UNIVERSITY OF REDLANDS

Hidden in Plain Sight: The Silent Voices of America's Third-Class Citizens

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By

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Dedication

“How they knew what we must know without knowing a page of it themselves.”

Alice Walker, “Women”

I dedicate my efforts here to my grandmother, Miss Claudy Crawford, and to her daughter—my mother—Miss Donetta Edwards, both of whom personified Alice Walker’s depiction of African American women in her poem, “Women.” Before American culture branded familial and social challenges of African American communities as “cycles” and as a “school to prison pipeline,” these extraordinary women confronted the generational ignorance, apathy, and inequities that plagued their communities. They understood that education begins at home. From primary school through high school, none of us children had any working knowledge or examples of individuals reaping the benefits of higher education. We understood that we would have to walk blindly and travel on faith and on Granny’s word, that a university experience would be a great equalizer and our one one-way ticket out of third-class citizenry.

I adored my granny for her keen sense of justice and equity. For over sixty years, Claudy Crawford was a domestic worker. She had few material resources, but she was powerful, and she was fearless. Miss Claudy knew where and how to inform herself, and how to get adequate representation in situations beyond her immediate control. In 1968, when a school principal told her flatly that Black children could not earn A’s in his classes because he did not give Black students A grades, Miss Claudy reached deep into her well of ingenuity and saw to it that the racist lost his job.

Miss Claudy measured herself and her children by the same principles and standards she applied to her children’s educators. Six of her seven children graduated from high school, and all of them maintained successful careers with no criminal records.

Granny taught us to be patient. Thanks to her, we understood the sweeter rewards of delayed gratification, so we were able to resist the temptations among children of poverty and kids of color. Because she taught me to aim high and stick to my goals, I was able to embrace the journey and the work it would take; I planned, and I prioritized. I needed these skills, this maturity—along with the village of people and community members she assembled—to make my dream a reality. For this and for her, I am forever grateful.

As a product of Granny's passion and vision, my mother, Donetta Edwards, was a forward thinker. Decades ahead of everyone else in the neighborhood, she envisioned her children's pathway to college before we were born and guided us thereafter. She stayed current on academic and extracurricular opportunities available to us, mapped out our paths ahead of time, and made sure we took advantage of every option whether we wanted to or not. (Example: she made me take typing class and stick with it even though I hated it. She knew I would need it, and sure enough, I do.) Raising her children in an affluent, overwhelmingly White resort town in Southern California, my mother established the behavioral standards in our small Black neighborhood; Miss Donetta set the rules, and she enforced them. She was unapologetic for her stubbornness and, at times, perceived harsh treatment of her children. Long before racial bias in law enforcement ever came to public attention, my mother politely explained to local authorities why our neighborhood would not need their services: "I whip my kids' butts, so you don't kill them."

This clearheaded self-reliance let Mama create the vision for her offspring that she dedicated herself to for the rest of her life. I am and will forever be indebted to her work, her love, her relentlessness, her attention to detail, and her refusal to allow me to fail. Mama defied the odds—eight out of ten young men in our neighborhood, all of them my friends and

acquaintances, found their way to prison—and working feverishly in tandem with my beautiful granny, she managed to guide her children to two bachelor's degrees, two master's degrees and one doctoral degree. I owe both women my life.

Finally, I dedicate my work, my dreams, and my success to my beautiful sister, Janel Edwards-Hunt, and to my cherished daughter, Addison Jackson. I hope I serve as one example of Black love, Black work ethic, and a decent Black man. May I challenge the age-old negative, racist stereotypes that are ingrained into the American fabric. May I be a shining example of the hope and dream of the slave. Both of you have inspired me to forge ahead, eschew mediocrity, and avoid the road—the pipeline—that leads so many Black men to the point of no return.

Acknowledgements

Blood is not always family, and family is not always blood. By the time I was eleven years old, I was consumed by anger; the chip on my shoulder weighed me down, and the four corners of my existence seemed to converge in rage. Fatherless, Black, mistrusting, and filled with hate, I needed eight years of counseling and self-reflection to get myself functional. Among her many directives, my mother insisted I participate in the local American Youth Soccer Organization, which led directly to the larger life she had envisioned for me.

I became close friends with one of my teammates, Paul Picchione, son of a local orthopedic surgeon. As I reached the pivotal age of eleven, his father took notice of me and my need for guidance, and he gently stepped in to fill that role for me. Dr. Pasquale Picchione picked up my broken pieces and began putting me back together.

He helped me shed the provincial spectacles so common among folks from my community. A man of means and culture, fiercely proud of his Italian heritage, he became the father I had pined for. For the next ten years, quietly and methodically, he opened the world to me, giving me opportunities my family and my neighborhood comrades could scarcely dream of. No longer just pictures and facts in history books I had to memorize and regurgitate back to my instructors, the rich histories, and cultures of Western Europe, of England, France, Italy, Germany, and the wonders of Austria and Switzerland were realities of my life. I was awed by the sheer age of the physical environments—Roman aqueducts still standing! —and by the intelligence of the people I met everywhere, all of whom were fluent in more than one language. I was stunned when, in Italy, a man of African ancestry described himself as an Italian, not African Italian, and certainly not Black—he was an *Italian*, period. This distinction—or rather,

lack of distinction—gave me new perspective on my place in my country, and my country’s place in the world.

Dr. Picchione’s influence in my life complemented the efforts of my mother and grandmother. He substantially funded my undergraduate education. He stepped in as a father figure during the most confusing time in my life. His selfless attention and consistent belief in me helped me avoid the 80% likelihood of becoming a criminal statistic; thanks to Dr. Picchione, I escaped the school-to-prison pipeline. I thought about this escape one summer morning in 1983, when I woke up early and peered out the second-story window of Dr. Picchione’s beach home. Sets of waves seemed to be rushing toward me, not threatening but full of purpose and promise. That image, that glimpse of hope, the sheer beauty of Coronado’s Silver Strand Beach that I owe to Dr. Pasquale Picchione will sparkle in my mind forever. I am forever indebted and grateful to him.

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Abstract

When compared to their peers, African American students fare poorly in the following three areas: attendance, student achievement, and disciplinary sanctions (Davis & Jordan, 1994; Fenning & Rose, 2007; Ford & Moore, 2013). California schools have committed to closing the achievement gap by making efforts to eliminate exclusionary practices hindering student access to socially relevant pedagogy; however, an examination of indicators of student success for young Black girls is needed to ascertain the effectiveness of PBIS (Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports) policies and practices (Robinett, 2012). Black girls are impacted socially and academically by the absence of disciplinary practices designed to bridge the achievement gap for all students, the failure of teachers to pedagogically connect with struggling populations, and the existing educator biases indicating a failure to socially connect with disenfranchised populations (Bradshaw et al., 2009). The deficiencies amongst educators have left young Black girls hidden in plain sight. This study seeks to determine if and how Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) affects Black girls.

Keywords: Dataquest, PBIS, intersectionality, pedagogy, disproportionality, implicit bias, critical race theory, racial threat theory

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Chapter 1

Area of Study/Introduction

Compared to their demographic peers, young African American students fare poorly in attendance, student achievement, and disciplinary sanctions. California schools have committed to closing this achievement gap by directing efforts to eliminate exclusionary practices that hinder student access to socially relevant pedagogy. However, young Black girls suffer disproportionately when disciplinary practices purportedly designed to bridge the achievement gap for *all* students do not meet their specific needs, when their schools do not connect pedagogically with them as members of a struggling population, and when public policy sustains or creates social biases against disenfranchised populations. All these circumstances contribute to the essential invisibility of young Black women even while they remain in plain sight. This study focuses on state-designed Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) and their impacts on young Black girls.

