Leadership and Research In Education

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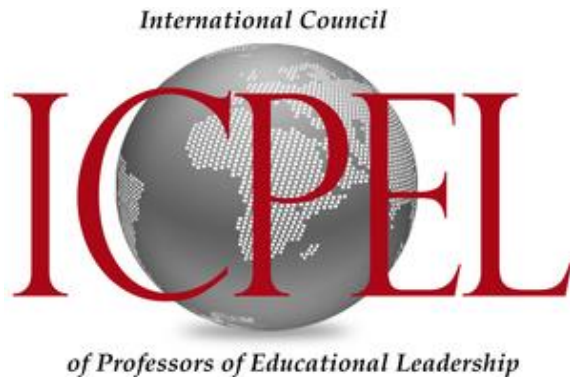
Leadership and Research in Education:
The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration

Editorial and Review Board, 2019-2020

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

3

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration

Vision:

Organic. **C**reative. **P**rofessional. **E**ngaging. **A**ccessible.

Mission:

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA offers an academic forum for scholarly discussions of education, curriculum and pedagogy, leadership theory, and policy studies in order to elucidate effective practices for classrooms, schools, and communities.

The mission of the OCPEA journal is to not only publish high quality manuscripts on various political, societal, and policy-based issues in the field of education, but also to provide our authors with opportunities for growth through our extensive peer review process. We encourage graduate students, practitioners, and early career scholars to submit manuscripts, as well as senior faculty and administrators. We accept quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, and action research based approaches as well as non-traditional and creative approaches to educational research and policy analysis, including the application of educational practices.

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA is a refereed online journal published twice yearly since the inaugural edition in 2014 for the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA). The journal will be indexed in the Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE), and will be included in the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) database.

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

4

Submitting to the OCPEA Journal

OCPEA Call for Papers and Publication Information, 2020:

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA accepts original manuscripts detailing issues facing teachers, administrators, schools, including empirically based pieces, policy analysis, and theoretical contributions. Submissions must include a one hundred word abstract and five key words. Send one electronic copy of the manuscript to the editor using MS Word as well as a signed letter by the author(s) authorizing permission to publish the manuscript. Additionally, a separate cover page must be included containing the article title, author name(s), professional title(s), highest degree(s) obtained, institutional affiliation(s), email address(es), telephone and FAX numbers. Only the article title should appear on the subsequent pages to facilitate a triple-blind reviewing of the manuscript. Submissions should be approximately 15-20 pages including references. Submissions must align to the standards of the *APA Manual* (7th ed.) beginning 2021, however, both the 6th edition and the 7th edition styles of APA will be accepted until December 2020. Submissions must be double-spaced, 12 point Times New Roman font with one inch margins on all sides, each page numbered.

Deadline for Volume 5 Issue 2 (Expected in August, 2020) submissions is **May 31, 2020.**

To submit materials for consideration, send one electronic copy of the manuscript and additional requested information to:
OCPEA Journal Editors at
ocpeajournal@gmail.com

This Call for Papers for the 2020 Journal is posted on the OCPEA website,
http://www.cehs.wright.edu/ocpea/

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

5

General Submission Guidelines

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA accepts original manuscripts detailing issues facing teachers, administrators, schools, including empirically based pieces, policy analysis, and theoretical contributions.

General Areas of Focus:

Advocacy
We seek manuscripts identifying political issues and public policies that impact education, as well as actions that seek to dismantle structures negatively affecting education in general and students specifically.

Policy Analysis
We seek analysis of policies impacting students, teachers, educational leaders, schools in general, and higher education. How have policy proposals at the state or national level, such as the introduction and adoption of national and state standards, affected curriculum, instruction, or assessment of leadership preparation and administrative credential programs?

Preparing Educational Leaders
We seek manuscripts that detail effective resources and practices that are useful to faculty members in the preparation of school leaders.

Diversity and Social Justice
We seek manuscripts on issues related to diversity that impact schools and school leaders, such as strategies to dismantle hegemonic practices, recruit and retain under-represented populations in schools and universities, promote democratic schools, and effective practices for closing the achievement gap.

Technology
We seek manuscripts that detail how to prepare leaders for an information age in a global society.

Research
The members of OCPEA are interested in pursuing the following: various research paradigms and methodologies, ways to integrate scholarly research into classrooms, ways to support student research and participatory action research, and how to use educational research to influence public policy.

For more information, contact OCPEA Journal Editor: Yoko Miura at
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Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

6

Leadership and Research in Education:
The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration **(OCPEA)**

Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

A Note from the Editorial Board

Yoko Miura, Editor
Wright State University

Welcome to the Volume 5, Issue 1 of Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA). In the tradition of the International Council of Professors of Educational Leadership (ICPEL), we offer this venue to regional researchers and practitioners to bridge the divide between them, providing research that is relevant, regional, and relatable and from a grassroots perspective. The collegial work and growth that produced this publication foreshadows our continued success both for the journal and OCPEA in general.

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA) is peer reviewed by members of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Leadership (OCPEA) and their colleagues. OCPEA is honored to bring forth this important and timely publication and hope not only to inform readers with our work, but also to inspire practitioners, graduate students, novice and seasoned faculty members to write for our journal. Part of our mission is to mentor beginning scholars through the writing and publishing process. We would appreciate if our readers would pass on our mission, vision, and call for papers to graduate students and junior faculty as well as to colleagues who are already experts in their fields.

OCPEA is pleased to present an eclectic mix of research and theoretical articles in this issue that are both timely and thought provoking for scholars and practitioners alike in the fields of education, curriculum and instruction, and educational leadership. The manuscripts in this issue detail many of the current controversies in the field of education as we currently experience them, including legal issues impacting school leaders, issues of funding inequities for public schools, and the intersection of schooling and politics.

We would like to acknowledge the many who have helped to shepherd *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration* (OCPEA) into a living entity. First, we thank our authors for submitting their work. Second, we thank our board of editors who worked tirelessly to create the policies and procedures and who took the idea of an ICPEL journal for the state of Ohio to fruition. Third, we wish to express gratitude to our esteemed panel of reviewers. Each manuscript goes through an extensive three-person peer review panel, and we are quite proud of the mentoring that has resulted as a part of this process. Fourth, we give a special thanks to the Board of OCPEA who has supported the vision and mission of *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of*

Educational Administration (OCPEA). The support and guidance of the Board throughout the process of publishing this issue has been inestimable.

Finally, OCPEA is indebted to Brad Bizzell of ICPEL Publications for their direction and support. On behalf of the Board of *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration*, the OCPEA Board, and the general membership of OCPEA, we collectively thank the readers of this publication. We hope the information provided will guide readers toward a deeper understanding of the many facets of the fields of education, curriculum and instruction, and educational leadership. OCPEA hopes to continue to provide readers with insightful and reflective research.

PREVENTING DATING VIOLENCE, SEXUAL VIOLENCE, AND STALKING IN HIGH SCHOOLS TO SUPPORT THE "WHOLE CHILD"

Reiko Ozaki
Northern Kentucky University

Abstract

Dating violence, sexual violence, and stalking are personal, pervasive, and common among high school students. These types of violence are often peer-perpetrated and occur at school. Dating violence includes psychological and physical attacks one utilizes against his or her date. Sexual violence includes harassment and more serious assault such as rape. Stalking involves unwanted and intrusive behaviors that are repeated and induce fear in the victim. The experiences of violence deeply impact the "whole child." It is recommended that high school administrators promote a culture supportive of victims and intolerant of violence by using evidence-based bystander strategies to prevent violence.

Keywords: dating violence, sexual violence, stalking, high school, violence prevention

Creating a safe school is one of the top priorities for educational leaders. Research indicates that violent victimization is disproportionately seen in adolescents (Finkelhor, 2008; Hashima & Finkelhor, 1999; Young, Grey, & Boyd, 2009) including the serious acts of rape in which teens are significantly more vulnerable than adults (Finkelhor, 2008). The experiences of violence that are personal and pervasive in nature, such as dating violence, sexual violence, and stalking must be considered school safety issues particularly since these types of violence are often peer-perpetrated and occur at school (Coker et al., 2000; Haynie et al, 2013, Turner, Finkelhor, Hamby, Shattuck, & Ormrod, 2011). Further, the violence deeply impacts "the whole child – the physical, social, emotional and intellectual aspects of the child" (Ohio Department of Education [ODE], n.d.). It is vital that high school administrators implement effective prevention measures with a thorough understanding of the violence and its impact on students.

The purpose of this article is to inform educational leaders about dating violence, sexual violence, and stalking among high school students as well as their impact on students' well-being and academic outcomes. The article concludes with recommendations on violence prevention relevant to Ohio high school administrators. This article originates from the dissertation study that investigated the relationship between high school students' violence victimization as well as perpetration and the students' active bystander behaviors, which are actions that can prevent violence from happening in the first place (Ozaki, 2017). This article aims to provide vital information to practitioners rather than reporting the findings of the research study.

Experience of Violence among High School Students

Dating Violence

Dating violence is physical, sexual, psychological, and emotional abuse that one partner inflicts upon the other in a dating relationship (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2019). Recent teen dating trends such as "hooking-up" and "friends with benefits" in which youth engage in sexual activities with no serious relationship expectations (Break the Cycle, n.d.; Kelly, 2012), may make it difficult for youth to see themselves as victims due to the non-traditional nature of their relationships. Traditional or not, perpetrators may hit, shove, intimidate, isolate, monitor their dates, and force sexual acts (Break the Cycle, 2017). Some of these behaviors may occur electronically such as constant texting and posting the date's nude photo without consent (CDC, 2019). The perpetrators are often possessive of their partners and exhibit overt jealousy, using manipulation to keep partners to themselves. In the 2007 case of Johanna Orozco, an Ohio high school student, her high school boyfriend called her obsessively on the phone,

accused her of flirting with other boys, and beat her until she said she would stay with him. These behaviors escalated to the near fatal shooting of Johanna (Dissell, 2015).

Dating violence victimization. Psychological dating violence among high school students is especially common. A national study of 10th graders ($N = 2,524$) found that 31% of girls and 17% of boys were verbally abused by dates (Haynie et al., 2013). Much higher rates of psychological victimization, including threatening, monitoring, and manipulating, are reported from a longitudinal study of randomly selected 9th through 12th graders ($N = 550$): 53-59% for girls and 41-43% for boys (Orpinas, Nahapetyan, Song, Mcnicholas, & Reeves, 2012).

Although not as common as psychological abuse, physical abuse does occur. The 2017 Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS), a national representative study of high school students ($N = 14,765$), revealed that 8% of dating youth were victims of physical violence in the past year (Kann et al., 2018). The types of violence surveyed in YRBS include being hit, slammed into something, and injured with an object or weapon. Sexual violence was also reported by 7% of dating youth in the form of unwanted kisses and touches or physically forced intercourse (Kann et al., 2018). Similarly, an analysis of the 2008 National Survey of Children's Exposure to Violence (NatSCEV) found that 6.4% of 12-17 year-olds ($N = 1,680$) were physically assaulted by their dates (Hamby, Finkelhor, & Turner, 2012).

Dating violence perpetration. Research on dating violence perpetration by youth is limited. One study used a nationally representative sample of 10th graders ($N = 2,524$) and found that 21% reported abusing their dates psychologically (e.g., insulting, making threats) while 9% abused physically (e.g., pushing, throwing something at them)

(Haynie et al., 2013). In a large, cross-sectional study of high school students in

Kentucky ($N = 14,190$), 20% of dating youth reported perpetrating psychological or

physical dating violence (Coker et al., 2014).

Sexual Violence

In high schools, sexual violence often takes a form of sexual harassment which

involves non-contact behaviors, such as telling sexual jokes, spreading sexual rumors,

pressuring for sexual activities, and calling someone gay or lesbian, but may also include

more severe forms such as flashing, sexual touches, and forcing sexual acts (e.g., Hill &

Kearl, 2011; U.S. Department of Education [USDE], 2008). The USDE (2008) also

includes impact of sexual harassment in its definition as an act that "denies or limits a

student's ability to participate in or benefit from a school's education program" (p.3).

