun to school at least once. These students scored significantly higher on the Differential Association Index than students who had not carried a gun to school. The students answered questions on the survey indicating that their peers were more favorable to violating the law than other participating students. These results support the Sutherland and Cressey (1960) theory. The Differential Association Theory asserts that people commit crimes because they are surrounded by messages from people close to them that justify the commission of crimes. In this case, many of the students who carried a gun to school at least once were part of a peer group that encouraged criminal behavior.

By removing variables that are associated with both criminal and non-criminal behavior and focusing the field on two explanations of criminal behavior, situational and historical, Sutherland and Cressey's (1960) Differential Association Theory provided the field of criminology with an organized approach to creating a causal explanation of criminal behavior. In the area of school safety and violence prevention, this theory helps to nullify some of the biases that surround school crime. Although their work applies to crime in general, in the small confines of a school, the theory implies that crime cannot be associated with income level, race, academic performance, or the high school subculture to which a student belongs. Instead crime is associated with students who are closely tied to people who commit crimes. Regardless of the students' subculture, if they surround themselves with students who commit crimes they will become more likely to commit a crime.

The Labeling Theory

Becker's original work, published in 1963, gives another perspective to the concept of rules. He begins by explaining that in order for criminal behavior to exist, someone first has to deem the behavior as unwanted. Thus, rules or regulations are created. In so doing, a separation is created between two groups of people: those who find the rules right and those who find the rules wrong. The Labeling Theory begins to show its true colors as the society begins to label those who follow the rules and those who do not. This concept of labeling the offender is much broader than the individual person. Once a person has been caught by law enforcement and labeled as a delinquent, those people in close proximity to him/her are now looked at in a different way and are now considered fringe players. According to the Differential Association Theory, they

have a much higher opportunity to become delinquents and are consequently labeled as such. Becker explains that just because criminals are labeled as robbers, car thieves, or stick-up men, the label does not generate the activity. However, these labels are more than just words that some parts of society use to identify people. In some cases, they become barriers as explained by Becker:

Nevertheless, one of the most important contributions of this approach has been to focus on the way labeling places the actor in circumstances which make it harder for him to continue the normal routines of everyday life and thus provoke him to “abnormal” actions (as when a prison record makes it harder to earn a living at a conventional occupation and so disposes its processor to move into an illegal one). p.179

Becker’s insight into how society responds to the labeled individual is a valid example that will be discussed later as it relates to SMHS’s proactive campus supervision.

In 1993, Bowditch conducted an ethnographic study of school discipline. She looked at an urban high school that was predominately attended by African American students. Her study focused on the discipline procedures and the production of dropouts. Through her study it became evident that students were labeled as “troublemakers” or “those students.” She also noticed that the factors that were producing these labels were the same factors that produced dropouts.

In practice, disciplinarians rarely questioned students about the details of their misbehavior or the reasons behind them. Instead, after identifying the charge against the student, they moved on to a series of questions about grades, attendance, previous suspensions, and, in some instances, the student's year in school, age, or plans for employment. A student's answers, rather than the particular circumstances of his actions, identified the misconduct's meaning to the disciplinarians. Only when a student's academic profile seemed to violate the disciplinarian's expectations would he or she inquire further about the charges against the student. They sought to punish "types of students" more than "types of behavior." p. 500

Bowditch's link between the factors that make a student a troublemaker and those that make a student drop out is very significant in terms of addressing the achievement gap. According to Becker's work, the label itself does not create the action. However, this might be a situation where the organization is creating the label by taking the action.

The Differential Association-Reinforcement Theory

Using the original work by Sutherland & Cressey (1960) dating back to the late 1930's, it was clear to Burgess and Akers (1966) that the Differential Association Theory was due for some much-needed re-examination. The theory had been given some revisions but there was nothing that included the newer aspects of learning theory that developed in the 1960's. It was the hope of Burgess and Akers that, by infusing new aspects of learning theory that had been empirically tested, they could develop a theory for delinquency that could begin to be evaluated as well. The researchers used the Law of Operant Behavior to give the learning segment of the disassociated theory a more modern and applicable description. Appendix F shows the conversions made to Sutherland and Cressey's nine statements used to describe the process by which an average person becomes engaged in criminal activity. Burgess and Akers' application of the components of operant conditioning to Sutherland's (1960) nine statements resulted in seven new statements that they determined could be empirically tested. The new seven statements include:

1. Criminal behavior is learned according to the principals of operant conditioning.
2. Criminal behavior is learned both in nonsocial and social situations.
3. The principal part of the learning of criminal behavior occurs in those groups which comprise the individual's major sources of reinforcement.

4. The learning of criminal behavior, including specific techniques, attitudes, and avoidance procedures, is a function of the effective and available reinforcers, and the existing reinforcement contingencies.
5. The specific class of behaviors which are learned and their frequency of occurrence are a function of the reinforcers which are effective and available, and the rules or norms by which these reinforcers are applied.
6. Criminal behavior is a function of norms which are discriminative for criminal behavior, the learning of which takes place when such behavior is more highly reinforced than noncriminal behavior.
7. The strength of criminal behavior is a direct function of the amount, frequency, and probability of its reinforcement.

The true test of this theory was performed by Akers, Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce, and Radosevich (1979). The article, *Social Learning and Deviant Behavior: A Specific Test of a General Theory*, provided the empirical support needed to give the theory quantitative validity and reliability. A self-reporting questionnaire given to 3,065 adolescents, grade 7-12, from three Midwestern states, was used to measure delinquency, as well as drug and drinking behaviors. The results of a regression analysis showed that the social learning components of the Differential Association-Reinforcement Theory explained 55% of the variance in the drinking behavior and 68% of the variance in the use of marijuana. These results also support the usefulness of survey data in measuring the social learning components of the Differential Association-Reinforcement Theory and thereby encourage the further use of these methods.

With the addition of the testable learning components, one can envision the Differential Association-Reinforcement Theory providing a solid foundation for the investigation of school safety and violence prevention in high schools. This theory provides the framework for understanding the recruitment of underclassmen by more

senior social groups that are involved in delinquent behavior. The addition of the operant conditioning aspects of the learning components allow for the feasibility of using surveys to obtain data. Such surveys can provide a reliable and valid way to obtain quantitative data in the area of school safety and violence prevention.

The Social Control Theory

Hirschi, in *Causes of Delinquency* (1969), describes the Social Control Theory. Social Control Theory posits that peoples' social bonds will hold them back from delinquency, but if these bonds are lost or weakened, the likelihood of delinquency is increased. To clearly define this idea of bond, the author describes four elements of bonding: attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief. He explains lack of attachment by describing the psychopath who is unattached to society and morally free to commit acts of violence or crime. Consequently, someone who is attached would feel a moral obligation to remain within the norms of society. Commitment is described as a created value or cost that is weighed when negotiating the commencement of a delinquent act. This cost or value can also be made in reference to the future. An example of such futuring in education would be students negotiating the cost of consistently cutting class by weighing the consequence of failing the class and falling behind in graduation credits. Involvement takes the form of participation in conventional activities that, in essence, decrease the amount of time or resources available for delinquency. Social Control Theory defines belief as the premise that everyone believes the rules that govern the society. Why then does a person commit a crime that he or she knows is wrong? Hirschi (1969) suggests two answers to this question. The first answer refers to the Differential Association Theory. If both the criminal person and the non-

criminal person share the same belief, then the belief is irrelevant in the determination of the criminal act. The second answer brings in the concept of neutralization. At the time of the criminal act, the perpetrator rationalizes the breaking of the rule for that instant. This rationalization neutralizes the belief in the rule, allowing the individual to act freely in defiance of the policy.

Stewart (2003) utilized a survey that measured each of the elements of bonding of the Social Control Theory in reference to a school. Working with a sample size of 10,578 students in 528 schools, he was able to generate reliable data. All four of the elements--attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief--were found to be significant and negatively associated with misbehavior at school. These findings support the theory of social control.

Hirshi's Social Control Theory (1969) emphasis on strong versus weak social bonds as potential indicators of criminal make sense in the school setting where social bonds are of significant importance to young people. His description of attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief as the elements that make up social bonds gave the research community tangible components that could be measured and tested. In the area of school safety and violence prevention, the Social Control Theory provides the relationship component of this topic. I found this to be one of the prevalent themes in my review of the literature.

Organizational Structure of Secondary Schools

The organizational structure of a typical secondary school has changed little over the past century. There have definitely been technological upgrades to the tools used in schools, but the structure of the organization itself has seen minimal change. A secondary

school will normally have an administration staff, some form of student services, a curricular pathway, instructors, and students. Administrators, counselors, campus supervisors, health services workers, child nutrition services workers, custodial workers, maintenance and grounds workers, classroom aides, and teachers may fill these roles. These are the staff members who comprise the school. It is the responsibility of the school and these staff members to keep students safe while they are in attendance (Kingery et al., 1998).

Fox and Harding (2005) describe what happens before a school shooting as a series of occurrences that were not noticed by the organization. They use the term “organizational deviance” to describe the series of events. Using the events leading up to December 1, 1997, in Paducah, Kentucky, when Michael Carneal, 14, pulled a handgun from his backpack and fired eight shots into a group of students, the researchers compiled a picture of how the organization failed. Their findings revealed that various people in the school held different pieces of the puzzle and if the pieces of the puzzle had come together, the tragedy might have been avoided. Due the structure of the organization, the information flow was disjointed and did not allow for the troubled teen to be noticed. This study provides an excellent example of a school, organized the same way as many of the nation’s high schools, failed to notice various warning signs that could have changed the outcome on December 1, 1997. Viewing this study through the lens of the foundational theories already discussed allows for an even deeper examination of the role of a school’s organization as an element of school safety. There are many schools that have the same organization as Heath High in Paducah, Kentucky. According to Sutherland and Cressey (1960), only the elements of the crime that are unique to the

crime should be considered as possible links to the cause of the crime. Since there are many high schools across the nation with the same organizational structure as Heath High, the organization of the school should not be considered as a link to the cause of the crime. If the organization of the school were removed from the equation, the learning events that the student had and the social controls under which the student operated would have to be examined more closely. The study reveals extensive information suggesting that if the school officials had been made aware of the danger, they would have clearly deemed this student a threat. I would suggest that Paducah shooting was not a case of information being lost by the organization of the school but rather of social controls that were not established. It is possible, within schools' normal organizational structure, to pass information from one entity to another if the information is being generated. Heath High School had an enrollment of 550 students at the time of the shooting. In reference to urban high schools, this would be considered to be a relatively small school. Were there others with whom Michael had relationships who would have been privy to his deadly thoughts? Michael had been involved in various little criminal acts prior to the shooting, according to Newman, Fox, Harding, Mehta, and Roth (2004). Michael had stolen CDs and cash from his father's wallet, and he had sold items to friends incorrectly claiming that they were stolen. It is surprising that information about Michael was not being sought by adults on campus when he was actively involving himself in minor criminal behavior. Were there any adults on campus that were trying to make social connections with Michael? This idea of purposeful connections is something I will discuss in the next section.

School Culture

For the purpose of this review, the concept of school culture will include the examination of four different areas that make up the culture of the school. The first component is school environment. For the sake of this review, school environment will be looked at as the setting in which the school is placed. The next concept is the school's behavior code. In this section I explain the several messages sent through the enforcement of the school's discipline policies. The third area is the academic mission of the school. An obvious part of school culture, the mission also plays a role in school safety and violence prevention. The last component, in reference to the culture of the school, is school connectedness. I define school connectedness as the social bonds and belonging that connect students to the school itself.

The school does not exist in a vacuum free from outside influences. Astor and Benbenishty (2005) address this with their Matryoshka Doll Theory of School Violence:

According to our theoretical model, victimization in school is the product of many factors that are associated with multiple levels organized hierarchically (nested like a matryoshka doll); individual students within classes, classes within schools, schools within neighborhoods, and neighborhoods within societies and cultures. (p.113)

Several factors play into school violence, and the environment is one. Welsh, Greene, and Jenkins (1999) examined 11 middle schools in Philadelphia. They surveyed 7,583 students and came to the following conclusion: "The thesis that "bad" kids or "bad" communities directly import violence into any school is unsupported by our results" (p. 106). They found that the only community factor that played a significant role in school climate was that of poverty.

The work of Welsh, Greene, and Jenkins (1999) has not gone without scrutiny. Hoffmann and Johnson (2006) responded to their work with concerns about theoretical, empirical, and policy implications. Hoffmann and Johnson question the lack of evidence for the assumption that “bad” kids or “bad” communities do not produce “bad” schools. The small number of schools in the study provides the empirical argument from Hoffman and Johnson. They argue that a sample of only 11 schools in the same area lacks the robustness needed to make the findings valid. The policy implication that Hoffman and Johnson describe is that the connections between schools and communities cannot be ignored or diminished merely because of their complexity. Doing so could have a negative impact on schools.

The community a school is located in plays a very large role in the development of the school environment (Telleen, Pesce, & Maher, 2003). There must be a clear understanding of the community’s expectations for their children’s education before reform measures are taken. Within the area of school safety, some of these expectations can be assumed. That the community expects the school to be a safe place for children to learn is just one of these assumptions. The instruments used in the present study do not measure the role of the community in school violence. The focus of this study is on the proactive campus supervision at SMHS.

School Environment

A recurring theme in the research in reference to school safety and violence prevention is an emphasis on school environment. School environment has a direct effect on student achievement (Astor & Meyer, 1999, 2001; Axelman, 2006; Bowen & Bowen, 1999; Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Gladden, 2002; Haselswerdt & Lenhardt, 2003; Hudson,

1995; Kaplan & Evans, 1997; Kingery et al., 1998; Schaefer-Schiunio & Ginsberg, 2003; Willert, 2002). Within the literature on school environment, several researchers note the time and place where violent acts have occurred. The literature commonly describes these problematic areas as being outside of the classroom, and where few adults are present. The time of the violent acts is usually before school, during breaks, lunches, and after school (Astor & Meyer, 1999, 2001; Gladden, 2002; Devine, 1996; Noguera, 1995). Maps were used for identifying locations and times of violent acts in Astor and Meyer's (1999) study. Five schools were evaluated, and the results were consistent with all five schools: hallways, dining areas, and parking lots were some of the places that experienced the most violence. Both teachers and students provided the data that were used to develop the maps. These findings are in agreement with the theoretical work of Sutherland and Cressey (1960) discussed earlier. The map data serve as an example of the situational explanation of crime. Students are viewing the times when few adults are around and in areas outside of the classroom as criminal opportunities. At the same time, Sutherland and Cressey's work indicated that the element of the crime must only be present during the crime. If something is present when the crime is not taking place, then it is not an element of the crime. For example, not every student who is outside of class during lunch is involved in an act of violence. Even though several students experience free space and free time, not every student participate in a crime or is involved in acts of violence. According to this logic, free space would not be viewed as an element of the crime. A few researchers (Astor and Meyer, 1999, 2001; Gladden, 2002; and Noguera, 1995) included campus supervisors in their descriptions of the few adults who were present at the time of a violent occurrence. They describe campus supervisors as being

overwhelmed and ineffective. Understanding the concept of free space and free time explains some of the violence prevention techniques that are used at several high schools. Many schools will shorten the time between classes and the duration of breaks and lunches in an effort to reduce violence. The research does support the notion that a reduction in free space and free time does result in a reduction in violence (Astor and Meyer, 1999, 2001).

Another aspect of school environment mentioned in the literature was increasing various security measures in an effort to reduce violence and crime. However, increasing the number of campus supervisors, adding armed security, and installing metal detectors have been found by Haselswerdt and Lenhardt (2003) to be inconsistent in lowering the number of violent events. These researchers used four focus groups with a total of 82 students from various backgrounds and settings to determine how students viewed these kinds of increases in safety measures. They found that students saw these changes as a signal that the school was not a safe space and, in some way, these changes created a perception of “us against them.” Such feelings or beliefs from students would be detrimental to the environment of the school. Mayer and Leone (1999) describe using increased measures as “the system of law construct” and “the secure building construct.” They surveyed nearly 7,000 students, ages 12 to 19, using the School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey, and concluded that a higher level of school disorder was associated with efforts such as metal detectors and locked doors to provide a more secure site. They also found that the more students understood the rules and policies of the school, including consequences, the less disorder existed. This study

begins to shed light on the importance of the school rules and the role they play in creating a safe school.