Statement of Problem

Most current research into the achievement, disciplinary processes, and sanctions of Black students focuses on young Black boys. Nevertheless, young Black girls are being disciplined at a rate that outpaces all females of any race, as well as most males of any race; this disparity is under-researched. Countless studies reveal correlations between K-12 school disciplinary practices negatively affecting young Black men and the percentage of young Black men in prison (Heitzeg, 2009; Noguera, 1995). Those who do not graduate from high school, who drop out, and who have no access to guided instruction suffer from this time out of school, too often becoming statistics among the overwhelming number of Black men incarcerated or

attached to the criminal justice system—the process commonly known as the “school to prison pipeline” (Christle et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2010).

Quietly, young Black girls are being subjected to a similar fate. The disparity between disciplinary sanctions of young White girls and young Black girls is even greater than the gap between sanctions of young White boys and young Black boys (Morris, 2007). However, because these failures have not been studied adequately, the fact that young Black women now represent the fastest growing prison population in the world is, in effect, an open secret (Davis, 2000).

At the state level, policies were enacted in 2012 to amend sections 48900 and 48900.5 of the California Education Code (Assembly Bill 1729) mandating Local Education Agencies (LEAs) to use alternatives to suspension or expulsion, alternatives designed to foster agreed-upon positive behaviors by providing school-wide support and approaches to address and correct student misbehavior (Flannery et al., 2014; Robinett, 2012). Using a multi-tiered system to promote, support, and sustain positive pedagogical practices, Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) universal services operate from a three-tiered structure, as follows:

- PBIS Tier 1 is designed to serve a school’s general population, to address the needs of all students including the most underserved and those suffering from defined disproportionalities found in many Office of Civil Rights reports (Losen, 2011).
- PBIS Tier 2 identifies and targets specific group categories of student need within the general population.

- PBIS Tier 3 tailors school services to the needs of individual students, (Tier 1), targeted groups (Tier 2), and individual services (Tier 3) (Caldarella et. al, 2011).

This study hones in on the success of PBIS and narrows its focus to Black students, specifically young Black girls, to determine whether they are being well-served by practices designed to benefit all students.

Background of Study

To identify underserved populations and meet their needs, Kimberlé Crenshaw designed a theoretical framework focused specifically on the unique and converging forces at work on Black women (Crenshaw, 1989). Intersectionality, the term Crenshaw coined for this structure of meaning, confronts racial, gender, and class barriers that often plague young Black girls. For the past 30 years, many marginalized populations have employed an intersectional framework to address such relevant concerns as those of LGBTQ communities, education, disabled populations, and political issues, etc. (Gopaldas, 2013; Ladson-Billing, 1995; Nash, 2008). Although each of the disenfranchised groups has legitimate concerns, “feminist and anti-racist campaigns have left women of color invisible in plain sight” (Adewunmi, 2014). The lens of intersectionality has not yet focused on Black pupils.

The lack of empirical data concerning the social and educational injuries to young Black girls is alarming. It is the sum of unforeseen errors and ignorance: due to gendered racial bias and their substantial difference in academic achievement when compared to Black males, Black girls are perceived as presenting a diminished risk for problem behaviors (Osler, 2006; Rusby et al, 2007; Skiba et al., 2002). The initial focus on Black males, although narrow, is grounded in sound research. The lion’s share of that research, focused on zero tolerance policies adversely

impacting young Black boys, produced data predicting that one out of every three Black men born in the new millennium will serve time in prison at least once in his life (Mauer, 2011; Sentencing Project, 2013). More importantly, nearly 93% of sentenced prisoners under jurisdiction of state or federal correctional authorities are male. Of this population, Black males represent 36% of those incarcerated—more than six times their proportion of the U.S. population (Carson & Sabol, 2012). Conversely, White adults account for 64% of the U.S. population, but a mere 30% of the prison population (Kent, 2018).

When Black women are compared to their White counterparts through the lens of intersectionality, the picture is far more daunting. As far back as 25 years ago, Black women comprised 46% of incarcerated women (nearly seven times their population) compared to 36% White (nearly one-half their population) (Snell & Morton, 1994). However, this disparity has not attracted the attention of researchers. Although we have seen a 55% decline in incarcerated Black women from 2000 to 2017, their incarceration rate (92 per 100,000) is still twice that of incarcerated White women (49 per 100,000) (Gillman & Shahar, 2006). Ironically, as the rate significantly decreased for incarcerated Black women to just twice that of the White incarcerated female population, the statistics germane to the next generation of Black girls is cause for concern. Young Black girls aged 12-17 are incarcerated at the rate of 110 per 100,000 while young White girls' rate of incarceration is 32 of 100,000, which statistically appears to neutralize the gains made during the same time (Sentencing Project, 2013). But so far, this disparity has not attracted the attention of researchers.

Zero tolerance policies are among many elements in the criminal justice system that disproportionately impact folks of color, in general, and mirror the painful statistics and concerns that emerge daily in public schools across the country. The same zero tolerance policies that

contribute to the wide disparities in incarceration rates also saturate public school policies (Raible & Irizarry, 2010). In K-12 environments, zero tolerance policies were intended to counter the perception that violent student crime was substantially increasing. Under these policies, students who engaged in the following violent acts were to be recommended for expulsion, even for their first and only offense:

1. Possessing, selling, or otherwise furnishing a firearm
2. Brandishing a knife at another person.
3. Unlawfully selling a controlled substance
4. Committing or attempting to commit a sexual assault
5. Possession of an explosive.

Unfortunately, the specific intent of these policies was ignored, and suspensions and expulsions originally designed to address the perceived violent nature of schools now are deployed for non-violent and victimless offenses (Counsel, 2015). Young Black students perceived as “dangerous” are being removed from schools for nonviolent infractions outside of zero tolerance criteria (Casella, 2003). Instead of focusing on eradicating violent behaviors in schools, the implementation of zero tolerance policies has produced few suspensions that are the result of behaviors that threaten the safety and security of schools and their officials (Heaviside et al., 1998). Exclusionary practices falling outside the realm of violent offenses include such infractions as disruption, disobedience, profanity, tardiness, etc., all of which pose no threat to other students or staff. When focusing on suburban (more affluent) and urban schools (less affluent), Casella (2003) found that when comparing the two types of schools, suburban environments offer proactive alternatives to suspension for infractions such as drugs and alcohol, whereas urban schools tend not to offer such alternatives for the same degree of infractions.

Teacher assumptions that African American students exhibit behaviors that are significantly different from their counterparts continue to be problematic (Ferguson, 2003). Empirical data reveal that infractions and rates of inappropriate behavior by African American students are not significantly different from those of White students (Skiba & Peterson, 1999; Skiba & Williams, 2014). The consequences of these misperceptions have been monumental. From 1973 to 2006, the number of African American students suffering from at least a single suspension grew from 6% to 15% (nearly a 150% increase) (Ferriss, 2014).

The problem of exclusionary disciplinary practices extends farther than our K-12 schools. Often thought of as a K-12 public school issue, the trend toward suspending and expelling students of color begins in our preschool programs, where African American students are subjected to a similar fate. A large study of Massachusetts preschool environments revealed a statewide expulsion rate of 27.42 students per every 1000 students enrolled (Gillman & Shahar, 2006). When compared to K-12 institutions throughout the same state, African American preschoolers were being excluded at a rate 34 times greater than White children (Gillman & Shahar, 2006).

