

A Quantitative Study of the Relationship between Pre-Service and In-Service Teacher  
Violence Training to Reduce Stress and Attrition

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Approval Page

A Quantitative Study of the Relationship between Pre-Service and In-Service Teacher  
Violence Training to Reduce Stress and Attrition

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## Abstract

Violence against teachers has been identified by the American Psychological Association as a health hazard that requires immediate attention. Recent studies show it is a global phenomenon that has significant damaging effects on a teacher's well-being, effectiveness in the classroom, and retention. Recent research has revealed teachers lack training and support for preventing student violence and managing its effects in the classroom. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the extent to which teacher violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado schools. Because the majority of student violence occurs among students aged 12-18, the study included teachers responsible for working with students from this age group. The survey consisted of three existing instruments: the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey, the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale, and the Teacher Stress Inventory. The survey was made available to approximately 6758 certified middle and high school teachers in the four largest districts in the state: Cherry Creek, Denver, Douglas, and Jefferson County, as well as Littleton where the Arapahoe High School shooting took place. Findings of the study revealed most respondents answered "yes" when asked if they would benefit from additional school violence training (74.8%). More than half of the teachers had not received any school violence training in the past (57.7%), while 35.1% of teachers had at least some in-service training or professional development. In total, 64.9% of teachers had either no training at all or only undergraduate school violence training. Although the current study revealed no significant correlation between teacher violence training and the reduction of teacher stress it did show high self-efficacy in student engagement and classroom management. Study results also indicated teachers who received violence training had a higher level of

personal accomplishment which is associated with lower levels of burnout and attrition.

Future research should include teachers in rural districts, elementary teachers, and demographic information for all respondents. Including all teachers will provide more generalizable results and collecting demographic information can identify whether victimization differences exist by gender or race.

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

Schools, in any country, should be a safe haven for learning and teaching (Akiba, 2010). Although there has always been violence in schools, both nationally and internationally, it has never been more of an epidemic than it is today (Akpochofo, 2014; Espelage et al., 2013; Lunenburg, 2010). Most research regarding school violence has concentrated on student-student violence, neglecting the growing rise in student-teacher violence (Lokmic, Opic, & Bilic, 2013). Research that is available regarding student-teacher violence has indicated teacher victimization is higher than previously thought with as high as 80% of teachers reporting at least one incident of student-teacher violence (Bradshaw, Waasdorp, Brennan, & Gulemetove, 2013; Espelage et al., 2013; Reddy et al., 2013). Barbieri and Connell (2015) conducted a study of extreme acts of student violence against teachers and other students, both nationally and internationally, between 1990 and 2012. They found the most egregious acts of violence to have occurred in the United States (U.S.) at Columbine High School in Colorado and Albertville Secondary School in Germany.

The extensive national and international media coverage of the Columbine shooting brought attention to the lack of effective national and state policies to address school violence (Lenhardt, Farrell, & Graham, 2010; Silbaugh, 2013; Yerger & Gehret, 2011). State Legislators took policy making away from local districts and incorporated safety regulations into public school laws (Edmonson & Zeman, 2011). According to The Safe Schools Improvement Act, schools that received federal funding were required to adopt codes of conduct that specifically addressed acts of bullying based on gender, race,

color, religion, disability, sexual orientation, and national origin and all acts would be cataloged and reported to the Department of Education (Edmonson & Zeman, 2011).

By the late 1990s, more than 90% of public schools responded with a zero-tolerance policy for students bringing weapons, alcohol, drugs, and tobacco onto school property as well as student acts of violence (Castillo, 2014). This policy has predetermined consequences that are applied regardless of the seriousness of the behavior, the context in which the violation occurred, or any extenuating circumstances (Gage, Sugai, Lunde, & Deloreto, 2013). New state laws addressed interventions for students who bullied other students and provided workshops for teachers to recognize and react to a student being bullied (Allen, 2010). Interventions included diagnostic testing for behavioral disorders, parent conferences, and establishment of behavior plans (Castillo, 2014). These new laws did little to protect teachers in the school environment, and provided no interventions or training for teachers who were being bullied by their students (Allen, 2010). The effects of student-teacher violence, whether physical or verbally insulting or demeaning, are disruptive to the educational process and can cause problems severe enough teachers may suffer physical illness, seek professional help, or become dissatisfied enough they leave the profession (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

For the U.S., the shooting at Columbine High School was a focusing event which is described as an event that causes policy makers and the public to be aware of a failure or lack of policy (Barbieri & Connell, 2015). The American Psychological Society (APA) convened a task force whose goal was to raise awareness about student-teacher violence (APA, Board of Educational Affairs Task Force, 2011). The task force proposed a national research agenda to address the lack of understanding of the effects of student

violence against teachers, develop a means of providing support to K-12 teachers to prevent violence from occurring in their classrooms, and to help deal with the effects of violence if it did occur (APA, Board of Educational Affairs Task Force, 2011).

## **Background**

Teacher preparedness programs have recently come under significant scrutiny for their failure to properly prepare teachers for today's classroom (Banks, 2015). Teachers are underprepared to handle the discipline problems in today's classroom, both student-student violence and student-teacher violence (Craig et al., 2011; Kutsyuruba, 2012; Lin, Lake, & Rice, 2008). Espelage, et al. (2013) found that many pre-service teacher preparation programs do not properly prepare teachers as evidenced by the global prevalence of classroom violence.

## **Statement of the Problem**

The problem addressed was the extent to which violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition on middle and secondary teachers in the four largest school districts in Colorado (Allen, 2010; Espelage et al., 2013; Kondrasuk, Greene, Waggoner, Edwards, & Nayak-Rhodes, 2005; Kutsyuruba, 2012). Student violence against teachers disrupts the learning environment, causes a lack of teacher motivation, increases teacher stress levels, and can lead to teacher resignations (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Ozdemir, 2012). Researchers have revealed teachers lack training and support for preventing student violence and managing its effects in the classroom (Espelage et al., 2013). When teachers are not prepared to manage student violence, there is a decline in student achievement, an increase in student violence, and an increase in teachers' negative emotional and physical wellness (Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Mee & Haverback, 2014; Reddy

et al., 2012). Job-related stress has been shown to lead to teacher dissatisfaction and lowered career commitment (Brunsting, Sreckovic, & Lane, 2014; Curry & O'Brien, 2012). Current estimates show 40% to 50% of new educators will leave the profession for several reasons – lack of administrative support, too much paperwork, lack of respect/violence in the classroom, lack of decent pay to name a few - within the first five years of teaching (Allen, 2010; Curry & O'Brien, 2012; Lawrence & Green, 2005). Conversely, teachers who receive training to reduce student violence before they enter the profession, and receive continued support in the form of ongoing skills training and mentoring once they are in the classroom, experience less job-related stress and a greater sense of classroom control and empowerment (Espelage et al., 2013; Kutsyuruba, 2012).

Several researchers have called for additional research in the areas of teacher training to address student violence in the classroom to reduce teacher stress and attrition (Allen, 2010; Espelage et al., 2013; Kondrasuk, Greene, Waggoner, Edwards, & Nayak-Rhodes, 2005; Kutsyuruba, 2012). In the wake of the Columbine shooting in 1999 and the Arapahoe shooting in 2013, Colorado teachers are vulnerable to violence that might be prevented with proper training. If teachers are not properly trained to detect and diffuse violence they will continue to be vulnerable to student violence in the classroom, increased stress levels, and professional dissatisfaction and attrition.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the extent to which teacher violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado schools. Because the majority of student violence occurs among students aged 12-18 (Basch, 2011), the study included teachers responsible

for working with students from this age group. The survey was made available to approximately 6758 certified middle and high school teachers in the four largest districts in the state: Cherry Creek, Denver, Douglas, and Jefferson County, as well as Littleton where the Arapahoe High School shooting took place (Colorado Department of Education, 2014). Permission was sought from state and nationally sponsored teacher unions prior to distributing the online questionnaire. A power analysis, using G\* Power 3.17 and two predictor variables, indicated a minimum sample size needed to ensure statistical significance for the study was 128 teachers. Colorado was selected since it is the site of the Columbine shooting and, more recently, the Arapahoe High School shooting. Information from this study was used to identify the relationship between pre-service and in-service teacher training on classroom violence and teacher stress and retention. These findings may encourage the development of statewide training requirements to provide classroom teachers and administrators with strategies to mitigate student violence and may lead to higher rates of teacher retention and lower rates of teacher stress.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Schools have always been thought to be a safe place to work and learn until violence began to erupt, and shootings took place on school campuses that blasted this elusion. The U.S. Federal Government acted quickly in response to the 1999 shooting at Columbine High School. They enacted funding requirements that were tied directly to states' implementation of programs to prevent bullying (Edmonson & Zeman, 2011) and laws requiring zero tolerance became the norm (Castillo, 2014). None of these new laws, however, addressed student to teacher violence.

Today's teachers must deal with violence almost on a daily basis. The American Psychological Association (APA) (2011) has defined violence as disruptive behavior that violates a school's climate or interrupts its educational mission to provide an environment free of drugs, weapons, or aggressive behavior against other students, persons, or property. In 2011, the APA Board of Education Task Force surveyed 4,735 K-12 general and special education teachers with regard to their experience with violence. Over half reported experiencing some type of violence and almost 25% reported being physically attacked. According to the APA, school violence has become a health hazard that demands immediate attention.

Teachers experiencing classroom violence are susceptible to increased levels of stress and attrition (Brunsting, Sreckovic, & Lane, 2014). Studies have shown workplace stress is related to both physical and emotional responses and is responsible for people changing jobs to avoid or reduce the stress (Brunsting et al., 2014; Curry & O'Brien, 2012). It is necessary to understand the systems that influence student violence and teacher behavior. Allen (2010) suggests student violence occurs as a result of many factors, one of which is how teachers respond to violent student behavior. This suggests student violence and teacher behavior influence each other just as other interpersonal connections are influenced reciprocally. Studies addressing the issue of violence have considered a social-ecological perspective to understand the internal and external factors influencing behavior (Bradshaw et al., 2013; Espelage, Low, & De La Rue, 2012; Espelage et al., 2013).

Bronfenbrenner's social-ecological framework of human development is based on the tenets that individual attitudes and behaviors are influenced by nested, interrelated

systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Beginning with the innermost system, the microsystem is where an individual is influenced by those with whom they interact with directly. This would include family, school, and community. The next system is the mesosystem which can be viewed as the individual interacting with other microsystems. Examples of this system would be teacher-student relationships, church, and teacher-parent contacts. The next system, the exosystem, does not directly involve individual experience but contains events that may indirectly influence the individual through the microsystem. Previous research has focused on the parents' workplace, family social-networks, and neighborhood-community contexts as exosystems that may affect individual development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Espelage, et al. (2013) suggests school disciplinary policies, like zero tolerance, would be an example of an exosystem that indirectly affects an individual. The macrosystem is the next layer and it consists of influences considered abstract or intangible such as morals, customs, laws, or values. The outermost layer, the chronosystem, impacts the individual through events in time, both internal and external. For example, birth, death, community violence, or teacher related events like stress or burnout (Espelage, et al., 2013).

According to Bronfenbrenner's social-ecological theory, the interaction between teacher and student influences how the student behaves and how the teacher reacts to the behavior. With that in mind, teachers are responsible for nurturing and developing children academically, socially and behaviorally. They need to be trained to see the warning sign of violence before violence takes place and how to react to it to minimize the effects if it does occur.



The current research study was implemented to determine the extent to which teacher training to mitigate violence in the classroom was related to the reduction of teacher stress and attrition. Teachers who receive training and are confident in their ability to handle student violence have less stress and are less compelled to leave the profession (Brunsting Sreckovic, & Lane, 2014). An examination of this relationship between teacher training and teacher confidence will add additional support to the social-ecological theory.

### **Research Questions**

Research is scarce on the impact of school violence on teachers (Lokmic, Opic, & Bilic, 2013). Most of the literature to date has focused on student to student violence and ignored the problem of violence against teachers (Lokmic, Opic, & Bilic, 2013). The questions for this quantitative correlational study about violence in the classroom in middle and secondary schools in Colorado stem from questions previously raised by researchers.

**Q1.** What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress?

**Q2.** What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition?

### **Hypotheses**

**H1<sub>0</sub>.** There is no relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress.

**H1<sub>a</sub>.** There is a statistically significant relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress.

**H2<sub>0</sub>.** There is no relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition.

**H2<sub>a</sub>.** There is a statistically significant relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition.

### **Nature of the Study**

In order to reach the highest number of teachers, an online questionnaire was administered to approximately 6,758 certified middle school and high school teachers in the four largest districts in the state: Cherry Creek, Denver, Douglas, and Jefferson County, as well as Littleton where the Arapahoe High School shooting took place (Colorado Department of Education, 2014). The survey provided necessary data to determine the teacher violence trainings received and their effect on teacher stress and teacher attrition. Teachers were notified through their email on record with each of the five districts.

Considering the size of the participant group and the research questions to be answered, a quantitative correlational study was most appropriate to investigate the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress and attrition. A quantitative approach provides for the collection of large amounts of numerical data and the analysis of that data using mathematically based methods (Mujis, 2010). A correlational design allowed the assessment of the relationship between two or more variables without manipulation (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).

The strengths of this method were the ability to reach a large number of teachers using sponsorship through the districts, lending credibility to the study and increasing the potential participation level. Since there has not been a previous study of this magnitude

in the state, it represented one of the most comprehensive studies on teacher training and its effects on stress and attrition. Limitations of the study were that it was not randomized since teachers opted to participate or not. Also, it was possible the teachers who chose to participate had more experience with violence than teachers who chose not to complete the survey which could have influenced the data. There is always the consideration of participant bias depending on current situations at the time the survey is completed. For example, circumstances like dissatisfaction with current school or administration, previous experience with school violence, or fear of retribution could influence responses.

### **Significance of the Study**

Previous studies have identified student-teacher violence as a serious problem demanding immediate attention (Espelage et al., 2013; Lokmic, Opic, & Bilic, 2013). Although many teachers have experienced student violence, few report being prepared to respond to student violence prior to entering the teaching field (Craig, Bell, & Leschied, 2011; Kandakai & King, 2002). For this study, the problem to be addressed was the extent to which violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition on middle and secondary teachers in the four largest school districts in Colorado (Allen, 2010; Espelage et al., 2013; Kondrasuk, Greene, Waggoner, Edwards, & Nayak-Rhodes, 2005; Kutsyuruba, 2012).

### **Definition of Key Terms**

**Bullying.** Bullying is described as any aggressive behavior involving an imbalance of power that is intended to cause distress or harm to another person where

such behavior is intentional and repeated over time. Aggressive behavior includes physical acts, words, gestures, or social isolation (Raven & Jurkiewicz, 2014).

**In-Service Teacher Training.** In-service teacher training is training received by certified teachers through professional development offered by their schools or other education sources (Alter, Walker, & Landers, 2013).

**Pre-Service Teacher Training.** Pre-service teacher training is training received by prospective teachers while they are in a teacher preparation program (Banks, 2015).

**Violence.** Student to teacher violence is defined as any verbal, non-verbal, or physical act by one or more students where a teacher is subjected to an interaction perceived to be intimidating, insulting or upsetting in any way (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012).

**Zero Tolerance.** Zero tolerance is severe, nondiscretionary punishment for violation of school policy regarding drugs, weapons, violence, or alcohol. Punishment includes immediate suspension or expulsion (Castillo, 2014).