Sexual violence victimization. Sexual harassment is very common in high

schools. The 2008 NatSCEV found that 16% of 14 to 17 year-olds were sexually

harassed in their lifetime (Finkelhor, Turner, Shattuck, & Hamby, 2013). Other national

representative studies found much higher rates of sexual harassment in high schools.

American Association of University Women ([AAUW], 2001) found that over 80% of 8th

through 11th graders ($N = 2,064$) had been sexually harassed at some point in their entire

school career. Ten years later, another AAUW study reported that 48% of 1,965 students

in 7th to 12th grades were sexually harassed with such acts as sexual comments,

homophobic name calling, and sexual touches during the school year (Hill & Kearl,

2011). More severe forms of sexual violence are also reported. A statewide survey of

Kentucky high school students ($N = 18,0303$) revealed that 18.5% of the respondents

experienced unwanted sexual activities in the past year (Williams et al., 2014). Further,

7.4% of national sample of high school students reported being forced to have sexual intercourse ever in their lifetime by various perpetrators including peers in 2017 YRBS (Kann et al., 2018).

One important point for high school administrators to recognize is that the high school age group is the largest sexual violence victim group when compared to other age-groups. For example, an analysis of 2008 NatCEV revealed that high school youth (5.1%) had much higher rate of sexual assault victimization compared to middle (0.9%) and elementary (0.7%) school youth (Turner, Finkelhor, Shattuck, Hamby, & Mitchell, 2015). The same goes for sexual harassment and flashing where 11.6% of high school students reported victimization compared to middle (3.2%) and elementary (0.7%) school students.

Another point to note is the significant gender difference. Girls (56%) were sexually harassed significantly more than boys (40%) in a national study (Hill & Kearl, 2011). Similarly, Young et al. (2009) reported that the rate of female sexual harassment victimization (75%) doubled that of their male counterparts. In the 2017 YRBS, the rate of sexual assault victimization among girls almost tripled that of boys (11.3% vs 3.5%) regardless of their race and grade level (Kann et al., 2018).

Sexual violence perpetration. Past research clearly indicates that peer-to-peer sexual violence is common. A study of 7th through 12th graders ($N = 1,086$) revealed that various sexual violence, ranging from unwanted kisses and hugs to oral sex and rape, were perpetrated by a date (15%), an acquaintance (19%), or a friend (46%) (Young et al., 2009). In another study ($N = 2,999$), 14% of 14-17 year-old victims of sexual assaults, sexual harassment, and flashing reported their perpetrators were peers (Turner et al.,

2011). Clear et al. (2014) found that 8.5% of 18,090 respondents sexually harassed

another high school student by telling sexual jokes, making sexual gestures or remarks, or

asking to hookup after being told no. AAUW (2001) reported that 54% of 8th to 11th

grade students (N = 2,064) sexually harassed another student by telling sexual jokes,

calling them gay or lesbian, or sexually touching. Almost all of these types of acts,

according to the 2010 AAUW study, were peer-perpetrated (Hill & Kearl, 2011). It is

especially noteworthy that many peer-perpetrated sexual violence events occur at school.

For example, 72% of sexual harassment, 37% of flashing, and 43% of sexual assault

including completed rape occurred in the school property, according to one national study

(Turner et al., 2011).

Stalking

Stalking can be defined as "one or more of a constellation of behaviors that (a) are

repeatedly directed toward a specific individual (the ''target''), (b) are unwelcome and

intrusive, and (c) induce fear or concern in the target" (Wesstrup & Fremouw, 1998,

p.258). It may be difficult for educators to identify stalking from other types of youthful

behaviors. When teens are excited about new friendships or romantic interests, some

may engage in "following" behaviors (Scott, Ash, & Elwyn, 2007). When the youth acts

obsessively, the "following" may create fear in the target which then would be considered

stalking (Scott et al., 2007). In general, stalking includes unwanted following in-person

and online as well as phone calls and text messages (Purcell, Moller, Flower, & Mullen,

2009). A stalker may also unexpectedly show up at home or other places the victim

frequents, leave unwanted gifts, use social networking and technology to track the target,

and use others to obtain information about the victim (Loveisespect, n.d.). Stalking may

occur as part of dating violence particularly when one partner tries to keep the other from leaving.

Stalking victimization. Fisher et al. (2014) conducted the first population-based study in the United States on stalking in high schools and found that 16.5% of 18,013 Kentucky youth were stalked in the past year. Adult respondents (18% women and 7% men) of the 2010 National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS) revealed that their first experience of stalking victimization was in their adolescence (Black et al., 2011). In Australia, one of the first empirical research on juvenile stalkers based on stalking protective order applications ($N = 299$) found that, among all of the victims, 69% were females and 71% were high school students (Purcell, Pathe, & Mullen, 2010).

Stalking perpetration. In the aforementioned study by Fisher and colleagues (2014), the self-report of stalking perpetration was much lower than victimization (5.3% vs 16.5%). Among the stalking victims in the study, 23% stated that the stalker was from the same high school. Further, 33% of victims reported that they feared an ex-dating partner the most as the stalker (Fisher et al., 2014). In an Australian juvenile stalking study ($N = 299$), 70% of the stalkers were high school students who were current or former schoolmates (24%), acquaintances (23%), or ex-dating partners (21%) (Purcell et al., 2009).

Co-occurrence of Violence

While it is disturbing that high school students are involved in any one type of violence described above, research suggests that some experience multiple types of violence as victims, perpetrators, or both. Understanding the complex reality of violence

among high school students should inform educators who have opportunities to support students.

Research shows that one type of violent victimization often predicts another. Among a nationally representative sample of 2 to 17 year-olds ($N = 2,030$), a great majority of victims (i.e., 97% peer sexual assault, 92% rape, 91% flashing, 87% verbal sexual harassment, and 76% dating violence) were also victims in more than 4 and an average of 7 kinds of violence perpetrated by peers or adults in the past year (Finkelhor, Ormrod, & Turner, 2007). Among the 12-17 year-old youth in the NatSCEV study, victims of rape (25%), flashing (20%), and sexual harassment (18%) were also physically abused by their dates significantly more than non-victims (Hamby et al., 2012). The same study also found that 60% of physical dating violence victims were sexually violated in their lifetime.

Research on adult criminal offender and college student populations suggests that perpetrators of violence tend to be a small number of individuals who repeatedly commit the same and/or different violent acts (Hamby & Grych, 2013; Lisak & Miller, 2002). Although scarce, adolescent research shows a similar pattern. Perpetration of one kind of violence (sexual assault, physical violence against peers, and physical violence against dates) predicted another type of violence among males in a study of 16 to 20 year-old European and Mexican American youth ($N =247$) (Ozer, Tschann, Pasch, & Flores, 2004). In a Canadian study of 633 students in 7th, 9th, and 11th grades, both boys (19%) and girls (26%) engaged in multiple forms of dating violence (psychological, physical, and sexual) (Sears, Byers, & Price, 2007).

Further, victimization-perpetration is also reported. Among a randomly selected sample of high school students ($N = 2{,}090$), 45% of victims reported perpetrating physical dating violence and the 43% of perpetrators reported physical abuse by their dates (Champion, Foley, Sigmon-Smith, Sutfin, & DuRant, 2008). In the Kentucky high school survey ($N = 14{,}090$), 48% of dating violence victims reported also perpetrating compared to 7% of non-victims (Coker et al., 2014). In regards to sexual harassment, among 1,965 high school students, 92% of girls and 80% of boys who sexually harassed others were also being harassed (Hill & Kearl, 2011).

The Impact of Violence on High School Students

Experience of violence is often traumatic. Trauma is caused by:

an event, series of events, or set of circumstances that is experienced by an individual as physically or emotionally harmful or life threatening and that has lasting adverse effects on the individual's functioning and mental, physical, social, emotional, or spiritual well-being. (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration [SAMHSA], 2014, p.7)

High school students victimized in dating violence, sexual violence, and stalking may be traumatized and have difficulty in their daily functioning at home as well as school.

Violence Victimization and Health and Behavioral Outcomes

Research clearly shows negative health and behavioral impacts of dating violence, sexual violence, and stalking on youth. A 2015 YRBS study ($n = 10{,}443$) found that physical and sexual dating violence victimization had significant association with non-medical use of prescription drugs (Clayton, Lowry, Basile, Demissie, & Bohm, 2017). In another cross-sectional study ($N = 27{,}785$), high school students with frequent recent

alcohol use or recent marijuana use had increased odds of physical and verbal dating

violence victimization compared to those with no to little alcohol or marijuana use

(Parker, Debnam, Pas, & Bradshaw, 2016).

A longitudinal national representative study compared middle and high school

dating violence victims and non-victims on several outcomes including substance abuse,

mental health, and behaviors (Exner-Cortens, Eckenrode, & Rothman, 2013). Female

victims experienced significantly more heavy episodic drinking, depression, suicidal

thoughts, smoking, and dating violence victimization five years later at age 18 through

25. Male victims in the study reported increase in anti-social behaviors, suicidal

thoughts, marijuana use, and dating violence victimization. In another longitudinal study

of 8th-12th graders ($N = 3,328$), psychological dating violence victimization predicted

increased alcohol use as well as symptoms of depression and anxiety while physical

victimization predicted increase in marijuana use and cigarette smoking (Foshee, Reyes,

Gottfredson, Chang, & Ennett, 2013).

In a national study of 6 through 17 year-olds ($N = 3,164$), sexual victimization

including assault and harassment were strongly associated with trauma symptoms such as

anger, anxiety, and depression regardless of the severity of the incident (Turner et al.,

2015). Hill and Kearl (2011) also reported that 87% of those sexually harassed

experienced negative impact, including feeling sick to their stomach (31%), having

trouble sleeping (19%), and getting into trouble at school (10%). Stalking victims

reported more symptoms of post-traumatic stress and mood disorders, hopelessness,

alcohol use, binge drinking, and physical dating violence victimization than non-victims

in a random sample of 1,236 high school students (Reidy, Smith-Darden, & Kernsmith,

2016). All three studies above revealed that girls experienced significantly more and severe symptoms as consequences of the victimization compared to boys.

Violence Victimization and Educational Outcomes

Current research demonstrates negative impact of violence victimization on educational outcomes. Among a convenience sample of high school students in New England (*n* =2,101) dating violence victims suffered from significantly higher levels of depression as well as suicidal ideation and received lower grade compared to non-victims (Banyard & Cross, 2008). More than 12% of sexual victimization were associated with missing school in a national study of 3,164 youth ages 6 to 17 (Turner et al., 2015). A 2009 YRBS study found that female high school students with grades consisting of Ds or Fs were at higher odds of victimization in physical dating violence and in rape by physical force compared to girls with mostly As or Bs (Hammig & Jozkowski, 2013). Another national study found that 32% of sexually harassed high school students did not want to go to school, 30% had difficulty studying, and 12% actually stayed home (Hill & Kearl, 2011). Other impacts of sexual harassment related to school life from the same study include getting into trouble at school (10%), changing their route to school (9%), and quitting an activity or sport (8%).

Additionally, a Newfoundland study of high school students (*N* = 1,539) found that sexual harassment victims, compared to non-victims, experienced significantly more negative educational outcome in the form of reduced in-class participation and lower grades (Duffy, Wareham, & Walsh, 2004). More recently, an investigation of the impacts of childhood violence victimization on educational outcome using systematic review of 67 studies and meta analyses of 43 studies from across the globe found that

sexual violence victims scored 25% percentile points lower than non-victims on standardized tests (Fry et al., 2018). Fry and colleagues (2018) also reported that childhood victims of any type of violence, including dating violence and peer-perpetrated sexual and physical assaults, showed a 13% probability of not graduating from school compared to non-victims.