The ongoing practice of exclusion and inequitable disciplinary practices spurred by our nation's adherence to zero tolerance policies has resulted in immeasurable losses for Black boys. The urgency to address the matter has initiated the coining of the term "school to prison pipeline." African American students are suspended at rates 40% greater than White children and expelled 3.5 times more than their White peers. African American students make up 32% of the students arrested, 42% of those who are detained, and 52% of the cases that are waived to criminal court (Criminal Justice Facts, 2019).

As acknowledged earlier, researchers have sought to comprehend the social struggles young Black men face. Meanwhile, and without much notice, young Black women have been marginalized in a similar fashion. In addition, these young women are subject to greater disciplinary sanctions than all studied female subgroups, and several subgroups of boys (George, 2015; Mendez & Knoff, 2003). Researchers have failed to produce empirical evidence that correlates the higher percentage of disruptive disciplinary actions with Black students' misbehaviors that occur at the same rate as their peers' (Skiba & Williams, 2014). Black American women have long endured the dual oppressions of social constraints arising from gender and race (Crenshaw, 1989; Rollock, 2007). This trauma, compounded by destructive disciplinary actions in school, has propelled Black women into becoming the fastest-growing prison population in the world (Braithwaite et al., 2005; Davis, 2000). The gap in research concerning Black women requires a deep commitment to research and an extended conversation to develop ways to disseminate resources aimed at short-circuiting Black American women's very own school to prison pipeline.

Study's Objectives (Purpose)

Rarely does a single research project provide all the insight and resources necessary to shape a paradigm or change an institutional focus. Current research concerning the impact of PBIS on young Black girls in educational settings provides an opportunity to address the glaring research gap between the two most disenfranchised populations in our country's K-12 settings: Black males and Black females. For decades, there has been a concentrated focus on Black male students on the school to prison pipeline, ranging from kindergarten to twelfth grade. Research has revealed a close correlation between the percentages of Black male K-12 students who are disciplined and those housed in our American prisons (Lewis et. al, 2009; Skiba et al., 2002).

Meanwhile, right out in the open, the same predicament has befallen young Black girls, but neither educators nor researchers have seized multiple opportunities that presented themselves to address the influx of Black women to prison, where they comprise the fastest-growing incarcerated population in the world (Davis, 2000). By testing California's claims that the PBIS initiative has proved favorable to *all* children, this study intends its findings to inform and motivate K-12 environments who are committed to enhancing the educational experiences of all children.

Much current research and data celebrate school-wide successes following PBIS implementation, but preliminary research using Dataquest resources indicates that this strategy may not be addressing the actual needs of our most marginalized subgroup, middle school Black females (Dataquest, n.d.). National middle school suspension rates in 2006 showed that the 18% of Black female suspensions outpaced White females and Hispanic female suspensions by 14% and 9.5% respectively (Losen & Skiba, 2010). Such gender disproportionality in student suspensions merits close attention. When comparing all males to all females, there was a statistically significant difference of 2.1 to 1. When comparing the total suspensions of Black females to Black males, there was no significant difference in total suspensions (Finn & Servoss, 2014).

On September 12, 2012, California Governor Jerry Brown approved Assembly Bill 1729 (AB 1729), the first legislation to mandate that schools throughout the state develop alternative means of correction to suspension/expulsion. The legislative discussion narrowed the circumstances of suspendible offenses and mandated that prior to suspension/expulsion, schools must make concerted efforts to correct misbehaviors in situations where students' behaviors

disrupted instruction. Other than acts of violent offenses and drug infractions, students could not be suspended on a first offense.

The AB 1729 mandate led all California schools to implement school-wide practices (e.g., PBIS) aimed at correcting problem behaviors and ultimately reducing suspensions and expulsions. Giving California schools five years (2012/13 to 2017/18) to develop restorative practices, conventional expectation would be a substantial improvement (i.e., decrease) in suspensions rates for all students. In pre- and post- fashion, this study looks at suspension data from 2011/12 and 2017/18, including suspensions prior to the addition of school wide disciplinary approaches via PBIS. The second set of suspension data (2017/18) came six years after the governor's mandate calling on schools to fully implement restorative practices to serve all children according to their needs. This study focuses on the White, Hispanic, and African American student subgroups that make up nearly 85% of California's enrollment. Given six years to improve strategies, Hispanic and White populations showed improvement in suspension rates, but African Americans failed to improve. The increase in suspensions of Black students over those six years suggest an ineffectiveness in California's school-wide restorative efforts (PBIS) designed to positively impact Black students.

Furthermore, the Black subgroup has a subgroup of its own: Black schoolgirls outpace all females, and most males, in disciplinary sanctions (Davis, 2000). The findings of this study will alert K-12 organizations that may not realize how young Black girls are suffering socially, emotionally, and academically. Therefore, this study evaluates the efficacy of PBIS in relation to middle school Black girls.

Research illustrates a disconnect between Black girls' challenges and K-12 practitioners' comprehension and application in how these girls are perceived and disciplined in schools

(Glenn, 2012). This study aims to reinvigorate the discourse on intersectionality, specifically as it pertains to young Black girls. Advancing this intersectional lens could motivate K-12 practitioners to implement training in implicit bias awareness and cultural competence in route to understanding the roadblocks hindering young Black girls.

Definitions of Terms

- *Dataquest* is the California Department of Education's web-based data reporting system for public information about California students, teachers, and schools. Dataquest provides access to a wide variety of reports, including school performance, test results, student enrollment, English Language Learner, graduation and dropout rates, school staffing, course enrollment, and student misconduct data (Hansen, 2006)
- *PBIS* is the acronym for Positive Behavioral Intervention and Supports. This language comes directly from the 1997 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). PBIS is based on principles of applied behavior analysis and the prevention approach and values of positive behavior support (Sugai & Simonsen, 2012)
- *Intersectionality* is the interconnected nature of social categorizations such as race, class, and gender as they apply to a given individual or group, regarded as creating overlapping and interdependent systems of discrimination or disadvantage (McCall, 2005; Shields, 2008)
- *Pedagogy* is the method and practice of teaching, especially as an academic subject or theoretical concept (Shor, 1993)
- *Disproportionality* means unequal or out of proportion. Although there are discrepancies in many areas, disproportionality in education generally refers to racial and ethnic

discrepancies that exist in the identification, placement, and discipline of special education students (Artiles et al., 2010)

- *Implicit bias* is the product of subconscious attitudes or stereotypes that materially affect our understanding, actions, and decisions (Devine et al., 2012)
- *Critical race theory* (CRT) is an academic discipline focused upon the application of critical theory, a critical examination of society and culture, to the intersection of race, law, and power. Critical race theory is often associated with many of the controversial issues involved in the pursuit of equality issues related to race and ethnicity (Ladson-Billings, 2004)
- *Racial threat theory* was developed to explain how population composition influences discriminatory social control practices; it has become one of the most acknowledged frameworks for explaining racial disparity in criminal justice outcomes (Welch & Payne, 2010)

Research Question

In line with this study's objectives, its research question is designed to interrogate relevant state initiatives and to combat disproportionalities in disciplinary sanctions pertaining to race and gender with respect to young Black girls. Whereas preliminary investigation supports California's PBIS's claims of overall success (Losen, 2011; Reinke et al., 2013), it fails to access disaggregated data in a manner that is conducive to understanding the impact of this process on each significant subgroup (Vincent et al., 2013). The study seeks to answer this question:

Is PBIS an effective intervention for Black female middle school students in California?