## **Summary**

Schools should be free of violence to ensure the best academic environment for learning and growing. With the increase of violent incidents against teachers, the ability to provide an environment for academic success is being challenged. The classroom, once considered a safe haven for learning, is no longer free from violence. The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which teacher violence training related to teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado schools. By using an online questionnaire, middle and high school teachers in selected districts in Colorado were able to take part in a study to identify training deficiencies related to teacher stress and attrition.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the extent to which teacher violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado schools. Violence in the classroom has been a growing concern since violent student outbreaks like Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado, 1999, the bloody Virginia Tech shooting in 2007, and the Sandy Hook Elementary School shooting in 2012. More recently, it has become a social concern because of the impact it has on teachers, students, and the expectation of a safe environment in which to learn (American Psychological Association, Board of Educational Affairs Task Force, 2011).

School violence is no longer reserved for student against student or student against the school environment; it has spread to students against teachers (Bradshaw, Waasdorp, Brennan, & Gulemetove, 2013; Espelage et al., 2013; Reddy et al., 2013). Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012) redefined violence to include this expansion by stating violence can be verbal, nonverbal, or physical and can occur when a teacher perceives purposeful insult or intimidation. The significance of this can be seen in lower student academic achievement, diminished teacher efficacy, and the resignation of teachers in their first five years of joining the profession (Allen, 2010, Ozdemir, 2012).

Student violence is not just a problem in the United States (U.S). There have been studies about violence against teachers in Turkey (Ozdemir, 2012), violence in Arab schools (Khoury-Kassabri, 2012) and violence against teachers in Kenya (Ajowi & Omboto, 2013) just to name a few. With this rising tide of aggressive student behavior, researchers are trying to find the cause behind the increase by looking at both students

and teachers. Consideration is being given to the kinds of violence aggressive students may have been exposed to (Carrell & Hoekstra, 2010) as well as how teachers can identify the behavior and react to it using training received pre-service and in-service (Brown, Haggerty, Low, & Smith, 2013). By identifying the types of previous violence students have been exposed to, school administrators - working with parents, school counselors, teachers, and other stakeholders determined by the school - can develop a behavior program to help students be more successful. Training teachers to react more effectively to the aggressive behavior will help reduce the disruptions in the classroom.

A comprehensive review of extant literature is provided as a background for the investigation. The review considers a description of school violence including the history, scope, and types of school violence as well as a brief overview of laws related to school violence. It examines teacher victimization and the effect it has on the physical and psychological well-being of teachers as well as the perceived effects on teacher self-efficacy. The availability of teacher pre-service and in-service training will be reviewed as well as recommendations from researchers to improve the effectiveness of teacher preparation programs.

### **Documentation**

The review of literature is comprised of peer-reviewed scholarly journal articles and statistical reports obtained through Northcentral University (NCU) Library Databases as well as internet searches using Google Scholar and Questia. NCU databases included EBSCOhost, ProQuest, Sage Journals, ScienceDirect, SpringerLink, and ERIC. Key words used for searching included: bullying, teacher burnout, school violence, school

shootings, workplace stress, teacher attrition, teacher violence training, student-teacher violence, teacher efficacy, and classroom management.

### **What is School Violence?**

A basic definition of school violence is anything that disrupts a school's educational mission or its environment through acts of aggression against any person or property, the introduction of drugs, weapons, or other disruptions or distractions, harmful insults, profanity, theft, or any act where a victim is created (Espelage et al., 2013). The media's coverage of extreme acts of violence, like the mass school shooting at Columbine, helped to create a perception that violence in public schools was on the rise (Lawrence & Mueller, 2003; O'Toole & Fondacaro, 2015; Schildkraut & Muschert, 2014). Attention to school safety and security was again brought to the forefront of public concern with the horrendous loss of young lives and staff members at Sandy Hook Elementary. According to some researchers, these kinds of mass shootings are actually rare occurrences and are sensationalized by media coverage (Barbieri & Connell, 2015; O'Toole & Fondacaro, 2015; Rocque, 2012; Schildkraut & Muschert, 2014).

Media framing focuses on specific events of an incident at the expense of others. For example, framing of the Columbine shooting focused on frames like gun control, alienated youth, and juvenile super predators. The Virginia Tech shooting framed the race of the perpetrator as being most news worthy. A shooting at Red Lake Senior High School in Minnesota in March, 2005, was virtually ignored by the national news because it occurred on an American Indian reservation whose residents were mostly low-income. The story was not considered news worthy since it did not have the appeal to the masses

the way white students from Columbine did, or an Asian student from Virginia Tech did (Park, Holoday, & Zhang, 2013).

Significant documentation is available that affirms children living in urban areas, who are likely to be from low socio-economic families and minority backgrounds, have an increased risk of being exposed to violence (Basch, 2011; Boggess, 2016; Friedrich et al., 2015; Loggess, 2016; Lunenburg, 2010; Maring & Koblinsky, 2013). Concerns of student exposure to violence both in school and the surrounding community have long been considered primarily an urban problem (Bushman et al., 2016). Media attention, however, to the extreme acts of school violence that have occurred in the last few decades, has heightened public awareness regarding issues surrounding school safety among suburban populations (Barbieri & Connell, 2015; Bonanno & Levenson, 2014). As a result, youth violence has become a significant health problem and a topic of national concern (David-Ferdon & Simon, 2014; Espelage et al., 2013).

One year after the Columbine shooting, a Gallup poll revealed that 63% of parents with children in kindergarten through 12th-grade believed a similar tragedy was very or somewhat likely to occur in their community. Even higher, 70% of these parents were in agreement that concern for their own child's safety at school had increased due to the Columbine tragedy (Lawrence & Mueller, 2003; Lunenburg, 2010). Despite these statistics, and the increase in national attention to school violence as a result of the 1999 Columbine shooting, some researchers have suggested that the actual rates of violence in schools have decreased. In fact, the risk of a student falling victim to a violent crime is actually greater in their own community than in school or around school grounds



(Robers, Kemp, Rathburn, Morgan, & Snyder, 2014; Zhang, Musu-Gillette, & Oudekerk, 2016).

Regardless of statistical evidence indicating a decrease in school violence, the same evidence confirms that violent instances are likely to have a disturbing effect on those who experience the event (Heide, 1997). For example, in 2010, among students ages 12 to 18, there were 359,000 violent victimizations occurring on school grounds, 749,200 in 2012, and in 2014, there were 486,400 (Robers et al., 2014; Robers, Zhang, Truman, & Snyder, 2012; Zhang et al., 2016). The rates of school associated violent deaths remained mostly consistent between 2009 and 2011 with 33 deaths reported during the 2009-2010 school year and 31 in 2010-2011. During the 2012-2013 school years, however, there were 53 violent school deaths reported (Zhang et al., 2016). In the 2011-2012 school years, teachers also reported being victimized with ten percent of elementary teachers and nine percent of secondary teachers stating they were threatened or attacked by a student from their school (Zhang et al., 2016). The percentage of public middle schools reporting student bullying at least weekly during 2013-2014 was 25 percent with 17 percent of secondary schools reporting bullying. A gang presence was also reported by 18 percent of the students in 2011 and 12 percent in 2013 (Zhang et al., 2016).

Even though research has revealed student violence is both a suburban and urban problem, greater incidents of violence usually occur in urban schools. For example, in 2012, urban school violence occurred at a rate of 38 victimizations per 1000 students compared to 28 victimizations in suburban schools. Likewise, in 2014, there were 33 victimizations per 1000 students in urban schools and, remaining unchanged, 28

victimizations for every 1000 students at suburban schools (Robers et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016). These statistics may infer the student violence problem has drawn national attendance as a result of focused media attention and not as a result of actual increased occurrences. The heightened awareness of school violence and the need to understand the causes and solutions of this issue, however, are a positive side effect of this growing awareness.

Aggressive acts are not new to the school environment. They are recurring problems that have been persistent through the history of education and have been largely overlooked as safety and security problems. Reviewing the history of school violence provides information about how the problem has developed and changed over time in response to social conditions. It also offers insight into the techniques that have, and have not, been successful against school violence.

**History of school violence.** According to Cornell and Mayer (2010), acts of student violence have been documented in Mesopotamian clay tablets dating back to 2000 BC. There were numerous accounts of shootings, riots, and assaults in Europe from the Middle Ages to the 19<sup>th</sup> Century. In France, school children carried guns to school and teachers were often too intimidated to open the school doors (Cornell & Mayer, 2010; Rocque, 2012). In the U.S., there is documented school violence dating back to as early as 1760 with an increase in violence during the 1960's and a significant increase in the 1980's and 1990's (Duwe, 2005; Lee, 2013; Rocque, 2012; Welton, Vakil, & Ford, 2014). It appears there is a cycle of violence in schools that mirrors the cycle of violence in the larger society.

In Colonial America, teachers often dealt with violent insubordination from students, student mutinies, and threats on their lives. Researchers point to the uninhibited use of corporal punishment by teachers as the main cause for this kind of behavior. The safety and security of schools continued to be a public concern throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> Century. In the 1840's, Horace Mann reported the closure of close to 400 schools in Massachusetts due to student violence (Cornell & Mayer, 2010; Rocque, 2012). By the early 20<sup>th</sup> Century schools had become more organized and were used to teach immigrant and rural children how to be an American. School violence was also more organized and riots by students were more commonplace. Isolated acts of extreme violence were being recorded for the first time as evidenced by the 1927 documented killing of 38 school children and seven others by Andrew Kehoe in Bath, Michigan (Rocque, 2012).

After World War II the number of children attending school increased significantly. The one room, one teacher school house was replaced by larger schools managed by larger districts capable of handling the costs and administration of increased enrollment. The number of violent incidents decreased as the U.S. focused on Russia and the Cold War. It was not until 1954, when the Supreme Court heard the case *Brown vs Board of Education* and desegregation of schools was mandated, that school violence once again increased (Farinde, Adams, & Lewis, 2014; Lash & Ratcliffe, 2014; Rocque, 2012). As public opposition to the new civil rights laws grew, so did violence in public schools. When the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was signed into law, desegregation of schools began in earnest and the federal government began pulling funding to schools that did not comply (Graglia, 2014).

The greatest area of non-compliance was in the southern states. Civil rights leaders like Dr. Martin Luther King, Bayard Rustin, and Malcolm X advocated for racial equality during a time where federal law mandated it and public opinion opposed it. Malcolm X and Bayard Rustin pointed out the lack of racial equality in the north while Dr. King fought for equality in the south.

Bayard Rustin, along with support from the Parent's Workshop for Equality, staged a one day boycott of New York City schools in an attempt to persuade the New York City Board of Education to follow federal law and establish a timetable to integrate schools. Although parents were fearful the demonstration would be violent, it turned out to be very peaceful and very well supported. It did nothing, however, to convince the New York City Board of Education to integrate schools and they remain segregated even today. According to Kucsera and Orfield (2014), New York schools have remained segregated and continue to be plagued by student violence due to lack of affordable housing and lack of adequate employment.

Other schools in the north shared the same social segregation as New York City schools. Integration was not discouraged like it was in the south, but it was stymied by the lack of socioeconomic mobility. Segregation continued unabated with blacks and Hispanics self-segregating based on where they could afford to live. Schools became the focus of gang turf wars and violence between gangs spilled over into the classroom. For gang members, school attendance was for social purposes and not academics (Pyrooz, 2014).

In the south, the same problem existed. Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 put an end to school racial segregation, but just as in the north, racial separation

continued based on residential configurations and not prior segregation (Graglia, 2014). In an attempt to force integration, the Supreme Court of the U.S. mandated southern schools integrate by busing. Although the south quickly became the most integrated, busing became a major issue and negative consequences like the closing of black schools, loss of black teachers and administrators, a widening black-white academic achievement gap, and the flight of whites to the suburbs abounded (Bonds, Sandy, & Farmer-Hinton, 2015). Racism and civil rights issues became sources of violence in the schools as black students complained about the education system. By the late 1960's, riots and demonstrations erupted not only as a protest to national policies regarding racial inequality but in protest to national political decisions regarding the Vietnam War (DeBrosse, 2013).

In the 1970's, for the first time ever, concerns over school violence were in the top ten list of worries voiced by the public. Documented increases in school violence showed a 19.5% increase in homicides on school grounds between 1970 and 1973, 85.3% increase in student-student assaults, and 77.4% increase in student-teachers assaults (Denmark, Krauss, Wesner, Midlarsky, & Gielen, 2005). Most notable during this time period were the shootings at Kent State and Jackson State University where police and National Guardsmen open fired on students. By 1978, students were at greater risk of experiencing violence in school than anywhere else. The mid-1970s to late-1970 is considered the second most violent period in U.S. schools. Experts attributed this violence, and other deviant behavior, to an increase in the presence of violent gangs (Gass & Laughter, 2015).

During the 1980s and early 1990s, violence in schools had risen to an all-time high and homicide rates among youth had surpassed adult crimes. Experts attributed the rise in violence to an influx of drugs, specifically crack cocaine, from outside the U.S. as well as the accessibility of hand guns (Blumstein, 2002). Drug dealers recruited youth because they worked cheaper, were less vulnerable to the adult criminal justice system, and were more willing to take risks than adults. These factors contributed to an increase in violence in urban schools as more youth were drawn into the illegal drug trade as a way to make money (Blumstein, 2002; Gass & Laughter, 2015; Rocque, 2012). By the late 1990s youth violence had begun to wane as zero tolerance policies were enacted, gun laws were enforced, drug trafficking was declining and the economy was strong enough to support legitimate ways for youth to make money (Blumstein, 2002; Martinez, 2009; Rocque, 2012).

Although overall youth violence began a decline in the late 1990s, the school shooting at Columbine High School once again drew national, and even international, attention to school violence. Continuing throughout the 2000s, the media played a large part in elevating public opinion about delinquent youth and their nihilistic tendencies. The Sandy Hook Elementary shooting in 2012 provided a venue for media to escalate the problem of school violence and once again send the nation into heightened awareness regarding youth violence and school shootings (Bushman et al., 2016; Muschert, 2007).

**Scope and types of violence.** School violence has occurred throughout the history of organized education and has ranged from verbal assaults and physical bullying to school shootings. The difficulty with understanding and preventing student violence is that it occurs along a continuum of behaviors that vary in type and severity of outcome.

Adding to this difficulty is the influence the media has on public opinion when they devote a large and sustained amount of coverage to isolated acts of extreme school violence (O'Toole & Fondacaro, 2015; Rocque, 2012; Zhang et al., 2016). The National Center for Education Statistics provides a definition of school-associated violent death and a definition of nonfatal student and teacher victimization. They describe school-associated violent death as a fatal injury occurring on the grounds of an active elementary or secondary school and nonfatal victimizations as theft not involving the use of force, and any violent crime or simple assault not resulting in death (Zhang et al., 2016). These definitions are very narrow in scope and do not take into account the non-physical and psychological assaults that are also a part of school violence. A more comprehensive definition from the American Psychological Association (APA) (2011) has defined violence as disruptive behavior that violates a school's climate or interrupts its educational mission to provide an environment free of drugs, weapons, or aggressive behavior against other students, persons, or property.

***Types of violent student behavior.*** Student violent behavior can be distinguished by the severity of the violence and kind of act perpetrated. Most of the current literature differentiating the forms of student violence focuses on student-student violence. It is important, however, to differentiate the types of violence since the interventions will most likely depend on the type of aggressive act. School violence can range from bullying, physical and verbal aggression, relational aggression, cyberbullying, workplace violence, and different forms of discrimination (Bass et al., 2016; Berkowitz, 2014; David-Ferdon, & Simon, 2014; Espelage et al., 2013). This list is not exhaustive and the violent acts are not mutually exclusive.