The School's Behavior Code

Every school has a document that explicitly delineates the behavior expectations for the student body. These policies make up the school's behavior code. The importance of this document in terms of school culture cannot be understated. Parents, students, staff, and the community read this document and then look to the school to see how it is being implemented. Inconsistencies in the implementation of the school's discipline policies can be seen as biases or favoritism. These kinds of views undermine the creation of a positive school culture. Several researchers make the claim that a consistent discipline policy can have a negative impact on potential school violence and thus help the creation of a positive school culture (Gladden, 2002; Gottfredson, 1986; Haselswedt & Lenhardt, 2003; Larson, 1998; Libby, 2004; Noguera, 1995, 2001, 2007). Gottfredson (2001) supports this claim through the use of a quasi-experimental approach. The data presented were generated as part of a project called PATHE (Positive Action Through Holistic Education) that was included in the U.S. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention alternative education initiative. Teachers and students from five middle schools and four high schools in Charleston County, South Carolina, took part in a survey. The study looked at a delinquency prevention program that used an environmental change approach. As part of the change, new discipline procedures were implemented. Two parts of the survey looked into components of discipline: clarity of school rules and fairness of school rules. The findings support the idea that consistency in discipline procedures plays a role in reducing violence (Gottfredson, 1986). Noguera

(2001) illustrates the importance of using the behavior code to hold students accountable quickly and consistently in regard to minor infractions. He suggests that using the school code is the best way to build respect and accountability among the students and thus improve the culture. Noguera, however, does not identify the person who is holding the students accountable for these minor infractions. In the case of most high schools, this burden falls on the campus supervisors. Most of the time, campus supervisors are the people present during the minor infraction, so it is logical that they would take on the responsibility of this task. This role of the campus supervisor is not discussed within the literature and is worthy of future study.

The School's Academic Mission

Mission statements are used in the field of business to focus an organization and provide a philosophical foundation on which the business can develop its culture. In the field of education, student learning is, by definition, the major focus of the organization. However, in some schools across America, the task of improving student learning is not being accomplished. Students who are not being challenged academically often find themselves discouraged and unfocused. This in turn begins to change the culture of the school.

Schooling in American society is premised upon an unstated social contract: students are expected to obey authority and comply with school regulations in exchange for an opportunity to learn. However, when there is no evidence that students are learning, should they still be expected to conform to school rules? (Noguera, 2001, p. 206)

Noguera (1995) brings the issue of student learning face to face with delinquency.

Logically, one would conclude that if a student is not learning, he or she is more likely to be involved in delinquency. The presence of a strong academic mission may not insure a

decrease in the amount of delinquency on a school campus, but it does provide part of a positive school culture (Libby, 2004). When the culture of the school can be associated with an academic mission, it provides the students, teachers, parents, and staff with a common goal. Teachers and administrators are identified in the literature as being the voice of this academic mission (Libby, 2004). Nowhere does the literature mention the role of campus supervision in the promotion of the school's academic mission. As staff members with large numbers of student contacts, campus supervisors are resources that are currently being underutilized.

School Connectedness

School connectedness has been measured and is described in different ways throughout the literature. One of the reasons for the variety in measuring concepts of connectedness has been due to the ambiguity of the definition. School connectedness can be defined as a connection to the institution or organization as a whole, or the connection to the people who make up the institution or organization. The literature is rich with information about the relationships between students and teachers, so I have chosen to remove this possible variable from the concept of school connectedness and discuss it separately in the next section. This section examines the concept of school connectedness in terms of the institution or organization as a whole.

Libbey (2004) discusses four components of measuring a student's relationship to a school: attachment, bonding, connectedness, and engagement. Within connectedness, she found commitment, power, belonging, and belief in rules to be most often used as measuring components. Noguera (2001) and Gladden (2002) bring the concept of social capital into the discussion on student connectedness, and Feldman and Matjasko (2005)

and Brown and Evans (2002) examine the role of extracurricular activities in connecting students to school. Examining connection through each of these measures has provided a solid basis for the importance of school connectedness as it relates to school safety and violence prevention.

Four components of measuring a student's relationship to a school.

Commitment to school would best be described as a promise to accomplish something that has not been done before and requires a sacrifice. For students at the secondary level, the promise of accomplishment is clearly the advancement to the next higher grade level or completion with a diploma. The sacrifice that students are making is best summarized by Noguera: "Schools are controlled institutions, public spaces where individuals sacrifice a measure of individual liberty in exchange for the opportunity to learn" (1995, p. 3). The commitment that students make is leveraged within the context of a safe school.

The term power has several different constructs: within the literature on school safety and violence prevention, power for the students comes in the form of having their voices heard. Noguera (2007) surveyed and interviewed students about ways schools can improve. Four themes surfaced from the data: build stronger relationships between students and teachers, ease the impact of high stakes testing, provide discipline and order, and motivate students for their future. When the students in the study had the opportunity to voice what they thought would improve schools, they answered much the same way educators would. "It is hypothesized that increasing opportunity for student involvement in school policy and discipline will increase student attachment in school, commitment to

conventional lines of action, and belief in the moral order” (Hawkins & Weis, 1985, p. 87). The literature included in this review supports this hypothesis.

Belonging is a theme that was found to have a positive effect on motivation and achievement (Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Libbey, 2004). Faircloth and Hamm (2005) analyzed survey data collected from 5,494 students from 10 diverse high schools. They examined the concept of belonging from four dimensions: relationships with teachers, peer relationships, involvement in extracurricular activities, and perceived ethnic-based discrimination. Despite the negative connotation of perceived ethnic-based discrimination, ethnic connection was found to provide a strong sense of belonging. Students of the same ethnic background often congregate together and form a strong social group of support for themselves. Overall, the researchers’ findings supported the association between belonging and increased motivation and achievement.

The measure of belief in the rules of the school parallels discussion on consistent discipline discussed earlier in this review. It is reasonable to suggest that students who agree with the rules of the school will be more likely to follow those rules. Students who are connected to the school begin to feel that they have something to lose if they break the rules and therefore are less likely to do so (Gottfredson, 1985). This echoes the Social Control Theory by Hirschi (1969) discussed earlier. When students were given the opportunity to voice what they thought would make schools better, they included fair discipline as one of their improvements (Noguera, 2007). The idea that beliefs would separate a student who breaks the rules from a student who does not break the rules does find verification in Sutherland and Cressey’s Theory of Differential Association (1960). There are students who believe in the rules but still find themselves breaking the rules.

However, if the students believe that the rules are not being consistently enforced, there may be a belief that the rule does not quite apply to their situation. The idea of consistency in the application of the behavior code is scrutinized by the students, parents, and staff every time the behavior code is enforced.

Social capital and student connectedness.

Researchers in the field of sociology discuss the topic of social capital as an advantage an individual receives from belonging to a group (Noguera, 2001). In the area of school safety and violence prevention, the group to which the students belong would be the school. In this manner, the concept of school connectedness can be seen as an integral part of social capital. The literature has not linked school connectedness to social capital, but logically, school connectedness could be seen as a precursor to social capital. A student would have to belong to a group prior to receiving benefits from the group's relation with the school. In terms of groups, a high school campus has no shortage of subcultures. A student would have to make it on to the football team before becoming part of the pep-rally the school would have for the football players.

The concept that increasing the amount of social capital on a school campus would have a negative effect on the amount of crime and violence on the campus is supported by Gottfredson's (1985) quasi-experimental study (Gladden, 2002). This study was described earlier in this review in the discussion of consistent discipline. Based on her intervention program, Gottfredson was able to promote an increase in the students' feeling of belonging to the school. Looking at the area of discipline code infractions, she was able to determine if there were reductions. She explained a reduction by stating that students who have a higher sense of belonging feel that they have more to lose if they get

into trouble. With the many variables included in her study, it is difficult to get a direct correlation between belonging and the reduction in discipline code infractions; however, the theories and literature included do support this logic.

Noguera (2001) describes four strategies for building social capital within a school: reduction in anonymity, alienation, and the impersonal character of schools; promotion of a climate of respect by responding quickly and consistently to minor infractions; adoption of a preventative approach to discipline utilizing strategies that encourage students to take responsibility for their behavior and learn from their mistakes; and provision of numerous opportunities for students to become more deeply engaged in school and activities that further their development. In reviewing these four strategies for building social capital the literature began to cross with the concept of resiliency. Resiliency will be discussed at a later point, but this marked the beginning of a very important part of the literature review.

Extracurricular activities and student connectedness.

A discussion about the concept of school connectedness would be incomplete without the inclusion of the role of extracurricular activities. The research is consistent with common sense in stating that increased extracurricular involvement results in a greater sense of school connectedness (Brown & Evans, 2002; Feldman & Matjasko, 2005). Students who are involved in these school-based extracurricular activities subject themselves to more regulation than other students. Most high schools have a set of requirements that students must meet in order to participate in these activities. These requirements usually include a minimum grade-point average, satisfactory citizenship, and an acceptable disciplinary review. Using Gottfredson's work (1985), one might

speculate that once students have met these requirements, they are more likely to feel that they have something to lose if they violate the rules. Feldman and Matjasko (2005) take the discussion of extracurricular activities in a different direction. In their review of the literature, they found some areas of adolescent development that showed a murky association with participation in extracurricular activities. Two areas worth mentioning, due to their relationship with school safety and violence prevention, would be substance use and sexual activity. These researchers formed an unclear association between students participating in extracurricular activities and whether or not they used alcohol or drugs or whether they engaged in sexual activity. Despite the lack of clarity in Feldman and Matjasko's (2005) findings, it is reasonable to state that, though extracurricular activities do increase student's connectedness to school, they do not eliminate their exposure to juvenile delinquency. Administrators, teachers, staff, and parents should not misinterpret student's participation in extracurricular activities as fool-proof barriers to students' likelihood of becoming involved in delinquent acts.

Student-Teacher Relationships

Gladden (2002) states that improving student-teacher relationships will lower students' feelings of isolation and lower the probability of violence. The research supports this statement in that there have been cases where students who felt alienated and bullied have lashed out violently. The most notable is that of April 20, 1999, at Columbine High School in Colorado, where Eric Harris and Dylan Klebold murdered 13 people and injured 24 others (Newman et al., 2004). Both students were described by other students as being alienated and picked on by other groups on campus.

The idea that positive student-teacher relationships help to reduced student violence has found much support in studies involving reduced student-teacher ratios. However, these findings are centered on the classroom. Research has shown that the classroom has the lowest amount of violence on a school campus (Dinkes et al., 2006). Since Astor and Meyer (1999) showed that violence on school campuses tends to occur in areas and at times when teachers are not present, a logical solution to potential violence might be to have teachers monitor those places where violent acts are happening. Despite the logical argument, the reality of placing teachers in supervisory roles is often met by negativity on the part of labor unions.

There is little opposition to the fact that the student-teacher relationship connects students to school, and through this connection with school, the student is less likely to commit an act of violence or crime (Feldman & Matjasko, 2005; Hawkins & Weis, 1985; Schaefer-Schiumo et al., 2003; Willert, 2002; Wilson, 2004). Another view may be that the role of teachers could become viewed differently if they were to act in the capacity of a security guard. Can a school's campus supervisors build relationships with students that are similar to those created by teachers? The literature reveals little information on campus supervision programs or individual campus supervisors and their ability to build relationships with students. The minimal research that has been conducted points out a limited usefulness of campus supervision. "Field research has shown that many students and teachers have negative perceptions of security guards as ineffective and sometimes harassing" (Gladden, 2002, p. 274). Kaplan and Evans (1997), however, recognized the importance of several aspects of campus supervision. They found that interpersonal skills were greatly needed and that the supervisors should be visible and friendly, while

holding students accountable for their behavior according to the school's behavior code. Further research is needed to determine if these kinds of changes in campus supervision would result in a reduction of violence and crime on a school campus.

Resiliency

Throughout the literature I found the theme of school culture to be commonly discussed in reference to school safety and violence prevention. Specifically mentioned were school environment, behavior code, academic mission, and school connectedness. I also found a strong similarity between these elements and the six keys to building resiliency in students described by Henderson and Milstein (2003). These researchers defined six steps to building resiliency in students. These steps include: (1) increase bonding, (2) set clear, consistent boundaries, (3) teach life skills, (4) provide caring and support, (5) set and communicate high expectations, and (6) provide opportunities for meaningful participation. Figure 2.1 details the correlations that exist among the six steps to building resiliency and the four elements in the literature on school culture most often referred to in reference to school safety and violence prevention.

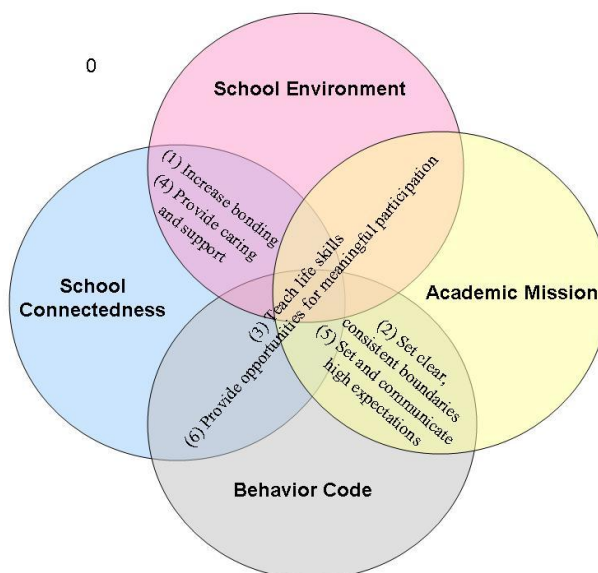


Figure 2.1 Six steps to building resiliency and the four element of school safety

The relationship shown in Figure 2.1 provides evidence of the role resiliency plays in school safety. To further understand resiliency a review of the literature on that subject follows.

The beginning work in the area of resilience was done by Werner, (1955) whose longitudinal study on the Hawaiian island of Kauai is considered the foundational work in the area of resiliency (Waxman, Gray, & Padrón, 2003). The study included 698 children that were born in that year. The children were followed throughout their lives and into early adulthood and looked at how vulnerable the children were to negative developmental outcomes based on identified risk factors such as poverty, stress, and parental troubles (Werner, 1993). The data provided from this study began to try and answer questions about how some children facing several risk factors managed to become successful adults. Werner identified four clusters of protective factors that appeared in high-risk children who became successful adults:

(1) Temperamental characteristics of the individual that helped him or her to elicit positive responses from a variety of caring persons. (2) Skills and values that led to an efficient use of whatever abilities they had. (3) Characteristics and care-giving styles of the parents that reflected competence and fostered self-esteem. (4) Supportive adults who fostered trust and acted as gatekeepers for the future (p. 508).

Werner (1993) included education in her study by examining the level of education for parents of the children in the study. She found that the level of education of the opposite sex parent could be a significant protective factor for the children. The better educated the parent the more positive interactions occurred between parent and child. There was also a link found between the parent's education and the scholastic ability of the children by the age of 10. From this pioneering work, the concept of resiliency began to spread through the research field.

Waxman, Gray, and Padrón provided the field of education with a valuable resource when they published the Review of Research on Educational Resilience in 2003. In this work the concept of resiliency was recognized as a suitable framework for addressing the continuing question of why some students are successful in school and other students under the same conditions are not. This link between education and resiliency brings to light the notion that if a focus on resiliency is present at a school there might be improvements in the education of the students. Resiliency in an education setting has been best defined as “the heightened likelihood of success in school and other life accomplishments despite environmental adversities brought about by early traits, conditions, and experiences” (Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1994, p. 46). A disturbing trait among many of the resiliency studies is that often teachers claim to be able to identify students who are not resilient, and yet nothing is done about it (Waxman et al., 2003).

As described earlier, in 2008 SMHS enrolled 1,804 students. Over sixty percent of the students were ethnic minorities, with thirty-five percent of the population being identified as being socioeconomically disadvantaged. The importance of the socioeconomically disadvantaged statistic was discussed with reference to the concept of community earlier in the paper. To provide significance to the statistics on demographics, an understanding of SMHS's largest minority group is needed. The Latino ethnic group is the largest group at SMHS, accounting for 51%. This is also the largest group of students who are seen in the assistant principal's office for incidents involving discipline and school safety. During the 2008-2009 school year there were 416 days of suspensions assigned at SMHS; 256 days were assigned to Latino students. Latino students accounted for 62% of the total days of suspension. At that same time there are positive things happening academically within this group. During the 2008-2009 school year Latino students exceeded California's set target in both English language arts (ELA) and mathematics. Of the Latino students 48.4% received scores of "proficient" or higher on the ELA part of the state exams. The state target was 44.5%. Likewise, 52.9% of SMHS Latino student received scores of "proficient" or higher on the mathematics part of the state exams. The state target was 43.5%. While this study focuses on the proactive campus supervision that is taking place at SMHS, a closer examination into research regarding the support of Latino students may draw some parallels worth noting. While there is a significant majority of Latino students being suspended, there is another large group of Latino students who are performing well and who have begun to shrink the achievement gap at SMHS. The following section looks

into the concept of resiliency and specifically how the concept corresponds to the unique situation facing the Latino student.

Resiliency in Latino Students

Waxman et al. (2003) provide summaries of three studies involving Latino students. The first study is from Reyes and Jason (1993). Using attendance rates, Latino student were categorized as being at a high-risk or at a low-risk for dropping out of school. If the students had a high attendance rate they were categorized as being at low-risk for dropping out while students with low attendance rate were categorized as being at high-risk for dropping out. Participants were interviewed in regard to family background, family support, overall satisfaction with school, and gang pressures. The only significant findings were the lack of satisfaction high-risk students had with school and the more likely they were to have been invited to join a gang or to have brought a weapon to school. This study sheds light on the different experiences that high-risk and low-risk students have in the educational setting.