Theoretical Frameworks for Study

Through the lens of critical race theory (CRT), one can begin to understand and recognize racism as the ingrained and practiced part of the American fabric it is. CRT's tenets are useful for examining America's power structures through a critical and legal lens (Hiraldo, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 2013) because CRT challenges conventional notions of privilege, meritocracy, race, power, class, and gender. CRT's lens identifies the legal language that champions neutrality and colorblindness (Solorzano et al., 2000). Focused in these ways, CRT ultimately illuminates the multidimensionality of injustice and oppression.

The concept of intersectionality that CRT considers pairs Crenshaw's social stratification observations with the injuries incurred from the different forms of social stratification perspectives (Crenshaw, 1989). Specifically, intersectionality highlights the injuries to Black women based solely on their membership in two marginalized communities, being Black and female. The stigmas of her female figure and her Black skin converge on the young Black female as social constructs, traumatizing her and creating nearly insurmountable academic and social challenges (Ladson Billings, 1995).

A second tenet of CRT, the permanence and pervasiveness of racism, supports the pains of intersectionality (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). The multidimensionality of oppression becomes the centerpiece in navigating the complexities of intersectionality. Being careful not to diminish the injuries to children in other marginalized communities, it is important to recognize and understand the combinations and intersections of injustices that obstruct the path toward upward mobility for young Black girls specifically. In terms of race, gender, current incarceration rates, historical implications, wages, and overall representation, research suggests that Black women are the most marginalized subgroup in our country (King, 1998; Sudbury,

2002; West, 1995). They are traumatized as women, and they suffer the inequities of wealth distribution in this country. More importantly, they have endured, and continue to endure, the country's current and historical race war. The symmetrical trajectories of race, class and gender reveal the symbiotic relationship among them as they make meaning at the expense of Black women.

Racial threat theory derives from empirical evidence in the form of lived experience of students and adults of color. Our perceptions often become our realities: research into Black/White relationships often concludes that Whites routinely perceive Blacks as threats and treat them accordingly (Dollar, 2014). This perception prevails in our public schools, where Black children are disproportionately disciplined for committing the same aggressive infractions other children routinely commit without consequence (see Appendix J). Implicit biases are pervasive, and they foster stereotypes that manifest themselves in our law enforcement agencies, criminal justice system, and classrooms (Thurau & Wald, 2009).

Lenses for Examining School Discipline Germane to Black Girls

Critical race theory demonstrates the fact that race has nothing to do with biology, but is rather a social construct that preserves and protects the interests of America's dominant subgroup, White males. As we look for ways to understand race and gender bias, two tenets of CRT highlight both the entrenched nature and pervasiveness of racism and intersectionality's dual impact (race and gender) on Black women.

One component of CRT, intersectionality, identifies Black women as the most marginalized American population because they are impacted by multiple forms of social stratification simply by being tagged as Black and female. Economically, they suffer most from earning inequality based on race and gender (Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993). American women of all

major racial and ethnic groups earn less than the men in each of their subgroups, and all women earn less than white men for equal work (Hegewisch et al., 2017). Public schools mirror the dual stratifications of race and gender bias by disciplining young Black girls far out of proportion to all other students. Unlike boys and White girls of any other subgroup, Black girls are subjected to multiple oppressions (Evans-Winters & Esposito, 2010). The lens of intersectionality can reveal the complexities of these dual biases, thereby defining the issues young American Black girls must combat every day.

Further to CRT, racial threat theory looks at institutions and social organizations' practices in terms of the ways their operations intentionally or unintentionally deny minorities access and opportunities necessary for the minority group members to become socially mobile (Dollar, 2014). This theory is usefully applied to the bureaucracies that comprise American public schools, to pinpoint and understand the biases operating in American classrooms.

Purpose of Research Tools

The study uses these tools to understand and answer the following research question: Is PBIS an effective intervention for Black female middle school students in California? To develop a detailed explanation of the impacts of middle school disciplinary practices on Black girls, the study uses the three tools/resources described below. They will help identify, disaggregate, and analyze data to gain a greater understanding of whether, in accordance with state mandates, PBIS practices positively impact *all* public-school children. The study relies on IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyze the data that follows. The state mandates that each public school administer the California Assessment of Student Progress and Performance (CAASPP) test to 95% of its students; using data from these test results, along with rates of absences, suspensions, and chronic absenteeism, SPSS will allow the study to

analyze data that will help extract actionable insights and help us better understand diverse student groups.

Via Dataquest (public resource tool), the study will collect data specific to rates of student chronic absenteeism, and suspension data, by as many subgroups as needed (gender, race, school, etc.). Dataquest findings will be entered into SPSS for analysis to identify significant relationships germane to individual subgroups.

Last, a survey will be administered to each of the four school schools selected for the study. Individual schools will be vetted to be sure they have implemented a PBIS structure to in their school. Via SPSS tools, the study will compare schools using a Likert Scale-driven survey to determine whether there are significant differences.

Along with disciplinary practices, school attendance continues to be an important component of a school's success. Schools with higher attendance have been cited as producing higher test scores and therefore as more successful (Balfanz & Byrnes, 2006; Lamdin, 1996; Nichols, 2003). Furthermore, much of the existing research suggests that attendance should be evaluated as an academic performance variable due to its strong correlation to positive academic outcomes (King, 2000; Lehr et al., 2004; Phillips, 1997; Sheldon, 2007). Attendance rates serve as strong indicators of school quality (Coutts, 1998). Higher initial academic scores for students with improved attendance reveal the correlation between academic success and school attendance (Freeman et al., 2016).

So, the use of school exclusion as a disciplinary practice, compounded with other flawed practices, aligns with the abundance of research highlighting the achievement gap among American Indian, Black, and Latino students (Krezmien et al., 2006; Wallace et al., 2008). Zero

tolerance policies developed ostensibly to curb violent behaviors have become primary disciplinary tools with the greatest long-term impacts on Black children (Arcia, 2006).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The study provides a thoughtful review of literature investigating the impact of Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) on all children and embarks upon a close examination of public-school disciplinary practices that appear to have resulted in the disproportionate rates of suspension and expulsion of young Black students (Smith & Ingersol, 2004). The PBIS process itself is intersectional in nature, so its interrogation of public-school policy and practice inevitably demands that public schools consider the variety of elements that may impact how, where, why, and which students are disciplined. Elements such as race, class, gender, disproportionality, bias, equity, etc. must be considered. Although class, disproportionality, bias, and equity are not PBIS tools, the way PBIS is implemented—and its outcomes—are central to the study’s interpretation of its efficacy, particularly in relation to potential policy revisions. Today’s public-school population is nearly 60% students of color; this level of diversity warrants a close look at who and how we discipline, and the short- and long-term effects of our actions (Fingertip Facts, 2019).

Prison Industrial Complex

Many scholars have addressed the strong correlation of school disciplinary outcomes to the ballooning prison populations of the past forty years. Roughly 70% of prison inmates throughout the United States are high school dropouts (Arellano-Jackson, 2014). However, the origins of mass incarceration do not lie in public schools: mass incarceration evolved when federal law enforcement agencies began to implement zero tolerance policies derived from President Richard Nixon’s law-and-order political rhetoric (Whittington, 2004).