Since the shooting at Columbine High School, significant attention has been given to the problem of bullying in schools (Berkowitz, 2014; Bradshaw, Waasdorp, Goldweber, & Johnson, 2013; Edmondson & Zeman, 2011; Limber, 2011; Perlus, Brooks-Russell, Wang, & Iannotti, 2014). Bullying has been broadly defined as acts of aggression by a student or a group of students who take physical, verbal, or relational action against a victim with the intent of inflicting harm (Berkowitz, 2014; Bradshaw et al., 2013; Yerger & Gehret, 2011). Traditionally, there is an imbalance of power between the perpetrator and the victim and the aggressive behavior is repeated over time.

Jordan and Austin (2012) identified five different types of bullying aggression. Physical bullying includes physical contact, or attempted physical contact like hitting, kicking, biting, punching, pushing, or the like. Verbal bullying involves saying hurtful things like name-calling, vulgar language, mocking, or remarks intent on humiliating. Relational aggression is bullying by excluding from a group, purposely ignoring, or no longer talking with a person previously a part of the group. Bullying via social aggression usually involves tactics similar to relational aggression with the difference being no relationship existed prior to the bullying. The final category, cyberbullying, uses electronic devices to deliver threats, insults, spread rumors, send embarrassing images, steal passwords, or deliver any other kind of information that would cause harm to someone else. Cyberbullying is especially harmful because it can be sent anonymously and can reach a large audience.

Bushman et al. (2016) offered a different interpretation of acts of aggression by differentiating between violence and aggression. According to their study, an act of aggression occurs when the intent is to harm another person, and acts of violence occur



when the goal is to exact extreme harm including injury or death. For example, if a perpetrator spreads rumors about their victim they are perpetrating an act of aggression and not violence but if they stabbed, shot, or kicked their victim they would be perpetrating an act of violence. Using this definition, with the exception of physical aggression, bullying can be considered an act of aggression and, according to some researchers, is based on social interactions (Berkowitz, 2014).

***Social Interaction.*** Adolescence is a critical time for the development of youth autonomy and identity where youth begin to depend more on their peers for approval of their behavior and social competence rather than their parents. It is no surprise that bullying peaks during this developmental time period when peer opinion has significant influence and aggressive strategies are used to win peer approval (Blake, Zhous, Kwok, & Benz, 2016). Students who bully can belong to one of four groups: a bully, a victim, a bully-victim (a perpetrator who is both a bully and a victim), and a student who is not involved at all (Burton, Florell, & Wygant, 2013; Hong, Kral, & Sterzing, 2015; Horrevorts, Monshouwer, Wigman, & Vollerbergh, 2014). Research suggests the length of involvement in bullying behavior can have long-lasting effects on the social and emotional growth of both the perpetrator and the victim. Additionally, these effects will vary depending on the student's pattern of involvement with a bullying group (Bradshaw et al., 2013).

According to some researchers, the bully and bully-victim groups generally manifest the most serious behavioral and mental health problems (Bradshaw et al., 2013; Burton, Florell, & Wygant, 2013; Horrevorts et al., 2014). In particular, the bully-victim is considered the most troubled. Research conducted by Horrevorts et al. (2014) revealed

the bully-victim is aggressive like the bully but has a negative self-image and internalized problems like a victim does. They appear to have the most disturbed personality because of their conflicted self-image. While they feel powerful as a bully they also identify numerous negative characteristics. Yen et al. (2013) found that verbal and relational bullying caused severe physical and social anxiety in the perpetrators while physical bullying had much less effect on social anxiety of the bully but produced a great deal of social anxiety in the victim. Jordan and Austin (2012) disagree that a bully is anxiety-ridden or inherently has low self-esteem. They describe a bully as an adolescent who enjoys inflicting pain on others because they have a need to dominate and overpower their victim.

***Workplace Bullying.*** Students are not the only victims and perpetrators of bullying. Workplace bullying can also occur as an act of violence between student and teacher and between teachers and other administrative colleagues (Nykodym, Patrick, & Ariss, 2014; Samnani & Singh, 2016). A definition of workplace bullying includes negatively affecting someone's ability to complete a work task, harassing, verbally offending, or socially excluding them from workplace events. The bullying must occur on a regular basis over a period of time and result in the victim being forced into an inferior position while being systematically targeted by negative social acts (Samnani & Singh, 2016). Workplace bullying by colleagues can include insults and criticism, unmanageable workloads, removal of responsibilities, and isolation or exclusion. Workplace bullying by students can include threatening behavior, verbal abuse, physical attacks, written threats, or continued disruptive behavior (Martin, Mackenzie, & Healy, 2012; Samnani & Singh, 2016).

A special report on workplace violence from 1993 – 2009, issued by the U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics, collected data from the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) and the Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries (Harrell, 2011). This survey, the most current to date, reports there were approximately 572,000 nonfatal violent assaults occurring in the workplace during 2009. From 2005 through 2009, the total average annual rate of victimization in the workplace was 5.1 victims for every 1000 people employed, age 16 years or older. Among the occupations measured (medical, mental health, teaching, law enforcement, retail sales, and transportation) the average rate of employed victims in the teaching occupation was 8.6 victims per 1000 in middle school and 13.5 victims per 1000 in high school (Harrell, 2011). These statistics, however, can be misleading. In this report, nonfatal violent assaults are described as rape/sexual assault, robbery, and aggravated and simple assault.

Since student violence often includes behavior that is not defined as violent, consideration must be given to a broader definition of violence which includes disruptive acts and other forms of misbehavior. Espelage et al. (2013) defined school violence as behavior that disrupts the educational climate or mission of a school or interferes with the schools intent to be free of drugs, weapons, or any disruption or disorder. Included in this definition were racial profiling, assaults, thefts, hate crimes, as well as verbal threats or gestures, property damage, disrespectful behavior, bullying, and intimidation. A look at the statistics using this definition of violence reveals a much different picture of workplace violence.

According to a national study by the American Psychological Association Task Force on Violence Directed Against Teachers (2011), 80% of teachers who were surveyed reported being victimized at least once during the school year and 94% of those reported they were victimized by a student. More than half of the teachers experienced property offenses like theft or damage, 72.5% reported being harassed, and 44% reported being physically attacked. McMahon et al. (2014) surmise these rates could be underestimated due to how data is collected on certain forms of victimization, principals perspectives of victimization, and student generated victimization.

Most of the current research on teacher victimization is limited to student-teacher victimization and excludes possible victimization by parents, peers, and others in the school setting. Statistics are further affected by limiting the categories of victimization to threats that may only include physical attacks or injury (Martin, Mackenzie, & Healy, 2012; McMahon et al., 2014). Teachers may not report every act of victimization and principals may under-report the number of victimizations since it is in their best interest to portray their school in a positive light (Bester & du Plessis, 2010; McMahon et al., 2014). These apparent omissions suggest data should be gathered based on teachers' actual experiences, multiple perpetrators should be considered when assessing victimization, and all types of aggressive and violent behavior should be considered if a comprehensive picture of teachers' experiences is going to be understood.

**Laws related to school violence.** The school shooting at Columbine, although not the first shooting to occur in school, rocketed school violence to the forefront of consciousness in every parent with a school age child. Suddenly, school violence was not confined to urban schools with high populations of minorities and gangs; instead, it

permeated suburbia and crossed racial and socio-economic boundaries. State law makers rallied to write laws that would make schools safer and the federal government sought to influence state legislation either through the funding of programs or withholding funds for failure to act (Elliott, 2015). Although state and federal laws can be written to provide for school safety, the needs of each school are uniquely determined by the surrounding community. For this reason, policies and practices regarding school safety can be different between the different school districts in a state.

***Federal Legislation.*** The federal government has a history of enacting legislation to encourage states to write their own legislation that will have a positive effect on school safety. Beginning in 1965 with the Elementary and Secondary Education Act signed by then President Johnson, the federal government disbursed the first federal funds to states to encourage equal access to a public education for all children. This act has been reauthorized every five years, most notably in 1994 by President Clinton as the Improving America's Schools Act of 1994, in 2001 by President Bush as the No Child Left Behind Act, and in 2015 by President Obama as the Every Student Succeeds Act. Although the original legislation did not include funds for school safety, subsequent reauthorizations have dangled federal funding as an incentive to state governments to provide for safe and violence free schools.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) is the foundation on which every subsequent reauthorization Act has been built (Gamson, McDermott, & Reed, 2015). The purpose for the ESEA was to ensure the Nation's educationally deprived children had an equal opportunity to receive a quality education. Consisting of several Titles, Title 1 is by far the most important part of ESEA and receives the most funding

still today. Title I provided funds to districts with a high percentage of low-income families who then distributed the money to qualifying schools. It also provided funds for migrant families and for at risk youth who were in intervention programs because of abuse or neglect. The goal of Title 1 was to bridge the educational opportunity gap for the nation's poor while decreasing dropout rates and improving schools (Gamson, McDermott, & Reed, 2015). The ESEA provided funding for books, libraries, Supplemental Education Centers, and educational research and development. It did not, however, provide funding for school safety programs since there was no identified need for the prevention of school violence at the time of the original legislation.

In 1994, President Clinton reauthorized the ESEA and renamed it the Improving America's School Act (IASA) of 1994. As a part of this reauthorization, Title IV funds were to be allocated to state and local programs for the Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act (SDFSCA) to implement drug and violence prevention programs. The IASA directed the Secretary of Education to establish competitive grants for eligible, local education agencies who developed projects that produced safe, violence-free schools (McGuinn, 2015; Pankratz & Hallfors, 2004). For the first time, schools were held accountable for meeting violence and drug free objectives by providing measureable results. Providing statistical results would not only appease the public who had growing concerns about youth violence, it would also provide documentation that states were spending the funds appropriately (Simons-Rudolph et al., 2003).

The Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act was not the only school safety act that was signed as part of the ESEA reauthorization under President Clinton. Due to the rise in youth gun violence as a result of the increased drug trafficking, there

was also an increase in school violence from the 1980s to early 1990s (Blumstein, 2002; Gass & Laughter, 2015; Rocque, 2012). Youth violence appeared to have reached epidemic proportions and the public was looking for substantial action (Blumstein, 2002). As a part of the Improving America's Schools Act of 1994, Congress passed the Gun-free School Act (GFSA) which required each state receiving federal funds to have state laws that explicitly outlined punishment for violators. Local school districts were required to expel any student who brought a gun to school for a period of no less than one year, with zero tolerance or exceptions (Castillo, 2014; Gage, Sugai, Lunde, & DeLoreto, 2013; Skiba, 2013). The GFSA also required schools to refer the student to the juvenile or criminal justice system, a process that became known as the school-to-prison pipeline (Castillo, 2014), which was fueled by zero tolerance policies.

The policy of zero tolerance was first supported in the 1980s by First Lady Nancy Reagan after 40 sailors were caught using drugs on a submarine in Virginia. Standing with the Secretary of the Navy, the First Lady showed her support for the zero tolerance policy which helped propel it forward for use in other areas (Skiba, 2013). In 1986, President Reagan introduced zero tolerance legislation to combat the drug problem in schools but the bill was not supported by Congress (Skiba, 2013). Soon after signing of the Gun-Free Schools Act in 1994, school districts extended the policy to include not only guns, but drugs, weapons, tobacco, and any behavior that was unsafe or disruptive including truancy and fighting (Castillo, 2014; Gage, Sugai, Lunde, & DeLoreto, 2013; Skiba, 2013). The public demand for action to contain the surge of violent youth referred to in the media as super predators, had resulted in a policy that encompassed more than the original intent of the legislation. During the 1996-1997 academic years, according to

the National Center for Education Statistics, 91 percent of public schools had imposed a policy of zero tolerance for weapons that were not firearms, 88 percent for drug related offenses, 87 percent for alcohol related offenses, and 79 percent for tobacco related offenses. For violence related offenses, 79 percent of schools had imposed zero tolerance (Castillo, 2014). The focus of the original ESEA – to ensure an equal opportunity for all children to have access to a quality education – was now covered up by the need to provide violence free schools. The 2001 reauthorization would refocus the nation’s schools so they addressed not only safe schools but academically successful schools as well.

President Bush reauthorized the ESEA under the title No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB). Believed to be one of the most significant pieces of legislature to affect education in decades, the NCLB held schools accountable for yearly academic gains and required all students to be on grade level in math and reading by the year 2014 (Husband & Hunt, 2015; Jennings & Lauen, 2016). The NCLB also required states to identify any schools that are considered dangerous in order to provide students the opportunity to transfer to a safe school. A school is considered dangerous based on the state’s own definition of safety-related incidents, typically a weapons violation or violent incident. Data collected on these incidents over a two or three year period were used to determine whether or not the school should be considered persistently dangerous (Hutton & Bailey, 2008). A safe school was defined as one that made adequate yearly progress and was not considered persistently dangerous. Additionally, students who were victims of a violent crime were allowed the opportunity to transfer to a different school within the district (Hutton & Bailey).



Besides the provisions for weapons and violent incidents, the NCLB also reauthorized the Safe and Drug-Free School and Communities Act (SDFSCA). This Act held schools accountable for reducing violent and drug-related crimes through the implementation of evidence-based curricula available from a national registry (Pankratz & Hallfors, 2004; Ringwalt et al., 2011). Schools were required to generate performance standards based on a self-assessment of student-violence incidents and then monitor their progress toward meeting the standards (Hutton & Bailey, 2008). By the year 2016, schools in all 50 states and Washington D.C. had procedures established to monitor student violence with regard to bullying (Hinduja & Patchin, 2016). Variations in state legislation, however, could be misleading when considering reported violence since only 23 states have legislation that includes cyberbullying while 48 states include electronic harassment. Additionally, 18 states have legislated criminal sanctions, 45 have included school sanctions, and 14 have included off campus behaviors (Hinduja & Patchin, 2016).

Under the SDSFSCA, schools are required to report on the frequency, seriousness and type of incident leading to suspensions or expulsions of students as a result of violence or drug use (Losen, 2011). Since there is no requirement set forth in the Act itself, states are not required to report annually nor are they required to report on lesser offenses. Most states, however, have passed legislation to regulate school programs. One of the most well-known early interventions programs, Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E.), proved to be ineffective and was removed from the approved list of federal programs (West & O'Neal, 2004). In order to maintain federal funding, states had to select a training program from a list of approved programs maintained by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (Caputi, 2015). In the state of

Colorado, D.A.R.E. has been replaced by local programs like Cops in the Classroom in Boulder, CO schools, and Safe2Tell and Text-a-Tip in many other districts (Blad, 2014).

The University of Colorado, Boulder, received a four-year, 6.2 million dollar grant from the National Institute of Justice to evaluate the Safe Communities Safe Schools (SCSS) model. This model, designed for middle school students, intends to reduce youth violence and increase appropriate social behavior through a multidisciplinary school and community partnership. Data will be collected regarding school climate, attendance, bullying, mental health issues, violence and victimization, and discipline. The goal of the program is to help students recognize their emotions and manage them in a positive way. It will help students develop positive relationships and make good decisions while avoiding negative behaviors. The program is also designed to help teachers and other school staff members develop the skills to cope with their own reactions and reduce stress. The SCSS model is supposed to begin with eight schools and add an additional eight schools each year. Another part of the program, Safe2Tell, will be funded by the State and run by the Colorado Attorney General's Office, allowing students to make anonymous reports of anything they feel is threatening (Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence, n.d.).