A study by Gonzalez and Padilla (1997) looked at a number of Latino students identified as being resilient by having recorded “Mostly A’s” on their report cards, and Latino students identified as being nonresilient by having recorded “Mostly D’s” on their report cards. The findings were that resilient students had a significantly higher perception of family and peer support, teacher feedback, positive ties to school, value placed on school and peer belonging than the nonresilient students. This study begins to show the elements of resiliency that begin to differentiate between successful students and students who are not successful in school.

The third study is from Alva (1991) who examined Latino students who were performing very well in school. She identified the following characteristics as contributing to their success: higher levels of educational support from their teachers and friends, more likely to feel encouraged and prepared to attend college, enjoy coming to school and being involved in school activities, and experienced fewer conflicts at school and home. The elements described in Alva's study have been echoed throughout this literature review as being essential for providing students with a safe environment in which to learn.

Caravantes (2006) also looks at Latino youngsters and describes Selective Cultural Adoption (SCA). This is a method by which Latinos can adopt different parts of the Anglo American culture that would help them to be successful. Caravantes devotes an entire chapter to academic resilience and identifies Hispanics as being more susceptible to events that call for resilient responses. "It appears as if certain minority groups, especially Hispanics, have been more prone to succumb to these negative life events more so than others. It also appears that these events will have a major impact upon their educational success" (p. 103). Romo and Falbo put this thinking into action in their book *Latino High School Graduation* (1996). They call school officials to action by identifying seven broad areas for recommended change that would improve graduation rates among Latino students:

- (1) Putting the learning of students first. (2) Clarifying scholastic standards. (3) Preventing student failure. (4) Making participation in schoolwork rewarding. (5) Emphasizing hard work. (6) Making schools accessible. (7) Creating clear pathways to good outcomes (p. 219).

These seven areas can be placed into the four areas that I found to be most often addressed in the area of school safety and violence preventions. (Figure 2.2)

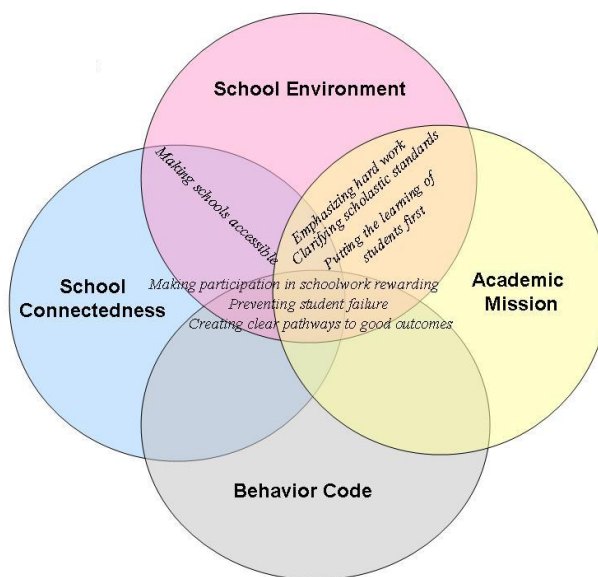


Figure 2.2 Areas to improve Latino graduation rates and the elements of school safety

As noted in Figure 2.2, the ideas that improving graduation rates among Latino students and providing a safe school environment have similar elements should not surprise educators. However, the link that exists between safe schools, Latino graduation rates, and the steps to fostering resiliency in students may surprise some. The idea that a school campus can provide Latino students with the supporting concepts found in resiliency theory is a proactive and different way of thinking about resiliency. Often students are given the support found in the steps to fostering resiliency after they have been in some sort of trouble. Students would more than likely find themselves in less trouble if the school was providing this kind of support proactively. Using this approach could insure

that over the course of four years students can learn life lessons that will prepare them for success in the future.

Cultural Proficiency

Over the past few decades the nation has struggled to address the achievement gap that exists between white and Asian American middle-class students and their African American, Latino, and other minority group counterparts. In addressing the achievement gap it must first be noted that the gap is not solely a testing or scoring issue. The complexity of the achievement gap has been researched extensively over time. Lindsey, Graham, Jew, and Westphal (2008) identify the following areas where gaps exist: grade distribution, test scores, course selection, course placement, grade promotion, graduation, college entrance, college completion, disciplinary referrals, and discipline consequences. As we look at the achievement gap as a collection of gaps that exist across various groups, a focus becomes necessary to begin to address the problem. Cultural proficiency is defined as being effective in cross-cultural situations (Lindsey et al. 2008). By using cultural proficiency as a lens, the achievement gap becomes a single gap and not a collection of gaps across various aspects of education. Instead of looking at demographic groups individually, the lens of cultural proficiency can focus educators on one approach, being effective with all students.

Lindsey et al. provide four tools of cultural proficiency: the guiding principles, the continuum, the essential elements, and the barriers. An explanation of each of the tools follows.

1. The guiding principles provide an opportunity for the organization to examine their own core values.

2. The continuum gives common vocabulary to describe healthy and unhealthy practices.
3. The five elements are the standards by which behaviors, policies and procedures area measured.
4. The barriers are defined as ways to promote change. (p. 21-22)

In an effort to help schools make inquiries into their own cultural proficiency Lindsey (et al. 2008) provide a series of rubrics based on four leverage points: curriculum and instruction, assessment and accountability, parent and community communication and outreach, and professional development. Schools can use the rubrics to self evaluate their degree of cultural proficiency within each of the standard areas.

The importance of school safety in our efforts to address the achievement gap is a topic worthy of further study. Two areas where gaps existed were identified by Lindsey (et al. 2008) as disciplinary referrals, and discipline consequences. These areas cross over to the topic of campus safety because disciplinary referrals and discipline consequences come from the enforcement of the school's behavior code. The enforcement of the behavior code is a major part of student supervision. This task of student supervision often falls on the school's campus supervision staff. The task of campus supervision could be viewed as a fifth leverage point. Using the rubric format created by Lindsey (et al. 2008) a rubric was created by this researcher. (Appendix I) The creation of a continuum of behaviors in each of the standards areas was created from my experiences as an assistant principal and evaluator of the campus supervision position. The intention for creating this rubric was to provide a lens through which the results of this study could be viewed and to serve as a tool for future research.

A case study approach

A majority of the studies in the area of school safety have been conducted using quantitative methods. Most of these studies rely heavily on survey data. Perhaps the sensitive nature of the subject lends itself to a barrage of questions filled out on a scannable answer document. To a lesser degree, some of the studies include the use of interviews with students. The students interviewed provide the story underneath the massive collection of survey data. However, the literature does not provide much data on the campus supervision program or the behavior expected of the campus supervisor. Astor and Meyer (1999, 2001), Gladden (2002), and Noguera (1995) provide data that describe campus supervisors as little more than being overwhelmed and ineffective. These studies indicate the need for a thorough, in-depth investigation into high school campus supervision so that safety is insured and students can be successful. Cresswell's (2005) definition of a case study as an "in-depth exploration of a bounded system (e.g., an activity, event, process, or individuals) based on extensive data collection" (p. 439) makes the idea of using a case study approach for this study appropriate.

CHAPTER 3

Methods

The previous chapter reviewed the literature on violence and school safety, emphasizing the significant lack of research involving campus supervision and the campus supervisor position. At South Main High School (SMHS), campus supervisors are used to supervise students throughout the school day. These employees are responsible for keeping students safe at times when teachers are arriving for school, preparing for class, eating lunch, or leaving school. Administrators work closely with the campus supervision staff to insure that the policies and procedures that have been set by the school are being followed by the student body. Campus supervisors identify students who are violating the behavior code, address the students directly, and then bring the information to the administrators. In some cases the campus supervisors actually bring the students to the administrative office, and in other situations, the campus supervisor records the incident in the form of a referral and passes the information on to the administrative team. In that they spot and report violations, the campus supervisors can be viewed as a policing entity on the school campus. Unfortunately, being viewed as the school's police force is not necessarily positive in the eyes of students. At SMHS campus supervisors have worked hard to not be viewed as simply a policing force. Instead, we have supervised students with the intention of building resiliency within them. Our belief that every student contact, regardless of the origination, positive or negative, is an opportunity to build rapport and demonstrates the focus shifting from

policing the campus to supporting the students in their efforts to be successful socially and academically.

A qualitative strategy of inquiry, using a case study approach, was used in this study to uncover the significant role of the campus supervisor position and the relationships campus supervisors create with students, teachers, and administrators. This approach allowed the researcher to generate a model of these relationships and begin to understand how they interact to increase the safety on the school campus. This section presents the methodology selected for this case study analysis. Six components of the methods will be discussed: (1) Research design, (2) Context of study, (3) Researcher's role and ethical considerations, (4) Data collection methods, (5) Data management, and (6) Data analysis. The final sections include a description of the limitations of the study followed by a summary of the methods. All surveys, interview protocols, questionnaires, participant consent forms, participant information sheets, and the case study can be found in the appendices.

Research Design

Lee Shulman (1997) references the need for disciplined inquiries in the field of education in the following quote:

...good research is a matter not of finding the one best method but of carefully framing that question most important to the investigator and the field and then identifying a disciplined way in which to inquire into it that will enlighten both the scholar and his or her community (p. 4).

The research questions that I have stated in Chapter One impact my work on a daily basis. As an assistant principal, I am in charge of overseeing the campus supervision staff and responsible for one-third of the discipline referrals that come to the

administrative office. Finding the answers to the research questions will have a significant influence on the policies and procedures that are in use at SMHS.

Cresswell (2005) defines a case study as an “in-depth exploration of a bounded system (e.g., an activity, event, process, or individuals) based on extensive data collection” (p. 439). All data collected will uncover an aspect of campus supervision that has not been examined in the literature. The need for an in-depth investigation into the campus supervisor position is evident from the lack of research that exists on the topic.

Yin (2003) describes four design types for case studies: holistic designs, single-case embedded designs, multiple-case holistic designs, and multiple-case embedded designs. The idea of using a multiple-case study approach is very appealing because of the different contents that would be included in the study. However, the lack of research in the area of campus supervision and the sensitive nature of campus safety could expose the campus supervision staff at one school site to an unnecessary comparison against another school site if the multiple-cases study approach were used. The research questions, the unnecessary comparison between sites, and the lack of research on campus supervision helped to make the decision not to use a multiple-case study approach. The embedded case study approach allows for more units of analysis than the holistic case study approach. Because of the complexity of the campus supervisor position and the novelty of this research, an embedded approach is warranted. This is the rationale I used to make the decision to implement an embedded, single-case study approach.

Yin (2003) points out three concerns about the use of the case study strategy of research. The first concern is about the level of rigor found in the study. To address this concern, a disciplined inquiry approach was taken in all aspects of the study. Research

was used to provide a rationale for decisions that were made throughout the study to demonstrate the validity of the decisions. The second concern is that the study would not provide a basis for generalization. The single-case study approach that was used in this study only looked at campus supervision at SMHS. The question of how applicable the findings are to other school sites is valid. However, because of the lack of research in the area of campus supervision, the study provides a starting point from which further research can be done. The third concern about the use of the case study strategy is the creation of a massive document that is virtually useless. This study attempted to avoid this pitfall by focusing specifically on the campus supervisor program and the research questions involving a few selective points of view. By not investigating other aspects of the school that may or may not play a role in the phenomenon studied, I hoped to generate a succinct study that would provide useful information to the educational community.

The embedded single-case study approach provided an inquiry into four different subunits: students, teachers, administrators, and campus supervisors. The inquiry gathered data on the relationships that exist between these subunits and campus supervisors and their perceptions of the campus supervisors. It also uncovered the role these subunits believed campus supervisors were playing in providing a safe learning environment. The strength of a case study lies in the ability of the researcher to incorporate multiple sources of data (Yin, 2003). In an effort to collect multiple sources of data, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. This case study focused on five units of analysis: student surveys, student interviews, campus supervision interviews, teacher questionnaires, and administrator questionnaires. Suspension and expulsion rates,

the California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS), and the national Youth Risk Behavior Survey provided additional data about SMHS. Data triangulation served to provide a complete picture of campus supervision. However, the need to restrict the focus of the data to the topic of campus supervision assisted in keeping the study from becoming overwhelmingly large and subsequently useless as Yin discussed in his third concern of using the case study strategy.

Context of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the campus supervision program at SMHS. The intent was to understand the role campus supervision plays in building resiliency in students and how the attempt to purposefully build resiliency promotes improvements in campus safety. SMHS is the older of two comprehensive high schools in the district. Just six years ago SMHS was the only high school in the district. At that time SMHS had a reputation for being a school that was infested with gang violence, drugs and alcohol, a large number of youth pregnancies, and chronic under achievement. I was part of a new administrative team that was given two directives:

(1) Get SMHS under control and back on track

(2) Split the school staff in two to open a new high school

In order to accomplish the first directive, a new behavior code was put into place.

Campus supervisors were given the task of enforcing this behavior code with complete support from the administrative team. The campus supervisors and administrators were clearly working in concert as the school began to turn around. Following the opening of the new high school, enrollment at SMHS dropped from over 3,500 students to below

1,400. Five of the nine members of the campus supervisor staff were at SMHS prior to the opening of the new high school.

While most administrators have the lofty goal of getting to know every student, with so few students this became the cornerstone of an important and achievable objective for campus supervisors and administrators as we purposefully started to build rapport with students and knowingly began to plant the seeds of resiliency building. As students made poor decisions, campus supervisors and administrators watered the seeds of resiliency. The idea that every student contact, regardless of the origination, positively or negatively, is an opportunity to build rapport, began to take form. At the time of this study there were nearly 2,000 students at SMHS. The campus supervisors continue to purposefully make contact with students in an effort to proactively keep the school safe. This was the context in which this study was made. I have seen a dramatic change in the culture of SMHS. More importantly, I have seen a change in the way we, as administrators and campus supervisors, approach discipline at the school. This study provided insight into a campus supervision program that was intentionally making connections with kids in an effort to increase the safety of the school. What little research there is suggests that this is not the norm for campus supervision behavior. The minimal research that has been conducted presented an unexpected view of campus supervision. "Field research has shown that many students and teachers have negative perceptions of security guards as ineffective and sometimes harassing" (Gladden, 2002, p. 274).

Researcher's Role and Ethical Considerations

My interest in the area of campus supervision stems from my position as an assistant principal. A large portion of my time is spent dealing with disciplinary issues. A majority of these issues are brought to my attention by campus supervisors. I have also been assigned to oversee the campus supervision program. This entails organization of schedules, authorization of leaves, and evaluation of staff. Cresswell (2005) defines a participant observer as someone who takes part in the activities in the setting they observe (p. 212). I was definitely a participant observer in this study. However, it was my role as an evaluator that brought light to the ethical considerations of this study. Anderson, Herr, and Sigrid Nihlen (2007) address this issue in reference to action research:

As educators, we commonly want to study our own practices with an eye toward improving them. This means that we are adding the hat of researcher to our regular role as educators, which involves a more systematic study of our practices. It also means that we are potentially rearranging our relationships with those we are in contact with daily in our sites (p. 139).

This rearranging of the relationship between campus supervisors and me, as an evaluator, did not result in bias or unfair treatment. It was my responsibility to separate the research from the evaluation of the individual campus supervisors.

I completed all the required steps to protect the rights of the participants in the proposed study. First, I completed the Human Subjects Approval process with the Office of Research at CSUSM. The school was assigned a pseudonym that was used throughout the study to increase the anonymity of the participants. Students who participated in the survey were informed of the study and the consent involved. A letter was sent home to

the parents before the survey was given. Teachers and administrators were given two opportunities to read the consent information electronically before participating. Campus supervisors and students participating in the interview portion of the study received informed consent forms requesting their consent to participate in the study and to use the data collected from them for the study. All participants were informed in advance that their participation was completely voluntary. Any participant who felt uncomfortable during an interview or while taking the survey was told that they could stop at any point. To increase the confidentiality of the participants, a minimum number of identifiers were used in this study.

Data Collection Methods

This study was conducted using an embedded single-case study strategy. It incorporated both quantitative and qualitative methods, with the intention of providing a rich in-depth exploration of this single case. The study focused on five units of analysis: student surveys, student interviews, campus supervision interviews, teacher surveys, and administrator questionnaires. Data collected from the school regarding discipline, the CHKS, and the national Youth Risk Behavior Survey was also used to inform the case study.

Surveys

For this study a survey was designed to measure students rapport with campus supervisors, students perception of the work that campus supervisors do, and student trust of campus supervisors. These aspects fall in line with the six steps of resiliency defined by Henderson and Milstein (2003). A cross-sectional survey design provided a snap-shot in time that examined current attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and practices (Creswell, 2005).

The survey questions were created by the researcher using background literature and doctoral course information. A pilot study was conducted with a sample size of ninety high school seniors in the class of 2008. The pilot survey included forty-two questions. The data from the pilot survey were analyzed using SPSS 15.0 software. The pilot study data was reduced using Principle Component Analysis (PCA). Survey questions were selected at a score of 0.35 or higher on the rotated component matrix. The analysis resulted in a set of twenty non-demographic questions that loaded significantly well (Appendix G). Two questions—number 6 and 12—loaded significantly in two components instead of one. Creswell (2005) addresses the concern of overlapping responses as a common problem in item construction in survey design (p. 366). In this instance, the significant loading within the two components does not seem to be problematic. Question (16) loads significantly into component 3; however, it loads very differently than expected within the other components. This makes it appear to be out of order on the table. The question deals with the issue of trust and some of the answer selections may not be applicable in the minds of the students. Creswell (2005) states that if not all the questions are applicable there may be a need to include branching questions (p. 367). In this situation it is not that the question is not applicable, but it may be that some of the answers on the Likert scale are not being selected within an expected frequency. The demographic questions were structured to give basic information about the students. Gender, grade level, number of lockouts, number of referrals, and grade point average were selected as significant while maintaining anonymity. These questions were not included in the reduction analysis conducted in the pilot study. Due to the ethnic demographics of SMHS, the researcher believed that identifying the ethnic

background along with the subsequent information could provide him with enough information to identify the student.