Factors Associated with Violence Perpetration

Research on the impact of violence generally examines the consequences suffered by the victims. For perpetrators, studies generally investigate predictive or risk factors. In a study that followed 1,042 high school students for 6 years, trauma symptoms including numbing and avoidance were associated with dating violence perpetration (Shorey et al., 2018). Similarly, in a one-year longitudinal study of Canadian high school students ($N = 1,317$), trauma symptoms such as re-experiencing trauma and hyperarousal predicted psychological dating violence perpetration among boys while anger related to trauma predicted physical and psychological dating violence perpetration among girls (Wolfe, Wekerle, Scott, Straatman, & Grasley, 2004). In the 6-year longitudinal study of high school students ($N = 1,031$), history of violence against dates, exposure to parental partner violence, childhood maltreatment victimization, and low conflict resolution competency predicted future physical and sexual dating violence perpetration (Cohen, Shorey, Menon, & Temple, 2018). Further, mental health issues and acceptance of violence in dating relationships were predictors of dating violence perpetration among adolescents according to a systematic review of 20 longitudinal studies (Vagi et al., 2013). They also found that some academic measures such as good grades and higher verbal IQ were protective factors against perpetration of dating violence.

Conclusion

This article provided the definitions and prevalence of dating violence, sexual violence, and stalking among high school students and detailed their impacts on the students. Review of the literature demonstrates the urgency of the issue faced by high school students and calls for serious attention from educational leaders.

In particular, it must be recognized that sexual violence is especially damaging. Victimization that are sexual in nature, regardless of the severity of the act, tend to have more damaging effects on youth than non-sexual victimization. Additionally, gender differences do exist in experience of violence. Extant research shows that female students are victimized significantly more in various types of sexual violence and are negatively impacted more than male students. However, for dating violence, some studies found that boys and girls are equally violent toward dates, or girls report more use of violence against dates than boys. On the other hand, other studies found that more boys than girls perpetrate dating violence. Because of the complicated nature of the relational dynamics, simple conclusions should not be reached. Power imbalance within the couple and individual relationships' unique contexts must be considered when assisting students of any gender. Further, school administrators must be aware that perpetrators may be traumatized youth. Studies on adverse childhood experiences (ACE) suggest that childhood traumatic experiences are rampant and often predict future victimization and perpetration (Foster, Gower, McMorris, & Borowsky, 2017; Fox, Perez, Cass, Baglivio, & Epps, 2015). While their current hurtful action must be condemned, individual hardship and its impact on their current attitudes and behaviors must be considered when assisting students.

Recommendations for School Administrators

It is crucial to recognize that student victims do not share about their experience with adults at school even though many are victimized at school. For instance, a national study found that a significantly small percentage of students reported sexual harassment victimization to their teachers (9%), compared to friends (23%), parent/family (27%), and no one (50%) while almost half of the in-person incidents occurred at school (Hill & Kearl, 2011). It is imperative that high school administrators explore ways that the teachers and other adults within the school play a supportive role to students experiencing violence. Indeed, schools do act as a protective factor against violence for students according to research. In a study of 10th graders ($N = 638$), while relational victimization at school was associated with increased likelihood of dropping out of school, school connectedness and presence of a caring adult at school were associated with decreased odds of dropping out (Orpinas & Raczynski, 2016). For the school to be a protective factor for high school students experiencing violence, cultivating the culture of support for victims as part of efforts to prevent violence is recommended.

One of the evidence-based approaches in violence prevention is the bystander approach, a model of primary prevention which aims to prevent violence from happening in the first place. The bystander approach aims to equip all community members with knowledge and skills that allow them to intervene safely while promoting the culture that is intolerant of violence and supportive of victims (See Ozaki, 2017, for review). As an innovative approach to prevent violence, bystander programs have proliferated throughout the United States in the last decade and have demonstrated effectiveness in several studies, including one large randomized control trial in high schools. From their

five-year study ($N = 89,707$), Coker and colleagues (2017) report significantly lower rates of violence in intervention schools compared to control schools, including 21% lower sexual violence perpetration in intervention schools in the fourth year of program implementation.

This article demonstrated the urgent needs for educational leaders to recognize dating violence, sexual violence, and stalking in high schools. Understanding potential impacts of violence on students allows educators to support students so they are encouraged to stay in school and succeed. Attending to personal experiences of violence among students supports the notion that the school administrators, teachers, and staff care about the needs and success of "the whole child" (ODE, n.d.). A recent letter from the Ohio governor to superintendents indicated the availability of funding dedicated to prevention education and encouraged collaboration with community partners (DeWine, 2019). In their efforts to create safe schools and advocate for success for all students, high school administrators are highly encouraged to seek evidence-based programs implemented successfully in various districts across the United States.

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

24

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THE VIABILITY OF TRAINING STUDENT TEACHERS FOR THE POSSIBILITY OF USING PHYSICAL RESTRAINT: AN INVESTIGATION OF CARE, WELFARE SAFETY AND LIABILITY

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Abstract

Ambulatory restraint is defined as any physical method of restricting an individual's freedom of movement, physical activity, or normal access to his or her body. There has been increased volume of restraints documented in public schools. This alerted the school of education at a midwestern university as to the possible need for crisis intervention training to become a required part of the licensure program. An examination of current best practices, current stances taken by professional organizations, legal perspectives on safety and liability, and an investigation of the of the trauma this might induce was undertaken, The decision was made that training would not be required for licensure or degree, but should still be made available to students as PD.

Keywords: restraint, crisis intervention, PBIS, trauma

The purpose of this paper is to describe the process a mid-sized, liberal arts education licensure program implemented to discern the viability of providing mandatory training for preservice teachers in the skills of crisis intervention that includes ambulatory restraint training for students who have become a threat to themselves or others. This is a pressing issue in licensure programs and as a faculty we felt that we needed to further educate ourselves as to the context of ambulatory restraint in schools, the legal implications, safety implications and the overall efficacy of training, or not training our candidates in these skills. In the past several years our candidates have experienced an increased frequency of aggressive, acting out behavior from the students they serve in their

field placements. Several times they were in the midst of physical interventions and were

unaware and unprepared to react. The School of education saw this as a liability and began

working towards writing a policy that addressed this evolving problem.

We will also address the difficulties in delivering said curriculum as well as

strategies to combat and overcome white student resistance to this critical content.

Methods

As a faculty we identified four broad areas of investigation. These were the

historical context of restraints in school, the legal implications of either training our

candidates in these skills or forbidding them from participating in physical restraints, the

impact of trauma research in regard to physical restraints on children for both the children

and candidates, and finally, the current "best practice" for physical restraints as well as

the perspectives of current administrators in the field and their perspectives of the legal

and liability related issues of training candidates in how to physically restrain students.

The purpose of these investigations was to provide us with current data on maintaining

the care, welfare and safety and security of both the children our candidates were

teaching as well as the candidates themselves. Each of the three faculty members tasked

with this investigation took a portion of the research. The experts chosen to provide their

personal correspondence on these issues were chosen because each were veterans in

education both with over 30 years in the field and direct knowledge and experience with

the issue of physical restraint and the liability and safety issues involved in candidates

participating in physical restraints while in their student teaching experience. After each

faculty member collected data, and completed the interviews we met to consolidate our

data and attempt to form a policy regarding physical restraint training and participation of

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

34

candidates in physical restraint events in the schools they were completing their student

teaching experience in. For the purpose of clarity "students" will refer to the P-12

students in schools and "candidates" will refer to student teachers in the licensure

program.

Historical Perspective

Ambulatory restraint is any physical method of restricting an individual's freedom

of movement, physical activity, or normal access to his or her body (International Society

of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nurses, 1999). In the early 1900's ambulatory restraint

was an intervention more common to a psychiatric hospital than a school. During the

second half of the 20th century the inclusion movement embraced a behaviorally diverse

population and the consideration of physical restraint became more commonplace

(Simonsen, Britton, & Young, 2010). In a 21st century study by French and Wojcicki

(2017), a school district documented the number of physical restraints that took place in

the district within a five-year period. During that period there were 1,012 incidents that

required physical interventions of which 34% were due to severe aggression towards

another person (danger to another person), 4% were prompted by the student engaging in

self-injurious behavior (danger to self), and 62% were due to a combination of both

aggression and self-injurious behaviors. While there was clearly a need to understand and

learn how to effectively manage students with these behaviors, the faculty in the School

of Education needed more information before incorporating crisis intervention training

with ambulatory restraints as a requirement for teacher licensure and degree. There were

throughout the School varying opinions about the appropriateness of training preservice

teachers in any form of crisis intervention that involved restraint. This article presents the

field research and the professional debate engaged in by our School of Education to vet

information obtained from research, positions of professional organization, educational

law, and the testimony of educational professionals on crisis prevention intervention

training for preservice teachers. Any worthy debate on the ramifications of crisis

intervention that involves restraint must also factor in the consideration of trauma

informed care for all involved and the liability of training preservice teachers who may

not have the contextual knowledge of the school, the children, and the management

system in the individual schools in which they might student teach.

Organizational and Legal Positions on Restraint

In 2017, the 34th Session of United Nations on Human Rights Report required the

unconditional application of the principle of non-discrimination concerning persons with

disabilities so that no additional qualifiers justify the restriction of human rights (p. 7).

Human rights violations incorporate the deprivation of liberty based on the individual

person's state of impairment in conjunction with an alleged danger to themselves or to

others. The United Nations report highlights articles 15, 16, and 17 of the Convention of

the Rights of Persons with Disabilities that reinforced "the abolition of all involuntary

treatment" (p. 9) and demanded the elimination of restraints.

In the Hearing before the Committee on Education and Labor, U.S. House of

Representatives One Hundred Eleventh Session held in Washington, DC on May 19,

2009, on the Examining the Abusive and Deadly Use of Seclusion and Restraint, the

Council for Children with Behavioral Disorder (CCBD) and TASH both submitted

position summaries. CCBD recommended, "Physical restraint or seclusion procedures

should be used in school settings only when the physical safety of the student or others is

in immediate danger…neither restraints nor seclusion should be used as punishment."

"Restraints are considered emergency procedures not treatment procedures." (2009, p. 23) TASH, an international leader in the advancement of inclusion communities for individuals with disabilities, confirmed this position in their prepared statement for the hearing. TASH stated that schools that incorporate the anticipation of restraint into the behavior plan for individuals with disabilities are in essence substituting restraint for the use of positive programming to effect behavior change. When programming proposes staff training in restraint skills this, according to TASH, is a "failed panacea," a treatment failure. TASH considers that "solutions" based on training school personnel in the use of restraint are at the onset a failed "stratagem." (2009, p. 82) TASH concludes:

> The most responsible restraint trainers are now careful to warn that there is no
>
> such thing as a safe restraint. The prevailing reductionist approach of many
>
> violence-management training programs, which emphasize the interpersonal skills
>
> of de-escalation and restraint is to locate the problem within a faulty
>
> paradigm…defining the problem solely as an issue of staff skill may actually
>
> increase incidents and reinforce the prevailing blame and power culture so
>
> prevalent in many agencies. A child restrained in the classroom may come to fear
>
> and avoid not only the so-called target behavior but also the classroom itself, the
>
> teacher, the school and the learning process in general. (TASH, 2009, p. 83)

Sasha Pudelski (2012), Government Affairs Manager and spokesperson for the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), in a position statement "Keeping Schools Safe: How Seclusion and Restraint Protects Students School Personnel" presented a very different picture. The American Association of School

Administrators opposed prohibition of restraint and stated that this procedure "enabled many students with serious emotional or behavioral conditions to be educated not only within our public schools, but also in the least restrictive and safest environments possible" (p. 1). The AASA position apologized for the "unfortunate reality" that "sometimes intentionally" hurts children enduring restraints. They conclude that the infliction of harm occurs with inappropriate use of restraint and is the exception not the rule. For this reason, the AASA does not support the federal prohibition of the use of restraint incorporated into the Individualized Education Plan. In this posture, if the IEP team agrees the use of restraint will allow the student to remain in their Least Restrictive Environment (education at a maximization with all children in the school) prohibiting this intervention runs counter to the entire purpose of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA).