Some students cannot protect themselves or assert their rights when they feel threatened so, in 1975, the federal government provided funding for the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act which has been reauthorized many times, most recently in 2004 (Hutton & Bailey, 2007; Rossignol & Paasche-Orlow, 2012). According to O'Shea and Drayden (2008) the 2004 reauthorization provided new requirements regarding discipline of students with disabilities and simplified procedures when school disciplinary

codes were broken. Changes included allowing school personnel to consider a change of placement based on a case-by-case basis after review of the student's individualized education plan (IEP) and a determination by the IEP team, parents, and local education agency. There are provisions for conducting a functional behavior assessment and implementing a behavioral intervention plan based on whether or not the behavior was a manifestation of the child's disability. A new standard was added that allowed school personnel to remove a student if they inflicted serious bodily injury to another student, or any school personnel, without regard to whether the behavior was a manifestation of the child's disability. Serious bodily injury was defined as any injury that involved a risk of death, extreme physical pain or disfigurement, or loss or impairment of any limb, organ, or mental ability. The school could remove the child for not more than 45 days to an interim facility until determination for permanent removal or return to school was made by a hearing officer. If it is determined that the act of school violence is not a manifestation of the student's disability then the student is subject to the same disciplinary action that a student without a disability would be subjected to. Furthermore, the local education agency can request local law enforcement intervention that has the ability, through legal proceedings, to remove the student for longer than 45 days (O'Shea & Drayden, 2008).

***Supreme Court Rulings.*** There is a modicum of recent Supreme Court rulings with regard to school behavior, most dealing with First Amendment rights to free speech or Fourth Amendment rights preventing the illegal search and seizure of a student or their belongings. These rulings addressed the use of drugs or cigarettes on school property and did not pertain to student violence against another student or school staff member. One

recent case, however, decided by the Oregon Supreme Court of Appeals, upheld a lower court ruling regarding the Fourth Amendment rights of one student who had threatened the life of another student. In 2013, the Oregon Supreme Court of Appeals upheld the juvenile court's ruling that the school principal was justified in searching the student's backpack since he had threatened to bring a gun to school and kill another student. The principal found .45 caliber shells and a semiautomatic hand gun in the student's backpack and the student was arrested. The student maintained the threat no longer existed once the principal had taken possession of the backpack and therefore the search and seizure was in violation of his Fourth Amendment rights. The court ruled the principal had acted appropriately to safeguard not only the student who had been threatened but other unidentified students who may have also been threatened (Davis, 2016). The U.S. Supreme Court and some state supreme courts have agreed the school setting is a special circumstance.

In a 1985 ruling by the U.S. Supreme Court in *New Jersey v. T.L.O.*, the court ruled the Fourth Amendment protections for illegal search and seizure applied to both students and school officials. However, since school officials are in a unique position of ensuring there is an appropriate environment for learning to take place, school officials need only meet a reasonableness standard to maintain safety in the school. The reasonableness standard is less stringent than the probable cause standard required by police allowing school officials to conduct a search if they suspect the search will result in proof the student violated a school rule (Davis, 2016). Ten years later the Supreme Court ruled in favor of the school district again in *Veronia School District v. Acton* when student athletes were required to participate in random drug testing. The Court found that

students have a decreased expectation of privacy in public school than in other places and since they voluntarily participated in the sport, there was no violation of Fourth Amendment rights (Davis, 2016).

A recent change in Colorado law has made school districts liable for any act of violence resulting in injury to any student while on school property or during school-sponsored activities (DiRenzo, 2016). In December 2013, at Arapaho High School in Centennial, Colorado, Claire Davis was shot in the head by another student wielding a shotgun and Molotov cocktails. She died eight days later from her injuries (Torres, 2013). The Claire Davis School Safety Act was signed into law after Claire's parents lobbied for change to the Colorado Sovereign Immunity Act so that a claim could be brought against a school district if a student committed murder, first degree assault, or felony sexual assault that resulted in serious bodily injury to another student (DiRenzo, 2016). Serious bodily injury is defined as any injury that involves a risk of death, permanent physical impairment, or loss/impairment of any organ. Before July 2017, the Claire Davis Act allows students and their families to sue for discovery meaning the school district must release any information they had concerning prior notice of the possible act of violence and whether or not they took necessary precautions. After July 2017, students and families can sue for discovery and monetary compensation. Some lawmakers believe the law is beneficial for holding the school districts accountable while others believe it will be ineffective in thwarting serious acts of violence (DiRenzo, 2016). Although the Supreme Court has not rendered many decisions regarding school violence, the decisions that have been handed down have been instrumental in guiding the development of school policies that address safety and violence (Yell & Rozalski, 2008).

*Policing in public schools.* Each time there has been a high profile school shooting the media has stirred public opinion to the point of demanding legislative action to provide better protection for students and school staff (Chrusciel, Wolfe, Hansen, Rojek, & Kaminski, 2015; Morrow, Vickovic, Dario, & Fradella, 2016). After the Columbine shooting in 1999, there was an increase in support for stricter gun laws, reinforcing school security, and tougher disciplinary policies for students who violated school rules (Swartz, Osborne, Dawson-Edwards, & Higgins, 2015). Schools were afforded the opportunity to employ safety and security measures deemed appropriate for their school and community. Some of these measures included locking doors and restricting access during school hours, the use of metal detectors, video surveillance, instructional programs, and changing the school climate (Chrusciel et al., 2015; Crawford & Burns, 2015).

Another wide spread security measure was the increased use of school resource officers (SROs) which began in the mid-1990s when school violence was heightened by the influx of drugs in schools (Rhodes, 2015; Swartz, Osborne, Dawson-Edwards, & Higgins, 2015). SROs are sworn police officers who are stationed in schools or on school property. The original intent was for an SRO to have a three-tiered job description behaving as a teacher, counselor, and law enforcement officer (Schlosser, 2014; Swartz et al., 2015). Research indicates the majority of SROs perceive themselves as law enforcement officers and less than half teach classes on crime prevention or drugs (Rhodes, 2015; Schlosser, 2014). This conflict of roles raises concerns that students will be criminalized for acts of violence and the consequences will be based on criminal justice as opposed to school enforcement rules (McKenna & Pollock, 2014; Rhodes,

2015; Swartz et al., 2015). Although available research is conflicted regarding the effectiveness of SROs as a deterrent to school violence, many teachers, students, and administrators feel their presence makes a difference. The perception that SROs are effective in promoting school safety is justification enough for many districts to continue the relationship with local law enforcement agencies (McKenna & Pollock, 2014; Swartz et al., 2015). Since it appears SROs will continue as a part of the school safety plan, it is important that effective communication occur between school administrators and local law enforcement.

Theriot and Cuellar (2016) identified several important steps to ensure a successful relationship between school administrators and the SRO. The first should be to include school administrators in the hiring of the SRO since the individual will be working in their school environment. Any training the SRO is required to attend with regard to school duties should also be attended by an administrator to allow both parties to understand what is required. The SRO should be adequately supervised and should receive written feedback throughout the year. Theriot and Cuellar (2016) also recommended regularly scheduled meetings to review expectations and confirm activities carried out during the school day. With regard to discipline of students, written documents outlining the responsibility of the SRO and school administrators should include the protection of student rights to due process with the exception of situations imposing an immediate threat (Theriot & Cuellar, 2016). The documents should include an expectation that SROs would be held to the same legal standards as their counterparts outside the school environment and they should include clear instructions on who can make the decision to arrest a student. Since the SROs authority will supersede a school

administrator's authority only when a federal law is violated, it is important to include a distinction between a disciplinary matter and a delinquent act (Theriot & Cuellar, 2016).

In February, 2013, in Denver, Colorado, youth leaders from the organization *Padres y Jovenes Unidos* (Parents and Young People United) negotiated an Intergovernmental Agreement (IGA) between the Denver Police Department and Denver Public Schools. In an effort to end the school-to-prison pipeline, the youth and parent group negotiated specific language that clarifies and limits the role of SROs, protects students' rights to due process, requires regular meetings between the community and SROs, and requires training for school administrators and SROs on the best ways to deal with youth issues in school (Advancement Project, 2013). This document is considered an excellent example of a formal written agreement that outlines the specific roles and expectations for both school administrators and the school resource officer (Theriot & Cuellar, 2016).

**Summary of school violence definitions.** The definition of school violence varies according to research. Since violence occurs along a continuum from minor (name calling for example) to heinous (like mass shootings) it is not always clear what constitutes violence. An appropriate definition includes any willful act that disrupts the learning environment both inside and outside the classroom. The occurrence of school violence can be traced back to historical times when children routinely carried guns and threatened their teachers up through recent history when elementary school children were killed in Connecticut. It is difficult to assess the extent of violent incidents in school since researchers and statisticians alike use different definitions of violence. Violence can be perpetrated by individuals other than students although the majority of available literature



discusses students as the responsible party. Other individuals who are reported as both perpetrator and victim are parents, teachers, school administrators and members of the school community. Although the federal government has attempted to influence state policies regarding school violence by providing funds for specific programs, states have interpreted federal regulations according to their needs which has resulted in varied applications of federal requirements. The fact that student violence is interpreted differently in state and local laws underscore the importance of understanding student violence and the effect it has on student and teachers.

### **Teacher Victimization**

In 2010 the American Psychological Association (APA) published the APA Classroom Violence Directed Against Teachers Task Force Report which stated teacher victimization had risen to epidemic proportions and required immediate attention from researchers, pre-service and in-service teacher training programs, school administrators, community members, and state and federal lawmakers (Espelage et al., 2013). According to McMahon et al. (2011) annual reporting of teacher victimization is contained in the School Crime and Safety Report which collects data from teachers, students, and principals via national surveys. Since the data collected is specific to victimization by students it underrepresents the possibility of victimization by other individuals like peers, parents, and school administration. Additionally, the data could be misleading from the principal's perspective since not all teachers report being victimized and because the principal is going to represent his/her school in the most positive light (McMahon et al., 2011). In order to completely understand the extent to which a teacher is victimized, how and by whom, it will be necessary to survey teachers about their experiences. Gaining

insight into teacher victimization will allow a better understanding of how other students are victimized and how it affects the school and the community as a whole.

**Scope of teacher victimization.** Annual reports of school and student violence are compiled by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and disseminated by The Bureau of Justice Statistics under the title Indicators of School Crime and Safety (Zhang, Musu-Gillette, & Oudekerk, 2016). The most recent data from the 2011-2012 school years indicates 9% of teachers reported being threatened with injury by a student from their school while 3% reported being a victim of a physical attack by a student (Zhang et al., 2016). Ten percent of elementary teachers, during the same school year, reported being physically attacked while the total for public school teachers was 6% compared to 3% for private school teachers (Zhang et al., 2016)). Data from the NCES report for the 2007-2008 school years indicates 10% of teachers in city schools reported being threatened with bodily injury compared to 7% of teachers in suburban schools and 6% of teachers in rural schools (Robers, Zhang, Truman, & Snyder, 2012). Physical attacks were reported by 5% of teachers in urban schools, 4% of suburban teachers, and 3% of all rural teachers (Robers et al., 2012). As previously stated, McMahon et al. (2011) suggested data regarding teacher victimization may not be accurate because of variations in the definition of what constitutes student violence. A comprehensive survey of teachers would be the most accurate way to obtain information regarding violence against teachers.

Using teacher unions, state education associations, and anyone else who supported the project, surveys were distributed to K-12 teachers in both public and private schools. The survey was available from January through May, although two

additional solicitation letters were sent before 4735 surveys were received by the end of May. The largest majority of respondents, 93.5%, reported they worked in public schools with 30.5% working in urban schools, 35.3% teaching in suburban schools, 15.9% in small urban schools, and 18.3% in rural schools (McMahon et al., 2011).

Survey questions were developed by the APA Classroom Violence Directed Against Teachers Task force as well as previous studies on violence against teachers. Teachers were asked if they had experienced any of the eleven different types of victimization: obscene remarks, obscene gestures, verbal threats, intimidation, cyber/internet violence, theft of personal property, damage to personal property, objects thrown, physical attack not resulting in a visit to a physician, physical attack resulting in a visit to a physician, and if they had ever had a weapon pulled on them. The victimization categories were grouped into three broader categories for ease of reporting including harassment, property offenses, and physical offenses. If teachers responded they had experienced a particular type of victimization then they were asked who perpetrated the violence. If they had not experienced the victimization they could respond that it did not happen (McMahon et al., 2011).

Results indicated 50.9% of respondents had experienced at least one type of violence during the current or previous year of teaching. Nearly half reported they experienced harassment offenses, one-third experienced property offenses, over one-quarter experienced physical attacks and one in five teachers reported experiencing victimization in all three categories (McMahon et al., 2011). Those teachers who experienced victimization also indicated the type of perpetrator with 47.9% reporting they were victimized by students, 18.9% were victimized by parents, and 10.6% were

victimized by colleagues, while victimization by strangers (4.1%) and others (4.4%) was much lower. The survey also found that nearly half of the teachers who reported being victimized were victimized by more than one type of perpetrator. Additionally, gender victimization revealed male teachers reported higher rates of physical victimizations while female teachers experienced higher rates of intimidation. Data reported in this survey is consistent with previous research that suggests there is a gender difference in victimization (McMahon et al., 2011). Racial differences also occurred with African American teachers reporting lower rates of victimization and higher rates of victimization occurring in lower socio-economic communities and communities where there is a higher concentration of African American residents. One reason cited for this disparity is that teachers are not usually hired from the same communities where they teach so teacher demographics and student demographics would differ. There were higher rates of victimization in urban areas compared to small urban or rural areas although all three types of communities experienced teacher victimization in each category (McMahon et al., 2011).

Findings from this extensive survey support the claim made by McMahon et al. (2011) that data from NCES may not be accurate with regard to teacher victimization. A web-based survey conducted by the American Psychological Association Task Force on Violence Directed Against Teachers, and responded to by 2,998 K-12 teachers from 48 states, reported teachers being victimized at least once during the current or previous year and of those victimized, 94% were victimized by students (Espelage et al., 2013). The cost of teacher victimization is estimated to be over two billion annually which is a significant amount for taxpayers (Kajs, Schumacher, & Vital, 2014). The costs of teacher

victimization include, but are not limited to, lost wages, increased workman compensation payments due to medical and psychological care, payment for substitute teachers, litigation costs, lost instructional time and productivity, negative publicity for the school, and negative academic achievement and behavioral outcomes for the student (Espelage et al., 2013; Reddy, 2014). The indications are teacher victimization is more widespread and occurs at a greater rate than previous research reveals.

Reddy et al. (2013) conducted a comprehensive search of peer-reviewed journals that included empirical findings related to teacher victimization between 1988 and 2013. They found a total of 21 studies, nine of which came from the U.S. and 12 from international journals. These studies reported similar findings with regard to the type of victimization and the demographics of the teachers responding. The most prevalent type of victimization was verbal abuse and teachers were predominantly white women with 10 years or more experience teaching. The McMahon et al. (2011) study uniquely applied a very broad definition to student violence which provided a better estimate of the types and frequency of teacher victimization for a large U. S. sample. The lack of research data available using a broad definition of teacher victimization is a clear indicator of the need for additional research.

**Effects of teacher victimization.** The exposure of teachers to student violence negatively impacts both the teacher and the school. Stress and burnout are the two most prevalent results of teacher victimization. Stress can cause both physical and emotional effects that lead to anxiety, depression, somatization, and job dissatisfaction which lead to burnout and attrition (Espelage et al., 2013; Moon, Morash, Jang, & Jeong, 2015; Oteer, 2015; Reddy et al., 2013). Some research delineates between stress and burnout

since some people thrive with stress while others become overwhelmed and incapable of coping (Brunsting, Sreckovic, & Lane, 2014). Schonfeld & Feinman (2012) identified student interruptions, not paying attention, disruptive behavior, and confronting the teacher as significant classroom stressors. Work-related stress has been recognized as one of the most serious occupational health hazards reducing job satisfaction and increasing absenteeism (Curry & O'Brien, 2012; Oteer, 2015). Most research indicates stress leads to burnout which occurs when teachers who are under continuous stress over a period of time begin to experience emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, job dissatisfaction, and negative attitudes towards people he/she works with (Brunsting et al., 2014; Curry & Obrien, 2012). Johnson and Naidoo (2017) describe burnout as a disability that leads to job performance well below standards and without intervention leads to exit from the profession.