A teacher survey was designed by modifying the student survey. The survey retained questions designed to measure teacher perception of the campus supervisors and the work they do. A cross-sectional survey, designed to take a snap-shot in time, was used to examine current attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and practices (Creswell, 2005). The survey questions were created by the researcher using the background literature and doctoral course work. A pilot study was not been conducted for this survey. Using the SMHS site to pilot the survey would have significantly affected the sample size of the study.

Interviews

Interviews were conducted with campus supervision staff and senior students. At the time of this study, SMHS employed nine people: one lead campus supervisor who works full-time, two additional full-time positions, and six part-time positions. To interview the campus supervisors, a snowball sampling technique was used starting with the lead campus supervisor. This technique takes the selecting of participants out of the hand of the researcher and places it in the hands of the participant (Cresswell 2005, p.598). A total of four interviews were conducted with campus supervisors. The interview protocol for campus supervisors can be found in Appendix D. Due to my position as the immediate evaluator for the campus supervisors, a colleague conducted the interviews. All interviews were transcribed by a professional service. Over the past six years I have worked closely with the campus supervision staff and an atmosphere of critical self-reflection has taken hold. As a group, the supervisors are constantly looking

for ways to improve, and this study has been discussed as an opportunity for us to learn about ourselves.

Students were selected for the interviews by the administrative team, specifically the assistant principals. Three assistant principals worked at SMHS at the time of this study: they were the leaders who had the most contact with students who had encountered discipline concerns and therefore could identify students who had contact with campus supervisors in relation to those discipline concerns. Creswell (2005) describes this kind of sampling as purposeful sampling (p. 204). As assistant principals we had worked with students who had been in all types of trouble. As we worked with them, we began to lay the building blocks of resiliency. By purposely selecting students who had built strong foundations of resiliency, it was easier for the students to talk about their past experiences. All student participants were graduating seniors and eighteen years of age. Students were interviewed by a colleague with not association with SMHS, and the transcripts were sent to a transcription service. Students were asked to participate after they have attended their last day of class. At the time of this study, seniors at SMHS finished their finals four days before school was officially dismissed. These steps helped reduce the risk the students might face of being retaliated against for being critical during their interview. The student interview protocol can be found in Appendix B.

Questionnaire

The administrative team at the time of this study SMHS was asked to participate in a questionnaire that was aimed at determining the level of support campus supervisors were given with regard to performing their duties. With only four members of the administration team, three assistant principals and one principal anonymity was virtually

nonexistent, and therefore an increased concern for confidentiality was created. In an effort to provide some degree of confidentiality, the questionnaires were completed electronically. This allowed the participants to complete the questionnaire in an environment of their choosing with no human-to-human contact. Because of the extremely small number of people on the administrative team and my role as part of the team, I decided that having another person between the administrators and their responses could provide an extra level of stress that was unnecessary. This coupled with the intense time constraints put on a high school administrator helped me make the decision to use a questionnaire. Administrators were provided with a two-week window in which to complete the questionnaire.

Data Management

Case studies run the risk of collecting excessive amounts of data and becoming overwhelmingly large and consequently unmanageable (Yin, 2003). This case study will be limited to five data sources, a student survey, a teacher survey, an administrative questionnaire, student interviews, and campus supervisor interviews. The student survey was completed on a single sheet of paper. All copies of the survey were numbered to insure that all surveys were returned. The surveys were administered in ninth and eleventh grade English classes immediately following the administering of the California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS). Each English teacher received enough surveys for the entire class. All completed and uncompleted surveys were returned to the researcher. The survey data were loaded into SPSS 15.0 software. All surveys were kept in a secured filing cabinet. The teacher survey was administered on-line using Survey Monkey. The data collected from the survey were downloaded into SPSS 15.0 software. The

administration questionnaire was administered on-line using Survey Monkey, and the data collected from the questionnaire were inputted into NVIVO software. The interviews with students and campus supervisors were digitally recorded. These recordings were copied onto an external storage device prior to being sent to a professional transcription service. Transcriptions were not printed out. All recordings have been secured in a locked filing cabinet. All data from the interviews were uploaded into NVIVO software. All documents that were used in the study have been provided in the appendix.

Data Analysis

In this section I will explain the strategies that I used to analyze surveys, interviews, questionnaires, field notes, and document data. When analyzing data for a case study, Yin (2003) stresses the importance of relying on one of three strategies; theoretical propositions, setting up a framework based on rival explanations, or developing case descriptions. Yin expresses the preference for the first two strategies because of their analytical focus and accepts the third as an acceptable alternative when the others do not work. This case study falls into the latter category. The lack of research on the topic of campus supervision provides no theoretical propositions or rival explanations to use as a framework for analysis. Therefore, I have developed a case description based on the data that I have collected.

Data for this case study were collected in the following ways; student and teacher surveys, student and campus supervisor interviews, administrator questionnaires, and the collection of supporting documents. The student survey data was entered into SPSS 15.0 software for analysis. The survey was created with three themes among the questions;

rapprochement, perception, and trust. These three themes were utilized when analyzing the survey data. The data were scored according to the Likert-type scale that was used (Appendix A). Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to examine the survey data. Descriptive statistics provide a single variable analysis and inferential statistics provide information on the relationships between variables (Creswell 2005, p.181).

The student and campus supervisor interviews were analyzed separately. The interviews were recorded and sent to a professional transcription service. The transcriptions were inputted into NVIVO software to be analyzed. Themes within the data were extracted in an effort to describe the campus supervisor program at SMHS from different perspectives. Miles and Huberman (1994) add a word of caution about making meaning from the data: “The critical question is whether the meaning you find in qualitative data are valid, repeatable, and right” (p. 245). These researchers go on to discuss thirteen tactics used to generate meaning in qualitative data:

- (1) Noting patterns, themes
- (2) Seeing plausibility
- (3) Clustering
- (4) Making metaphors
- (5) Counting
- (6) Making contrasts/comparisons
- (7) Partitioning variables
- (8) Subsuming particulars into the general
- (9) Factoring
- (10) Noting relations between variables
- (11) Finding intervening variables
- (12) Building a logical chain of evidence
- (13) Making conceptual/theoretical coherence

Using these tactics provided validity to the themes that were drawn from the interview data. The administrator questionnaires were analyzed in much the same way as the interviews of the campus supervisors and students.

Data collected from the questionnaires were inputted into NVIVO software for analysis. The researcher extracted the themes using the tactics discussed previously. This idea of extracting themes from all of the participants in the study around the concept of campus supervision formed a foundation of grounded theory research. Creswell's (2005) explained the grounded theory design as follows: "The procedures for developing this theory include collecting primarily interview data, developing and relating categories (or themes) of information, and composing a figure or visual model that portrays the general explanation" (p. 53). Data from the piloted student survey assisted in formulating a model of the potential relationships that exist between campus supervisors and students, administrators, free space, and school safety (Figure 3.1).

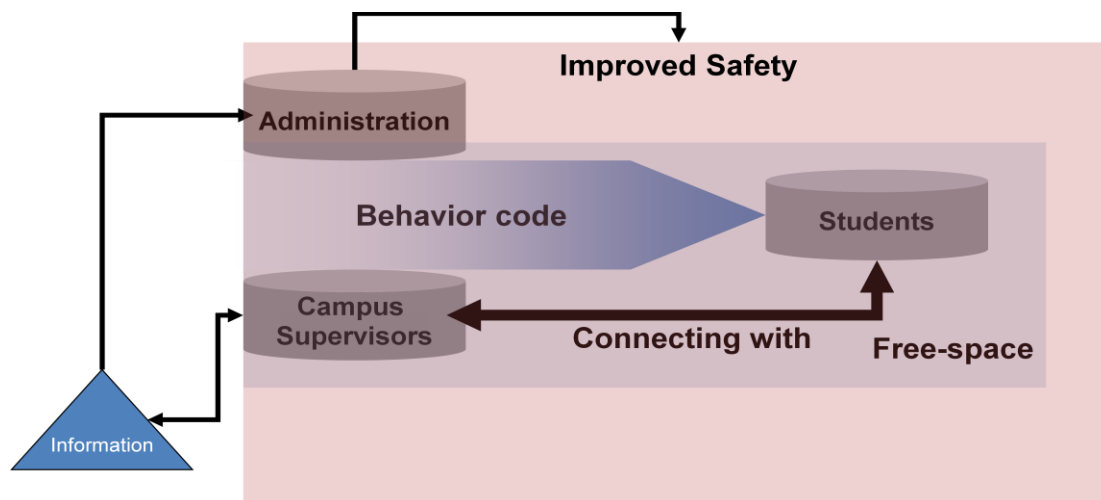


Figure 3.1 School relationships and safety

Limitations of the Study

Creswell (2005) describes limitations as potential weaknesses or flaws with the study as seen by the researcher (p.198). I have identified three major limitations to the case study. The first limitation was generalizability. The case study was conducted at a

single high school in a specific area of the nation. A concern about how generalizable the findings will be to other schools in different geographic locations is valid. However, because of the lack of research in the area of campus supervision, this study will be able to serve as a starting point for future studies in any school, anywhere.

A second limitation was the positionality of the researcher and the potential for participant-observer bias. This, of course, was a concern because I was an administrator at the site and the evaluator for the campus supervision staff. It was my intention to remove my administrator-self as much as possible from the study and focus solely on delivering a disciplined inquiry into the campus supervisor position at SMHS.

A third limitation of the case study was the aspect of qualitative research that relies heavily on the interpretations made by the researcher. Without having a starting point or a theory of practice to utilize in examining campus supervision, the body of knowledge was in need of an in-depth descriptive study on campus supervision. The questions that drove this study led to the case study design and the qualitative and quantitative methods used. Future studies will be needed to investigate cause and effect conditions that may or may not exist with campus supervisors and student safety.

Summary of Methods

This study explored campus supervision at SMHS. The purpose was to understand the role campus supervision plays in building resiliency in students and how the attempt to build resiliency promotes improvements in campus safety. The methodology that was best suited for addressing the research questions was that of an embedded, single-case study. There were five components to the data collection: a

survey of students, interviews with senior students, interviews with campus supervisors, a survey of teachers, and a questionnaire completed by each member of the administration team. The embedded case study methodology provided the researcher with the ability to explore the campus supervisor position from many different view points and then tie the results back to the concept of school safety.

CHAPTER 4

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to make a disciplined inquiry into the campus supervision program at SMHS. The importance of safety on a high school campus cannot be understated. Campus supervisors are used to provide a sense of security necessary for a school to continue with its focus on student learning. This study will provide a detailed look into the proactive campus supervision program at SMHS.

Results

Description of the Sample

There are five data sources that contribute to the results section of this case study. Each of the data sources involved different samples. What follows is a description of each sample. The five data sources include: student survey, teacher survey, administrator questionnaire, campus supervisor interviews, and student interviews.

Student survey

The student survey was given in all ninth and eleventh grade history classes at South Main High School, in May 2009, during the 2008-2009 school year. The first question asked students to mark the gender that they felt they most identified with. Next, students marked their grade level. Despite the selection of only ninth and eleventh grade classes, there were a few students who identified themselves as tenth and twelfth grade students. These students were, likely, repeating a course where they had previously received poor marks. Table 4.1 shows the gender and grade level of the student survey sample.

Table 4.1 Student survey participants self reported grade level and gender

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
9th	473	235	238	57.5%
10th	4	1	3	0.5%
11th	343	156	187	41.7%
12th	3	2	1	0.4%
Total	823	394	429	100.0%

As noted in Table 4.1, student demographics were not collected as part of the student survey. Demographic information for this case study was provided by the California Basic Educational Data System (CBEDS) as reported in 2008. The school's total enrollment was reported to be 1,804 for 2008. Table 4.2 displays the demographic data for the school.

Table 4.2 Demographic data for SMHS 2008

<i>Racial/Ethnic Category</i>	<i>Percentage of Students</i>
African American	2.8%
American Indian or Alaska Native	0.6%
Asian	4.2%
Filipino	2.7%
Hispanic or Latino	51.0%
Pacific Islander	0.6%
White (Not Hispanic)	37.9%
Socioeconomically Disadvantaged	35.0%
English Learners	21.0%
Students with Disabilities	9.0%

Table 4.2 shows the two largest groups as Hispanic or Latino and White (Not Hispanic).

In designing the survey tool, three other questions were added to provide additional descriptions of the data. The three pertinent questions were numbers 3, 4, and 5 on the student survey (see Appendix A):

3. During this school year which category depicts the number of times you have been recorded as a locked-out student?
4. During this school year which category depicts the number of discipline referrals you have received?
5. During this school year which category depicts your current grade point average?

Each question describes a different way to group students. Question three uses the term “locked-out” to describe the number of times the student has been late and unexcused to any class during the current school year and thus placed in an in-school suspension room for the remainder of the period rather than being allowed to go to the classroom.

Campus supervisors are often responsible for telling students to go to the lock-out room; the campus supervisors spend large amounts of time supervising the lock-out room.

Therefore, students who are late to class are put into contact with campus supervisors.

Table 4.3 shows the number of lock-outs for the participants in the student survey.

Table 4.3 Number of lock-outs for students (lock-out equates to being late to class)

<i>Number of time in lockout</i>	<i>Frequency of students</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Never	328	39.9%
1 to 3 times	317	38.5%
4 to 6 times	106	12.9%
7 to 9 times	40	4.9%
10 to 12 times	14	1.7%
13 or more times	13	1.6%
no answer	5	0.6%
Total	823	100.0%

Question four asked students to self-report on the number of discipline referrals they have received during the current school year. At SMHS, students receive discipline referrals for various disruptive or non-compliant behaviors. Often students who receive referrals will be escorted to the office by campus supervisors, or the students will be asked to remain in the lock-out room for the remainder of the period until an administrator is able to meet with them regarding the behavior. Consequently, receiving a referral often puts a student into direct contact with campus supervisors. Table 4.4 shows the self-reporting of the number of referrals received by students who took the student survey.

Table 4.4 Number of referrals for students (referrals are received by students for all violations of the school's behavior code)

<i>Number of referrals</i>	<i>Frequency of students</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Never	687	83.5%
1 to 3 times	101	12.3%
4 to 6 times	16	1.9%
7 to 9 times	7	0.9%
10 to 12 times	4	0.5%
13 or more times	7	0.9%
no answer	1	0.1%
Total	823	100.0%

Question five asked the students to self-report their grade point average (G.P.A.). A student's G.P.A. is calculated on a 4.0 scale with 4 = A, 3 = B, 2 = C, 1 = D, and F = 0. Students receive points for their grades which are added up and divided by the number of classes taken. Students who have GPAs higher than 4.0 are taking Advanced Placement (AP) courses that award an additional point value for A's, B's, and C's. In my experience as an assistant principal, I have found that students who are not doing well academically are also not doing well following school rules. This often results in receiving referrals and/or being sent to the office. In both cases the student's opportunity to be in contact with a campus supervisor is increased. Table 4.5 shows the self-reported GPAs for the students participating in the survey.

Table 4.5 Student self reported GPAs

<i>Grade Point Average (GPA)</i>	<i>Frequency of students</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
4.0 or higher	68	8.3%
3.5 to 3.9	178	21.6%
3.4 to 3.0	240	29.2%
2.9 to 2.5	175	21.3%
2.4 to 2.0	120	14.6%
1.9 or below	40	4.9%
no answer	2	0.2%
Total	823	100.0%

Teacher survey

The teacher survey was made available to all certificated teachers at SMHS, in May 2009, during the 2008-2009 school year. According to the school's master schedule, there were 83 certificated teachers. Of the 83 teachers 52 completed the survey. This is a 63% response rate. The table that follows shows gender of the respondents.

Table 4.6 Teacher participants self reported gender

<i>Gender</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Female	22	42.3%
Male	30	57.7%
Total	52	100.0%

Teachers at SMHS are often asked to teach different courses within a particular subject area due to the nature of the high school curriculum and state credentialing. This split scheduling results in teachers teaching different grade levels of students. With the student survey primarily measuring the perceptions of ninth and eleventh graders, these data shows the number of teachers who have contact with these students. The following table shows the number of teachers who teach students at the corresponding grade levels.

Table 4.7 Number of teachers teaching at each grade level (teaching assignments may include more than one grade level)

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
9th	36
10th	39
11th	40
12th	39

During the design of the survey tool for teachers, three questions were added to provide more descriptions to the data. These questions were numbers 3, 4, 5 and the 8th question which uses the Likert-type scale on the teacher survey (see Appendix C):

3. During this school year, which category depicts the number of times you have requested the assistance of a campus supervisor?
4. During this school year, which category depicts the number of discipline referrals you have written?
5. Including this school year how long have you been teaching at South Main High School?