Following Nixon's prescriptions for social order, President Ronald Reagan commissioned a nationwide study he called "A Nation at Risk," to evaluate and critique the status quo of California public education based on "widespread public perception that something was seriously remiss in our educational system" (Gardner, 1983, pg. 8). Much of the public hysteria around education likely stemmed from a perception that the United States lagged behind Russia in math and science because Russia reached the moon nearly a decade before we did. Another source of concern may have been a perceived need to prepare workers who would advance U.S. big business, which was struggling to compete with foreign countries who already were flooding the markets with inexpensive and high-quality products. A frantic public attributed these market vulnerabilities to a failing educational system (Gardner et al., 1983).

Suddenly, public education's purpose and nature were up for review: was taxpayer-funded public education intended to serve students, or to meet the needs of big business? The findings of "A Nation at Risk" were scathing; they painted U. S. public schools as inadequate and incapable of properly educating or protecting our young children.

Along with the attack on public schools, President Reagan endorsed landmark legislation to wage a "war on drugs." As a result, federal and state law enforcement agencies implemented drug enforcement policies (Skiba & Peterson, 1999). To give his stance added momentum, Reagan touted a zero tolerance policy to eradicate illicit drug use. Six years after Reagan's tenure, President Bill Clinton's 1994 Gun-Free Schools Act prescribed mandatory sentencing laws to eradicate gun violence in public schools (Curtis, 2014; Verdugo, 2002). By 1994, the Gun-Free Schools Act was responsible for policies in Title I schools that would mandate expulsion from school for a period of no less than one calendar year for any student in possession of a firearm on school property (Curtis, 2014). By the 1996/97 school year, 94% of

schools had zero tolerance policies in place for weapons, 91% for weapons other than firearms, 88% for drugs, 87% for alcohol and 79% for violence. Despite the heated political response to supposed increased violence in public schools, nonfatal victimizations in our schools had begun to decline without the help of PBIS (Curtis, 2014; Skiba & Peterson, 1999). Although there was plenty of evidence that PBIS had failed to achieve its intended result, students across the country continued to be suspended and expelled for non-violent offenses (Skiba & Peterson, 2000).

Zero Tolerance Policies and K-12 Disciplinary Practices

“There is no evidence that zero tolerance policies—which mandate automatic punishment, such as suspension or expulsion, for infractions of a stated rule—have done anything to decrease school violence. Evidence is mounting, however, that extreme disciplinary reactions are resulting in higher rates of repeat offenses and dropout rates” (Ward, 2014, pg. 1).

The zero tolerance era began under the auspices of Ronald Reagan. To conduct his “War on Drugs,” the Reagan regime secretly supported the suppliers he pretended to combat. Extensive connections between the influx of crack cocaine into heavily populated South Los Angeles neighborhoods and U.S. Government operatives, chiefly the CIA, have been extensively documented. The very monies and CIA resources allocated to support the Iran and Nicaraguan contras revealed a congressionally supported conduit earmarked for profit at the expense of crippling millions of African Americans (Grim et al., 2014).

On the heels of Reagan’s “War on Drugs,” the new president, Democrat Bill Clinton, advocated for a \$30 billion crime bill to expand prisons and the presence of law enforcement (Mauer, 2011). President Clinton’s crime bill designated new federal capital crimes, life sentences for three-time offenders, and militarization of local police forces (Alexander, 2016).

On the K-12 educational level, Clinton's zero tolerance approach utilized existing Title I funding legislation to require local school districts receiving such funds to require agencies to "expel for a period of not less than one year" (Safe Schools Act, 1994) any student bringing a firearm to school. By 1996/97, zero tolerance policies were being implemented far beyond their initial mandate (Kaufman et al., 2001). On their own initiative, public schools had expanded zero tolerance policies to include punishment for violent offenses as well as non-violent charges, in addition to possession of firearms—the only zero-tolerance offense named in Clinton's original Title I-related legislation (Kaufman et al., 2010). By 2011/12, the perpetual expansion of zero tolerance policies led to kids of color comprising 48% of all suspensions for willful defiance, not for violent offenses (Fix School Discipline).

When Reagan initiated the federal Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1986, he forever changed the landscape of American jurisprudence regarding criminal behavior, especially non-violent criminal offenses. His nationwide zero tolerance policies trickled down in a domino effect until they pervaded public schools. With the length and strength of a pipeline in mind—that pipeline supplying schools and prisons—note that the origins of this painful journey lie in the kindergarten sandboxes in public schools across America, where little children are being arrested for behaving like little children (i.e., having tantrums, being stubborn) at school. In Georgia, a six-year-old boy was arrested, handcuffed, taken to the police station, and suspended for the remainder of the school year for throwing a tantrum and allegedly knocking over a shelf that injured the principal. However, when CNN attempted to contact the school, the "injured" principal could not respond because he was assisting with state testing (Campbell, 2012; Mandell, 2012). In Stockton, California, a five-year-old boy, Michael Davis, who suffered from an Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) was bound at his hands and feet with zip

ties and forcibly sent to a hospital for psychiatric evaluation. For resisting, he was charged with battery on a police officer. In Orlando, Florida, a six-year-old Black girl was arrested for having a tantrum in school; by the time the police arrived, she was calmly going on with her day, but the officers handcuffed her and took her away in their car (Scully, 2015). All these children are Black.

Unsurprisingly, given the combination of zero tolerance policy and biases in its application, 30 years after it was enacted, federal Anti-Drug Abuse legislation has maimed young Black men. In 1998, of all juveniles arrested for violent crimes, 42% of them were Black although African Americans accounted for merely 15% of the country's juvenile population (Synder, 1997). Because 35% of Black children ranging from grades 7 through 12 have been subject to suspensions and/or expulsions, it is an open secret that African Americans suffer the greatest academic, social, and judicial injustices. Throughout this discussion, there is clear documentation focusing on the lack of access to instruction resulting from schools' zero tolerance policies that compound existing literacy issues (Criminal Justice Fact Sheet). African American children who are robbed of the opportunity to benefit from literacy intervention are overwhelmingly represented in the disproportionate school dropout, jail, and prison numbers. Most gravely impacted by K-12 discipline policies have been African American males. Google Scholar offers 5,000 more results for "school to prison pipeline Black boys" than for "school to prison pipeline Black girls," and this imbalance demonstrates the fact that peer-reviewed articles have mostly focused on Black boys. To combat these downward-spiraling, interconnected issues, we must refocus our efforts to challenge policies that harm Black children and educate our communities with new and relevant information to ensure our children are disciplined and treated with the same care and firmness afforded to any other child.

Arguments resting on claims that Blacks are more likely to engage in behaviors that merit disciplinary action are widely refuted, although certain statistics appear to support such an argument. For example, from 1991 to 2005, there were declines in discipline across all subgroups with African American kids being the exception. But kids cannot not be disciplined until they have been referred to an administrative office. Not only are African American students referred to the office with greater frequency, but they are also sent for subjective reasons such as disrespect or a perceived threat (Bradshaw et al., 2010; Kaufman et al., 2010; Skiba et al., 2002; Wallace et al., 2008). Fifty percent of student discipline specific to African American students is for willful defiance (Counsel, 2012).

Moreover, Black students are overrepresented in all aspects of school discipline to include referrals to law enforcement, suspensions, and expulsions (Skiba et al., 2002). Black and Latino students represent 70% of all school-related arrests and referrals to law enforcement (Education Week, 2013). African American kids are 2.19 times and 3.78 times more likely in elementary and middle schools respectively to be referred to the discipline office than White children (Skiba et al., 2011). In more than 25 years of compiling data, researchers continue to substantiate the racial disproportionalities in the administration of school discipline (Children's Defense Fund, 1975; McCarthy & Hodge, 1987; Skiba et al., 1997; Thornton & Trent, 1988; Wu et al., 1982).