There is a consensus in research that burnout occurs along a continuum that begins with emotional exhaustion, moves to depersonalization, and ends with reduced personal accomplishment or efficacy (Denton, Chaplin, & Wall, 2013; Hoglund, Klinge, & Hosun, 2015). Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally drained by job-related demands and is usually the first symptom to appear along the burnout continuum. Depersonalization refers to a negative or callous detachment from peers and colleagues resulting in reduced emotional involvement in a professional context usually as a response to emotional exhaustion. Decreased personal accomplishment occurs last and refers to a decline in one's confidence to successfully perform job-related tasks accompanied by a profound sense of inadequacy (Denton et al., 2013; Gastaldi, Pasta, Longobardi, Prino, & Quaglia, 2014; Hoglund et al., 2015). These three components are

part of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) which is widely used to evaluate burnout. In 1986, the MBI-Educator Survey (MBI-ES) was developed to measure burnout in educators (Denton et al., 2013; Hoglund et al., 2015). Although this model measures the components individually they are considered interrelated. Emotional exhaustion is a critical first component because it affects depersonalization which in turn affects personal accomplishments (Denton et al., 2013; Hoglund et al., 2015).

There is support for the relationship between student violence and the symptoms relating to teacher burnout. Galand, Lecocq, and Philippot (2007) report that student inattention and disrespect, along with repeated verbal victimization, can lead to teacher emotional exhaustion, the first step in burnout as described by Denton et al. (2013) and Hoglund et al. (2014). They also found that teachers who become disengaged did so because of a perceived lack of support from administration with regards to student violence. Teachers who felt disengaged also felt they were not able to sustain the academic interest or motivation of their students which is a similar characteristic of the depersonalization element in the description of teacher burnout (Galand et al., 2007). Teachers who felt emotionally exhausted and disengaged from their role as educators found themselves unable to support the safety and academic growth of their students. Instead, they suffered from physical and emotional effects which included anxiety, depression, and somatic symptoms which lead to reduced personal accomplishment manifested by premature retirement (Mojsa-Kaja, Golonka, & Marek, 2015).

The effects of teacher burnout on students, the school, and society are multifaceted. The disengagement that occurs as part of teacher burnout often results in increased student violence and decreased student academic achievement (Galand et al.,

2007). Teachers no longer have the passion or desire to engage their students because of their lack of confidence in their instruction which results in student misbehavior and lower academic achievement (Brunsting, Srekovic, & Lane, 2014; Hoglund et al., 2014). The school system is also affected when teacher burnout leads to attrition since they must absorb the costs to recruit, hire, and train new teachers as well as pay for substitutes until new teachers can be hired (Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wycoff, 2013). For these reasons it is obvious that necessary steps to obviate teacher burnout is beneficial on multiple levels.

**Preventive measures for teacher burnout.** Since teacher burnout has become a growing concern, researchers have postulated different methods to cope with the symptoms of burnout with the objective of averting teacher attrition. Some research indicates that by reducing the initial stress a teacher feels, later symptoms of burnout - depersonalization and reduced self-efficacy – will be minimized or wiped out completely (Ingersoll, 2001; Lambert, McCarthy, Fitchett, Lineback, & Reiser, 2015). Other research suggests teacher well-being and professional disengagement will improve with increased administrative support for student violence (Galand et al., 2007). Even more research suggests the usefulness of identifying personality characteristics that would make one teacher more susceptible to burnout than other teachers. This would allow school administration to focus on those teachers who required the most intervention and support (Moja-Kaja et al., 2015; Williams & Ernst, 2016).

Lambert et al. (2015) used data from the 2000 and 2008 National Center for Education Statistics Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and the Classroom Appraisal of Resources and Demands (CARD) for local elementary teachers to measure the effects of classroom demands versus resources on the stress level of elementary teachers. SASS



data has been previously used to demonstrate that teacher job satisfaction is related to attrition (Ingersoll, 2001). In the Lambert study, CARD data was compared to similar questions from the SASS questionnaire to determine if findings from the CARD data would match national findings from the SASS data. If they did this would validate the connection found between teacher stress and intentions to leave the profession. Lambert et al. (2015) found there were no differences between the national SASS data and the local CARD data. Teachers who perceived a greater demand on their time and attention due to student behavior also felt a greater sense of stress and increased feelings of leaving the profession. The study also showed these feelings were exacerbated in schools with high levels of minority students and a high percentage of students in low socioeconomic groups (Lambert et al., 2015). Recommendations to alleviate teacher stress included administrative attention to teachers' perceived classroom demands as well as acknowledging which teachers are more at risk for occupational dissatisfaction. If administrators are more aware of which teachers are vulnerable then they can allocate resources to help facilitate a more stable classroom environment and reduce teacher stress (Lambert et al., 2015).

There is research available that considers going beyond a stable classroom for reducing teacher stress and considers strong school administrative support and supportive collegial relationships. Galand et al. (2007) found that teachers who felt isolated from their peers were at a greater risk for experiencing student victimization and feeling anxious, depressed, or disengaged. Teachers who experienced positive support from leadership and had a good relationship with their colleagues had a greater sense of well-being which reduced the effects of negative events that cause stress and lead to

disengagement (Galand et al., 2007). The effect of supportive relationships from administration and colleagues is further evidence of the interrelationship between the school's multi-levels that are necessary to ensure teacher success.

Individual teacher characteristics can also be used to determine how well a teacher can handle a stressful situation. In a study by Williams and Ernst (2016) data from the National Center for Education Statistics Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) for 2011-2012 were used to construct a national profile of teachers who reported being attacked in the previous 12 months. The SASS is actually comprised of five different questionnaires: school, school district, principal, teacher, and school media center. The SASS provides data on teacher and principal characteristics and qualifications, hiring practices, teacher professional development, class sizes, and other information that provides a comprehensive view of elementary and secondary schools in the U.S. (William & Ernst, 2016). The SASS Teacher Questionnaire (SASS-TQ) was used by William and Ernst to study both full and part-time elementary and secondary public school teachers. They intentionally selected questions that have been used in previous literature to study teacher stress levels, retention, and job satisfaction. Their research found the characteristics for a teacher most likely to be attacked are white (88%), female (85.1%), worked in a public elementary school (71.6%), had less than three years of experience (16.5%), and taught in an urban district (42.6%). These findings suggest teachers should receive professional development that focuses on student behavior management and crisis prevention, especially for teachers who have been in the profession less than three years (William & Ernst, 2016).

Personality variables as a determinant of teacher burnout have received very little attention in research. Mojsa-Kaja et al. (2015) studied the relationship between teacher burnout and the psychobiological model of personality and positive and negative affectivity. They studied 300 Polish teachers who had been teaching for an average of 14.4 years with an average age of 40.5 years. The study measured the six different areas of work life: work load, control of the classroom, reward, community, fairness, and values. They found that participants who experienced burnout perceived a higher level of incongruity between themselves and the workload, control of the classroom, rewards, and community fairness (Mojsa-Kaja et al., 2015). To prevent burnout they suggest strengthening personality protective factors that would lead to increased engagement and a lower risk of burnout. Another suggestion was to reduce the workload, defined as the relationship between work demands and the time and resources needed to accomplish the work (Mojsa-Kaja et al., 2015). Mojsa-Kaja et al. suggest being able to recognize and understand the six areas of person-job mismatch to allow for different options to interrupt the symptoms of burnout.

### **Teacher Pre-Service and In-Service Training**

The previous section discusses the effects of teacher victimization with regard to stress and burnout. It elaborates on how teacher disengagement affects student academic achievement and behavior since the negative effect of burnout changes the school climate as well as relationships between teacher and student. Also discussed were the individual teacher characteristics that could be identified as triggers of stress and burnout and ways to control them to avoid the escalation from stress to burnout. The next logical consideration is the training teachers receive both pre-service and in-service to cope with

and address student violence. Unfortunately, current training leaves teachers feeling underprepared to properly handle student violence in their classrooms.

**The inadequacy of teacher pre-service and in-service training.** The research on teachers' perceptions of student violence and teacher burnout suggests teachers do not feel adequately prepared to handle student violence and diversity issues when they enter the field (Banks, 2015; Lin, Lake, & Rice, 2008). Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan, noted approximately 62% of new teachers felt underprepared to enter the classroom (Banks, 2015). This is supported by research that confirms feelings of teacher inadequacy that are compounded by a lack of training to teach children from different language backgrounds and different cultural backgrounds (Banks, 2015; Lin et al., 2008; Oh & Nussli, 2014). The under preparation of new teachers extends even further to a lack of preparation in violence prevention tactics that should be a part of the pre-service preparation programs (Craig, Bell, & Leschied, 2011).

In a 2009 study by Sela-Shayovitz, 147 participants responded to an anonymous questionnaire regarding their experiences with violence prevention training. Of the participants, 82% were full time teachers and 18% were pre-service graduate students who had the opportunity to teach in a full time position during their final year of teacher training. The results of the questionnaire revealed 41.4% of the respondents had received school violence prevention training while the remaining 58.6% had not been exposed to any violence training. The goal of the study was to compare the relationship between violence prevention training and the teacher's self-efficacy in dealing with violence. Based on the results, teachers who received violence prevention training had a positive

outcome when dealing with student violence whereas teachers who did not receive training reported lower levels of self-efficacy (Sela-Shayovitz, 2009).

Craig, Bell, and Leschied (2011) conducted a study of 160 Canadian students who had already received an undergraduate degree but were continuing their education in a specialized one-year program to enter the teaching profession. The focus of the study was to assess the pre-service teacher's definition and knowledge of bullying as well as their concerns and commitment to a violence-free school. It also considered previous violence prevention training the teacher had received and their confidence in implementing violence prevention strategies (Craig et al., 2011).

According to the results, teachers who had received violence prevention training prior to entering the specialized Faculty of Education program had more confidence in dealing with bullying situations. Teachers who had not received any training reported feeling underprepared to respond to bullying incidents (Craig et al., 2011). These findings support existing literature that suggests teacher pre-service training programs are not adequately preparing new teachers to handle student violence (Banks, 2015; Kandakai & King, 2002; Sela-Shayovitz, 2009).

With the increased diversity in the classroom, some researchers believe pre-service training should focus on teaching diverse student populations so teachers are better prepared to handle situations that arise in the classroom (Banks, 2015; Lucas & Frazier, 2014; Rose, Swearer, & Espelage, 2012). Several researchers have found classroom diversification is occurring at a significant rate worldwide (Tileman, den Brok, Bolhuis, & Vallejo, 2012; van Middlekoop, Ballafkih, & Meerman, 2017). In the United States, although the population of public school students is becoming more diversified,

the majority of the teacher population has continued to be white, middle-class, English speaking females (Oh & Nussli, 2014). If this trend continues, new teachers will require the skills to effectively teach a population that no longer resembles their own culture.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) 2016 report, *The Condition of Education 2016*, from the fall of 2003 to the fall of 2013, enrollment of White students in public elementary and secondary schools decreased from 28.4 million to 25.2 million with a decrease from 59 percent to 50 percent (Kena et al., 2016). The number of Hispanic students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools increased from 9.0 million to 12.5 million, an increase from 19 percent to 25 percent (Kena et al., 2016). There are no signs of abatement for these trends. Conversely, by the year 2025, the White student population is expected to continue to decline to 46% while there is an expected increase in Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Native Alaskan public school students (Kena et al., 2016). These trends point to the importance of pre-service and in-service professional development for public school teachers. Recent research has revealed teachers recognize they are inadequately prepared to teach students whose language and culture differ from their own (Banks, 2015). Traditional teacher training programs will have to consider implementing new strategies to properly prepare teachers for the increased diversity of public school students.

**Teacher training for positive classroom outcomes.** There is no consensus on the best program for training teachers to handle student violence. Some researchers have indicated the student teacher portion of pre-service training needs to be more meaningful (Banks, 2015; Black, Noltemeyer, Davis, & Schwartz, 2016). According to Banks (2015) student teacher internships do not foster skill development or mastery of skills learned in

the classroom. Advisement from the Blue Ribbon Panel on Clinical Preparation and Partnership for Improved Student Learning (the Panel) is to make classroom experiences the core of teacher preparation programs rather than academic coursework (Banks, 2015). By comparing the classroom experiences of student teachers to the residency completed by medical students, the Panel justifies the need for in-depth and diverse classroom experiences to generate highly qualified and confident teachers (Banks, 2015).

According to a study by Eckert (2013), students in high-risk, low-socioeconomic urban schools are generally taught by the least experienced teachers. Students in these schools generally deal with gang violence or gang affiliation, have some of the lowest test scores on standardized testing, and are more inclined to drop out or experience a teen pregnancy (Banks, 2015). Since teachers are not prepared to work in these urban environments, half will leave the profession within the first five years citing classroom intrusions, student violent behavior, and lack of administrative and parental support as the primary reasons (Banks, 2015; Callahan, 2016; Espelage et al., 2013; Moon, Morash, Jang, & Jeong, 2015; Oteer, 2015; Reddy et al., 2013). According to Allen (2013) the first teaching position a graduate enters has the most influence on their ideas of retention and attrition. Their first job is where they have the opportunity to practice what they have learned and begin the task of learning how to teach. When a new teacher is placed in a high-risk urban school there is no time to develop the skills that affect student learning, the teacher becomes disillusioned and leaves the profession (Allen, 2013; Zhang & Zeller, 2016). Once a teacher leaves, the district must go through the process of hiring another teacher, usually another new teacher, and the cycle repeats itself. This kind of revolving door philosophy is detrimental to student academic achievement since they are

continually exposed to the least experienced teachers (Allen, 2013; Zhang & Zeller, 2016).

Teacher training and preparation must be viewed along a continuum instead of a divisive split between pre-service and in-service education. According to the Blue Ribbon Panel on Clinical Preparation and Partnership for Improved Student Learning, both higher education officials and district and local school leaders must work together across the continuum. Recognizing this continuum begins with learning, moves through recruitment, and continues with staff development paints a clearer picture that responsibility for teacher success does not end with graduation or begin with their first job. In fact, numerous studies have shown it takes over two years for new teachers to develop the skills necessary to impact student learning and from three to seven years to gain enough experience to be considered highly qualified (Allen, 2013; Callahan, 2016). If teachers are leaving before the five year point then retaining highly qualified teachers for the classroom becomes a significant, costly issue.

One of the most effective ways to support new teachers is to partner them with seasoned teachers, or mentors. A new surgeon straight out of residency would not be allowed to operate on the President so it is unreasonable to expect new teachers to be ready to handle a classroom, especially a high risk classroom, without guidance. Kent, Green, and Feldman (2012) stated mentoring is a responsibility that should be welcomed by the school since it will help ensure a new teacher stays long enough to make a difference. Although not every teacher should be retained, the attrition rate of new teachers can be reduced with proper preparation. It is equally important to ensure the



mentor has received the most up to date training so they can be an effective partner in the maturing process (Callahan, 2016).

Banks (2015) discusses the highly effective Boston and Chicago teacher residency programs that are paradigms of effective teacher preparation. These programs are based off seven principles that demonstrate the continuum between higher learning organizations and schools that are considered necessary for successful teacher preparation: 1) classroom practice and theoretical education should be blended in a yearlong residency; 2) pair the new teacher with a well-trained, paid mentor; 3) ensure the new teacher is a member of a professional learning community; 4) develop partnerships between the school and the community; 5) be aware of the school's curricula requirements and approaches to instruction as well as their need for new teachers; 6) support candidates several years beyond their hiring date; and 7) reward and retain successful teachers through incentives. Although these programs go beyond expectations, they acknowledge the Panel's suggestion that a clinical residency is necessary for the success of new teachers and on-going professional development is necessary for seasoned teachers.