AASA warns that the prohibition of restraints for all students (students with disability and the general education student) is dangerous. For example, restraint can be an appropriate intervention for students with no history of behavior misconduct in the event of a fight. Students "engaged in physical aggression do not typically de-escalate through the use of the words "calm down and come with me" (p. 5). This position of the AASA is in opposition to the position of TASH and CCBD where restraint is justified only when there is a risk of a student inflicting serious bodily injury on himself or another student.

Courts have concluded that a broken nose does not constitute serious bodily injury nor does pain or discomfort …rated at seven on a scale of one to ten.

Serious bodily injury is limited to the pain of the type one would feel if losing a

limb or suffering a near death injury. (Pudelski, 2012, p. 6)

On December 16, 2011 the "Keeping all children safe act" was proposed to 112th session

of Congress. The bill promoted effective interventions practices that did not involve

restraint and denounced aversive behavior interventions that included restraint. Unique to

this bill was the request to prohibit physical restraint if contraindicated by the student's

health care needs, disability, medical management plan, behavior intervention plan, IEP,

IFSP or a plan made under section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. The Act lays

dormant in Congress and to date no other Act has fully addressed restraint.

      The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) position on restraints presents in

their publication entitled *Physical Restraint and Seclusion in Schools* by Peterson, Ryan,

& Rozalski (2013). Even though children with disabilities are the recipient of restraint

more often than other children and youth, concerns about the use of physical restraint

apply to all children. The CEC questions if crisis intervention training in the use of

ambulatory restraint sufficiently encompasses effective decision making in managing

challenging behavior and elements of swift decision making about "whether precipitating

conditions meet threshold criteria for an emergency." The concern is whether those with

only crisis management training are able to determine the levels of imminent physical

danger or capable of making sound decisions in a crisis. The contention is that "a deep

understanding of and experience with challenging behaviors…only comes with extensive

professional training and supervised practice" (p. 47). The lack of extensive and

sophisticated training in techniques effective in mediating challenging behaviors such as

functional analysis, token systems, or self -management interventions leads to ineffective

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of
Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020
    39

practices that "set the stage for challenging behaviors that result in restraint or seclusion" (p. 47). The final word in CEC's 2009 Policy on Physical Restraint and Seclusion Procedures in School Settings stated physical restraint should be used only when the physical safety of the child or others are in danger. Restraint should not be used to force compliance or as a punishment.

According to the Council for Children with Behavior Disorders (CCBD), physical restraint procedures are rarely justified and only when administered by trained personnel (Peterson et al., 2013). Considerations for training include certificates, annual training updates, positive behavior support, conflict de-escalation and evaluation of risks. In preparation for crisis intervention staff should be aware of all medications and how restraint might affect wellbeing. Training "should include multiple methods of measuring a student's wellbeing" (Peterson et al., 2013, p. 167). First Aid and CPR training, as well as use of an oximeter or defibrillator, should be part of training for anyone involved in restraint procedures. CCBD states that restraint may be appropriate when a student's action is a physical danger to self and others and least restrictive measures have not de-escalated the risk of injury. The restraint when undertaken should last no longer than needed to resolve the risk of harm. The degree of force used in a restraint is the minimal force needed to protect the student or others from "imminent bodily injury" (Peterson et al., 2013 p. 168).

The Ohio Department of Education Policy on Positive Behavior and Support and Restraint and Seclusion adopted by the Ohio State Board of Education on January 15, 2013, presented a statewide policy that applied to all school districts regarding positive behavior intervention and supports, and the limited use of restraint and seclusion. The

policy stated schools should use non-aversive behavioral interventions such as Positive

Behavioral Intervention and Supports (PBIS) in order to prevent the use of restraint. PBIS

should facilitate a learning environment that is evidence based for behavioral

interventions, thus enhancing academic and social behavioral outcomes for all students.

According to the Ohio Department of Education, every school district must establish

written policies that inform the use of emergency interventions such as physical restraint

and prohibit all practices that present any form of immediate risk of physical harm. In

order to protect the "care, welfare, dignity, and safety of the students" only trained staff

should implement restraint procedures**.** Trained staff must continually observe the student

in restraint for indications of physical or mental distre**ss** and seek immediate assistance

from medical personnel if necessary. Staff must also be versed in research-based de-

escalation and de-briefing techniques. Noted the state mandated that repeated dangerous

behaviors that precipitate restraint must flag the need for a functional behavior

assessment followed by a functional behavior plan based on PBIS. The State of Ohio

charged the school districts to make sure an "adequate" number of school personnel

received training in crisis management and de-escalation techniques. Noteworthy for our

discussion on student teacher training in crisis prevention intervention is the Ohio

Department of Education definition of student personnel as teachers, principals,

counselors, social workers, school resource officers, teacher's aides, psychologists, or

other school district staff who interact directly with students.

Under the Codes of Ohio for Schools, Chapter 3301-35 Standards for

Kindergarten through Twelfth Grade, the definition of school personnel is presented as

encompassing specially qualified individuals who possess the knowledge, skills and

expertise to support the educational, instructional, health, mental health and college and career readiness needs for all students. Educational service personnel also include those that support the learning of students with special need and include, but are not limited to gifted intervention specialists, adapted physical education teacher, audiologist, interpreter, speech-language pathologists, physical and occupational therapists and English as a second language specialist. Note that at no time are student teachers included in this definition of educational personnel who, with training, might be eligible to implement crisis intervention.

Under the code of Ohio 3301-35-15, The Standards for the Implementation of Positive Behavior Intervention Supports and the Use of Restraint and Seclusion only school personnel trained in safe restraint technique should implement restraints except in the rare and unavoidable emergency when trained personnel are not immediately available. Both a current principal of an autism unit in the Midwest (AT, personal correspondence, 2019) and a former principal of an elementary school (LAP, personal correspondence, 2019) currently employed as faculty Midwestern university emphatically stated that student teachers are visitors and at no time should they be considered school personnel. Both correspondents were very firm in this position. This position reflects their fear of the legal ramifications of student intervention, the lack of student experience to judge the situation, and potential trauma to both student and student teacher. However, the position of field experts stated that exceptions might apply for the unenviable situation where not doing something, even by a student teacher, is not a safe or prudent choice.

Impact of Trauma Research on Decision

Trauma in early childhood has a dramatic effect on the child's development (McConnico, Boynton-Jarrett, Bailey, & Nandi, 2016). Traumatic experiences vary by the individual's perceptions of the traumatic event(s), but the impact can be sustaining and have long lasting ramifications and can actually change a child's physiology (DeBellis & Zisk, 2014). What is the risk of training, or participation in a "restraint even," causing trauma to students in the field?

A neurological study conducted on individuals in the vicinity New York City during the events of September 11, 2001, found that their brains' threat detection system was significantly over-active five years after the traumatic events of the day (Ganzel, Casey, Glover, Voss, & Temple, 2007). Ganzel et al. suggest that these individuals were "permanently retuned" to harm. If this "retuning" occurs, how are children impacted by traumatic events? According to the Center for Disease Control (CDC), one in four children are the victims of maltreatment (Tello, 2019). Perry's 2006 research supports Ganzel's et al. study suggesting traumatized children's normal state of arousal is "reprogrammed" to alert to danger even when no danger is present. These children are less trusting of the adults in their environment and do not see them as a means of support. Brain-based stress response systems of these children permanently change as they focus their attention on safety rather than intellectual pursuits (Bath, 2008). There are two primary types of trauma: acute and complex. Acute trauma comes from a single significant event while complex trauma is ongoing trauma typically induced by a parent (Bath, 2008).

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

43

Infant, toddler, and preschool victims of child abuse and neglect experience a disproportionate amount of abuse, and the resulting toxic stress during this rapid formative stage is more damaging than it is in later years (Fredrickson, 2019). For children whose exposure to complex traumatic events at an early developmental level is persistent, the developmental impact tends to be more pervasive (Bath, 2008). Given the prevalence of the children with traumatic histories, educators are trying to meet the needs of these children within the school community. According to Tello (2019), trauma informed care are practices that promote a culture of safety, empowerment, and healing. Promoting healing comes from creating an atmosphere of safety - a core developmental need. The creation of an environment where children have some level of control when it is possible enables them to begin to feel empowered; however, how are schools to keep these children and others safe when traumatized children often exhibit aggressive, violent behaviors. Due to these children's pervasive distrust of adults, creating an environment of safety becomes more challenging.

True healing comes from helping the child learn to feel empowered and healing a child's inner pain while not re-traumatizing them in the process (Bath, 2008). (a) How does the use of physical restraints influence the student-teacher relationship and their ability to work together for the betterment of the learner? (b) Does the use of restraints provide an irreparable wedge into the student-teacher relationship? (c) How does the use of restraint affect both participants? According to Souers (2017), when students are operating under stress, they are unable to access the higher functioning levels of their brains and are operating in fight, flight, or freeze mentality. When students are dysregulated, they are not learning-ready (Souers, 2017).

A goal of an educator is to avoid trauma inducing behaviors that might further impair a student's ability to access and to benefit from their education. Is there a legitimate need to train and prepare our preservice teacher candidates to participate in restraints given the trauma risks involve?

Crisis Intervention: Importance of Care, Welfare Safety of Students and Staff

There are several considerations when creating a policy that addresses the liability and viability of training preservice teachers in physical crisis intervention techniques. These considerations include the concern for safety of all individuals involved, understanding the law and current research concerning crisis intervention as well as the liability and responsibility involved in these situations. The following scenario and questions help focus attention on the critical elements of safety and welfare of students and staff engaged in a crisis intervention.

In the scenario, a candidate (student teacher) from a small Midwestern licensure program is completing her field placement in a large elementary school in a surrounding suburb. During her typical day, she is required to monitor the cafeteria during breakfast and lunch. Her cooperating teacher uses this time to complete work back in the classroom though this is technically her time to supervise. The candidate is very capable, and the cooperating teacher feels confident that the student can supervise as well as she could. During breakfast, the student teacher was in the cafeteria when she witnessed two boys arguing as they came into the building. The boys put their backpacks down at the table and went towards the cafeteria line. They raced to be first. The boy who got there first began taunting the other boy who was clearly upset that he was last in line and had to wait longer for his food. He began pushing the boy who got there first. The other boy

pushed back and soon the two boys were fighting. It was clear to the student teacher that

one of the two boys would be hurt if this continued. She was the only adult in the

cafeteria at the time. She went over to the two boys to break them apart. As she raised her

voice, she grabbed the boy who appeared to be the aggressor in a basket hold as she was

trained in her crisis intervention training. She held on tight until the boy calmed himself

and was able to control himself. She then documented the incident per school policy. In

the documentation, the student teacher recorded that the boy restrained had deep bruising

on the arms and wrists from the restraints. The following questions develop from the

scenario:

1. Who is responsible for this restraint?

2. Who is liable for the injury?

3. What does the law state about liability in this type of situation?

4. What is "best practice" in field placement situations like this?

5. What is the liability of the licensure program and of the student who did the restraint?

The overriding concern and focus should always be on the care, welfare safety

and security of all students and staff involved in physical restraint events. Therefore, it is

prudent to discourage or even preclude participation of candidates in restraint events

while in the field especially if they are untrained in dealing with these types of behaviors.

However, safety and liability are two different subjects. It is clear that the liability of

events such as described in our scenario is with the supervising teacher and the school

district.