8th. I write a pass when a student needs to leave class.

Each of these questions groups the teachers in an effort to explain their level of contact with campus supervisors. The first question is the most direct type of contact that is,

asking for help. The follow table shows the number of times a teacher asks for the assistance of a campus supervisor.

Table 4.8 Number of times teacher requested campus supervision assistance

<i>Number of times</i>	<i>Frequency of teachers</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Never	6	12%
1 to 3 times	28	54%
4 to 6 times	6	12%
7 to 9 times	3	6%
10 to 12 times	5	10%
13 or more times	4	8%
Total	52	100%

Question four asked the teachers to self-report the number of referrals that they have written for the current school year. The act of giving a student a referral increases the likelihood of campus supervisor contact for the teacher as well as the student. The table that follows shows the number of referrals self-reported by the teachers.

Table 4.9 Number of referrals written by teachers (referrals are received by students for all violations of the school's behavior code)

<i>Number of referrals</i>	<i>Frequency of teachers</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
None	12	12%
1 to 3	15	54%
4 to 6	13	12%
7 to 9	6	6%
10 to 12	3	10%
13 or more	3	8%
Total	52	100%

Question five on the teacher survey asked the teacher to self-report the number of years they have been teaching at SMHS. In my experience as an assistant principal, teachers who were new to the school tend to write more referrals. As discussed earlier, referrals increase contact with campus supervisors under the policies and procedures at SMHS, in which a student can be immediately removed from a classroom upon receiving a referral from a teacher. The table that follows shows the number of teachers who fall into the various categories of years at SMHS.

Table 4.10 Number of years at SMHS

<i>Number of years</i>	<i>Frequency of teachers</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
1 to 3 years	15	12%
4 to 6 years	4	54%
5-7 years	5	12%
8-10 years	4	6%
11-13 years	6	10%
14 or more	18	8%
Total	52	100%

The question about the likelihood of a teacher writing a pass when a student needs to leave the class was placed in the survey to determine if it could be used as a descriptor. The overall average response was 5.44 – “Very likely.” Ninety-six percent of the teachers responded that it was either 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely or 6 = extremely likely that they would write a pass for a student needing to leave their room. This provided little insight into the related data and consequently could not be used as a descriptor.

Administrator questionnaire

At SMHS the four administrators include one principal and three assistant principals. The researcher was employed as one of the assistant principals at the time of the study. As a result, the only three administrators participated in the questionnaire. Two descriptive questions were asked in the questionnaire. These questions were numbers 1 and 2 on the administrator questionnaire (see Appendix E):

1. How long have you been an administrator at SMHS?
2. Which best depicts the number of years you have been working in the field of education?

The following tables shows the data collected from these questions.

Table 4.11 Administrator years at SMHS

<i>Years at SMHS</i>	<i>Frequency of Admin.</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Less than 1 year	1	33.3%
Between 1 and 3 years	1	33.3%
More than 4 years	1	33.3%
Total	3	100%

Table 4.12 Administrator years working in the field of education

<i>Years in Education</i>	<i>Frequency of Admin.</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
5 to 10 years	0	0
11 to 15 years	1	33.3%
15 to 20 years	2	66.6%
20+ years	0	0
Total	3	100%

Campus supervisor interviews

There were four campus supervisor interviews conducted. The interviews started with the lead campus supervisor. A snowball sampling technique was used to determine the next person to interview. At the time of the interviews, SMHS employed one lead campus supervisor, one full-time campus supervisor, and seven part-time campus supervisors. The lead campus supervisor was interviewed first. The full-time campus supervisor was the next person interviewed. The third interview was with a part-time campus supervisor who works several extra-curricular events such as football game and dances. The last campus supervisor interviewed was a part-time campus supervisor who does not work many extra-curricular events. This is the extent to which these data will be described due to the position of the researcher as an evaluator to the campus supervisors being interviewed. The researcher wanted the campus supervisors to feel they could answer the questions freely. The campus supervisors might not feel that they could be critical of the program due to the position the researcher had as an evaluator as well.

Student interviews

Four students were interviewed for this case study. All four students were eighteen year old and were graduating seniors. They were interviewed on their last official day of school. All four students were selected because of their contact with campus supervisors and administrators. Two of the students generated contact through discipline procedures, while the other two generated contact through extra-curricular involvement with SMHS. The two students that generated contact through discipline did so very early on in their time at SMHS. The discipline procedure was the means by which they became known to the administration staff. The two students that generated contact through their extra-curricular involvement became known to the administration staff early in their four year tenure through their activities. All of the students graduated on time. None of the students had discipline actions taken during their senior year.

RQ1: Proactive Campus Supervision and a Safe School Environment

Currently in California, many educators are focused on the demands brought about by the pressures of standardized testing. Despite the need for students to perform on these tests, students must first be assured that their school is safe. At SMHS campus supervisors serve as the main orchestrators of this reassurance of safety. In an effort to accomplish this task, campus supervisors at SMHS proactively interact with students, build rapport with students, and help students connect to the school by encouraging them to be successful. The campus supervision staff and the administrators at SMHS are hopeful that this purposeful action will create a safe school environment. The first research question addressed in this case study follows: How can a proactive campus

supervision program, focusing on the concepts of resiliency, create a safer school environment?

At SMHS the administrators believe that the primary key to creating a safe environment is to be present in that environment throughout the entire school day. The student survey and teacher survey included four questions about adult presence. The questions were asked about campus supervisor presence before school, during passing periods, during nutrition break, and at lunch. Table 4.13 shows the mean score and standard deviation for campus supervision presence. The surveys both used a six-point Likert-type scale, with 1 = extremely unlikely, 2 = very unlikely, 3 = somewhat unlikely, 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely, and 6 = extremely likely. All scores for campus supervisor presence are in the five to six range which corresponds to “very likely.” This indicates that it is very likely students notice campus supervisors before school, during passing periods, during nutrition break, and during lunch. The noticeable exclusion of an after school question is because of extra-curricular activities that result in varied release times.

Table 4.13 Presence of campus supervisors as noticed by students and teachers during various times of the school day that are associated with free space.

<i>Question stem</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>% of likely responses</i>
Students notice presence of CS before	824	5.03	1.168	90%
Students notice presence of CS passing	824	5.24	1.101	92%
Students notice presence of CS break	823	5.27	1.084	92%
Students notice presence of CS lunch	822	5.44	0.996	95%
Teachers notice presence of CS before school	52	5.86	0.344	100%
Teachers notice presence of CS during break	52	5.80	0.627	98%
Teachers notice presence of CS during lunch	52	5.88	0.427	100%

The next series of questions from the student and teacher surveys, using the same Likert-type scale, examine the effectiveness of campus supervision. Students were asked if they thought the presence of a campus supervisor stopped students from misbehaving, if they thought students would not fight if campus supervisors were around, and if they thought students taken to the administration office by campus supervisors were given disciplinary actions. Teachers' questions were similar: if they thought the presence of a campus supervisor deters students from misbehaving, if they thought campus supervisors supported the school's behavior code, and if they thought administrators supported the campus supervisors. The results are summarized in Table 4.14. Students view campus

supervisors as having a “Somewhat likely” effect, while teachers view them as having a “Very likely” effect.

Table 4.14 Campus supervision effectiveness perceived by students and teachers

<i>Questions</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>% of likely responses</i>
Students will not misbehave in presence of CS	817	4.12	1.398	72%
Students won't fight in the presence of CS	820	4.44	1.382	77%
Students feel if CS takes student to Admin disciplinary action follows	820	4.20	1.223	77%
Teachers -The presence of a CS deters student misbehavior	52	5.02	0.828	96%
Teachers -CS support the behavior code	51	5.06	0.810	96%
Teachers -CS supported by Administration	51	5.45	0.702	98%

At SMHS Campus supervisors are charged with enforcing the behavior code. The administration has gone so far as to call the student behavior code the curriculum that the campus supervisors teach. The campus supervisors first familiarize themselves with the behavior code and then, through interactions with students, begin to hold students to the code. During the interviews campus supervisors were asked about how they handle situations when a student questions the behavior code.

Cause, I mean, when you just tell a kid and say no, you can't do that, they're at the age now where they need to explain why, and where the rule

came from and why it's there, and the purpose behind it. (Campus supervisor interview 1)

For instance, if someone's wearing something that's inappropriate. We would just take them aside and explain to them that we don't allow that type of dress and what they can do to fix it. Well I think that educates them a little bit. A lot of these kids have never read the dress code, or have never read the behavior code, so they think hey maybe I'll go back and check that out. So they re-familiarize themselves with it. (Campus supervisor interview 2)

In both of these answers the interaction with the student does not stop at the infraction of the behavior code. The simple explanation of the policy and suggestions for correcting the behavior takes the campus supervisors at SMHS into a proactive arena. Once dealt with, the student and campus supervisors have fostered a relationship that, over time, we hope will continue to grow. Interactions like these are the backbone of proactive campus supervision. Every student interaction, no matter how it is generated, positively or negatively, is an opportunity to build rapport with kids.

The concepts of resiliency fit extremely well into the field of education. As students struggle, educators continue to give them the life lessons that they need to continue on. Henderson and Milstein (2003) define six steps to building resiliency in students. These steps include: (1) increase bonding, (2) set clear, consistent boundaries, (3) teach life skills, (4) provide caring and support, (5) set and communicate high expectations, and (6) provide opportunities for meaningful participation. At SMHS campus supervisors are constantly reminded that every student contact is an opportunity to build rapport with students, no matter the circumstance, whether positive or negative, that was responsible for creating the contact. At SMHS administrators emphasize that

focusing on the steps to building resiliency is an important part of creating a safe environment for learning.

In the student survey there were seven Likert-type questions that connect with resiliency building. These questions have a strong relationship theme. Table 4.15 shows the questions and data broken out by 9th and 11th grade students.

Table 4.15 Student views of the student and campus supervisor relationship (aggregated collectively and by 9th and 11th grade levels)

<i>Question</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>St. Deviation</i>	<i>% of likely responses</i>
I have contact with a CS at least once a day	819	2.99	1.724	38%
9th grade students	470	2.86	1.655	36%
11th grade students	341	3.15	1.798	42%
CS will do something if a student asks for help	818	4.92	1.197	89%
9th grade students	470	4.89	1.205	89%
11th grade students	340	4.96	1.195	89%
I would go to CS if I or a friend needed help	820	3.75	1.690	59%
9th grade students	471	3.81	1.697	61%
11th grade students	341	3.69	1.681	56%
I know a CS by their first name	821	3.10	2.075	42%
9th grade students	471	2.68	2.029	33%
11th grade students	342	3.67	1.996	54%
At least one CS knows about my extra-curricular activities	822	2.38	1.819	28%
9th grade students	472	2.17	1.71	24%
11th grade students	342	2.65	1.923	32%
Students in this school tell CS what is going on	821	3.13	1.407	43%
9th grade students	472	3.11	1.375	43%
11th grade students	342	3.17	1.444	42%
If CS asked me about a crime I would cooperate	821	4.43	1.604	78%
9th grade students	473	4.37	1.636	76%
11th grade students	341	4.5	1.569	81%

Most of the students in the 11th grade have spent two complete years at SMHS. The longer time period increased their exposure to the campus supervision staff and thus

warranted a closer examination. Looking at the overall scores it would not appear that the campus supervision staff has been able to crack the hard protective shell of the teenage student. A closer look into the data, however, reveals some interesting results. Students responded that they thought it would be “Somewhat likely” at 4.92 that a campus supervisor would do something if they were asked for help. Another interesting finding is difference in 9th and 11th grades responses to whether or not they know a campus supervisor by their first name. The 9th grades responded “Very unlikely” at 2.68, while the 11th grades responded “Somewhat unlikely” at 3.67. The overall score was “Somewhat unlikely” at 3.10. This seems to show that exposure to the campus supervisors over time has an effect on whether or not the students get to know them. The student survey gives the impression that little progress has been made in the area of building resilience, despite the proactive campus supervision. Perhaps the survey would not have shown any numbers above “Extremely unlikely – 1” if the campus supervisors were not being so purposeful in their efforts. During the interview, one campus supervisor spoke directly about the struggles that surround building rapport with students.

“I figure the other schools, a lot of the schools they just talk down to the kids. And we don't do that. So, it's a fine line to get, to be their buddies, to get them to want to talk to you, and trust you. And yet when you gotta pull the authority card to get em to listen to you, it's hard to do. (Campus supervisor interview 2)

The large standard deviations in Table 4.15 indicate that there are students who responded high and lower. As the case would be with building relationships, some students would have the relationships that the questions were asking about, while other students would not. When the data is looked at through the lens of a “likely” scale, the results show the progress that campus supervisors have made on the SMHS campus. The

far right column shows the seven questions that pertain to building resiliency and the percentage of students who responded with either a 4 = somewhat likely, or a 5 = very likely, or a 6 = extremely likely. The 11th grade students have a tendency to answer more toward the “likely” side of the scale. The question regarding going to a campus supervisor if the student or a friend were in need of help, shows the 11th graders answering lower than the 9th graders. This seems to make sense because as students mature they are more apt to solve their problems on their own. Another question that resulted in a slight difference was the one regarding the student perceptions of whether or not students tell campus supervisors what’s going on. The difference was only 1%. Students who were interviewed made the following comments when they were asked about what they thought campus supervisors could do to make SMHS safer. “Well, I mean, they can with -- they’re always on top of things. They always find whoever does whatever they do. I think they’re good.” (Student interview 3) “I know there hasn’t been much here, like they’ve prevented most things or most things that I’ve heard, before they happen.” (Student interview 4)

Campus supervisors at SMHS have created a safer school environment by having a consistent presence on the school campus throughout the school day, by enforcing the behavior code with students while at the same time explaining the purpose of the code in question, and by cultivating relationships with students so that students are comfortable working with them. These behaviors make up the proactive campus supervision approach that is unique to SMHS.

RQ2: Teachers' Perception of Campus Supervision

The position of campus supervisor is one that has hardly been studied in the literature. As a result, this case study begins to build a picture of campus supervision that can be used by others to explore more detailed safety issues involving campus supervision in the future. A survey of fifty-two teachers was conducted in an effort to provide the case study with the teachers' perspective of campus supervision. There were twenty questions on the survey about the campus supervisors at SMHS. The questions pertained to the following topics: presence on campus, relationship with teachers, relationships with students, and enforcement of the behavior code.

Six questions in the survey asked specifically about the presence of campus supervisors on campus. Teachers were asked if they noticed the presence of campus supervisors before school, at nutrition break, at lunch time, after school, and during the teachers' prep period, as well as whether teachers felt they could find a campus supervisor if they needed to. Teachers responded "Very likely" to all of the questions with one exception to whether or not they could find a campus supervisor if they needed one. For this question teachers responded that they thought it would be "Somewhat likely" they could find a campus supervisor. The response score was 4.88. Overall teachers definitely notice the presence of the supervisors on campus.

Five of the questions on the survey asked teachers about their relationship with campus supervisors. Table 4.16 summarizes the data from the teacher survey. The most noticeable response was found when teachers were asked if they spoke to campus supervisors about student behavior. The response score is lower than the other scores in the area and warrants a closer look. Seventy-six percent of the teachers surveyed

responded that it was “likely” that they would speak with campus supervision about student behavior. This finding shows that teachers and campus supervisors at SMHS are working together to help students succeed in the classroom and out of the classroom.

Table 4.16 Teacher perception of their relationship with campus supervision

<i>Question from teacher survey</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>% of likely responses</i>
Teacher will have contact with CS during day	52	4.8462	1.30436	87%
CS will help if a teacher asks them to	52	5.7885	0.45747	100%
Teacher speaks to CS about student behavior	51	4.1961	1.28093	76%
A CS knows my name	52	5.2692	0.99243	98%
I know the name of a CS	51	4.9412	1.28704	82%

The teachers were also asked to respond to four questions about their view on the relationship that campus supervisors have with students. Teachers responded that it was “Very likely” that campus supervisors understood poor student behavior and that the presence of a campus supervisor would deter students from misbehaving. Teachers responded that it was “Somewhat likely” that students respect campus supervisors and that students tell campus supervisors what’s going on. Table 4.17 summarizes the data from the teacher survey regarding the campus supervisor’s relationship with students. Teachers view the campus supervisors as having a relatively strong relationship with students.

Table 4.17 Teacher perception of relationship between campus supervisors and students

<i>Question from teacher survey</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>% of likely responses</i>
CS understand poor student behavior	52	5.2115	0.69555	100%
Students respect CS	51	4.8039	0.77510	96%
The presence of a CS deters student misbehavior	52	5.0192	0.82819	96%
Students tell CS what's going on	50	4.3800	1.17612	84%

The questions that pertain to the concept of enforcing the behavior code also include the relationship between campus supervisors and administrators. The behavior code is often seen as the administrators' voice to the student body. At SMHS the campus supervisors are responsible for enforcing the behavior code, but the administrators are responsible for the doling out the consequences for an infraction. As a result of the relationship it is difficult to separate the campus supervisors' role in enforcing the behavior code without incorporating the relationship with administrators. The data provided in Table 4.18 shows that the teachers feel that campus supervisors are supported by the administrators and enforce the behavior code. In a sense this paints the campus supervisors as the eyes and ears of the administration.