Of the articles categorized to make sense of the intersections impacting school-wide disciplinary processes, virtually no disaggregated data references the plight of African American girls. Of the nine articles referenced in respect to school discipline, only two articles added, and those briefly, to the investigation of how Black girls fare when disaggregating school-wide data. Skiba and Peterson (1999), via an ethnographic study, offered only a single example: a six-year-

old girl who was suspended and taken into a police cruiser for a steak knife found in her lunch box. She was to have used the knife, which her parents packed for her, to cut the chicken in her lunch.

Despite the injustices documented in the literature, no ethnicity data collected demonstrated the double threat young Black girls face. The second and third examples were statistics offering some insight into potential challenges to young Black girls, an experience that may rival the assaults on young Black boys. In step with young Black boys, 43% of Black girls are suspended and expelled compared to 7% to 26% of their peers from all subgroups. Additionally, the discipline gap between Black girls and their White peers is substantially greater than the same gap between Black boys and their White peers. African American girls are twice as likely to be sent to the office and five times more likely to be suspended or expelled when compared to their female peers of other race backgrounds (Wallace et al., 2008).

Disciplinary & Pedagogical Practices Germane to Intersectionality Young Black Girls

Viewed through an intersectional lens, disciplinary and pedagogical elements adversely affecting young Black girls reveal themselves in all their complexities. Often the potential biases, the perceptions, and maybe the disproportionalities are the result of gender and race. Most of the available research provides limited evidence of the effects of inappropriate disciplinary measures on these girls. Pedagogically, more offerings explain why these young women are resilient and outperform Black boys (Morris, 2007). But regardless of their relative academic success, Black girls are disciplined at rates that outpace girls from all subgroups (Blake et al., 2011; Morris, 2007). Again, the existing data is primarily derived from African American boys, and Black girls are rarely discussed other than as descriptive statistics (Gregory, 1997; Mendez & KPOF, 2003).

Existing research touches upon Black girls as they relate to the plight of young Black males (Gregory, 1995; Gregory, 1997; Lewis et al., 2009; Mendez & Knoff, 2003). Driven by threat perception, the implicit biases against young Black boys remain the major motive for the disproportionate negative disciplinary practices and outcomes that persist from kindergarten through high school (Mendez & Knoff, 2002). Meanwhile, Black girls face *two* struggles that can be understood as intersectional as well as exponential: White women, penalized for being female, retain the advantages White privilege brings (Collins, 1990; McIntosh, 1988). However, Black girls are penalized not only for being female but also for being Black—for purely social constructions of race and gender that continue to increase oppression (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Dillabough, 2003).

The prevalence of implicit bias impacting these young Black girls has historical implications in the history of American perception of femininity in general. Their femininity does not align with traditional standards when the expectations are docility, hesitance, and altruism (Collins, 2004; Mahalik et al., 2005; Winkle-Wagner, 2009). Few Black girls display qualities associated with weakness, as their mothers have historically worked outside of the home and held positions of power within the community (Fordham, 1993; Thompson, 1998). Black girls have been taught to be assertive and independent, and to restrain their emotions (Ladner, 1979; Morris, 2007). As a result, they have consistently and significantly outpaced Black boys academically. Research has found that Black girls maintained a 14.3% advantage on benchmark testing (Rollock, 2007) and represent twice the population of Black males in Advanced Placement Classes (Morris, 2007). Overall, there is a distinct achievement gap between Black girls and Black boys (Lopez, 2003; Mickelson, 2003; Riordan, 2003).

One might assume that academic achievement among a subgroup correlates usefully with the disciplinary methods they encounter in school. For instance, Black girls rank second in high school graduation rates (Archer Banks & Behar-Horenstein, 2012) and second in college graduation (Kane, 1994). Educational statistics among post-secondary students show even larger disparities between African American girls and Whites. Using statistics maintained by the American Council on Education (2008), 57.7% students enrolled in college during the 2006/07 school year were female. Of these, White girls had the highest enrollment rate at 59.3%, followed by African Americans at 13.5%, Hispanics at 10.5%, and Asians/Pacific Islanders 6%. During the same period, girls earned 57.5% of baccalaureate degrees. These figures highlight the gap in educational achievement and attainment among African American girls compared with their White counterparts.

Although White girls significantly outpaced all subgroups academically, the correlations between academic prowess and school discipline are significantly different for Black girls, who have the highest disciplinary numbers but not the lowest test scores or graduation rates. Contrary to conventional assumptions about disciplinary methods, there is a lack of parity among the educational achievement, educational attainment, and the disciplinary practices that are associated with each subgroup (Butler, 2002; Howard, 2003; Kao & Thompson, 2003; Ogbu, 2004). Despite their relative success in the classroom, Black girls are being chastised and marginalized for being loud and confident, thereby defying White expectations of femininity (Frazier-Kouassi, 2002). Because they are viewed as insufficiently feminine (Oakes, 2005), they bear the brunt of inequitable practices from peers, guidance counselors, teachers, and administrators (Gorski, 2008; Hubbard, 2005; Russell, 2005). The following figures offer a comprehensive glance into the pervasiveness of bias against Black girls in our public schools:

- Black girls are twice as likely as the total population of White females to be permanently excluded from school (Blake et al., 2011).
- Black girls are 2.5 times more likely to be punished for disobedience (Green, 2017).
- Black girls are three times more likely to be cited for being disruptive (Green, 2017)).
- Black girls are twice as likely to be sent to the office as their White peers and five times more likely to be suspended or expelled (Wallace et al., 2008).
- Black girls have the highest suspension rates of all girl subgroups and more than most boy subgroups (Blake et al., 2011)

It must be reiterated that there is no empirical evidence that any child's color causes them to engage in rates of disruptive behavior that is substantially higher than others so that we can substantiate the disproportionalities that exist (Skiba et al., 2014).

Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) for All

California Assembly Bill 1729 Section 1(e) states:

In 2006, the suspension rate of African American elementary and secondary pupils in this state was more than double the rate of suspensions for White, Hispanic, or Asian pupils, and there is no evidence demonstrating that pupils of color or other pupil populations misbehave at greater rates than their peers (FIX SCHOOL DISCIPLINE).

Studies show that when it is used as designed (see Statement of Problem, above), the PBIS universal system is an effective tool for improving student academic and social behavior. Post-PBIS implementation, one study found a 20% to 60% reduction in disciplinary office referrals among both regular students and those receiving special education. These reductions in time out of class mean increases in seat time, when students received instruction (Horner et al., 2005).

By adhering to a universal tiered approach, PBIS could help bridge the gap in cultural synergy between teachers and young Black girls, to reduce the disproportionalities in referral

submissions resulting from student behaviors and teachers' classroom management skills (Fenning & Rose, 2007; Gregory & Mosely, 2004; Monroe & Obidah, 2004). These girls are viewed collectively as having more adult qualities than White girls, as needing less protection and nurturing than White girls, and as more knowledgeable than White girls about adult and sexual topics (Epstein et al., 2017). Lack of cultural awareness leads teachers to perceive Black girls as loud, socially backward, and deficient in appropriate behavioral values (Cousins, 1999). These perceptions have contributed to Black girls being referred for discipline twice as often as White girls, and Black girls being suspended or expelled five times as often as White girls (Wallace et al., 2008). Black girls rarely feature in discussions with school staff, and their absence in these discussions correlates to their invisibility in educational research (Connolly, 1998; Henry, 1998; Mirza, 2006).