The *Ohio Revised Code 5122-26-16 Seclusion, Restraint and Time Out* states that

restraint or seclusion is only appropriate in response to a crisis where there is imminent

danger for students or staff. It also states that these techniques require response "pro re

nata" or as the situation demands. Also, the revised code states that only "qualified people" defined as "employees or volunteers who carry out the agency's tasks under the agency's administration/supervision are qualified to utilize or participate in the use of seclusion or restraint by virtue of the following: education, training, experience, competence, registration, certification, or applicable licensure law or regulation. Yet, it is also prudent and necessary for the licensure program institution to assist candidates in processing events such as those presented in the scenario. Training in the de-escalation and proactive management strategies within the context of a rich and fully developed Positive Behavioral Intervention Supports model would also assist student teachers in understanding and contextualizing these types of events. This training prior to field placement might be the best way to ensure the care, welfare, safety and security of both the student teachers as well as the students in the classroom while at the same time provide the necessary contextual understanding necessary for rich reflection on these types of events.

Dave Tobergte, Ed.D., veteran administrator and professor in educational leadership, has advised several programs and school districts in southern Ohio as to the risks and considerations of dealing effectively and safely with physical crisis interventions. Dave observed that while legal liability and responsibility may rest with the supervising teacher and district there is still a responsibility of student teachers to begin viewing themselves as professionals who understand and can respond adequately and safely to events requiring possible restraints. Likewise, he feels that school administrators would be "foolish not to assume that a visiting candidate might be put into a situation requiring action of some kind even possible physical restraint." As such,

training prior to entering the building would be preferable. Tobergte also makes the point that schools and even student teachers are under the check of "in loco parentis." In loco parentis is a legal doctrine holding that educator assumes custody of students in school because they are deprived of protection from their parents or guardians. Educators stand in loco parentis, in place of the parent. Tobergte (personal coresspondance, 2019) stated:

> While the law states that the liability and responsibility lie with the supervising teacher and district the care, welfare and safety as well as the civil ramifications need to be taken into consideration. Negligence is still a primary consideration and not responding to a dangerous situation could be seen as negligent and therefore subject to civil lawsuits. Not to mention unsafe. In terms of the story you tell (at the beginning of this section) if the student teacher chose to do nothing and the student who was the aggressor pushed down the other student, he hit his head on the floor and died. That student teacher may not be *legally* liable but would certainly be *civilly* liable. More importantly, under the premise of in loco parentis - protecting the care, welfare safety and security of all students is required. Therefore, doing nothing may not be the safest or most ethical choice. Even if the student teacher intervenes and ends up hurting the student it is far less likely negligence would be found. It is my professional opinion that training prior to placement should be at least considered, if not required. (Tobergte, 2019)

Many believe that safety for all is best attained through training preservice teachers for the possibility of dealing with severe acting out or violent behaviors by students. This type of training would assist professors, and field supervisors, help the students in the processing of events like the one described at the beginning of this article.

John Concannon, Esq. is a 30-year veteran of school law and served as the district

council for a large Midwestern city school district for over 30 years agrees with Tobergte.

Concannon states (personal correspondance, 2019):

Training student teachers as to the nature and needs of students requiring physical

restraint, teaching them de-escalation techniques and strategies, aligning these

skill sets within a Positive Behavioral Intervention Support Model is, in my mind,

an essential and necessary skill set that must be taught initially in the licensure

program. The minute those student teachers enter a building they could be

required to participate in any number of

events that all school personnel might be required to undertake. It is the licensure

programs responsibility, with the cooperating teacher and school leadership, to

make sure they are prepared for that possible event. However, a licensure program

servicing student teachers must also weigh the safety and liability risk of allowing

student teachers to participate in physical interventions if for no other reason than

their responsibility of in loco parentis not to mention the risk of a student teacher

not understanding the context of situation or not knowing the child and their

needs because they are only temporarily in the building. It is not at all a black and

white decision. (Concannon, 2019)

Likewise, Thomas Knestrict, Ed.D., a certified Crisis Prevention trainer for 25

years, states (personal correspondence, 2019):

Professionals must walk a very thin line. On the one side, if they choose not to

physically intervene and because they did nothing a child is hurt or dies, they are

liable. On the other side, if they physically intervene and hurt the child, they are

liable. The safest and most prudent course of action is to train all personnel,

teachers, teacher assistants, administrators and even student teachers, to know

how to safely physically restrain a student to ensure their care, welfare safety and

security just in case. Then, if they find themselves in a situation where they must

react, they can safely do so. (Knestrict, 2019)

Conclusion – Decision

When this process started, there was much to learn regarding the current thinking about

physical restraints. In general, field placement supervisors assumed that the most prudent

option would not permit student teachers to engage in a physical restraint while serving in

the field. However, after speaking to some experts, this decision is now in the process of

reevaluation. The School of Education has not reached an agreement as to what is most

judicious when granting candidates permission to participate in physical interventions.

Many in our School agree that we should train preservice teachers in the skills of de-

escalation, personal safety techniques, and documentation skills. However, we cannot

come to a consensus and still embrace differing opinions regarding training our students

to use ambulatory restraints. More importantly, schools, and lawyers, are split on these

issues. Given the burgeoning information on trauma and trauma informed practices, we

are inclined to study this issue further.

The care, welfare, and safety of students and staff should be a primary focus of

any licensure program. Training students in skills of de-escalation and personal safety

techniques but discouraging participation in physical interventions except when

necessary is a safe and prudent concept to teach all preservice teachers. Coaching these

skills within the proven viability of a Positive Behavioral Intervention and Supports

(PBIS) framework is also an effective means of communicating the location of these skills. The existing gray areas of safety, liability, and appropriateness of student's participation in ambulatory restraints is a set of issues not yet definitively settled in either the legal or educational discourse. Our School of Education will offer workshop options in crisis intervention as well as PBIS and trauma informed practices to offer a variety of experiences for students but will not, as of yet, *require* the training for students in our initial licensure program.

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Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

53

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RELATIONSHIP OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATIONS AND LEADERSHIP CLASSES AT PENSACOLA STATE COLLEGE

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Abstract

167 final writing projects from bachelor level Leadership courses were analyzed to find a correlation of success rates between pre-completed business and professional communication courses. The test statistic was close to an outlier on a one-tail test with a probability of 5.318948%, which meant the outcome of this study was quite close to null hypothesis rejection. The unanticipated result and largest area for further study was the significant number of students who did not end up completing the final paper. Of 167 students observed, only 133 completed the final paper. The completion rate of those having taken the Business and Professional Communication courses was 74 of 88 (84.09%). The completion rate of those having not taken the Business and Professional Communication courses was 59 of 79 (74.68%).

Keywords: business communication, leadership, pedagogy, student learning outcomes

Introduction

In order to teach business curriculum courses effectively, it is imperative for faculty to have a clear understanding of written professional communication skills (Penrod, Tucker, & Hartman, 2017). This is in direct correlation with the vision of Pensacola State College (PSC) which entails "preparing them [students] to succeed within the global community" (Pensacola State College, n.d.-a, para. 3). In an ever-changing and competitive global environment, 80.3% of employers seek written communication skills on a candidate's resume (NACE, 2018). Therefore, PSC needs to ensure students have appropriate business writing skills.

One of the primary goals of PSC's Business Department is to provide a learning environment that fosters essential pedagogical building blocks that will enhance student learning from one course to another. As a cohesive unit, faculty encourage students to reach beyond the written terminology in their textbooks, applying what they learn to real-world scenarios. Part of this journey entails specific emphasis on both the written and spoken word. Shwom and Snyder (2019) stress, "Students are more than twice as likely as an employer to think that they are well-prepared to think critically, communicate orally and in writing, and work well in teams—skills that employers believe are crucial for job success" (p. 7). In an era where texting jargon is often translated by students into written assignments, an overarching concern is to ensure students are able to differentiate between effective communication in varying contexts. This has proven to be a pressing issue in the business world (Hackman & Johnson, 2009; Thill & Bovee, 2017).

On January 22, 2019, the Pensacola State College Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved the study protocol, specifically to include anonymized final paper scores. A protocol exemption 1 was approved based on the comparison of instructional techniques, curricula or classroom management. Because of the limited sample size, demographics and all additional identifying information were removed from the scores. To maintain an anonymized study, the authors limited demographic aggregation.

The research addressed in this study will explore student learning outcomes from two PSC Business Communication courses while gleaning how students who completed them fared in a departmental leadership course. Did taking the aforementioned courses enhance learning outcomes for those enrolled in the leadership class? This research will explore student learning outcomes in the leadership course, specifically whether there

was an improvement in written communication skills. By comparing student success in preceding or simultaneous communication courses, potential curricula or programmatic changes are identified.

From a writing perspective, the American Psychological Association (APA) style guide is most commonly used to cite sources within the social sciences, according to PSC's writing guide (Pensacola State College, 2018). Fitchburg State University more clearly detail APA as a standard for business in its own writing guide (Fitchburg State University, n.d.). For the purpose of this discussion, Business and Professional Communications are both included in the social science paradigm. While Chicago (Turabian) is also an acceptable format, variable limitation is required for statistical validity. Therefore, APA is the standard set forth in the classes and study.

Literature Review: Applicability to Business Communication and Leadership

The importance of enhancing effective communication skills in leadership positions is of vital importance to any organization (Shaw, 2017). An effective means of doing so is laying the groundwork early, from an educational standpoint (Bucata & Rizescu, 2017; Calkins & Ehrenworth, 2016). From secondary to post-secondary settings, scholars have utilized varied approaches to enhance written and verbal communication skills, with hopes positive results could transcend into effective leadership traits. From a medical standpoint, Lyda (2019) explored how prospective surgeons wrote reflective essays about their initial experiences, with an overarching goal of helping them become better doctors. The study, conducted at the University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, analyzed essays written by thousands of unidentified third-year medical students. The findings concluded that writing about their experiences

provided a means for students to arrive at insights that would otherwise have not been

possible. Results also indicated that the essays were not only rewarding for the students,

"but also for the administrators privy to them" (Lyda, 2014, p. 466). As a result, faculty

and students emerged from the study with a greater appreciation for being able to glean

critical information to help them emerge more empathetic while dealing with emotional

and ethical dilemmas on a daily basis.

Hosier and Touma (2019) conducted a study that evaluated inter-professional and

leadership skills among Canadian urology residents. Surveys were administered to chief

residents and program directors, asking specific questions about their communication and

leadership skills. A major catalyst for the research stemmed from the fact that residents

are expected to communicate effectively with a wide range of medical professionals,

while also leading medical teams. The findings revealed that self-assessment results from

urology students did not differ significantly from program directors. A specific goal was

for faculty to provide focused feedback, to help elicit more meaningful change in

communication and leadership skills among residents.

Carter, Ro, Alcott, and Lattuca (2016) conducted a study that analyzed

undergraduate research of engineering students, focusing on how it impacted their

communication, teamwork, and leadership skills. Approximately 5,000 students from 31

colleges of engineering participated in the study. The findings revealed that students who

engaged in undergraduate research tended to report higher in skill levels. However, when

curriculum and classroom experiences were taken into account, there was no specific

correlation between undergraduate research on teamwork and leadership skills. In

contrast, Carter et al. (2016) gleaned that undergraduate research provided a significant

predictor of communication skills. They also stressed the importance of expanding

undergraduate research options, while integrating communication and leadership skills

into required coursework for engineering students.

In a study engaging the effectiveness of writing instruction in elementary and

secondary schools, McGhee and Lew (2007) explored how principals' knowledge of the

curriculum could influence actions or interventions.   A survey was administered to 169

teachers, asking them specifically whether their principal was trained in writing as a

process. Participants were comprised of elementary and secondary teachers (rural and

suburban). Results conveyed that principals who believed in effective writing practices

were more willing to help their teachers produce quality work, while also intervening on

their behalf for professional development and other educational opportunities.