Table 4.18 Teacher perception of campus supervision enforcing the behavior code

<i>Question from teacher survey</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>% of likely responses</i>
CS supported by Administration	51	5.4510	0.70182	98%
CS support the behavior code	51	5.0588	0.81023	96%
If a teacher tells CS of a crime, something is done	51	5.5490	0.67272	100%
Late students are directed to Lock-out by CS	49	5.3061	0.68325	100%

Campus supervisors were asked specifically to comment on their relationship with teachers. The common theme among the responses was one of mutual respect. One campus supervisor described the relationship as follows.

They always seem you know appreciative when we help them. If they ask us to do something, or come and get a student, you know, things like that. Sometimes they need us to watch their classroom for awhile, a restroom break or something, you know, if they have something they need to do, but I would say it's very good. (Campus supervisor interview 4)

Another campus supervisor made reference to how the relationship with teachers was in the past. From this statement it is evident that the campus supervisor feels his relationship has improved.

I think in the past they would have just went right to administration if there was a problem with us or if they didn't like the way we did something. Or they would just go report us to administration. Now they will actually come and say, hey. They'll communicate with us, and tell us, you know, ask why we did that, or ask for an explanation. (Campus supervisor interview 1)

Administrators were also asked to give their insight into the relationship that exists between teachers and campus supervisors. The three administrators believe that

the teachers and campus supervisors have a good working relationship. The follow quote summarizes this relationship: “Campus supervisors support teachers by enforcing the behavior code expectations, ensuring the campus environment is conducive to learning. They also support teachers by covering classes and removing students who are not behaving, when needed.” (Administrator questionnaire 3)

Teachers at SMHS view campus supervisors as members of the team. Teachers treat campus supervisors as coworkers as evidenced by conversing with them about student behavior. Teachers think highly of the relationship that exists between campus supervisors and students. Teachers also believe that campus supervisors enforce the behavior code at SMHS and that they are supported well by the administration.

RQ3: Administrator Perception of Campus Supervision

The administrative staff at SMHS responded to a short questionnaire about campus supervision. Four themes resulted from the analysis of the questionnaire data. The first theme was support for teachers. This was discussed in the previous research question. The next themes were rapport with students, campus supervisor and administrator relationships, and enforcement of the behavior code.

Rapport is an essential part of the proactive campus supervision philosophy at SMHS. The administrators discussed rapport as an important part of providing a safe campus. The concept that students who know campus supervisors will turn over information to them is critical. This flow of information allows the administrators to take action in cases of which they would otherwise have little or no knowledge. One administrator put it this way:

For the most part every campus supervisor has established relationships

with kids where they talk to them about a variety of subjects as well as letting them know that they must adhere to the campus behavior code. The extent of the relationships varies with the personality of the campus supervisors. Some CSs have established many trusting relationships that benefit the students in the school because of the reduction of behavior code violations. (Administrator questionnaire 3)

The ability of the campus supervisor staff to build rapport with students to the level that the students feel safe giving information that in most cases results in other students getting into trouble is remarkable. Administration and campus supervisors often work together to make sure the student giving the information remains anonymous. However, several of the students are not aware of this fact before they make contact with the campus supervisors. It is not until the student is in the administrator's office that he or she is assured that the tip will be anonymous. An administrator stated the following about this information exchange: "We also share important information we learn from relationships with students in order to keep the staff and students safe on campus. "

(Administrator questionnaire 3)

The previous example began to shed some light on the second theme that was found in the questionnaires, that is the relationship that exists between administrators and campus supervisors. It is important that the students understand that the campus supervisor has the backing of the administrators. One of the campus supervisors interviewed had this to say about the relationship,

...it's a two-way thing. Without that relationship, if we bring things to them, and they don't act upon it, or don't think it, it's just – it's gotta work both ways. It's actually an admin campus supervisor thing. Not just a campus supervisor thing. (Campus supervisor interview 1)

At the same time campus supervisors must feel that their input is important and be given

opportunities to provide that input. One administrator made this statement about the subject of input: “I have worked closely with them (campus supervisors) in every facet of their jobs. The relationship has been positive where their opinions, input and judgment is valued and appreciated.” (Administrative questionnaire 1) Campus supervisors were also asked about their input. The question asked was directed at their input into the behavior code. Of the four campus supervisors interviewed, the two full-time employees stated that they felt they did have input into the behavior code. While the two part-time employees stated that they did not feel they had input.

The three administrators were asked to describe how they thought campus supervisors supported the behavior code. This is best summarized by the following response: “Directly through the enforcement of school rules such as dress code violations; tardy/lockout enforcement and indirectly by talking with students - supervisors can learn information that leads to the discovery of violations of school rules.” (Administrator questionnaire 2) Administrators expect the campus supervision staff to confront students when they are in violation of the behavior code. However, it is also expected that the campus supervisors act in a respectful manner when doing so. As is often the case, campus supervisors are reminded to explain the violation to the students and inform the students on how to handle the situation in the future.

The questionnaire data collected from the administrators provide evidence that suggest campus supervisors are viewed as part of the administrative system. The data show that campus supervisors are expected to provide administration with certain duty functions while also being available to support teaching staff and create relationships

with students in effort to build rapport. Full-time campus supervisors are given opportunities to contribute to the workings of the system. Part-time campus supervisors are not being given the opportunity to give their input into the works of the system. Part-time employees are expected to perform at the same level as full-time staff while they are working. This situation could breed discontent if not dealt with in the future.

RQ4: Student Perception of Campus Supervision

The final piece of the campus supervision picture is the students' perception of the campus supervisors. Through the lens of the students' perception, the student survey breaks down into four areas. The first area is the campus supervisors' presence. The next area is the campus supervisors' effectiveness. The third area is the relationship campus supervisors have with students. The fourth area is the relationship campus supervisors have with the administrators.

The presence of campus supervision is the first step in creating a safe learning environment. The student survey included five questions that related to the presence of campus supervisors on the school campus. These questions were aimed at determining how likely it was that students would recall the presence of a campus supervisors throughout various times during the school day. Overall, students found it "Very likely" that they would recall the presence of a campus supervisor before school, during passing periods, during nutrition break, or at lunch. When students were asked if they could easily find a campus supervisor if they needed to, student responded that it would be "Somewhat likely."

The student survey included six questions that asked for a student's perspective

on how effective the campus supervision at SMHS was, again using a similar Likert-type scale to those for the teachers. The questions are displayed in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19 The percentage of students that responded “likely” to campus supervisor effectiveness questions

<i>Questions from student survey – view of CS effectiveness</i>	<i>% of likely responses</i>
Having a CS around stops student misbehavior	72%
If a student is out of class a CS will ask the student why	63%
Students will not fight if a CS is around	77%
CS at this school will do something if a student asks for help	89%
Students tell CS what’s going on	43%
If a CS asked me about a crime I would cooperate	78%

The data are presented with the percentage of students who responded with either a 4 = somewhat likely, or a 5 = very likely, or a 6 = extremely likely. The data answer basic questions that finally provide validity to the campus supervisor position. Throughout the nation, schools hire people to supervise students before school, at lunch time, and after school; yet nowhere are there data to show if this practice makes a difference. The students at SMHS have answered some of these questions. Seventy-two percent of the students responded that having a campus supervisor present is likely to stop student misbehavior. Seventy-seven percent of the students responded that it would be likely that they would not fight if a campus supervisor was present. The students’ perception is that the campus supervisors are “likely” to be effective at these aspects of their assignment.

The student and campus supervision relationship area had the most questions in the student survey. The data in Table 4.20 is presented with the percentage of students

that responded with either a 4 = somewhat likely, or a 5 = very likely, or a 6 = extremely likely.

Table 4.20 The percentage of students that responded “likely” to student and campus supervision relationship questions.

<i>Questions from student survey – view of relationship with CS</i>	<i>% of likely responses</i>
I will have contact with a CS at least once during the day	38%
CS trusts students	62%
CS are suspicious of students	67%
CS take pleasure in getting students in trouble	31%
CS pick on certain students	32%
I would go to a CS if I or a friend were in need of help	59%
I know a CS by their first name	42%
At least one CS knows about my extra-curricular activities	28%

These data give insight into how the students perceive the administrators’ attempt at proactively building rapport with students as part of the pathway to creating the steps of resiliency. The only way for campus supervisors to build rapport with students is for them to be trusted by students. A good first step in building trust is to reciprocate that trust. According to the student survey sixty-two percent of the students responded that it was “likely” that campus supervisors trusted students. Sixty-seven percent of the students responded that it was “likely” that campus supervisors were suspicious of students. At the same time only thirty-one percent of the students thought that it was “likely” that campus supervision took pleasure in getting students in trouble. Together these finding can be interpreted as being very positive. Sixty-seven percent of the students feel that they are “likely” being watched while they are on campus. The data

collected does not determine a clear direction of the students' perception of the student/campus supervisor relationship. In some cases the relationship shows positive signs, fifty-nine percent of the students would be "likely" to go to a campus supervisor if they or a friend needed help. However, the questions that involve more personal connections have much smaller percentages. Only forty-two percent of the students thought that it was "likely" that they knew a campus supervisor by their first name. This shows that there is still ground to cover when building relationships with students.

Only one question on the student survey asked the students information about the relationship between campus supervision and the administration. The question was the last one on the survey. The question was; when a campus supervisor takes a student to the administration office the student is disciplined. Seventy-seven percent of the students responded on the "likely" side of the Likert scale. This would indicate that over three quarters of the students see the administration as supporting the actions of the campus supervisors.

During the students interviews each of the four students made statements that give insight into their perception of the campus supervisors at SMHS. In the first interview, the student's statement identifies the importance of making contact during the freshman year. "They've always been friendly as far as giving me directions when I was a freshman. I've always talked to them about just current issues at the school, campus security updates, stuff like that. (Student interview 1) In this situation the campus supervisors provided an overwhelmed, new student with a sense of support and

belonging. The second student interview addresses a few of the extra responsibilities that campus supervisors provide on campus.

The campus supervisor has been there for me a lot of times. One was like I hurt myself in PE, and they would take me to the nurse's office or just go and talk to them. I was very involved with the campus supervisors. I would just go up and talk to them. (Student interview 2)

The third student interview brought out one of the most important aspects of the student campus supervision relationship. "They make me think twice about my actions before I go and do them. So it's kind of nice knowing that you have that someone, that support to go and talk to. And they help you out." (Student interview 3) It is this level of rapport that improves campus safety. The students included the campus supervisor in on issues before they started. This is the best example of proactive campus supervision. The fourth student interview demonstrates the little steps that take place to build rapport. "Well, sometimes when I see them out on campus, they'll go, hey, Carlos, how are doing? I'm like, oh, pretty good. Sometimes, I'll just go in the office just to say hi, and they'll ask me, how are you doing?" (Student interview 4) These interviews provide a look inside of the interactions between students and campus supervisors.

The data collected with reference to the campus supervisors' presence, effectiveness, the relationship campus supervisors have with students, and the relationship campus supervisors have with administrators show that the students have a positive perspective of the campus supervision at SMHS.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

This chapter provides an overview of the significant findings of the study, a consideration of the findings in reference to existing research, a discussion of the limitations of the study and the generalizability of the results, and implications for practice. The last section recommends areas for further research.

Significant Findings

Significant findings from the research questions used in the case study are presented below. The findings from each of the questions help build support for the model that was introduced in Chapter 3, as well as subsequent changes to the model as the data have shed light on new information.

Proactive Campus Supervision and a Safe School Environment

The first research question asked how a proactive campus supervision program focusing on the concepts of resiliency could create a safer school environment. The data collected provided evidence of four elements of proactive campus supervision that could create a safer school environment. The four elements of proactive campus supervision include: campus supervision presence, effectiveness, enforcement of the behavior code, and building of relationships.

Though the concept of presence seems simple with regard to supervision, there are several attributes that need to put into place at most schools. All campus supervisors at SMHS wear bright yellow jackets or bright orange vests when they are on campus.

This partial uniform increases their chance of being seen by students and staff. Each campus supervisor is assigned specific areas to patrol throughout the day

By having the same supervisors in the same location and time each day, the routine of students becomes apparent. This helps set up the most important aspect of being present as it relates to proactive campus supervision. At SMHS there is an expectation that all campus supervisors not only supervise their area, but that they get to know the students who are in their area. Campus supervisors are expected to generate student contacts. At SMHS we believe that every student contact is an opportunity to build rapport. Rapport is a keystone to the six steps to building resiliency discussed by Henderson and Milstein (2003). These steps include: (1) increase bonding, (2) set clear, consistent boundaries, (3) teach life skills, (4) provide caring and support, (5) set and communicate high expectations, and (6) provide opportunities for meaningful participation. Together these attributes make up the presence component of proactive campus supervision. The student and teacher survey results show that campus supervisors at SMHS have a strong presence on campus. Between the students and teachers surveyed, each question regarding the presence of campus supervision was answered with a likely response at least 90% of the time. It is likely that this high percentage is not created from wearing bright colors alone. I feel that the student contacts generated by campus supervisors serve as reminders to the students that they are present. Campus supervisors are also reminded to make contact with teachers as well. These interactions are made to show the teachers that they are available for help if the teacher needs it.

Campus supervisors at SMHS are not only noticed by teachers and students, they are seen as being effective at deterring poor behavior as well. Students responded to questions on the survey about not misbehaving in the presence of campus supervision and not fighting in the presence of campus supervision. Both questions had mean scores over 4.0 on the 6-point Likert-type scale. The scores were analyzed to determine the percentage of students who responded on the “likely” side of the Likert scale. Seventy-two percent of the students responded “likely” to the question about not misbehaving in the presence of a campus supervisor. Students, at the level of 77 %, responded “likely” to not fighting in the presence of a campus supervisor. These two results are powerful in showing the effectiveness of the campus supervisors at SMHS. Perhaps most importantly, this question of whether or not the presence of a campus supervisor makes a difference to students has never been asked. Schools around the nation hire non-law enforcement people and issue them yellow jackets, and radios, but administrators do not know how effective they are. This study has used data to begin to examine this common practice with the intention of improving safety.

The behavior code is the curriculum that the campus supervisors use on a daily basis. At SMHS we call the behavior code the campus supervisors’ curriculum because we expect them to teach students the behavior code while enforcing it. Students are held to the rules that are in place and are told why the rules exist. Administrators visit every English class early in the school year making a presentation of the behavior code and answering student questions. Teachers responded on the survey that they thought it was “very likely” that campus supervisors supported the behavior code. The mean score was 5.0 on the 6 point Likert scale. Teachers, at the 96% level, responded on the “likely” side

of the Likert scale for this question. This evidence indicates that teachers at SMHS feel strongly that the campus supervisors are holding students to the same standards of behavior (the behavior code) that they are holding the students to in class. This is an important finding that puts campus supervision on the same side as the teachers when it comes to behavior of students. All adults are expecting behavior that corresponds with expectations in the behavior code. With these data in place, a sense of team between the teachers and campus supervision staff begins to take shape. This finding supports a significant change in the proactive campus supervision model that was originally suggested in Chapter 3, Figure 3.1. Figure 5.1 has incorporated this change and will be introduced in the discussion of the teachers' perception of campus supervision section of this chapter.

The last element of proactive campus supervision is the element of relationship building. The belief of the campus supervision staff at SMHS is that every student contact, regardless of the origination, positively or negatively, is an opportunity to build rapport. Even when a campus supervisor has to make contact with a student because of negative or poor behavior, it is still an opportunity to build rapport. Campus supervisors are reminded that students who are leaving because they have been suspended are returning to school and will be part of the campus again in a few days. They are also reminded that expelled students are also possibly returning in a year. These relationships are not terminated or discarded simply because of the situation.

Students responded to seven questions in the survey that depict aspects of the relationship between students and supervisors. One key finding was that the average ninth grade scores were lower than the average eleventh grade scores for all but one of

the questions. The question that was not lower was about going to a campus supervisor if you or a friend needed help. The mean for all scores was 3.81 on the 6 point Likert scale. The mean score for ninth graders was 3.81 and the mean score for eleventh graders was 3.69. These data would suggest that as the students get older they become better equipped to handle their own problems and would be less likely to seek the assistance of a campus supervisor. Another question that stood out was in regard to how likely it was that the student knew the first name of a campus supervisor. The overall mean was 3.10 on the 6 point Likert scale. The ninth grade mean was 2.68, and the eleventh grade mean was 3.67. Most of the students in the eleventh grade have been at the school longer than the students in the ninth grade. It makes sense that the eleventh graders would have stronger relationships with the campus supervisors. These findings suggests that proactive campus supervision is not a one-year program, but rather, requires considerable time to establish the relationships that have been examined by this case study. The data were also examined to determine the percentage of responses that were on the “likely” side of the Likert scale. Eighty-nine percent of all students responded that it would be “likely” that campus supervisors at this school would do something if a student asked for help. The significance of this question cannot be overlooked. Students at SMHS have responded overwhelmingly that campus supervisors are providing them with a sense of security. This finding correlates with one of Henderson and Milstein’s (2003) steps to fostering resiliency, the step of providing a caring and supportive environment. Students, at the 78% level, responded that it would be “likely” if a campus supervisor asked me about a crime I would cooperate. This response is very positive and pleases me, as an assistant principal responsible for enforcing the behavior code.