### **Summary**

Student violence has been described as a serious health crisis that deserves the attention of the public and of researchers (David-Ferdon & Simon, 2014; McMahon et al., 2011). After the Columbine shooting, public awareness of student violence, and specifically bullying, was at an all-time high. The media attention given to the event helped create the perception violence was on the rise in public schools and student violence was no longer just an urban problem (Bushman et al., 2016; Lawrence &

Mueller, 2003; O'Toole & Fondacaro, 2015; Schildkraut & Muschert, 2014). Although statistics indicated school violence had actually decreased there was enough evidence to show violence had a significant effect on those who experienced it (Robers et al., 2014; Robers, Zhang, Truman, & Snyder, 2012; Zhang et al., 2016).

The issue of school violence is not isolated to the United States. Studies from Germany, Turkey, the Middle East, Kenya, and Australia indicate the problem is worldwide. It is no longer just student-student violence but has grown to student-teacher violence as well (Bradshaw, Waasdorp, Brennan, & Gulemetove, 2013; Espelage et al., 2013; Reddy et al., 2013). Early definitions of school violence referring to bullying or acts of physical aggression had to be redefined to include verbal, non-verbal, and physical acts perceived by a teacher as purposeful or intimidating (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012).

Effects of student violence on teachers can be seen in increased levels of stress leading to burnout and teacher attrition (Espelage et al., 2013; Moon, Morash, Jang, & Jeong, 2015; Oteer, 2015; Reddy et al., 2013). There is a consensus in research that burnout occurs along a continuum that begins with emotional exhaustion, then depersonalization, and finally reduced personal accomplishment (Denton, Chaplin, & Wall, 2013; Hoglund, Klinge, & Hosun, 2015). The initial phase of burnout results from student disrespect and verbal victimization of the teacher (Galand, Lecocq, & Philippot, 2007). Disengagement occurs when teachers feel hopeless from a lack of administrative support with respect to student violence. Once they feel emotionally exhausted and disengaged teachers no longer feel they are able to support student safety or academic growth. Teachers suffer from physical and emotional effects, depression, and early

retirement (Mojša-Kaja, Golonka, & Marek, 2015). Without training on successful interventions to disrupt the burnout continuum, teachers feel there is no other choice than to leave the profession. The studies previously discussed presented recommendations to reduce or alleviate stress which is the precursor to burnout, however none of them indicated what pre-service training or in-service professional development would make a difference in the classroom.

A review of available research on teacher pre-service and in-service training pointed out the lack of support teachers receive. Suggestions were made to increase the support to new teachers to avert burnout and early departure from the profession and to offer training to in-service teachers who were serving as mentors (Callahan, 2016). Evidence of the success of two teacher education programs, Chicago and Boston, served as examples of the effective training that can occur for both new and seasoned teachers (Banks, 2015).

Teacher victimization is costly to both students and tax payers. Current estimates are two billion annually for medical and psychological care for affected teachers, hiring substitutes, lost time, litigation costs, and workman's compensation, in addition to the negative effects on student engagement and academic achievement (Espelage et al., 2013). Offering training that would help teachers handle violence in their classrooms and alternatives if they are not supported by administration would go a long way to avoiding the high cost of losing highly qualified teachers as a result of student violence.

### **Chapter 3: Research Method**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the extent to which teacher violence training related to teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado schools. Teacher preparation programs and professional development programs can provide teachers with skills to safeguard against stress and attrition. The problem to be addressed was the extent to which violence training related to teacher stress and attrition in middle and secondary teachers in the four largest school districts in Colorado.

A description of the research design and methodology that was used in this study is provided as part of this discussion. The rationale for the research design, as well as the limitations and biases within the study are also included. The instruments, the participants selected and procedures used for data collection will be part of the discussion.

#### **Research Method and Design**

In order to reach the highest number of teachers, an online questionnaire was made available to approximately 6,758 certified middle school and high school teachers in the four largest districts in the state: Cherry Creek, Denver, Douglas, and Jefferson County, as well as Littleton where the Arapahoe High School shooting took place (Colorado Department of Education, 2014). The survey provided necessary data to determine the teacher violence trainings received and their effect on teacher stress and teacher attrition. Teachers were notified through their email on record with each of the five districts.

Considering the size of the participant group and the research questions that were answered, a quantitative correlational study was most appropriate to investigate the

relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress and attrition. A quantitative approach provided for the collection of large amounts of numerical data and the analysis of that data using mathematically based methods (Mujis, 2011). A correlational design allowed the assessment of the relationship between two or more variables without manipulation. (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).

The strengths of this method were the ability to reach a large number of teachers using sponsorship through the districts, lending credibility to the study and increasing the potential participation level. Since there had not been a previous study of this magnitude in the state, it represented one of the most comprehensive studies on teacher training and its effects on stress and attrition. Limitations of the study were that it was not randomized since teachers could opt to participate or not. Also, there was the possibility that teachers who chose to participate had more experience with violence than teachers who chose not to complete the survey which could have influenced the data.

Consideration was also given to participant bias depending on current situations at the time the survey was completed. For example, circumstances like dissatisfaction with current school or administration, previous experience with school violence, or fear of retribution could have influenced responses. It is human nature to let personal feelings influence how we respond to a question or situation. If a teacher was dissatisfied with his/her current school or administration, that dissatisfaction could have resulted in a more negative perception of student behavior. There could have been a fear of retribution if the teacher answered honestly which might have caused an inaccurate perspective of student violence.

**Population**

For the current study, the target population included certified middle and secondary public school teachers located in the four largest districts in the state: Cherry Creek, Denver, Douglas, and Jefferson County, as well as Littleton where the Arapahoe High School shooting took place (Colorado Department of Education, 2015). According to the Colorado Department of Education (2015), there is approximately 6758 middle and secondary teachers currently working in the five different districts. Teachers in these districts were chosen because they have the greatest exposure to the largest number of students from diverse backgrounds. Additionally, according to the Colorado Department of Education (2015), several of these districts have experienced a higher attrition rate than the state average.

**Sample**

The current study employed a nonrandom sampling method since only five districts were surveyed. Although the chosen districts are the largest in the state, they are mostly urban or suburban and were not representative of teachers in rural districts. All teachers were from middle or secondary public schools and included teachers across various content areas.

The primary reason for using this sampling method was to solicit as many responses as possible through online contact. Contact information for study participants were provided by individual school districts and email contact was made after proper institutional review board approval. The current survey was distributed using SurveyMonkey, a commercial online survey tool.

A power analysis was conducted using G\* Power 3.17 to determine the minimum required sample size for the current study. Utilizing multiple regression analysis with two predictors, a medium effect size ( $f^2 = .15$ ), a power of 0.80, and an alpha level of 0.05, a minimum sample size needed to ensure statistical significance for the study was 128 teachers. The minimum was readily attained by using an online survey.

Several strategies were employed to ensure the statistical sample size was met. First, an initial recruitment email was sent to notify study participants about the purpose of the survey and the time required to complete the survey. Second, a follow up e-mail containing the link to the survey and the consent form and acknowledgement of voluntary participation was sent.

### **Materials/Instruments**

The Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES) is a published measure of burnout for educators. It is a 22-item survey that measures emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment using a seven-point Lichert scale. The scale measures the frequency of experiencing certain feelings starting with 0 for never and 6 for every day. A higher mean for emotional exhaustion and depersonalization corresponds to higher feelings of burnout and a lower score on personal accomplishment corresponds to higher feelings of burnout.

### **Operational Definition of Variables**

The following definitions were used for each of the study variables. The predictor variable is teacher violence training and the criterion variables are stress and attrition.

**Teacher Violence Training.** The predictor variable, teacher violence training, refers to training received during a teacher preparation program to prepare future teachers

to adequately manage their stress and buffer against desires to change professions.

Teacher violence training also includes professional development training that helps teachers lessen stress and feelings of attrition once they are in the classroom. This training can be measured using a teacher's evaluation of their self-efficacy.

According to Sivri and Balci (2015) a teacher's self-efficacy regarding classroom management, student engagement, and instructional strategies have a significant impact on their ability to manage stress and burnout. A teacher who has positive beliefs in their self-efficacy in these areas has less stress and feelings of burnout than teachers who doubt their abilities. Teacher preparation programs and professional development programs should continue to emphasize positive self-efficacy to reduce stress and attrition among teachers new to the profession and teachers who have been in the profession for some time (Sivri & Balci, 2015).

In order to measure this ordinal variable, a measure of the teacher's self-efficacy was proposed. The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale, short version, contains 12 survey items and are Likert-scaled from 1=nothing to 9=a great deal. The short version is suggested for certified teachers and the long version is suggested for teachers still in teacher preparation programs. Once the data was analyzed, a higher score indicated the higher a teacher's belief in their self-efficacy.

**Teacher Stress.** Teacher stress, identified as a criterion variable, occurs when teachers are unable to effectively utilize their abilities and resources to cope with the demands of their workplace. Workplace stress has been shown to have a significant effect on teacher health and well-being as well academic success in the classroom (Brunsting, Sreckovic, & Lane, 2014). This ordinal variable can be measured using the Teacher



Stress Inventory, a 49-item survey measuring stress on a 5-point Likert scale where 1=not noticeable and 5=extremely noticeable. There are ten dimensions in the Teacher Stress Inventory divided into stress sources and stress manifestations. The stress sources include time management, work-related stressors, professional distress, discipline and motivation, and professional investment. Stress manifestations include emotional manifestations, fatigue manifestations, cardiovascular manifestations, gastronomical manifestations and behavioral manifestations. Using regression analysis, data reveals the higher the score the higher the level of stress.

**Teacher attrition.** Teacher attrition, measured as an ordinal variable, occurs when a teacher leaves the school where they are currently employed to work in another school in the same district, change schools to work in a different district, or leave the teaching profession altogether. This criterion variable can be measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey which is a 22-item, 7-point Likert scale inventory where 0=never and 6=every day. There are three general scales used in this inventory: 1) Emotional exhaustion with nine items; 2) Depersonalization with 5 items; and 3) Personal accomplishment with eight items. A higher score on the first two scales indicates higher feelings of burnout and lower scores on scale three correspond to higher feeling of burnout.

### **Data Collection, Processing, and Analysis**

A web-based survey made up of the three different instruments was used to collect and measure the different variables. SurveyMonkey was used as the online platform for distributing the survey to middle school and secondary school teachers in

five previously chosen districts in Colorado. This online platform allowed collected data to be transferred to the latest SPSS software for data analysis.

Once IRB approval had been gained, the district teachers were notified through an initial recruitment email that described the purpose of the survey and the time required to complete the survey. A follow up e-mail containing the link to the survey and the consent form and acknowledgement of voluntary participation was then sent. The availability of the survey was twelve weeks which proved to be enough time to obtain the necessary number of surveys suggested by the G\*Power analysis.

### **Assumptions**

There were fundamental assumptions made for the current study. First, it was assumed the correct email addresses were provided and the survey was distributed to the intended participants. It was assumed the intended participants were certified middle or secondary high school teachers at the time they received the survey. It was also assumed the participants were working in one of the five previously identified school districts.

Secondly, since the participants were assured they would be treated confidentially and anonymously, it was assumed they would respond to the survey questions honestly and to the best of their ability. It was assumed they would be answering survey questions as a volunteer and not being coerced into participating. Survey participants self-rated their experiences with violence, stress, and thoughts of attrition so it was assumed they were adequately rating their feelings for each experience.

Finally, it was assumed the instruments selected would be adequate to measure teacher training, teacher stress, and teacher attrition. Based on information delineated from the literature regarding teacher violence training and the reduction of teacher stress

and teacher attrition, it was also assumed the quantitative correlational study accurately predicted the effects of teacher violence training on teacher stress and teacher attrition. It also assumed the survey instruments were valid and reliable for this study based on previously conducted studies (Denton, Chaplin, & Wall, 2013; Fimian & Fastenau, 1990; Hoglund, Klinge, & Hosun, 2015; Sivri & Balci, 2015).

### **Limitations**

The following limitations and biases were considered for the current study. First, the participants were limited to a specific target of middle and secondary high school teachers based on criteria defined *a priori* by this researcher. As a result, the target population was not representative of the general population since it focused on urban school districts to the exclusion of rural schools. This limited the generalizability of the study results since they are generalizable only to urban populations.

Second, participants had a choice to participate or not. Study results could have been biased by the participants' experiences with violence, dissatisfaction with the school environment, or some fear of retribution. This bias could have limited the quality of the data by underrepresenting participants who have not experienced violence, are not dissatisfied with the school environment, or have any fear of retribution.

### **Delimitations**

The current quantitative correlational study was confined to a specific population consisting of middle and secondary school teachers working in specific urban districts in the Denver metro area in the State of Colorado. The only requirements to be considered for participation were the teacher was a certified middle or secondary school teacher

working in one of the five outlined districts. The results of the study were delimited to two predictors used to delimit teacher stress and teacher attrition.

### **Ethical Assurances**

Ethical procedures were followed to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of all participants. Approval for use of the survey was sought from the Institutional Review Board of Northcentral University prior to any participant contact. A consent form was provided to each participant outlining the purpose and goal of the study. Additionally, each participant received details of their participation describing its voluntary nature and their ability to terminate their participation at any time without penalty or fear of retribution.

To ensure protection from arbitrary disclosure or violation of privacy, all data collected will be kept in a secure e-file for a period of no less than five years, or the minimum required by ethical standards at the time of data collection. All data was treated honestly, fairly, and free from manipulation.

### **Summary**

Schools should be free of violence to ensure the best academic environment for learning and growing. With the increase of violent incidents against teachers, the ability to provide an environment for academic success is being challenged. The classroom, once considered a safe haven for learning, is no longer free from violence. The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which teacher violence training related to teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado schools. By using an online questionnaire, middle and high school teachers in selected districts in Colorado

were able to take part in a study to identify training deficiencies related to teacher stress and attrition.

## Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the extent to which teacher training to mitigate violence in the classroom was related to the reduction of teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado. Gaining new knowledge about the amount of violence training new and seasoned teachers receive may benefit teacher preparation programs and in-service professional development programs. This new knowledge may provide the basis for increasing teacher violence training to reduce teacher stress and teacher attrition.

The study was a web-based survey consisting of the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey, The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale, and the Teacher Stress Inventory. The online survey was made available for 14 weeks from August 16, 2017 through November 14, 2017. A listing of survey questions was included in Appendix A. Data were collected using SurveyMonkey and analyzed using SPSS software. This chapter begins with a discussion of the validity and reliability of the data and is followed by the results and evaluation of the findings. During data collection, the researcher focused on the following research questions:

**Q1.** What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress?

**Q2.** What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition?

### Validity and reliability of the Data

Validity of the instruments used in the study has been previously established. The Maslach Burnout Inventory – Education Survey was validated through numerous studies that have assessed the relationship between work experience and the burnout scales (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 2016). The Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale has been validated through previous studies (Heneman, Kimball, & Milanowski, 2006; Nie, Lau, & Liao, 2012) and the Teacher Stress Inventory has also been previously validated (Fimian & Fastenau, 1990).

The reliability of the instruments is demonstrated in table 1. Table 1 has the psychometric characteristics for the sixteen summated scale scores. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranged in size from  $\alpha = .65$  to  $\alpha = .91$  with a median sized coefficient of  $\alpha = .83$ . Given the large sample size ( $N = 111$ ), this suggested that all scales had adequate levels of internal reliability (Mujis, 2011), (Table 1).