Methods

It is essential to lay the foundation for this research by starting with the following

information that will guide the study. The first null hypothesis is: "there is no difference

in the final writing paper of the leadership course scores, excluding scores of zero,

between students who took business communication or professional communication

courses." The second null hypothesis is: "there is no difference in the final writing paper

of the leadership course scores, including scores of zero, between students who took

business communication or professional communication courses".

Courses

Business Communications. This course is designed to improve students' skills in

all aspects of organizational communication. Systems, practices, and media are

incorporated, including some areas of the behavioral sciences. Emphasis is placed on

fostering effective written and oral communication skills. The class also incorporates

areas of grammar and mechanics to improve overall student success (Pensacola State

College, n.d.-b).

Professional Communications. This course focuses on communication within

organizations, placing specific emphasis on organizational theory and structure, systems

analysis, and communication networks. The use of analytical thinking skills is crucial.

Written and oral communication modes are used cohesively to prepare students for

various aspects of decision-making within varying business contexts. Legal and ethical

constraints are also explored extensively (Pensacola State College, n.d.-e).

Paper Instructions for Communication Courses. Both courses require written

assignments. In addition to classroom instruction the professor provides, students are

also encouraged to visit PSC's Writing Lab. It is a free service offered to any student

who needs assistance. Face-to-face and virtual hours are provided for the vast array of

student learners (Pensacola State College, n.d.-f). Each course has an assigned critical

analysis paper that is worth 200 points (point allocations specified in the assignment

rubrics). The typed document must be 4-6 pages in length, excluding the cover and

reference pages. Times New Roman 12-point font is required (Leary, 2019).

Students must choose a prominent communicator in the business world and

analyze a speech the person delivered. Learners must use specific terminology from their

textbooks, while also selecting three main thesis items, each of which will have its own

body section. A critical analysis section also challenges them to find articles written by

those who may have covered the speech, positing them to agree or disagree with what

was written, further enhancing their critical thinking skills. Students are given specific

rubrics for each paper, which require adherence to APA 6th edition guidelines (Leary, 2019). Before papers are submitted, students are given an in-class APA "crash course" that provides them with the basic essentials. They are also reminded that the Purdue Owl APA 6th edition link, located in the syllabus, is the standard go-to guide for all things pertaining to this specific style guide.

In addition to a thorough in-class review of all parameters pertaining to their papers, students are also reminded that adherence to proper grammar, punctuation, and APA 6th edition guidelines will be factored into their grades. The professor provides numerous opportunities for students to interact with her in class, after each session, during office hours, and via other modes of communication, such as email and telephone. Learners are also given a "student paper example," a pre-approved document from a former student who performed well on the assignment. This is a visual representation of the end result. When compared to the assignment rubric, it also serves as a handy, structural checklist to ensure students know exactly what the professor expects. The overarching goal is to provide students with the essentials they need to succeed not only in the course, but also in the real world.

Theories of Leadership. This course presents the basic concepts, principles, and techniques of Business Leadership. Emphasis is placed on the student developing a solid leadership foundation while centering them in the real themes, demands, and opportunities of an evolving and dynamic business workplace. It incorporates basic leadership skill development, as it relates to the core aspects of the management practice (Pensacola State College, n.d.-c).

Paper Instructions for Leadership. The instruction set for the final Personal Leadership Reflection (PLRP) paper includes the following parameters: 1. The PLRP paper must be four to six (4-6) typed pages (not including the title page or works cited page), double spaced, one-inch margins, 12-point font, and written in the APA format. 2. It must contain four, clearly labeled sections—Personality Profile; Theory, Concepts and Application; Reflective Observation; and Personal Leadership Skill Development. 3. Grades will be assigned using a zero-based, twenty-five-point (25) system. Scores will be multiplied by 4 in order to establish grades on a 100-point scale. Students start out with zero points, receiving up to five (5) points for each section, according to the degree to which they fulfill the section requirements (20 total points available). An additional five (5) points will be assigned for the integration, synthesis, mechanics, and the general quality of writing; 5 total points available (Payne, 2018).

The statistical method will consist of a two-tailed t-test, comparing two means. This test was chosen, based on having clear performance data to average between two independent groups (Polgar, 2013). The study is a retrospective analysis. A two-tailed t-test is chosen because there is a possibility that scores will be worse on the Leadership paper, following the Communications courses. The scenario is not anticipated, so the scores for both will be included in the analysis.

Scope Limitations

The time period was limited to two sequential years to ensure relevant data. Courses could have been taken concurrently. Because the final paper was not due until the end of the Leadership course, relevant written Communication coursework would have been completed. The professor pool for the classes was limited to a single professor

for the communication courses and a single professor for the leadership courses. This limitation is a double-edged sword. While reducing the potential for outside variation based on teaching style, it makes a potential limitation based on the teaching skills of each given professor.

Since only 5 of 25 possible points were attributed to integration, synthesis, mechanics, and the general quality of writing, only 20% of the final score is directly relevant to this study. Because data aggregation techniques prevent breaking down the data to this subset of writing, the results of the study differences must be taken as whole. Specifically, the ability to communicate the entire intent of the paper is the measurable metric. Indeed, with Business and Professional Communications, it is precisely this holistic view that is imperative.

Findings

Results were calculated with and without withdrawals, incompletes, and zeros. Both results were included, but primary emphasis was placed on those who actually completed the Leadership course, as listed in Table 1. The reasoning for this focus was to remove unrelated confounding variables with adult learners, attendance, or completion challenges.

Calculation Results

In accordance with Table 1, statistical sampling did not definitively determine that taking Business Communication or Professional Communication courses at PSC had positive or negative effects on the final written paper for the Leadership course at PSC. Practical application and scores did not vary significantly. Additionally, while the degrees of freedom (dfs) increased significantly with scores of zero included in the

results, a large number of cases (*N*) or expanded study will be required to further support conclusions.

Table 1

Student Exam Scoring With and Without Business Communications

	Business Communications		Zeros Included	
	With	Without	With	Without
Average Score	88.37	87.05	74.31	65
Sample Size	74	59	88	79
Degrees of Freedom	131		165	
Test Statistic	0.65		1.62	

Note: The results were not significant.

Potential Confounding Variables

By limiting the scope to two professors, the varying teaching styles have been reduced to two distinct styles as confounding variables. Specific styles, while subjective in nature, also limit the applicability of results. Since textbooks and teaching websites change approximately every three years, the test was limited to one and a half teaching years. Those limitations allowed for the consistent information to be presented by each of the two professors over the period of the study.

Both professors use omnidirectional teaching philosophies. The Leadership course combines discussion, Cengage Mindtap ©, *The Leadership Experience* (Daft & Lane, 2018). Canvas announcements are also used for online instruction, in addition to any face-to-face instruction. The Communications and Leadership courses both provide eclectic and continuously evolving communication platforms (electronic, business, and traditionally face-to-face interpersonal channels). Real-time teleconferencing, online

self-assessments, video lectures, and discussions boards accompany more traditional classroom instruction.

Prior writing courses beyond Business or Professional Communication have not been included as part of this study. It is possible that students may have had advanced research writing courses beyond the scope of this study. However, those courses are not mandated as part of the current PSC curriculum for Business majors. The sample sizes in this situation, while over 30, tallied at 167 total students. However, the actual courses compared were only five Leadership courses, three Business Communications, and eight Professional Communication courses.

Conclusions

Primary Conclusion

Since $t = 0.65$, df 131 ($p > 0.05$), we failed to reject the first Null Hypothesis that "there is no difference in the final writing paper of the leadership course scores, excluding scores of zero, between students who took business communication or professional communication courses". For the second null hypothesis, $t = 1.62$, df 165 (p > 0.05), therefore, we fail to reject that "there is no difference in the final writing paper of the leadership course scores, including scores of zeros between students who took business communication or professional communication courses". In other words, there is no significant difference between two groups.

Secondary and Tertiary Conclusions

While the Null Hypothesis was not rejected, ample observations and conclusions are supported with this study. Of specific value is the trend line which supports that a greater sample size over an extended period would change the outcome. While the

sample size of 183 would have been adequate to fail to reject the null hypothesis in this case, a continued difference of 9 points (with zeros included) and 1 point (without zeros included) will result in a rejection of the null hypothesis. Of importance, the test statistic, including zeros, was 1.62, with a t Critical one-tail of 1.65. Having the test statistic so close to an outlier on a one-tail test with a probability of 5.31% means the outcome of this study was quite close to null hypothesis rejection.

In addition, a qualitative assessment of student performance indicated the Business and Professional Communication courses helped students perform better on the Leadership writing assignment. Quantitatively, a difference in 9 (mean of 74.31 compared to 65.01) points will likely increase student performance by an entire letter grade. The surprise result was the large number of students who did not end up completing the final paper. Indeed, of 167 students observed in the year-and-a-half time frame, only 133 completed the final paper. This resulted in a shortfall of 34. The incompletion rate could have resulted from students dropping the course. The completion rate of those having taken the Business and Professional Communication courses was 74 of 88 (84.09%). The completion rate of those having not taken the Business and Professional Communication courses was 59 of 79 (74.68%). Interestingly, those who completed the Business and Professional Communication courses had a 10% greater probability of finishing the Leadership course. This compelling revelation sheds light on the effectiveness of fostering collaborative learning across various curriculums within PSC's Business Department.

Recommendations

An overarching recommendation would be to conduct future studies on both Business and Professional Communication courses, including their impact on student success and graduation rates. The close t-test results and the unanticipated completion rate differences indicate the need to research the underlying cause or correlation between the courses, the professors, and student graduation.

An idea for further research would be to conduct a study that incorporates others who have taught Business and Professional Communication courses, beyond the year-and-a-half time frame evidenced in this study. This would be an effective means of gauging how the correlation of the aforementioned courses impact future Leadership classes over an extended period of time. An effective means to pursue this would be the application of a mixed methods approach, one which incorporates both quantitative and qualitative methods (Cresswell & Plano, 2007). A significant difference between these two approaches is that quantitative research proposes a hypothesis, which will either be accepted or rejected. In contrast, the overarching goal of qualitative research is to produce a hypothesis (Cronholm, & Hjalmarsson, 2011). According to Caruth (2013), a mixed methods approach "offers richer insights into the phenomenon being studied and allows the capture of information that might be missed by utilizing only one research design" (p. 112). This is because it handles a wider range of research questions. For example, unlike utilizing a quantitative approach solely, in-depth responses from students could be gleaned via open-ended questions, representative of a qualitative approach. In essence, incorporating a mixed methods approach offers enhanced validity through

triangulation (cross validation), adding insights and comprehension that might be missed when using only a single research design (Cresswell & Plano, 2007).

Another way to broaden this research could be to expand it beyond the scope of the Business Department, analyzing how Business or Professional Communication courses and Leadership course offerings impact student success and graduation rates overall. Did students feel their experiences in the Business Department prepared them effectively for writing assignments in other PSC-related coursework, or was there no difference at all? Collaboration among various PSC departments is something that has been embraced with vigor. A study like this could explore the phenomenon even further.

Lastly, the researchers recommend consideration of Business or Professional Communications as a pre-requisite for upper-level, Bachelor of Applied Science (BAS) coursework. Having shown trends in success rates, the correlation between those two courses and PSC's mission of preparing all students to succeed should be applied and/or measured further. This study is a stepping stone for curriculum and programmatic study/change. Subsequent changes to coursework pathways may add or remove additional variables for consideration.

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EVIDENCE-BASED BYSTANDER PROGRAMS TO PREVENT SEXUAL AND DATING VIOLENCE IN HIGH SCHOOLS

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Abstract

High school students are often involved in sexual and dating violence. The bystander approach aims to stop sexual and dating violence from their initial occurrence by promoting social norms supporting victims and tolerating no violence. Recent studies of high school bystander programs report promising evidence of effectiveness in improving attitudes and reducing violence. The theoretical frameworks of the approach and examples of bystander programs are provided. When implementing, administrators are encouraged to commit to fully adopt the program, collaborate with community partners, address cultural relevance, and use policies to create safe and equitable schools for all students.