Teacher Perception of Campus Supervision

The second research question investigated the teachers' perception of campus supervision. The data collected from the teacher survey suggests that teachers view campus supervisors as having a strong presence on campus, having good relationships with teachers, being respected by students, and enforcing the behavior code.

Though teachers spend a majority of their day in their classrooms, they do walk about campus at roughly the same time students do. Teachers were asked if they noticed the presence of campus supervision at various times during the school day. On the 6 point Likert scale, the teachers answered over 5 for all questions relating to the presence of campus supervisors. Overwhelmingly, teachers responded that they feel campus supervisors have a strong presence on campus.

The relationship between campus supervisors and teachers has never been examined with any scrutiny. The survey asked teachers five questions about their relationship with campus supervisors. Table 4.16 shows the results in the form of mean scores and percentage of "likely" responses. One of the most significant findings is that all teachers surveyed responded that it was in some way "likely" that a campus supervisor would help them if they were asked to. Another significant finding was that 75% of the teachers responded that it was in some way "likely" that they would talk to campus supervision about student behavior. These findings suggest the importance of this relationship and the need for it to be represented on the model suggested in Chapter 3 in Figure3. 1. Figure 5.1 inserts this relationship into the interactions that have been studied.

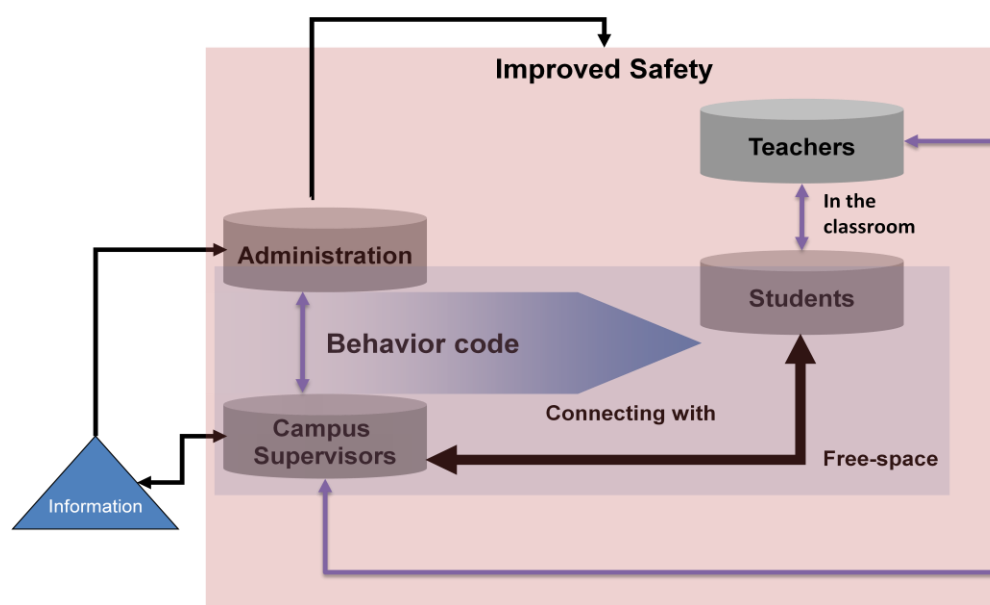


Figure 5.1 Improved school safety and the relationships students have with adults on campus

Figure 5.1 shows students in areas of free space and their relationship to adults on campus. The figure shows the behavior code as the largest mode of interaction with students in areas of free space. Proactive campus supervision generates a second line of communication with students in the form of a relationship that give the students key components for building resiliency. The teachers have daily interactions with students. This interaction mainly takes place in the classroom. At SMHS teachers are not asked to monitor students in free-space areas. The teacher-student relationship generates information that teachers share with campus supervision. Nearly 8 out of 10 teachers surveyed responded that it was “likely” they would speak to campus supervisors about student behavior. This information is used by campus supervisors and administrators to improve the overall safety of the school, which includes classrooms and free space.

Administrator Perception of Campus Supervision

The third research question examined the administrators' perception of campus supervision. The data for this part of the study were collected through the use of a questionnaire given to three administrators. The significant finding that resulted from the questionnaire was the view of the campus supervision staff as part of the administrative team. Campus supervisors at SMHS are expected to support teachers, build rapport with students, enforce and inform students of the behavior code, perform daily duties, and keep administration informed of the pulse of the campus. The survey data provided by the students suggests that the students feel that the campus supervisors are supported by the administrative staff. Students were asked to respond to the likeliness of a student receiving disciplinary action if a campus supervisor brought them to the administrative office. The mean score for all of the students was 4.20 on the 6 point Likert scale and 77% of the students responded on the "likely" side of the Likert scale. This finding is important for the credibility of the campus supervisor staff. It is also important that administrators recognize that the students have this perception so that it can be supported by following through with appropriate disciplinary actions. This relationship was also added to Figure 5.1. In Figure 3.1 there is no two-way arrow between campus supervisors and administrators. Figure 5.1 now includes a two-way arrow between campus supervisors and administrators. This arrow signifies the communication that must exist in order for proactive campus supervision to be effective. Teachers were also asked about the likeliness of campus supervisors being supported by administrators. The mean score for all of the teachers was 5.45 on the 6 point Likert scale and 98% of the teachers responded on the "likely" side of the Likert scale. These data suggest that the

teachers believe there is a strong relationship between the administration and the campus supervision staff. The teachers' perception of this relationship is further evidence for the adjustments made to the proactive campus supervision model.

Student Perception of Campus Supervision

The fourth research question investigated the students' view of campus supervision. The data collected came from the student survey and the student interviews. There were several significant findings in this section of the study. The first significant finding was the student's view of how present the campus supervisor staff is on the SMHS campus. The survey specifically asked about the presence of campus supervisors during the time before school, during nutrition break, during passing periods, and during lunch time. Astor and Meyer (2001) define the spaces that students enter outside of the classrooms during these times as free space. Each question on the survey that pertained to the presence of campus supervision was answered with over 90% of the students responding on the "likely" side of the Likert scale. The campus supervisors at SMHS are being noticed by students as the students are in free space. The second significant finding was the student's view of the effectiveness of campus supervisors. Seventy-two percent of the students responded on the "likely" side of the Likert scale in reference to not misbehaving because of the presence of a campus supervisor. The number moves to 77% when the question of not fighting because of the presence of campus supervision is asked. The responses to these questions help to provide validity for the campus supervisor position that has not existed. The large sample size and lack of any other study on campus supervision give these data significance. The data from this study have provided the information needed to make these statements about campus supervision for the first

time. Two other questions that were asked in the survey provide even more support. Students were asked how likely it would be for a campus supervisor to do something if a student asked for help, and 89% of the students responded on the “likely” side of the Likert scale. Students were also asked how likely it would be that they would cooperate with a campus supervisor investigating a crime, and 78% of the students responded on the “likely” side of the Likert scale. The students at SMHS feel strongly that they could get help from a campus supervisor if they needed to. The students also feel strongly that they would be likely to help in the investigation of a crime by campus supervision. The responses to these questions not only provide more support for the effectiveness of campus supervisors, but also allude to the strength of the rapport that the campus supervisors have with the students at SMHS.

Limited research literature

The importance of this case study is magnified because of the lack of existing literature in reference to campus supervision. High schools across the nation hire non-law enforcement personnel to supervise the campus during the schools operational hours. Despite the importance of this position, there have been no disciplined inquiries into the effectiveness of campus supervisors. Trump’s (1998) article, “Practical school security: basic guidelines for safe and secure schools” stands as the most detailed literature found that addressed the details of how to keep a school safe. In this text, Trump addresses how campus supervisors should work on a school campus. He specifically talks about patrolling areas of concern, approaching people who do not belong on campus, and working with local law enforcement. From a standpoint of security, this text provides a

blue print for how schools should operate day in and day out. However, Trump provides no data to support his security plan. Knechtel's (2008) article "The Art of Campus Supervision" delivers a very detailed view of campus supervision at a school. This article was found to be relevant and important to the position of campus supervisor. Clearly missing, however, was the support of any type of data. Without data, these articles merely serve as opinion pieces. The findings of this case study, in concert with the Trump and Knechtel work, provide suggestions and supporting data that warrant further investigation.

Limitations and Generalizability

This research was designed as a single embedded case study. The rationale for selecting this approach came from the work of Yin (2003) who discussed the uniqueness of the case as being a rationale for choosing a single case study. The topic of this case study is unique. This case study, focused on campus supervision, is unique in that there is a significant lack of research on the topic.

Case studies traditionally face significant scrutiny with the concept of generalizability. The findings from this case study are restricted to the settings of this particular school. Yin (2003) writes that, "The short answer is that case studies, like experiments, are generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes" (p. 10). The fact that there have been no disciplined inquiries into campus supervision means that no theories have been proposed. This case study proposes the first theoretical approach to campus supervision. The proactive campus supervision model that was created from this case study was the result of the examination of

foundational theories, and the collection and analysis of data from five different sources. It is the hope of this researcher that the model will be applied and tested to determine its usefulness in various settings. Through the disciplined approach of various researchers and the open dialog on campus supervision, school safety can benefit significantly.

Implications for Practice

There are three implications for practice generated from this case study. The first provides the opportunity for self-reflection and review. The second implication is for a response to the review. This response could take the form of affirmation of current practices or a restructuring of current practices. The third implication involves beginning the steps toward including the components of proactive campus supervision to the current California State mandated training policy.

The data collected in this case study provide a detailed picture of campus supervision at SMHS. It is the hope of this researcher that each practitioner who sees the data begins to ask what the detailed picture of his or her campus would look like. This would trigger the self-review aspect of the implication of practice. As practitioners begin to reflect on their own practices, I hope that they might use the survey questions to get a quick look at their campus supervision programs. This would begin the review part of the implication for practice. I also hope that the proactive campus supervision model sparks questions from all of the vested parties. This dialog will help give an accurate picture of campus supervision at the site. Through this kind of directed self-reflection and review, practitioners will be able to get a good picture of their campus supervision program.

Once practitioners have reflected and reviewed their own programs, there needs to be a response. There are two directions this response can take. One direction is for the reflection and review to provide affirmation. As the practitioners reflect and review their current practices they begin to notice that they are getting some of the same results found in this study. This provides them with affirmation that somewhere there are practitioners doing the same things and getting similar results. Affirmation can be a powerful motivator and confidence builder for practice. Another direction is for the reflection and review to stimulate change. As the practitioner reflects and reviews current practice, they begin to notice that they are not getting any of the same results as those in this study. They may also notice that the answers to some of the questions in the survey cause them to be concerned. As a result of this reflection and review, the vested parties may decide to make changes to their campus supervision programs. Each of the responses to the reflection and review provide outcomes that could be beneficial to the improved safety of the school and its students.

In 1998 the California State Senate passed a bill that insured that all persons undertaking the duties of supervision in K-12 school districts for more than twenty hours a week would be required to complete a twenty-four hour security course. The bill, SB 1626, provided an outline of the subjects covered in the training, but did not require that any records of this training be kept. SB 1626 also required that community college supervisors undergo the same requirements. The findings in this case study provide information that should be incorporated into the specific training of K-12 supervisors. The components of proactive campus supervision found in figure 5.1 show the uniqueness of the K-12 situation. The importance of communication and the building of

rapport with students are currently missing from the training outline provided with SB 1626. This case study will provide a starting point for this information to be shared with policy makers in an effort to generate change. It is the hope of this researcher that future publications and correspondences build the necessary momentum to help reconstruct the required training to include the elements of proactive campus supervision and formalize a process of documenting the receipt of the training.

Further Research

At the completion of this case study I have identified two areas that are in need of further study. The first area is the campus supervisor and student relationship. Who are the campus supervisors and who are the students that they supervise? Why do some students use the support of the campus supervisors and make it through to graduation, while others do not? The second area is the administrator and student relationship. Most often administrators and students interact around some part of the school's behavior code or the California Education Code. How are students dealt with when they have violated the California Education Code? Is the student taught during this interaction or is the student merely punished? Though there are several other areas that may have come to the surface at the conclusion of this study, these two areas are the most significant to me as a practitioner and those that could affect the most change at the school.

The Campus Supervisor and Student Relationship

This study has laid some groundwork in the area of the campus supervisor and student relationship. There are several aspects of this relationship that remain unstudied. One aspect that was mentioned early in the study was the aspect of cultural proficiency.

Campus supervision and school safety set the stage for student learning. In order to address the achievement gaps that exist, students must first have a safe campus. Axelman (2006) conducted a qualitative study involving semi-structured interviews of 25 at-risk students. Overwhelmingly these students indicated that safety was the number one barrier to their being successful in school. Bowen and Bowen (1999) surveyed over 1,800 students. They concluded that crime and violence in several smaller areas around a school had a negative effect on the students' academic performance at school. From these studies we can begin to develop a picture of how important safety is to the academic achievement of students. To provide a safe learning environment for all students, we need to connect with and build rapport with all students. In order to do this the lens of cultural proficiency becomes a viable tool. Cultural proficiency was first discussed in chapter 2 as it related to resiliency research conducted with Latino students. From the literature reviewed a bridge can be constructed between areas that foster higher Latino graduation rates and the elements of a safe campus (Figure 2.2). Appendix H includes a cultural proficiency rubric for campus supervision. This rubric was adapted from the work of Lindsey, Graham, Westphal, & Jew (2008). This rubric could be used to conduct an inquiry into the inner workings of campus supervision and give the practitioners insight into how to deal with students who are different from themselves. This is an area of study that could help explain the campus supervisor and student relationship at an entirely different level from that of adult and teenager. At SMHS the motto of the campus supervision staff is, "Every student contact is an opportunity to build rapport". Further study in this area could provide answers to the questions Such as "Is every student contact an opportunity to build rapport?" More than likely, most educators

view themselves as being culturally sensitive and understanding of people's differences, but how do we behave? These kinds of questions could provide a deep self-reflection that could only help increase the student's feelings of connection and belonging. A second aspect of the campus supervisor and student relationship that needs to be investigated further is that of the success story. At SMHS there have been several instances where campus supervisors have built extremely strong rapport with students. In these instances, the student has responded to the encouragement of the campus supervisor and turned their situation around. In some cases the students has gone from being involved with gangs to participating on a sports team for the school. In other cases, the student has gone from failing several classes to successfully meeting all of the requirements to graduate. These success stories need to be investigated with a disciplined approach and dissected to understand the critical components that made these success stories happen. Information of this kind does not exist in terms of campus safety and could add tremendously to the research in the field.

The Administrator and Student Relationship

The administrator and student relationship is another area that lacks disciplined inquiry. Perhaps this is due to the confidentiality of the interactions that occur most often between administrators and students, but the need for information in this area is important. Administrators interact with students on various levels. These interactions include, but are not limited to, discipline procedures, extracurricular supervision, daily supervision, academic interventions, and special program interventions. The interaction with students that relates to discipline procedures could provide the greatest amount of information to campus safety. This case study showed the correlation between the

elements of a safe campus and the steps to building resiliency in students. Figure 5.2 shows the major themes that were found to be present in the creation of a safe campus and their correlation with the six steps to building resiliency that were discussed by Henderson and Milstein (2003).