Table 1

*Psychometric Characteristics for Summated Scale Scores (N = 111)*

Score	Number					
	of Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Low	High	$\alpha$
Efficacy in Student Engagement	4	5.36	1.30	2.50	9.00	.82
Efficacy in Instructional Strategies	4	7.09	1.08	2.00	9.00	.78
Efficacy in Classroom Management	4	6.13	1.42	1.00	9.00	.91
Time Management	8	3.52	0.63	1.63	5.00	.68
Work-Related Stressors	6	4.04	0.79	1.00	5.00	.83
Professional Distress	5	3.49	1.00	1.00	5.00	.81
Discipline and Motivation	6	3.61	0.99	1.00	5.00	.88
Professional Investment	4	2.98	1.03	1.00	5.00	.82

Emotional Manifestations	5	2.99	1.18	1.00	5.00	.90
Fatigue Manifestations	5	2.82	1.05	1.00	5.00	.81
Cardiovascular Manifestations	3	2.64	1.29	1.00	5.00	.88
Gastronomical Manifestations	3	2.36	1.34	1.00	5.00	.90
Behavioral Manifestations	4	1.99	0.93	1.00	4.75	.65
Emotional Exhaustion	9	4.86	1.28	1.67	6.89	.91
Depersonalization	5	3.18	1.45	1.00	6.40	.82
Personal Accomplishment	8	4.94	1.13	2.50	7.00	.85

## Results

Research Question One was, “What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress?” and the related null hypothesis was  $H_0$ : “There is no relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress.” To answer this, Table 2 has the 10 relevant Spearman correlations. No significant correlations were found. This provided no support to reject the null hypothesis for Research Question One (Table 2).

Table 2

*Spearman Correlations for Teacher Stress Scale Scores with Received Professional In-service School Violence Training and Needing Additional Training (N = 111)*

Variable	Needing	
	Received Training <sup>a</sup>	Additional Training <sup>a</sup>
Time Management	.06	-.15
Work-Related Stressors	-.08	.14
Professional Distress	-.09	.10
Discipline and Motivation	-.15	.30 ****
Professional Investment	-.17	.14
Emotional Manifestations	-.11	-.01
Fatigue Manifestations	.00	-.02
Cardiovascular Manifestations	-.09	.20 *
Gastronomical Manifestations	.05	.10
Behavioral Manifestations	-.08	.04



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\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .005$ . \*\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

<sup>a</sup> Coding: 0 = *No* 1 = *Yes*.

Research Question Two was, “What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition?” and the related null hypothesis was  $H_0$ : “There is no relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition.” To answer this, Table 3 has the three relevant Spearman correlations. A significant positive correlation was found for personal accomplishment and having received teacher violence training ( $r_s = .26, p = .005$ ). This provided support to reject the null hypothesis for Research Question Two (Table 3).

Table 3

*Spearman Correlations for Teacher Attrition Scale Scores with Received Professional In-service School Violence Training and Needing Additional Training (N = 111)*

---

Variable	Needing	
	Received Training <sup>a</sup>	Additional Training <sup>a</sup>
Emotional Exhaustion	-.08	.09
Depersonalization	-.13	.00
Personal Accomplishment	.26 ***	-.14

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\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .005$ . \*\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

In addition, Table 2 has the Spearman correlations for the 10 teacher stress scale scores with needing additional training. Two of the 10 correlations were significant with needing additional training: discipline and motivation ( $r_s = .30, p = .001$ ) and cardiovascular manifestations ( $r_s = .20, p = .03$ ) (Table 2).

Table 3 has the Spearman correlations for the three teacher attrition scale scores with needing additional training. No significant correlations were found (Table 3).

Table 4 has the Spearman correlations for the three teacher's sense of efficacy scale scores with having received teacher violence training and needing additional training. Having received training was positively correlated with efficacy in student engagement ( $r_s = .28, p = .004$ ) and efficacy in classroom management ( $r_s = .24, p = .01$ ). However, needing additional training was negatively correlated with efficacy in classroom management ( $r_s = -.21, p = .03$ ) (Table 4).

Table 4

*Spearman Correlations for Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale Scores with Received Professional In-service School Violence Training and Needing Additional Training (N = 111)*

Variable	Needing	
	Received Training <sup>a</sup>	Additional Training <sup>a</sup>
Efficacy in Student Engagement	.28 ***	-.14
Efficacy in Instructional Strategies	.10	-.02
Efficacy in Classroom Management	.24 **	-.21 *

\*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .005$ . \*\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

## **Evaluation of Findings**

The conceptual framework of this study was based on the social-ecological theory that states the interaction between teacher and student influences how the student behaves and how the teacher reacts to the behavior (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Teachers need to be trained to see the warning sign of violence before violence takes place and how to react to it to minimize the effects if it does occur. Studies addressing the issue of violence have considered a social-ecological perspective to understand the internal and external factors influencing behavior (Bradshaw et al., 2013; Espelage, Low, & De La Rue, 2012; Espelage et al., 2013).

Available literature supports this assumption. Teachers experiencing classroom violence are susceptible to increased levels of stress and attrition (Brunsting, Sreckovic, & Lane, 2014). Studies have shown workplace stress is related to both physical and emotional responses and is responsible for people changing jobs to avoid or reduce the stress (Brunsting et al., 2014; Curry & O'Brien, 2012). Teachers who receive training and are confident in their ability to handle student violence have less stress and are less compelled to leave the profession (Brunsting et al., 2014).

This study used a combination of three surveys to gather information from middle and high school teachers in the five largest districts in Colorado regarding their emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal accomplishment, self-efficacy, and reactions to stress.

**Q1.** What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress?

**H1<sub>0</sub>.** There is no relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress.

**H1<sub>a</sub>.** There is a statistically significant relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress.

Findings from this study found no correlations between teacher violence training and teacher stress therefore the null hypothesis was supported.

**Q2.** What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition?

**H2<sub>o</sub>.** There is no relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition.

**H2<sub>a</sub>.** There is a statistically significant relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition.

For this research question, there is a positive correlation between teacher violence training and personal accomplishment.

## **Summary**

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the extent to which teacher violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado schools. Because the majority of student violence occurs among students aged 12-18 (Basch, 2011), the study included teachers responsible for working with students from this age group. The survey was made available to approximately 6758 certified middle and high school teachers in the four largest districts in the state: Cherry Creek, Denver, Douglas, and Jefferson County, as well as Littleton where the Arapahoe High School shooting took place (Colorado Department of Education, 2014). Permission was sought from state and nationally sponsored teacher unions prior to distributing the online questionnaire. Information from this study was

used to identify the relationship between pre-service and in-service teacher training on classroom violence and teacher stress and retention.

## **Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions**

The problem addressed in this study was the extent to which violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition on middle and secondary teachers in the four largest school districts in Colorado (Allen, 2010; Espelage et al., 2013; Kondrasuk, Greene, Waggoner, Edwards, & Nayak-Rhodes, 2005; Kutsyuruba, 2012). The primary purpose of the recent investigation was to determine the extent to which teacher violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado schools. Participants of the study were provided access to the survey through SurveyMonkey. The survey was a combination of the Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educators Survey (MBI-ES; Maslach et al, 1986), the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale, short version, and the Teacher Stress Inventory.

Findings of the study revealed a majority of the teachers responding taught in the Denver district (38.7%), followed by Jefferson County (15.3%) and Cherry Creek (15.3%), with 22 teachers providing no response (19.8%). Most respondents answered “yes” when asked if they would benefit from additional school violence training (74.8%). More than half of the teachers had not received any school violence training in the past (57.7%), while 39 teachers had at least some in-service training or professional development (35.1%). In total, 72 teachers had either no training at all or only undergraduate school violence training (64.9%) (Table 1).

The research questions addressed by the survey were:

**Q1.** What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress?

**Q2.** What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition?

The results of the study are discussed below, including the limitations of the study, the findings, and recommendations for future research.

### **Implications**

Previous research has established that teachers who received pre-service or in-service violence training were better prepared to handle student violence in their classroom which reduced stress and attrition. In a study conducted by Craig, Bell, and Leschied (2011), 160 Canadian students who were engaged in a post-graduate Faculty of Education Program were assessed on their ability to deal with different bullying situations. According to the results, teachers who had received violence prevention training prior to entering the specialized Faculty of Education program had more confidence in dealing with bullying situations. Teachers who had not received any training reported feeling underprepared to respond to bullying incidents (Craig et al., 2011).

In a study conducted by Lambert, et al. (2015), teachers who perceived a greater demand on their time and attention due to student behavior also felt a greater sense of stress and increased feelings of leaving the profession. Stress and burnout are the two most prevalent results of teacher victimization. Stress can cause both physical and emotional effects that lead to anxiety, depression, somatization, and job dissatisfaction which lead to burnout and attrition (Espelage et al., 2013; Moon, Morash, Jang, & Jeong, 2015; Oteer, 2015; Reddy et al., 2013). With the proper training, teachers experienced

less stress and less job dissatisfaction which resulted in fewer absences and fewer departures from the profession.

Research question one asked: What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress? The null hypothesis stated there is no relationship between teacher violence training and teacher stress. Findings from the current study of Colorado teachers revealed no significant correlation between teacher violence training and the reduction of teacher stress. Using the Teacher Stress Inventory portion of the survey, and analyzing for a relationship between stress and teacher violence training, it was found the null hypothesis was supported.

A reason for the disparity between study findings and research literature could be that teachers surveyed had more experience in the classroom and may have felt better equipped to deal with student violence. The study did reveal teachers had high self-efficacy in student engagement and classroom management. This additional finding is supported by research conducted by Sela-Shayovitz (2009) where 147 teachers responded to an anonymous questionnaire regarding their experiences with violence prevention training. Results showed teachers who received violence prevention training had a positive outcome when dealing with student violence whereas teachers who did not receive training reported lower levels of self-efficacy (Sela-Shayovitz, 2009).

The study findings for research question one were not directly supported. However, the additional finding that teachers who had received violence training had higher self-efficacy in student engagement and classroom management will add to the body of literature regarding violence training and teacher stress levels. According to Sivri and Balci (2015) a teacher's self-efficacy regarding classroom management, student



engagement, and instructional strategies have a significant impact on their ability to manage stress and burnout. A teacher who has positive beliefs in their self-efficacy in these areas has less stress and feelings of burnout than teachers who doubt their abilities.

Research question two asked: What is the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition? The null hypothesis for research question two states there is no relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition. Findings from this study had a high enough correlation between personal accomplishment and violence training to reject the null hypothesis.

To adequately address the relationship between teacher violence training and teacher attrition, the study included the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey (MBI-ES). The MBI-ES measures three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment or efficacy (Denton, Chaplin, & Wall, 2013; Hoglund, Klinge, & Hosun, 2015). Decreased personal accomplishment refers to a decline in one's confidence to successfully perform job-related tasks accompanied by a profound sense of inadequacy (Denton et al., 2013; Gastaldi, Pasta, Longobardi, Prino, & Quaglia, 2014; Hoglund et al., 2015).

Teachers in the current study reported a variation in the dimensions of burnout with training being a significant predictor for the personal accomplishment dimension but not for emotional exhaustion or depersonalization. Study results indicated a higher level of personal accomplishment for teachers who received violence training. This higher level of personal accomplishment is associated with lower levels of burnout and attrition.

Possible explanations for training affecting only the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout must consider how teachers perceive personal accomplishment as it

pertains to their profession. Of the three dimensions, personal accomplishment relates to a teacher's perception of how well they perform their job. If a teacher feels they can no longer effectively help students learn and grow they will become dissatisfied with their performance. Training can provide teachers with additional resources to help students so teachers do not succumb to instances of victimization. Additionally, training may help teachers be more aware of work-related stress so they do not develop feelings of low personal accomplishment and begin to feel incompetent in their ability to meet their professional obligations.

Existing research supports the findings in this study for research question two. According to Mojsa-Kaja, Golonka, and Marek (2015) teachers who felt emotionally exhausted and disengaged from their role as educators found themselves unable to support the safety and academic growth of their students. Instead, they suffered from physical and emotional effects which included anxiety, depression, and somatic symptoms which lead to reduced personal accomplishment manifested by premature retirement. Teachers who received violence training felt a higher level of personal accomplishment than teachers who did not receive training.

### **Recommendations for Practice**

Findings of the current study indicate violence training is beneficial to reducing teacher burnout by increasing levels of personal accomplishment. This information can be used to develop training programs for students in undergraduate teacher-education programs as well as professional development for in-service teachers. Research supports the need for pre-service and in-service training.

Teacher perceptions of student violence and teacher burnout suggest teachers do not feel adequately prepared to handle student violence and diversity issues when they enter the field (Banks, 2015; Lin, Lake, & Rice, 2008). Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan, noted approximately 62% of new teachers felt underprepared to enter the classroom (Banks, 2015). The under preparation of new teachers extends even further to a lack of preparation in violence prevention tactics that should be a part of the pre-service preparation programs (Craig, Bell, & Leschied, 2011). Likewise, violence training as part of professional development is necessary to provide in-service teachers with the resources needed to continue to feel high levels of professional accomplishment. William and Ernst (2016) conducted a study to develop a national profile for teachers who were victims of student violence. Their findings suggested teachers should receive professional development that focuses on student behavior management and crisis prevention.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

Participants in the current quantitative study were from middle and secondary schools in specific districts in Colorado. Future quantitative research participants should include elementary teachers and should include all districts in Colorado. The limitations of the current study excluded a large body of teachers and confined the participants to urban districts. By including elementary teachers and teachers from both urban and rural districts, a more realistic understanding of the effects of violence training on stress and attrition for all teachers across Colorado would be obtainable.

Demographic information was not collected in the current study. Future quantitative researchers should include demographic data to include gender, years of teaching experience, and race. This would be important to delineate which group of

teachers is more susceptible to victimization. McMahon et al. (2011) found in their study that gender victimization was different for male and female teachers. Male teachers reported higher rates of physical victimizations while female teachers experienced higher rates of intimidation. Racial differences also occurred with African American teachers reporting overall lower rates of victimization with higher rates of victimization occurring in lower socio-economic communities and communities where there is a higher concentration of African American residents (McMahon et al., 2011).

To gain a better understanding of training received, a qualitative case study could be used to interview teachers. Specific questions about training could include whether training was received pre-service or in-service, how in-depth the training was (role playing, for example, or just text book discussions), and how often training was provided. Interviewing teachers from both urban and rural districts would provide a well-rounded interpretation of training received by new teachers in Colorado teacher preparation programs as well as professional development received by Colorado's veteran teachers.

## **Conclusions**

The problem addressed in this quantitative study was the extent to which violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition on middle and secondary teachers in the four largest school districts in Colorado (Allen, 2010; Espelage et al., 2013; Kondrasuk, Greene, Waggoner, Edwards, & Nayak-Rhodes, 2005; Kutsyuruba, 2012). Teacher victimization has been acknowledged as a growing concern with the rise in violent incidents by students. Researchers from the American Psychological Association (APA) Board of Education Task Force (2011) found in a comprehensive study of 4,735 K-12 teachers that over half of them had experienced some type of student-teacher violence.

Additionally, researchers have shown that student violence is not only disruptive to the learning environment but can cause psychological and physiological manifestations for teachers. Teachers may experience lack of motivation and decreased self-efficacy when dealing with inappropriate student behavior as well as a low sense of personal accomplishment (Klassen & Chiu, 2011; Mee & Haverback, 2014; Reddy et al., 2012). Physically, student violence can lead to higher teacher stress levels and more frequent teacher attrition, especially among new teachers (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Ozdemir, 2012).