Keywords: dating violence, sexual violence, high school, violence prevention, bystander program

High school students are often involved in sexual and dating violence. Sexual violence includes unwanted sexual acts ranging from fondling to penetration (i.e., rape) that are often drug- or alcohol-facilitated, and verbally, psychologically, and/or physically forced (Basile et al., 2016). Sexual harassment, often non-contact unwanted acts, sits within a sexual violence continuum, and may include pressuring for sexual favors, showing sexual materials or gestures, and telling sexual jokes. These are serious concerns as they limit educational opportunities for targeted students (U.S. Department of Education [USDE], 2008). Dating violence occurs between two people who are in a dating, courting, or in a form of intimate relationship where one abuses the other. The abusive tactics may be physical (e.g., hitting or kicking), sexual (e.g., unwanted touching or rape), psychological (e.g., verbal aggression or controlling acts), and stalking (e.g.,

repeated and unwanted attention) (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2019). These types of violence are personal in nature and pervasive in their impacts on individual youth. Research suggests that these debilitating acts are often perpetrated by students on school properties and negatively affect youth in various areas, including mental health, behaviors, and educational outcomes (see Ozaki, 2017).

Over the years, high schools have adopted many programs in an effort to prevent sexual and dating violence. More recently, evidence-based programs have emerged using an innovative bystander approach. This article introduces bystander programs to educational leaders for consideration to adopt in high schools. First, the historical background of bystander programs in high schools is described, followed by the theoretical foundation of the approach. The article will then describe some programs with evidence of effectiveness and concludes with recommendations for educational leaders. This article is partly drawn from a dissertation study that examined active bystander behaviors among high school students (Ozaki, 2017). Rather than reporting the results of the dissertation study, this article aims to inform educational leaders on current literature on bystander programs.

Understanding the Bystander Programs

Historical Background

High school violence prevention programs historically focused on sexual harassment that were influenced by the first national study on sexual harassment (AAUW, 1993) and the federal guidance on schools' responsibilities in handling of sexual harassment cases and prevention efforts (U.S. Department of Education [USDE], 2001). Available guidance and curricula show that the programs are generally

educational (see Ozaki, 2017)). Although subsequent studies identified prevalence and consequences of sexual harassment among high school students, there is dearth of literature detailing sexual harassment prevention programs and their effectiveness (see Ozaki, 2017). Sexual harassment has been addressed in the bullying prevention programs as bullying often involves behaviors that are sexual in nature.

Bullying prevention programs and research proliferated in the United States in the early 2000s because of high profile high school shooting cases committed by bullying victims (Espelage & Swearer, 2003). Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP), developed in Norway in the 1980s, is one of the most notable programs globally and has been implemented in the United States. OBPP targets not only students but also parents, adults in the school, and the surrounding community in its effort to stop the current and future bullying (Olweus & Limber, 2010). Although some positive results were reported about bullying prevention programs, they primarily focused on middle schools (e.g., Espelage, Low, Polanin, & Brown, 2013; Olweus & Limber, 2010). A recent OBPP program evaluation included grades 3 through 11 but did not find significant program effects on grades 9-11 students (Olweus, Limber, & Breivik, 2019).

During the late 1980s and 1990s, studies revealed that university women were at high risk for sexual assault victimization (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). A subsequent federal mandate led to implementation of sexual violence prevention programs across the United States (Morrison, Hardison, Mathew, & O'Neil, 2004). Traditionally, these college programs focused on women as potential victims and men as potential perpetrators in their educational efforts to stop sexual and dating violence (Lonsway et al., 2009; Gidycz, Rich, & Marioni, 2002). The traditional approaches lacked evidence of effectiveness in long-term improvement of knowledge and

attitudes about sexual and dating violence as well as changes in behavior and reduction of violence (see Ozaki, 2017).

High school sexual and dating violence prevention programs have not been evaluated as much as university programs. The limited literature revealed that traditional prevention programs in high schools, like university programs, aimed to improve attitudes and increase knowledge on sexual and dating violence in participants (Hickman, Jaycox, & Aronoff, 2004; Morrison et al., 2004; Cornelius & Resseguie, 2007). These studies commonly had mixed results in immediate and short-term attitudes and knowledge change with no measurement of behavior change.

In the meantime, the focus of the prevention programs began shifting from individual-based education to community involvement in the late 1990s when mass shootings began to occur in schools where adults with knowledge of warning signs did not act to prevent the incidents (Stueve et al., 2006). Against this backdrop, the bystander approach used in middle school bullying prevention programs was adopted by sexual violence prevention programs for universities (Katz, Heisterkamp, & Fleming, 2011). With the rigorous evaluation of several university-based programs, the bystander approach received the federal recommendation as the promising and evidence-based strategy to prevent sexual violence on college campuses (CDC, 2014; White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault, 2014). These university-based bystander programs for sexual and dating violence then found their way into high schools along with other bystander and community-focused programs that were developed for middle and high schools.

Theoretical Foundations of Bystander Programs

The bystander programs have a unique set of theoretical foundations that distinguish them from traditional programs. While there are variations in their development and operations, many share the theoretical foundations described below: public health model, social norm change, bystander effect theory, and personal buy-in for community engagement.

Public health model. Bystander programs employ the *primary prevention* approach to prevent violence based on the public health model. CDC (2004) refers to *primary prevention* as activities conducted *before* the initial occurrence of violence. What is done immediately *after* the incidents is defined as *secondary prevention* while long-term activities are considered *tertiary prevention*. Practitioners in the fields of sexual and dating violence traditionally engage in activities such as supporting victims in crisis and dealing with perpetrators in the aftermath of the incident (i.e., secondary prevention) as well as longer-term activities including mental health services for traumatized victims and offender counseling (i.e., tertiary prevention). The public health model calls for clear strategies of primary prevention that work well with secondary and tertiary prevention. It is also crucial that the programs make efforts to impact changes at multiple levels of social ecology including individual, relationship, community, and societal levels (CDC, 2004). Evidence-based bystander programs include components that target individuals to challenge attitudes, teach skills related to relationship building, and engage larger systems to create a culture of non-violence (Banyard, 2011; Katz, Heisterkamp, & Fleming, 2011). Targeting multiple levels of social ecology is particularly appropriate for high school level students because their everyday activities are rooted in their relationships and communities. For instance, they interact with peers

and family as well as adults in the school. Further, high school youth are connected to their community through local businesses and service providers.

Social norm change. A central theme of bystander programs involves changing the social norms related to sexual and dating violence. Extant research indicates community norms as a significant risk factor to perpetration of violence such as sexual assault and relationship violence among adults and youth, including high school students (Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 2000; Reyes, Foshee, Niolon, Reidy, & Hall, 2016). Bystander programs assert that the social norms that accept and support sexual and dating violence must shift to the social norms that reject and condemn violence (Banyard, 2011; Edwards, 2012). Social norms theory posits that people act according to their perceptions of the norms of their community (Berkowitz, 2010); therefore it is crucial that the social norms of non-violence that support victims are widely adopted in high schools.

Bystander effect theory. Bystander effect theory suggests that people, when others are present, do not act to help someone in emergency situations because they believe that others would help (Latané & Darley, 1970). Bystander inaction is influenced by pluralistic ignorance, diffusion of responsibility, and evaluation apprehension (Latané & Darley, 1970). Individuals tend to downplay the risk of the situation when others do not act (i.e., pluralistic ignorance) and shift responsibility of helping to other bystanders (i.e., diffusion of responsibility), leading them to not intervene. People may also be afraid that others may have negative views on their intervention (i.e., evaluation apprehension).

Bystander programs encourage the audience to take action, despite bystander effects, if they see situations with potential risk of violence (Banyard, 2011; Edwards,

2012; Katz et al., 2011). In order to do so, the programs often address steps of bystander intervention: noticing and interpreting the emergency, feeling personally responsible to act, and having skills and resources to act (Latané & Darley, 1970). For example, bystander programs often teach how to notice a situation of potential violence before it actually occurs (Edwards et al., 2019). Some programs use a guided imagery and ask participants to imagine their loved ones being harmed in order to help them feel personally responsible to act (Katz, 1995). The bystander programs usually include skill-building activities to help participants practice how to safely intervene in situations that might be risky (Edwards et al., 2019).

Personal buy-in to engage community members. The bystander programs aim to engage community members as empowered bystanders who have the potential to stop sexual and dating violence. Having a program component that emphasizes the personal buy-in for engagement is crucial in any bystander program due to its impact on the commitment to act as active bystanders, eventually leading to a cultural shift and reducing violence. The programs also provide information such as prevalence of violence in their community, consequences, and examples of the incidents to help participants recognize the violence as problems in their own community (Edwards et al., 2019).

Bystander Programs for High Schools

In this section, four bystander programs are introduced as examples of promising programs appropriate for high school adoption: Bringing in the Bystanders, Coaching Boys Into Men, Green Dot, and Mentors in Violence Prevention.

Bringing in the Bystander

Bringing in the Bystander (BITB) is a program developed to prevent campus sexual assault and other interpersonal violence at University of New Hampshire in the early 2000s. One of the unique theoretical models used by BITB is the transtheoretical model (TTM) of change by Prochaska and DiClemente (Banyard, Eckstein, & Moynihan, 2010). According to TTM, individuals go through a process of change before actually changing their attitudes and behaviors (Banyard et al., 2010). Thus, BITB incorporates components that appeal to individuals at various stages of change (Banyard et al., 2010). The high school BITB is a seven-session program that is delivered by male-female co-facilitators in mixed-gender groups (Edwards et al., 2019). The sessions occur during the class periods and include education on sexual and dating violence as well as bullying, bystander roles in prevention, how to notice at-risk situations, and skill-building for safe intervention. BITB also provides an hour-long session for school personnel to help them act as active bystanders in their high schools.

The recent evaluation study randomly assigned 26 New Hampshire high schools to the treatment or control condition and found some differences among students. Edwards and colleagues (2019) observed significant changes in victim empathy and barriers to and facilitators of active bystander behaviors two months after BITB training in treatment schools ($n = 1,081$) compared to control schools ($n = 1,322$). Over a year after BITB training, significant changes were observed in several variables in treatment schools including reduction in false beliefs about rape, increase in readiness to help as bystanders, and increase in knowledge about violence. Although the study found significant reduction of stalking and sexual harassment in schools with BITB than

schools without, no difference was observed in rates of sexual assault and dating violence as well as the actual bystander behaviors (Edwards et al., 2019).

Coaching Boys Into Men

Coaching Boys Into Men (CBIM) started in 2001 as a media campaign to promote awareness of violence against women and girls and has since evolved into a primary prevention program (Futures without Violence, n.d.), utilizing the influence of sports as a vehicle of change for youth (CBIM, n.d.). The ultimate goal of CBIM is to reduce male violence against females in dating relationships by increasing positive bystander behaviors of youth through promotion of social norms of gender equity and respect in dating relationships (Miller et al., 2012). CBIM takes a unique approach in that it engages coaches to act as positive role models for male athletes in high school. The program includes a one-hour training for coaches on dating violence as well as ways to engage youth. Coaches then will have 10-15 minutes weekly conversations on violence prevention with their players throughout the season of the sport (Miller et al., 2012).

In a cluster-randomized controlled trial with 26 high schools in Sacramento County, California, male athletes who participated in CBIM ($N = 2,006$) reported improvement in their intention to intervene as bystanders, self-reported positive bystander behaviors (e.g., saying something), and recognition of abusive behaviors at the end of the season (approximately 12 weeks) compared to athletes with no program exposure (Miller et al., 2012). No significant changes were observed in dating violence perpetration and negative bystander behaviors (e.g., laughing about abuse). In the one-year follow-up, 9-11th grade students who participated in CBIM ($n = 1,513$) reported less dating violence perpetration and less negative bystander behaviors (e.g., laughing about

abuse) relative to those in the control condition (Miller et al., 2013). However, there was

no significant difference in intention to intervene, gender-equitable attitudes, recognition

of dating violence, and positive bystander behaviors based on CBIM participation status.