Because their behavior is generally perceived as that of adults, and as "criminal," Black girls suffer forms of criminalization, intimidation, and brutality (Ferguson, 2001; Hirschfield, 2008). These perceptions, which PBIS could change, play an integral part in their exclusion from Advanced Placement, College Preparatory, and STEM academic tracks (Ansalone, 2001; 2003; Atwater, 2000; Kao & Thompson, 2003; Kao & Tienda, 1998; Moore et al., 2008). Extending equal academic opportunities to Black girls would help combat the unfair practices of school counselors that can severely affect Black girls' chances of advancing to college (Hubbard, 2005).

Nationwide, PBIS's overall success has been well documented. In Maryland, a statewide study after PBIS implementation yielded reductions in office discipline referrals of 43% (elementary), 33% (middle school), and 37% (high school) (Barret et al., 2008). In another study of middle school students, PBIS implementation lowered in-school suspensions, truancy, out-of-school suspensions, and the duration of those suspensions (Vincent et al., 2013).

PBIS also has been effective among high-risk youth in alternative education and in residential and juvenile settings. A Texas study focused on a secure juvenile facility assessed the effects of PBIS on its daily population of 264 of the most serious or chronically delinquent offenders. After PBIS implementation, total incidents requiring administrative discipline were reduced by 46%; this percentage reflects 41% fewer referred incidents, 56% fewer incidents with security referrals, a 21% increase in individual average daily school attendance, and a marked increase in industry certifications earned by the young people under study (Johnson et al., 2013).

PBIS relies almost solely on school wide discipline (Tier 1) and offers little to no disaggregated data by race, student achievement, or income level (Bradshaw et al., 2008; 2009; 2010): “The extent of PBIS associated with racial/ethnic backgrounds remain unclear” (Vincent et al., 2013, p. 6). Research discussed in PBIS-related literature contained little to no direct language identifying any exclusionary or restorative practices affecting African American students. However, the literature provides many examples of African American children exceeding White kids in suspensions, office referrals, and other exclusionary practices (Skiba et al., 1997; Torbin, 2011).

As to data that would offer public insight into the intersectional complexities affecting Black girls, PBIS’s School-Wide Information System (SWIS) offers the capacity to provide such crucial information but fails to recognize important data points (Tobin et al., 2012). A review of SWIS users showed that fewer than one out of seven SWIS users chose to access the SWIS ethnicity report (Vincent et al., 2013). Although African American boys and girls top disciplinary exclusion lists across the board, available research did not make them a focal point. Vincent, Sprague & Gau (2013) offered a possible explanation for the lack of focus or priority on ethnicity reports. Post-PBIS, in-school suspensions and off-campus suspensions declined

between all White and non-White students, except for African American children. Given that a primary function of PBIS is to increase each student's access to instruction and, ultimately, to increase student achievement, it is particularly striking that the percent of instructional days post-PBIS lost decreased for all White and Hispanic subgroups, but increased for African Americans, and it is even more striking that this fact has not attracted PBIS researchers' attention.

Statewide suspension data from Dataquest supports these claims about African American student response to PBIS. Focusing on two data sets, this study looked at suspensions from 2011/12 and 2017/18. These two years are significant because the 2011/12 school year was not included in statewide mandates to implement AB 1729's means of correction other than PBIS. AB 1729 mandated that each school district implement restorative practices to address disproportionalities among subgroups. According to the above data, suspensions among White students declined by approximately 0.04%. When compared to Black students using the 2011/12 and 2017/18 school years, there was an approximate .4% increase in suspensions. The difference between the increase in Black suspensions and the decrease in White suspensions was 36% (Dataquest, n.d.).

A Way of Seeing and Understanding the Intersectional Challenges Black Girls Face

By recognizing only race- or gender-based injuries, the law overlooks women whose "place" is at the intersection of the two categories, thereby creating the blind spot where they are hidden in plain sight (Crenshaw, 1989; Wing, 1990). Racism permeates our greater society legally, culturally, and even psychologically (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). Many young girls are hampered by the challenges of gender and class. Although important, class and gender do not account for Black girls topping the data charts in school dropouts, suspensions, and expulsions (Skiba et al., 2002). But when class and gender are compounded by race, the sum of the three

parts is known as intersectionality, a term that attempts to identify the ways interlocking systems of privilege and power marginalize poor Black women (Gerrard, 1991; Sokoloff & Dupont, 2005). Intersectionality is an offshoot of Critical Race Theory (CRT), which also identifies combinations of race, law and power working simultaneously to contest systemic oppression, institutional racism, and White privilege (Ladson-Billings, 2004).

Critical race theory was born from legal scholarship that challenged existing civil rights legislation by demanding reinterpretation of the law targeting “institutional racism and structural racism in the political economy” (Parker & Lynn, 2002, p. 9). A group of legal scholars identified tenets of critical race theory to aid in achieving this goal. These tenets are as follows (Lynn & Adams, 2002; Tate, 1997):

- Racism in this country is pervasive, endemic, and quite possibly permanent.
- CRT was not exclusively germane to the field of law; it crossed epistemological boundaries.
- CRT challenged existing civil rights legislation and demanded an explanation of ways U.S. jurisprudence could be consulted to address underserved communities.
- A group of scholars challenged the following cultural claims: neutrality, objectivity, colorblindness & meritocracy.
- CRT acknowledged the lived experiences of people immersed in racism to assist in theorizing race through their lenses.

The structure of CRT would later extend into the field of education, offering ways of knowing and understanding how the above tenets found their way into the classroom.

In extending the first tenet of CRT, it follows that racism is prevalent in U.S. public education (Milner, 2010). It is so commonplace in schools today that when racism breaks the

calm surface of routine daily life, almost no one is surprised (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). This easy accommodation may have roots in the long tradition of educational research using deficit models and language to depict people of color (Ford, 1996; Stanfield, 1995). Because children of color have their history of being misrepresented, exploited, silenced and invisible in education, many people find it difficult to know and understand the unique intersectional barriers that prevent Black girls from flourishing (Dillard, 2000; Stanfield, 1995).

Whether one suffers from implicit bias, explicit bias, or ignorance—any one of these, any combination, or all three—intersectionality provides a way of knowing and conceptualizing the multiple oppressions that plague non-White and poor women (Zack, 2005). The theoretical lenses of intersectionality and critical race theory make it more palatable for researchers to interrogate the curricula, instructional practices, and teacher education programs ostensibly designed to meet the needs of *all* students and teachers to discover whether, in fact, they do so (Dixson, 2006; Gay, 2000). Using the concept of intersectionality as a tool, resistant teachers and researchers may be drawn to reflect and to engage in more learned and objective conversations about race and culture on behalf of *all* students (Ladson-Billings, 1996; Milner, 2007; Tatum, 1992). An intersectional approach provides a new lens and at times, a non-linear theoretical formation to examine data. These approaches have allowed scholars championing the use of intersectionality to identify and explain the obscure damages of racism and sexism that impact the educational journey of our African American girls (William, 1989; Wing, 1990).