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to determine the extent to which teacher violence training reduced teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classrooms in Colorado schools. Middle and secondary teachers from Cherry Creek, Denver, Douglas County, and Jefferson County, as well as the Littleton school district where the Arapahoe High School shooting occurred, were invited to participate in an online survey. The survey was a combination of three existing surveys which have been previously validated. The first set of questions came from the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, Short Form, and was included to assess which daily activities caused difficulties for teachers. The second set of questions came from the Teacher Concerns Inventory and was used to determine which factors were sources of teacher stress. The final set of questions came from the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey which measures the frequency of feeling emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Teachers were also asked if they had received training pre-service, in-service, not at all, and whether or not they would benefit from additional training. The

survey was accessible through SurveyMonkey for a three month period beginning in August 2017 and ending in November.

Findings from the current study did not fully support the first research question regarding violence training and teacher stress. Data from the study revealed no significant correlation between violence training and stress reduction for those teachers who received violence training and those who did not. There was a positive correlation, however, between violence training and self-efficacy. Teachers who received violence training had higher self-efficacy in student engagement and classroom management. There is support from previous research for this finding. Researchers Sivri and Balci (2015) found in their study that a teacher who has high self-efficacy regarding classroom management, student engagement, and instructional strategies have a significant impact on their ability to manage stress and burnout. Teachers who have positive beliefs in their self-efficacy in these areas have less stress and feelings of burnout than teachers who doubt their abilities.

Violence training to reduce attrition, the second research question, was supported by the findings from the current study. According to Denton, Chaplin, and Wall (2013) burnout is multi-dimensional. The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Survey measures these dimensions, specifically emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. Decreased personal accomplishment refers to a decline in one's confidence to successfully perform job-related tasks accompanied by a profound sense of inadequacy (Denton et al., 2013; Gastaldi, Pasta, Longobardi, Prino, & Quaglia, 2014; Hoglund et al., 2015). Teachers surveyed by the current study, who received violence training, had a higher level of personal accomplishment than teachers who did not receive

violence training. Based on the findings, and the description of personal accomplishment, there was a positive correlation between receiving violence training and reduced feelings of burnout and a desire to leave the teaching profession.

Completion of the current study revealed several areas that should be included in future research. Participants in the current study were limited to middle and secondary teachers in specific counties in urban areas. Future quantitative research should broaden the survey participants to include elementary teachers and teachers in both rural and urban districts. Including all teachers, statewide, will provide a more realistic picture of training received both pre-service and in-service.

Another type of data for inclusion in future research would be demographic information. Including demographic data would be a way to identify possible target groups for student-teacher violence. This information would be essential for curriculum development in new teacher education programs as well as training material for in-service professional development.

The current study, as well as previously discussed recommendations for research, has suggested quantitative research for collecting a large amount of data. Alternatively, a qualitative case study could be used to interview teachers from specific areas, both urban and rural. Teacher interviews would allow the researcher to obtain in-depth answers to training questions, specifically the type and depth of training. This kind of data collection would provide additional information for curriculum modifications and professional training development.

The body of knowledge of teacher victimization is enhanced by the current study. With a better understanding of the impact of training on teacher stress and attrition,

teacher preparation programs and professional development can be tailored to accommodate the needs of teachers. Future research recommendations will add to this body of knowledge by considering an expansion of selected participants to include elementary teachers and both urban and rural school districts. It should also include demographic information to get a better idea of what groups of teachers are more susceptible to being victimized. Finally, consideration should be given for a qualitative study. Interviewing teachers to determine the training received and the teachers' perception of the effectiveness of the training on stress and attrition would provide an abundance of knowledge to the body of research on teacher victimization.



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## Appendices



## Appendix A: IRB Approval Letter



**Date:** August 12, 2017  
**PI Name:** Angela Tucker  
**Chair Name (if applicable):** Dr. Melanie Shaw  
**Application Type (Initial, Modification, Continuing, Pilot):** Initial  
**Review Level (Exempt, Expedited, Full Board):** Exempt, Category 2  
**Study Title:** A Quantitative Study of the Relationship between Pre-Service and In-Service Teacher Violence Training to Reduce Stress and Attrition

Approval Date:	August 12, 2017
Continuing Review Due Date:	N/A
Expiration Date:	August 12, 2018

Dear Angela:

Congratulations! The purpose of this letter is to inform you that your IRB application has been approved. Your responsibilities include the following:

1. Follow the protocol as approved. If you need to make changes, please submit a modification form requesting approval of any proposed changes before you make them.
2. If there is a consent process in your research, you must use the consent form approved with your final application. Please make sure all participants receive a copy of the consent form.
3. Continuing review is required as long as you are in data collection or if data have not been de-identified. Failure to receive approval of the continuing review before the expiration date means the research must stop immediately.
4. If there are any injuries, problems, or complaints from participants, you must notify the IRB at [IRB@ncu.edu](mailto:IRB@ncu.edu) within 24 hours.
5. IRB audit of procedures may occur. The IRB will notify you if your study will be audited.
6. When data are collected and de-identified, please submit a study closure form to the IRB.
7. You must maintain current CITI certification until you have submitted a study closure form.
8. If you are a student, please be aware that you must be enrolled in an active dissertation course with NCU in order to collect data.

Congratulations from the NCU IRB. Best wishes as you conduct your research!

Respectfully,

Northcentral University Institutional Review Board  
 Email: [irb@ncu.edu](mailto:irb@ncu.edu)

## **Appendix B: Initial Recruiting Email**

### **Volunteer For Research Survey - Violence in the Classroom**

Dear Middle School or Secondary School Teacher,

My name is Angela Tucker. I am a doctoral student at Northcentral University conducting dissertation research to study the effects of teacher violence training on reducing teacher stress and attrition. I want to learn whether or not teachers are receiving the training they need to reduce stress caused by student violence in the classroom which can lead to burnout and possible departure from the teaching profession. The findings from this study can help education leaders create effective training programs for both pre-service and in-service teachers to successfully handle student violence in their classrooms.

I am completing this research as part of my doctoral degree program. The results will be reviewed by myself and my dissertation chair and published after approval by Northcentral University. Your participation is voluntary and I would like to invite you to participate!

If you participate in this study, you will complete a survey on SurveyMonkey that should take you approximately 20 minutes or less to complete. The survey will be anonymous and all data will be encrypted. Participation in this study is limited to public middle school or secondary school teachers who are currently teaching, or have taught in the last 12 months, in Douglas County, Jefferson County, Denver County, Arapahoe School District, or Littleton School District. You will be able to skip any questions you are not comfortable answering and you may end your participation at any time. Additionally, you will be able to exit the survey and return to complete at a later time when it is more convenient. Please feel free to forward this email invitation to other middle and secondary school teachers meeting the eligibility requirements so they may participate in this study.

**Please click here to take you to the survey:**

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/HJVMHXC>

## **Appendix C: Informed Consent Form**

### **Introduction:**

My name is Angela Tucker. I am a doctoral student at Northcentral University. I am conducting a research study to determine the extent to which teacher violence training reduces teacher stress and attrition in the middle and secondary classroom in Colorado schools. I am completing this research as part of my doctoral degree. I invite you to participate.

### **Activities:**

If you participate in this research, you will be asked to complete an online survey through SurveyMonkey.

### **Eligibility:**

You are eligible to participate in this research if you:

1. Are currently, or have been in the last 12 months, a public middle school or secondary school teacher.
2. Are currently, or have been in the last 12 months, teaching in Douglas County, Jefferson County, Denver County, Arapahoe School District, or Littleton School District.

You are not eligible to participate in this research if you:

1. Are not currently, or have not been in the last 12 months, a public middle school or secondary school teacher.
2. Are not currently, or have not been in the last 12 months, teaching in Douglas County, Jefferson County, Denver County, Arapahoe School District, or Littleton School District.

I hope to include 128 people in this research.

### **Risks:**

There are minimal risks in this study. Some possible risks include: stress from recalling violent incidents or possible boredom responding to survey questions.

To decrease the impact of these risks, you can: start and stop when you need to take a break in order to reduce any stress or boredom you might feel. You will also be able to skip any question you are not comfortable answering and you may end your participation at any time.

**Benefits:**

If you decide to participate, there are no direct benefits to you.

The potential benefits to others are: data collected will be used to determine the effects of pre-service and in-service violence training to reduce teacher stress and possible attrition. The results could help determine the need for additional training in pre-service teacher programs as well as ongoing training for in-service teachers.

**Confidentiality:**

The information you provide will be kept confidential to the extent allowable by law. Some steps I will take to keep your identity confidential are: no personally identifiable information will be collected as part of the survey or in connection with any of the data.

The people who will have access to your information are: myself, my dissertation chair, and my dissertation committee. The Institutional Review Board may also review my research and view your information.

I will secure your information with these steps: all data pertaining to this study will kept on a password protected computer or USB accessible only by myself or my dissertation chair. At the completion of the study, all data will be kept on a password protected USB and kept in a locked cabinet.

I will keep your data for 7 years. Then, I will delete electronic data and destroy paper data.

**Contact Information:**

If you have questions for me, you can contact me at: [a.tucker4415@email.ncu.edu](mailto:a.tucker4415@email.ncu.edu) or call 720-593-9544.

My dissertation chair's name is Dr. Melanie Shaw. She works at Northcentral University and is supervising me on the research. You can contact her at: [mshaw@ncu.edu](mailto:mshaw@ncu.edu) or call 618-698-3280.

If you have questions about your rights in the research, or if a problem has occurred, or if you are injured during your participation, please contact the Institutional Review Board at: [irb@ncu.edu](mailto:irb@ncu.edu) or 1-888-327-2877 ext 8014.

**Voluntary Participation:**

Your participation is voluntary. If you decide not to participate, or if you stop participation after you start, there will be no penalty to you. You will not lose any benefit to which you are otherwise entitled.

### **Appendix D: Site Permission Request**

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Angela Tucker. I am a doctoral student at Northcentral University conducting dissertation research to study the effects of teacher violence training on reducing teacher stress and attrition. I want to learn whether or not teachers are receiving the training they need to reduce stress caused by student violence in the classroom which can lead to burnout and possible departure from the teaching profession. The findings from this study can help education leaders create effective training programs for both pre-service and in-service teachers to successfully handle student violence in their classrooms. This research is being completed as part of my doctoral degree program.

Participants in this study will complete a survey on SurveyMonkey during their own time, with no interference with their primary role as teacher. I would like to ask your permission to use their school-based email addresses to deliver recruitment and research materials. Participation in this survey is limited to middle school and secondary school teachers and is completely voluntary.

I would be happy to provide any additional information you might need. Please feel free to contact me at 720-593-9544, or email : [a.tucker4415@email.ncu.edu](mailto:a.tucker4415@email.ncu.edu). My dissertation chair is Dr. Melanie Shaw and you may reach her at [mshaw@ncu.edu](mailto:mshaw@ncu.edu) or by phone at 618-698-3280.

Thank you!

Angela Tucker, PhD Candidate  
Northcentral University

## Appendix E: Research Survey

Student-Teacher Violence Survey

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale - Teachers' Beliefs

This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.

1. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?

☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite a Bit ☐ 8 ☐ 9 A Great Deal

2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?

☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite a Bit ☐ 8 ☐ 9 A Great Deal

3. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?

☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite a Bit ☐ 8 ☐ 9 A Great Deal

4. How much can you do to help your students value learning?

☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite a Bit ☐ 8 ☐ 9 A Great Deal

5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?

- ☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite A Bit ☐ 8  
☐ 9 A Great Deal

6. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?

- ☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite A Bit ☐ 8  
☐ 9 A Great Deal

7. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?

- ☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite A Bit ☐ 8  
☐ 9 A Great Deal

8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?

- ☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite A Bit ☐ 8  
☐ 9 A Great Deal

9. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?

- ☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite A Bit ☐ 8  
☐ 9 A Great Deal

10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?

- ☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite A Bit ☐ 8  
☐ 9 A Great Deal

11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?

- ☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite A Bit ☐ 8  
☐ 9 A Great Deal

12. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?

- ☐ 1 Nothing ☐ 2 ☐ 3 Very Little ☐ 4 ☐ 5 Some Influence ☐ 6 ☐ 7 Quite A Bit ☐ 8  
☐ 9 A Great Deal

Prev

Next



## 13. TIME MANAGEMENT

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I easily over- commit myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I become impatient if other do things too slowly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. I have to try doing more than one thing at a time.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I have a little time to relax/enjoy the time of day.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I think about unrelated matters during conversations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. I feel uncomfortable wasting time.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	1	2	3	4	5
7. There isn't enough time to get things done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. I rush in my speech.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

## 14. WORK-RELATED STRESSORS

	1	2	3	4	5
9. There is little time to prepare for my lessons/prepare lessons.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. There is too much work to do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. The pace of the school day is too fast.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. My caseload/class is too big.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. My personal priorities are being shortchanged due to	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

job

**15. PROFESSIONAL DISTRESS**

	1	2	3	4	5
15. I lack promotion and/or advancement opportunities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. I am not progressing in my job as rapidly as I would like.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. I need more status and respect on my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. I receive an inadequate salary for the work I do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. I lack recognition for the extra work and/or good teaching I do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**16. DISCIPLINE AND MOTIVATION****I feel frustrated...**

20. ...because of discipline problems in my classroom.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. ...having to monitor pupil behavior.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22. ...because some students would better if they tried.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. ...attempting to	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

problems.

25. ...when my  
authority is rejected  
by  
pupil/administration.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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## 17. PROFESSIONAL INVESTMENT

	1	2	3	4	5
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26. My personal  
options are not  
sufficiently aired.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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27. I lack control over  
decisions made about  
classroom/school  
matters.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

28. I am not  
emotionally/intellectually  
stimulated on the job.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

29. I lack opportunities  
for professional  
improvement.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

## 18. EMOTIONAL MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress...

	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

30. ...by feeling  
irritated.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

31. ...by feeling  
vulnerable.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

32. ...by feeling  
unable to cope.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

33. ...by feeling  
depressed.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

34. ...by feeling

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

## 19. FATIGUE MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress...

	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

35. ...by sleeping  
more than usual.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

36. ...by  
preconstraining.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

37. ...by becoming  
fatigued in a very  
short time.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

38. ...with physical  
exhaustion.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

39. ...with physical  
weakness.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

## 20. CARDIOVASCULAR MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress...

	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

40. ...with feelings of  
increased blood  
pressure.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

41. ...with feeling of  
heart pounding or  
racing.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

42. ...with rapid  
and/or shallow  
breath.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

**21. GASTRONOMICAL MANIFESTATIONS**

I respond to stress...

	1	2	3	4	5
43. ...with stomach pain of extended duration.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
44. ...with stomach cramps.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45. ...with stomach acid.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**22. BEHAVIORAL MANIFESTATIONS**

I respond to stress...

	1	2	3	4	5
46. ...by using over-the-counter drugs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47. ...by using prescription drugs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
48. ...by using alcohol.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
49. ...by calling in sick.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Prev Next

Student-Teacher Violence Survey

MBI - EDUCATORS SURVEY

The following statements are about job-related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and indicate whether or not you have ever had these feelings about your job. If you have never had these feelings choose **never**. If you have felt this way, indicate how often by choosing the option that best describes how often you have felt that way.

**23. MBI-EDUCATORS SURVEY**

	0 Never	1 A few times a year or less	2 Once a month or less	3 A few times a month	4 Once a week	5 A few times a week	6 Every day
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\*Note: The online survey contains all 22 items of the MBI-ES survey. This copy contains the allowable number of questions that can be reproduced without violating copyright requirements.