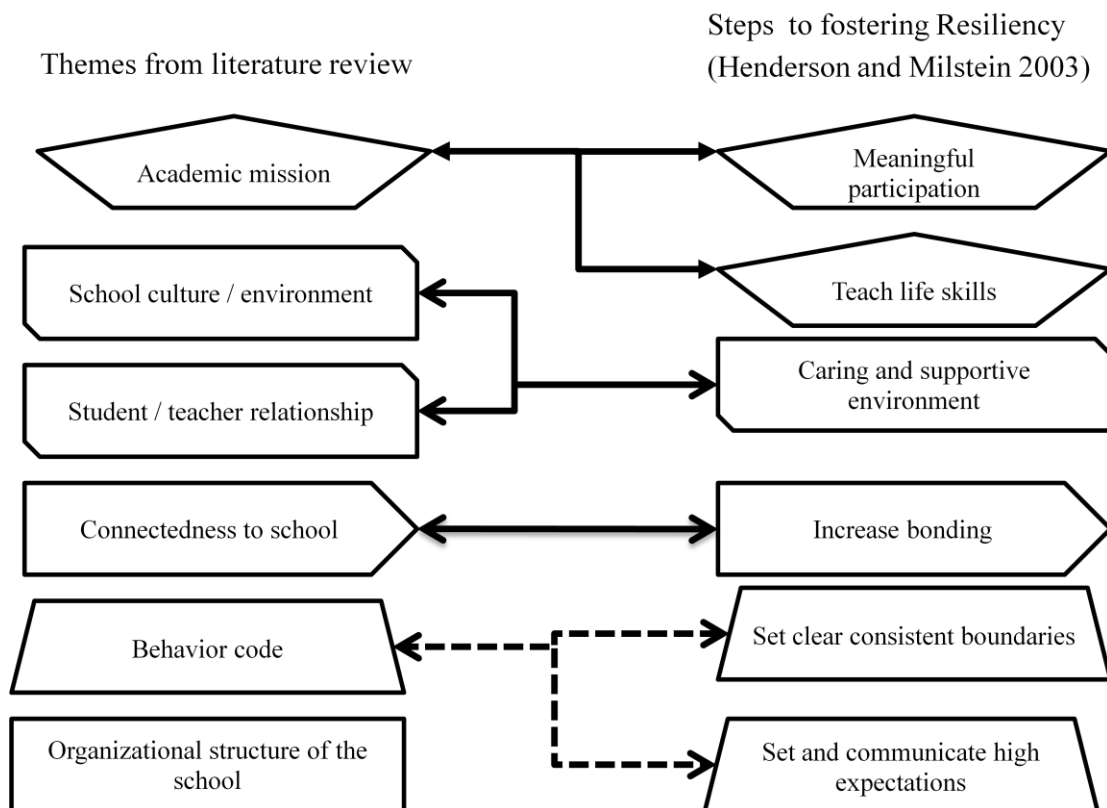


Figure 5.2 Correlation between themes found in the literature review and the steps to fostering resiliency (Henderson and Milstein 2003)

Figure 5.2 shows six components of creating a safe school environment that were taken for the literature reviewed for this study. The figure also includes the six steps to building resiliency as indicated by the work of Henderson and Milstein 2003. The correlation of these two constructs is depicted with the arrows on Figure 5.2. The theme of academic mission can be seen to include the two steps of meaningful participation and the teaching of life skills. The themes of school culture and environment and the theme

of student and teacher relationship can be seen under the umbrella of the step of a caring and supportive environment. The theme of connectedness to school and the step of increase bonding can be seen as inner changeable. The two steps of setting clear consistent boundaries and communicating high expectations can be seen in the theme of how a school should implement its behavior code. This correlation between resiliency and safety has not been fully explored. The idea of building these steps with students before they actually need them is an important part of proactive campus supervision. Administrators are often dealing with students at a time when the student needs several of these steps at the same time. An inside look into the conversations that occur during the discipline process has not been documented. The confidentiality of this interaction may make this difficult, but I believe it is this interaction that is most important in keeping a high school campus safe. At SMHS our belief that every student contact, regardless of the origination, positive or negative, is an opportunity to build rapport, includes this interaction between administrators and students. An investigation of this relationship between administrators and students could provide the school community with valuable information. This information could provide training for administrators in how these situations are best handled and provide best practices to model. So little information exists on this subject; yet it is often the most common form of interaction that administrators have with students as administrators.

This case study looked into the campus supervision program at SMHS. The participants of this study fell in to four groups, campus supervisors, teachers, students, and administrators. Significant findings were found within each group. The first significant finding was the identification of four elements of proactive campus

supervision that help to provide a safe school environment. The second significant finding was the relationship between teachers and campus supervisors. Teachers were found to be “likely” to talk to campus supervisors about student behavior. The third significant finding was that administrators view campus supervisors as part of the administration team. The fourth finding was how students perceive the campus supervision at SMHS. The data from the student survey suggests that students feel that the campus supervisors have a strong presence on campus. The data also suggests that students are less likely to violate the behavior code if campus supervisors are present. These findings provide starting points for future studies.

This case study stands only as a disciplined inquiry into a campus supervision program. Existing literature does not include any disciplined inquiry into campus supervision. Despite the uniqueness of the campus supervision program at SMHS, the lack of literature on the subject, this case study may provide some degree of generalizability that normally would not be found in a single case study. The hope is that the results from this study will provoke other school sites to reflect on and inquire about their campus supervisory practices. I also believe researchers and scholar practitioners must begin to investigate campus supervision as an area of disciplined inquiry.

APPENDIX A

Student Campus Supervision Survey

Demographics: (For each of the of the questions below circle ONE answer)

1. With what gender do you identify?

Female
1
Male
2
2. What grade level do you currently identify with?

9th
1
10th
2
11th
3
12th
4
3. During this school year which category depicts the number of times you have been recorded as a locked out student?

Never
1
1 to 3 times
2
4 to 6 times
3
7 to 9 times
4
10 to 12 times
5
13 or more times
6
4. During this school year which category depicts the number of discipline referrals you have received?

Never
1
1 to 3 times
2
4 to 6 times
3
7 to 9 times
4
10 to 12 times
5
13 or more times
6
5. During this school year which category depicts your current grade point average?

4.0 or higher
1
3.5 to 3.9
2
3.4 to 3.0
3
2.9 to 2.5
4
2.4 to 2.0
5
1.9 or below
6

San Marcos High School campus supervision survey: For each question record your response using the following scale:

Extremely Unlikely 1	Very Unlikely 2	Somewhat Unlikely 3	Somewhat Likely 4	Very Likely 5	Extremely Likely 6
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- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I can recall campus supervisors being around before school.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I can recall campus supervisors being around during passing periods.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I can recall campus supervisors being around during break.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 At lunch, I notice the presence of campus supervisors.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Having a campus supervisor around stops students from misbehaving.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 If I needed to find or locate a campus supervisor I could do so quickly.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I will have contact with a campus supervisor at least once during the day.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 If a student is out of class, a campus supervisor will ask that student where they are going.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Students will not fight if a campus supervisor is around.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Campus supervisors at this school will do something if a student asks for help.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Campus supervisors at this school trust students.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 The campus supervisors at this school are suspicious of most of the students' actions.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Campus supervisors at this school appear to take pleasure in getting students in trouble.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Campus supervisors at this school appear to pick on certain students.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I would go to a campus supervisor if I or a friend were in need of help.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I know a campus supervisor by their first name.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 At least one campus supervisor knows about the extra-curricular activities or hobbies that I am involved in.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Students in this school tell campus supervisors what is going on.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 If a campus supervisor asked me about a crime or incident that occurred on campus I would cooperate to the best of my knowledge.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 When a campus supervisor takes a student to the administration office the student is disciplined.

APPENDIX B
Student Interview Questions

Interview Questions:

1. Have you been addressed by a campus supervisor for a discipline action or behavior code violation? (examples, dress code, pass issues, altercations, investigations)
 - a. Explain the situation
 - b. What if anything did the campus supervisor say to you?
 - c. How did that make you feel?
 - d. Did that campus supervisor made contact with you after the above mentioned incident?
 - e. Explain that interaction if there was one.
2. Have you had another kind of interaction with a campus supervisor? (examples, helped with a problem, transported to the nurse, helped recover lost property, lockout or ISS)
 - a. Explain the situation.
 - b. What if anything did the campus supervisor say to you?
 - c. How did that make you feel?
 - d. Did that campus supervisor made contact with you after the above mentioned incident?
 - e. Explain that interaction if there was one.
3. In what ways do you think campus supervisors make your campus safer?

APPENDIX C

Teacher Campus Supervision Survey (On-line)

Demographics: (For each of the of the questions below circle ONE answer)

1. With what gender do you identify?

Female
1
Male
2
2. What grade level(s) do you currently teach? (select all that apply)

9th
1
10th
2
11th
3
12th
4
3. During this school year, which category depicts the number of times you have requested the assistance of a campus supervisor?

Never
1
1 to 3 times
2
4 to 6 times
3
7 to 9 times
4
10 to 12 times
5
13 or more times
6
4. During this school year, which category depicts the number of discipline referrals you have written?

None
1
1 to 3
2
4 to 6
3
7 to 9
4
10 to 12
5
13 or more
6
5. Including this school year how long have you been teaching at San Marcos High School?

1 to 3 years
1
4-6 years
2
5-7 years
3
8-10 years
4
11-13 years
5
14 or more years
6

San Marcos High School campus supervision survey: For each question record your response using the following scale:

Extremely Unlikely 1	Very Unlikely 2	Somewhat Unlikely 3	Somewhat Likely 4	Very Likely 5	Extremely Likely 6
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- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I can recall seeing campus supervisors on duty before school.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I can recall seeing campus supervisors on duty during break.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 At lunch I notice the presence of campus supervisors.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 After school I notice the presence of campus supervisors.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 During my prep period or time that I use for prep I notice campus supervisors around.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Campus supervisors understand poor student behavior.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I will have contact with a campus supervisor at least once during the day.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I write a pass when a student needs to leave class.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Campus supervisors are supported by the administration.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Campus supervisors at this school will do something if a teacher asks for help.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Students are respectful to campus supervisors.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I speak to campus supervisors about student behavior.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 The presence of a campus supervisor will deter student misbehavior.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 If I needed to locate a campus supervisor I could do so quickly.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 A campus supervisor knows my name.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 I know a campus supervisor by their first name.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Campus supervisors enforce the behavior code.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 Students at this school tell campus supervisors what is going on.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 If I inform a campus supervisor about a crime or incident that has occurred, he or she follows up on it.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 If a student arrives late to school a campus supervisor will direct that student to go to lockout.

APPENDIX D
Campus Supervisor Interview Questions

Interview Questions:

1. What is your job title?
 - a. In your own words describe the job that you do.
 - b. If you had to estimate, how many students do you interact with in a single day? (During your working hours.)
 - c. How often do you supervise extra curricular events (games, dances)?
 - d. What role do you play during these events?
2. In your opinion, what is the most important part of your position?
 - a. How does that support the academic goals of the school?
3. Describe your working relationship with the behavior code.
 - a. A typical response to a behavior code infraction is to question the code, describe a time when you had to explain to a student the rationale behind the behavior code.
 - b. In your opinion, how did that affect the student?
4. Describe your working relationship with the teaching staff.
 - a. In what ways do teachers show their understanding of your position?
5. Describe your working relationship with the administration team.
 - a. In what ways do you feel supported by the administration team?
6. What has been the most rewarding part of your position as a campus supervisor?

APPENDIX E
Administrator Questionnaire (On-line)

Questions:

1. How long have you been an administrator at SMHS?
2. Which best depicts the number of years you have been working in the field of education?
3. From your experiences as an administrator at SMHS, describe how you worked with members of the campus supervision staff. Please provide examples.
4. How do campus supervisors support the behavior code?
5. In what ways do campus supervisors support teachers?
6. How do campus supervisors support the school's Expected School Wide Learning Results (ESLR's)?
7. Describe your experience(s) observing campus supervisors interacting with students.
8. In California's current budget situation, how would you justify the campus supervision position at SMHS?
9. Anything else you would like to add about campus supervision that may not have surfaced during this questionnaire can be added below.

APPENDIX F
A Differential Association-Reinforcement
Theory of Criminal Behavior

<i>Sutherland's Statements</i>	<i>Reformulated Statements</i>
1. "Criminal behavior is learned."	1. Criminal behavior is learned according to the principles of operant conditioning.
8. "The process of learning criminal behavior by association with criminal and anti-criminal patterns involves all of the mechanisms that are involved in an other learning."	
2. "Criminal behavior is learned in interaction with other persons in a process of communication."	2. Criminal behavior is learned both in non-Social situations that are reinforcing or discriminative and through that social interaction in which the behavior of other persons is reinforcing or discriminative for criminal behavior.
3. "The principal part of the learning of criminal behavior occurs within intimate personal groups."	3. The principal part of the learning of criminal behavior occurs in those groups which comprise the individual's major source of reinforcement.
4. "When criminal behavior is learned, the learning includes (a) techniques of committing the crime, which are sometimes very complicated, sometimes very simple; (b) the specific direction of motives, drives, rationalizations, and attitudes."	4. The learning of criminal behavior, including specific techniques, attitudes, and avoidance procedures, is a function of the effective and available reinforcers, and the existing reinforcement contingencies.
5. "The specific direction of motives and drives is learned from definitions of the legal codes as favorable or unfavorable."	5. The specific class of behaviors which are learned and their frequency of occurrence are a function of the reinforcers which are effective and available, and the rules or norms by which these reinforcers are applied.
6. "A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favorable to violation of law over definitions unfavorable to violation of law."	6. Criminal behavior is a function of norms which are discriminative for criminal behavior, the learning of which takes place when such behavior is more highly reinforced than noncriminal behavior.
7. "Differential associations may vary in frequency, duration, priority, and intensity."	7. The strength of criminal behavior is a direct function of the amount, frequency, and probability of its reinforcement.
9. "While criminal behavior is an expression of general needs and values, it is not explained by those general needs and values since noncriminal behavior is an expression of the same needs and values."	9. (Omit from theory)

Note. From "A Differential Association-Reinforcement Theory of Criminal Behavior," by R. L. Burgess and R. L. Akers, 1966, *Social Problems*, 14-2, p. 146.

APPENDIX G
(Principle Component Analysis)

Question	Rotated Component Matrix	Component	Component	Component	Component	Component
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Presence during passing	0.895	-0.012	0.145	0.038	0.046
2	Presence during break	0.894	0.179	0.132	0.020	0.146
3	Presence during lunch	0.887	0.001	0.156	0.117	0.031
4	Presence before school	0.788	0.172	-0.091	-0.067	0.202
5	Do something if asked for help	0.480	0.345	0.047	-0.214	-0.069
6	Out of class	0.044	0.671	0.408	0.097	-0.028
7	Can find a campus supervisor	0.303	0.670	0.097	-0.060	0.019
8	Not fighting in the presence of CS	-0.046	0.656	-0.144	0.054	0.100
9	Presence stops misbehaving	0.300	0.587	-0.128	0.030	0.147
10	CS knows about extra curricular	0.084	-0.008	0.771	0.001	0.194
11	I know a CS by their first name	0.238	-0.143	0.726	-0.069	0.028
12	Contact once a day	0.093	0.541	0.565	-0.032	-0.227
13	CS pleasure in getting students in trouble	-0.137	0.081	0.055	0.797	-0.046
14	CS suspicious of students'	0.049	0.276	0.132	0.696	0.290
15	CS pick on certain students	0.106	-0.161	-0.124	0.583	-0.285
16	CS trust students	-0.035	0.217	0.392	-0.530	0.093
17	Admin disciplines students CS take	0.212	0.018	0.132	0.007	0.748
18	Cooperate with investigations	0.124	-0.012	-0.001	-0.040	0.703
19	Got to a CS if I/friend need help	-0.013	0.421	0.005	-0.233	0.433
20	Students tell CS what's going on	-0.128	0.280	0.361	0.015	0.380

APPENDIX H

(Campus Supervision Cultural Proficiency Rubric)

Five Essential Elements	Cultural Destructiveness	Cultural Incapacity	Cultural Blindness	Cultural Precompetence	Cultural Competence	Cultural Proficiency
Assessing Cultural Knowledge	Prohibit interactions or dress that has no implication on student's safety or learning. (ex. Prohibiting student greetings that involve hand bumps or various motions, prohibiting khaki pants or size of pants)	Promote the behavior code and aspects of safety above the culture of student. (ex. No hats, student is wearing a hijab)	Ignore the aspects of culture in regards to behavior code and safety.	Recognizing that school members may not know or understand the cultural perspectives that students bring with them and these may be times when these clash with other students and the school.	Regularly evaluate the need for events that may improve school climate for particular groups of students.	Open dialog with various cultures on campus, share information between groups and promote the mission of the school under which we are all united.
Valuing Diversity	Prohibit the intermingling of students from different cultures. Separating students on campus without the issue of safety being addressed.	Bias implementation of behavior code. Only addressing one group on campus and not others.	Ignoring a group on campus or devaluing the group as a culture.	Recognizing that there are several different cultures on campus and beginning to observe their interactions.	Purposely interacting with the different groups on campus in an effort to open dialog among groups to promote a safe school climate.	Actively interacting with the different cultures on campus, giving them opportunities to express their issues and create forums where several students can interact together concerning different issues.
Managing the Dynamics of Difference	Using the issue of culture to lay blame and excuse the behavior of others. In a sense only punishing the specific culture groups.	Varying the level of punishment due to the cultural aspect of an incident.	Not acknowledging cultural aspects of incidents that occur on campus.	Be knowledgeable of the cultural aspects of a given incident on campus or when confronting or mediating students.	Recognize the differences of the students involved in an incident and demonstrate respect of these differences in the handling of the situation.	Anticipate tension between students, open dialog and respond proactively to mediate incident before the conflict escalates.
Adapting to Diversity	Demonstrative no interest in the culture of the students or associating their culture with derogatory behaviors.	Invalidating the cultural differences of students or promoting another culture above that of the students.	Ignoring the differences of the students and only acknowledging the culture of the school as valid.	Becoming knowledgeable about the different cultures that exist on the school campus.	Recognizing the cultural differences among students and use aspects of culture to relate to the students and build rapport.	Using the diversity of the campus to strengthen the mission of the school. Demonstrating the diversity of students as strengths to the education that they are receiving.
Institutionalizing	Addressing the differences within the culture as undesirable and detrimental to the mission of the school.	Pointing out the differences in a group as shortcomings or weaknesses while using these points to promote the majority culture.	Ignoring the cultural differences of a group completely. Assuming the group is part of the majority.	Recognizing that there are opportunities for learning to occur between cultures. Using this knowledge when monitoring the campus.	Actively learning about student's cultures to build rapport with the students.	Promoting an inclusive world-view of the campus, and uniting students under the mission of a safe school for all students.

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