Green Dot

Green Dot was originally developed as a bystander program at the University of

Kentucky to reduce campus sexual and dating violence (Coker et al., 2011). The

program utilizes a green dot as a symbol representing something one can do to prevent

violence. Adapting the marketing and branding framework, Edwards (2012) asserts that

a prevention program must be an inclusive brand that is accepted by a critical mass of

people in order to reach a shift in the social norm that leads to reduction of violence. For

example, Green Dot does not use the term "violence against women" when referring to

sexual and dating violence because it often provokes resistance from the audience

(Edwards, 2012). Green Dot is also grounded in diffusion of innovation theory by

Rogers (2003) which assumes that new ideas are spread through certain communication

paths within the community before being widely adopted. Green Dot trains select

students so they can diffuse the newly adopted active bystander attitudes and behaviors

through their social networks within the school (Edwards, 2012).

Implementation of Green Dot in high schools began in 2010 as a randomized

controlled trial to evaluate effectiveness of a primary prevention program throughout

Kentucky (Cook-Craig et al., 2014). The program was delivered by trained local rape

crisis center staff. It begins with a speech (up to 60 minutes) for students and school

personnel to introduce Green Dot and encourage involvement, followed by a bystander

training for early adopters. The training educates the students on the issues of violence

and provides skill-building opportunities to learn how to safely intervene and message

positive norms change. Green Dot also uses a social marketing campaign to promote and sustain the non-violent culture throughout the school.

The trial evaluated the impact of Green Dot on rates of violence in 26 Kentucky high schools ($N = 89,707$) between 2010 and 2014 (Coker et al., 2017). The researchers found that rates of perpetration and victimization of sexual violence, sexual harassment, stalking, and physical and psychological dating violence were all significantly lower at schools with Green Dot compared to schools without. Green Dot was associated with 120 fewer incidents of sexual violence at third year of implementation and 88 fewer incidents in the fourth year as well as 17-21% reduction of sexual violence perpetration in the third and fourth year (Coker et al., 2017).

Mentors in Violence Prevention

Mentors in Violence Prevention (MVP) was developed in 1993 to educate male athletes at Northeastern University to prevent violence against women (Katz, 1995). Since then, the program has incorporated several changes such as inclusion of women in the training as well as implementation in high schools. MVP is a program specifically focused on the leadership quality of young people in their role to prevent violence in their community (Katz, 2018). In a high school setting, MVP can be incorporated as part of the school's leadership program or an independent school-wide program (MVP Strategies, n.d.). Initially, teachers, coaches, and other identified adults are trained on the philosophy and approach of MVP so they can train juniors and seniors who will then serve as mentors to younger students. Students learn about various risky situations involving abuse, violence, and bullying and have opportunities to practice how to respond.

An MVP evaluation with matched pre- and post-tests ($n = 1,744$) found that students in high schools with MVP identified violence as wrong more and were more likely to intervene in risky situations compared to students in non-MVP schools (Katz et al., 2011). More recently, a qualitative exploration of an MVP pilot in Scotland reported that school staff and students had positive experiences with MVP implementation as well as positive perceptions of program impact on attitudes and bystander behaviors (Williams & Neville, 2017). The Scottish participants reported the peer-led model to be helpful to engage students and support peer networks outside the classroom. Williams and Neville (2017) concluded that cultural relevance and integration of MVP into the general school environment was key in long-term success; however, research so far has not examined MVP's impact on changes in actual bystander actions or rates of violence in high schools.

Recommendations

The authors, based on their experiences in a high school bystander program implementation and evaluation, make the following recommendations for high schools adopting a bystander program. These recommendations align with the CDC's technical packages on primary prevention of dating violence (Niolon et al., 2017) and sexual violence (Basile et al., 2016) that provide information on strategies and approaches from the current research evidence.

Prepare to Fully Commit to the Program Adoption

It is vital to recognize the importance of fidelity to the original program design when considering whether to implement a bystander program. Bystander programs are not a one-time educational session just for students. Educational leaders should expect various activities including multiple student learning sessions, booster follow-up

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

83

sessions, school-wide activities, and community-based activities. These are necessary components of successful primary prevention programs that develop skilled and confident active bystanders and promote safe schools. Extant literature supports these efforts as approaches that create protective high school environments (Basile et al., 2016; Niolon et al., 2017).

Additionally, engaging individuals who are influential for youth is a recommended prevention approach (Basile et al., 2016; Niolon et al., 2017) used by the programs introduced in this article. School administrators, teachers, and staff may be asked to actively participate in that effort. It is also an important consideration for success to allow many of these activities to occur during the school hours because high school students are often unavailable after school due to extracurricular activities, part-time jobs, or family responsibilities.

Bystander programs specifically aim to shift the school culture, which is created not only by students but by all individuals in the school. It is helpful for all school personnel to be aware of any bystander programming and actively participate as much as possible so they can support students' new, positive behaviors. A vital aspect of the culture of safety is directly connected to how the student victims are treated. Bystander programs teach skills to safely intervene, such as telling someone to stop harassing another student, asking someone in distress if they are okay, and accompanying someone to speak with a safe adult. When all members of the school commit to the bystander strategies, there should be support for the victims that also reduce the negative consequences of violence (Basile et al., 2016; Niolon et al., 2017).

Collaborate with Community Partners

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

84

High school administrators should seek to collaborate with professionals trained to implement bystander programs in their region. Staff at the local rape crisis centers and domestic violence programs may be trained to deliver bystander programming. The state coalitions of sexual assault and domestic violence may also offer assistance. It is beneficial to work with the trained bystander preventionists who have the understanding of the local context in addition to the resources to implement the bystander program. Coinciding to the bystander program staff, engaging members of the surrounding community, including social service agencies, businesses such as restaurants and stores, and parents, should be part of the efforts. These community partnerships will help promote positive social norms and provide support as advocates for survivors (Basile et al., 2016; Niolon et al., 2017).

Address Cultural Relevance

While the programs introduced in this article have been rigorously evaluated and show promising evidence of effectiveness, they all have limitations. In particular, applicability of the selected program for each high school must be carefully considered. All of the programs above were developed by highly educated White individuals in academia. BITB and GD were originally developed with majority White college students and implemented in majority White high schools in their research trials (Coker et al., 2017; Edwards et al., 2019). On the other hand, MVP high school study and CBIM evaluation were conducted in school districts with students of diverse racial and economic backgrounds (Katz et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2012).

Critically, safety of all students must be considered. In particular, issues faced by members of socially marginalized groups (e.g., race/ethnicity, sex and gender, religion,

and immigration status) may influence student safety and program buy-in. For example, a study on a college bystander program found that White female students were less likely to intervene when a Black woman was at risk for sexual assault compared to White or unspecified race (Katz, Merrilees, Hoxmeier, & Motisi, 2017). While bystander programs suggest reporting a potential incident to police as one of the options to deal with risky situations, studies reveal that crime reporting to law enforcement is low and/or viewed negatively due to fear of serious consequences in communities of color (e.g., Desmond, Papachristos, & Kirk, 2016), immigrant communities (e.g., Messing, Becerra, Ward-Lasher, & Androff, 2015) and sexual minority communities (e.g., Wolff & Cokely, 2007). Further, some program components may not be culturally relevant to students from marginalized communities. School personnel involved in the program implementation are encouraged to address these issues with the bystander program staff. These discussions and subsequent program adjustments can lead to an enhanced approach in creating the supportive and protective environment for all students which is key in successful bystander strategies (Basile et al., 2017; Niolon et al., 2017).

Further, to the authors' knowledge, there is no research to date investigating the programs' impact on youth with severe behavior problems, developmental delays, learning disabilities, and other special needs. Strategizing to include and support students with diverse needs is vital in creating environments that can protect students from sexual and dating violence.

Use Policies to Create Safe Schools

Applying policies consistently in addressing sexual and dating violence is an important part of creating a safe and equitable learning environment as well as providing

support to reduce harm for victims (Basile et al., 2017; Niolon et al., 2017). School

administrators must pay special attention to Title IX of the Education Amendments of

1972 which prohibits sex discriminations in federally funded educational programs and

activities. Issues related to sexual and dating violence that prevent students from

participating in educational activities safely may be considered violation of Title IX

(Stader, 2011; United Educators, 2015). Currently, 138 elementary-secondary schools

are under investigation for sexual harassment and 107 for sexual violence by the Office

of Civil Rights of the U.S. Department of Education (USDE, 2019). If there is a situation

with a potential for Title IX violation, it is crucial that the school district act to prevent it

even when no complaint is filed (United Educators, 2015).

Consultation with experts on Title IX and other laws is vital in developing school

policies on these complicated issues. Local rape crisis centers and domestic violence

programs as well as state coalitions may be of immense assistance in policy development

aiming to create safe and equitable educational environments that enhance support for

victims and tolerate no violence. Notably, involving students who actively participate in

the bystander program in the effort to create school policies would be empowering for

students and promote buy-ins. School policies play a crucial role in creating

infrastructures that allow students to seek help.

Conclusion

School administrators are tasked with providing students a learning environment

that promotes academic success. Sexual and dating violence can impede student success

by impacting the "whole child – the physical, social, emotional and intellectual aspects of

the child" (Ohio Department of Education [ODE], n.d.). It is imperative to reduce these

types of violence and their negative consequences in schools. For high schools that seek to create a safe and equitable learning environment for all students, the bystander approach to preventing sexual and dating violence is an effective match because of its focus on social norms supporting victims and tolerating no violence. This article introduced common foundational frameworks of bystander programs and research evidence on the effectiveness of select programs that have been implemented and evaluated in high schools. High school administrators are encouraged to consider adopting evidence-based programs such as the ones described above.

With ever increasing federal and state mandates on academic expectations, adding another program in the busy school schedule is challenging for high school administrators and educators. The good news is that there are experts in the local and state non-profit organizations who can help with implementation of evidence-based bystander programs. The first step in this process may involve strategizing with the identified expert in removing potential barriers to the effort. In case of Ohio high schools, introducing the bystander program as integral to the Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) may help in gaining support from the school districts. ODE (2019) describes PBIS as "a framework that guides school teams in the selection, integration, and implementation of evidence-based practices for improving academic, social and behavior outcomes for all students." Evidence-based bystander programs fit well into strategic plans as an approach to reduce negative health outcomes and promote healthier schools.

With support from the school district and other major players, an advisory committee should be convened to choose a comprehensive bystander approach and work towards promoting behavior change. This dedicated team could include the school

personnel, rape crisis/domestic violence centers, other community agencies, researcher/evaluator, and local businesses as well as parents and students. The authors recommend inviting influential teachers and students to encourage buy-ins within the school. The committee should undertake tasks necessary to implement a bystander program as a public health approach. The tasks of the committee may include: 1) Obtaining existing data to understand the needs of the district; 2) aligning the school policies with state and federal requirements such as Title IX and anti-harassment; 3) selecting a bystander program and connecting the local data to address in the program; 4) implementing the bystander strategies across all levels of social ecology; 5) evaluating strategies and outcomes; and 6) sharing challenges and successes with the community. It is highly recommended that schools apply for collaborative grants with community agencies.[1]

With an increasing number of high schools with bystander programs across the United States, school administrators interested in prevention of sexual and dating violence have more examples follow. Educational leaders should take advantage of the accumulated knowledge and expertise in the field of violence prevention to promote safer learning environments for high school students.

[1]As of this writing, Ohio Alliance to End Sexual Violence is planning financial resources for violence prevention efforts in Ohio's school districts.

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Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA), Volume 5, Issue 1, 2020

92

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