Suggestions: Enhancing Policy and Practice

Many pre-K through 12th grade public school students across this country have parents who are not meaningfully involved in their children's education. These kids live in neighborhoods riddled with poverty, they lack minimal academic foundational skills, and they

feel no, or few, positive, nurturing connections to the adults who teach their classes and manage their schools. This combination of struggles drives a wedge between community and school, a wedge that perpetuates a growing achievement gap. The intersectional approach outlined in this study aims to provide substantive direction for stakeholders to work collaboratively in bridging the social, economic, and educational gaps prevalent among communities battling race and poverty.

Culturally Relevant Pedagogy

To thrive academically, all students need to engage with curriculum that is relevant and connect to their lived experience. If they can use their cultural and social capital as a bridge to academic success, they may have the bridge they need to achieve cultural competence (Ladson-Billings, 1995).

Enhancing Community Involvement

Historically, low-income communities and parents have realized minimal parent involvement compared to their White counterparts (Wallis, 1995). Many minority and poor parents who have tried to become more directly involved in their children's education have been made to feel "spoken to," and relegated to passive roles in the education of their children instead of realizing opportunities to actively participate and engage in decision-making processes (Lightfoot, 2004). Moreover, those who demanded engagement and active participation faced a palpable level of resistance (Lareau & Horvat, 1999). Perhaps if schools committed to diversifying their decision-making committees, understood time constraints that limit their stakeholders, and embraced the institutional fears prevalent among our Latino and African American communities, they would grasp the olive branch necessary to mend age-old fears and stereotypes.

Implicit Bias Professional Development

Ample research has documented the commonplace educational prejudgments that promote negative stereotypes and marginalize poor communities. These prejudgments often result from ignorance rooted in cultural differences (Brown et al., 1991; Canon et al. 1992; Mandell & Strain, 1978; Myles & Simpson, 1989). These biases and misunderstandings manifest as the poor classroom management and unfair disciplinary practices that lead to disproportionalities. If schools commit to providing robust and ongoing professional development to identify biases as they affect the cultural and social capital our students bring to school each day, we can eradicate the barriers that stand tall between schools and communities (Emmer, 1994; Kearney et al., 1988).

Chapter 3

Research Tools and Methodology

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to interrogate the fundamental tenets of PBIS implementation as they impact young Black girls in middle school educational arenas. Using various data sources, the study focuses on school absenteeism, suspensions, and CAASPP scores (attendance, discipline, and student achievement). These variables serve as indicators of the impact(s) of PBIS practices on all students in California middle schools.

Population

This study specifically addresses Black girls in middle school because the lion's share of research into the age group's disciplinary infractions and suspension/expulsion rates focuses on Black boys. Black girls at the pivotal stages of adolescence are nearly absent from discussions surrounding disproportionate school discipline and criminalization (Canton, 20012). Since the turn of the 21st century, Black girls have had the fastest-growing suspension rates of all student subgroups (Losen & Skiba, 2010). They are disciplined six times more often than are White girls, and Black girls are suspended at rates higher than 67% of all boys (US Civil Right Department, 2014). The girls' suspensions appear to not be the result of objective and serious behaviors; instead, most of the offenses for which they are suspended are categorized as minor and subjective (Bradshaw, Mitchell, O'Brennan, et al., 2010; Skiba et al., 2002; Varrus & Cole, 2002). As we project out and consider their futures, we may consider suspensions and student retention as the most potent predictors of adolescent female incarceration (Wald & Losen, 2003).

Independent and Dependent Variables

So, we ask—is PBIS an effective intervention for Black female middle school students in California? The independent variables selected for this study aid us in understanding whether PBIS has positively impacted Black middle school girls. The selected independent variables will change over time but remain dependent upon each other for greater understanding.

The independent variables include student suspensions, chronic absenteeism data, state test scores, and how well each of the selected schools have implemented PBIS structures.

The two dependent variables are represented by the four schools selected for the study and the students that represent the independent variable data collected.

Collection of Data/Tools

Survey

For this study, I used a survey to interrogate the fidelity of PBIS implementation at four Southern California middle schools by each of the four schools. The survey tool extracted from www.pbs.org was used to determine with what fidelity each school followed the PBIS system (as designed). I provided the survey to one administrator and one PBIS coordinator at each school to determine how well behavioral expectations were taught, and examine the existence and extent of PBIS systems for recording behavioral expectations. The study calculates the schools' system for responding to PBIS structures.

Selection of Schools

The study focuses on four middle schools from two large counties in California: San Bernardino and Riverside. The counties differ in income levels and access. Because the greatest disparities in school discipline occur at the middle school level, I selected two middle schools from each county. Each school is represented by an urban population, which allowed for a

quality population sample by permitting me to glean unprejudiced data from each. Two of the four schools had Black populations that exceeded 20%. The remaining two schools maintained populations between nine and ten percent, allowing for an adequate sample population. All of these schools had Black student populations that exceed the state average of 5.8%.

Achievement Data

To examine student achievement, I began with the total population of seventh and eighth grade students completing the California Assessment of Student Performance and Progress (CAASPP) exam. From here, I focused on the target population (7th and 8th grade Black girls) and used the above sample size tools to determine a minimum sample number of students to be involved in the study adhering to a confidence level/margin of error at the 95th percentile (Appendix A). Their data is extracted from California's middle school student population via Dataquest.

Drawing on the Dataquest student information system, the number of Black students taking the state mandated CAASPP exam is indicative of the number of total students represented in California public schools. Statewide, 461,621 and 462,731 students are represented in English Language Arts and Mathematics, respectively. Black middle school students comprise approximately 77,000 participants in both subject areas. On average, females make up nearly 52% of the Black population. We can surmise that Black females also make up just over 50% of California's Black student population, thereby concluding that Black girls represent roughly 40,000 of California's middle school state test participants.

The four middle schools under study have Black populations ranging from 66 to 199 students who took the CAASPP: School A and School B (San Bernardino County) and, School C and School D (Riverside County). Per my approved IRB application, the study's subject

population focuses on approximately 551 Black students at four schools. More specifically, the total number of Black students enrolled at the four respective schools was 486. Nearly fifty percent of Black students participating in any CAASPP administration are girls. With approximately 486 African American students across the four schools under study enrolled at these sites, the sample population exceeds the 340 students needed to meet the confidence level at 95% for a population of approximately 2,914 students (Appendix A). Per my approved Institutional Review Board application, the subject population focuses on approximately 551 Black students.

Methodology

The study hinges on CA state AB 1729 legislation passed in 2012, which mandates that restorative justice practices be implemented in all California public schools to streamline disciplinary practices to with the goal of reducing suspensions and expulsions and combatting potential biases that may have existed in the identification of which girls to discipline and under what conditions.

Given the above, a logical approach to structuring this study is a pre- and post-PBIS assessment. The study looks at suspension, student achievement, and chronic absenteeism rates as they existed before the AB 1729 mandate or other means of corrections, and data following the full implementation of those practices. A pre- and post-PBIS assessment is used to clarify the effectiveness of PBIS for all kids.

Survey Explained

To determine the quality of implementation of the PBIS system so that the data observed are consistent and reliable, I surveyed schools to evaluate their level of fidelity in implementing and managing each of the PBIS processes.

The PBIS survey is categorized in an A-G fashion. The letters represent the following categories:

A: Methods of defining expectations

B: Quality of instruction when staff and students are taught these expectations

C: Existence and extent of ongoing reward systems for methods of outlining behavioral expectations

D: Rate of system's successful response to behavioral violations

E: Quality of monitoring and decision-making

F: Quality of process management

G: Level of district-level support of PBIS implementation and management

Each category, A-G, is scored 1, 2, or 3. Using a Likert Scale, the information from each survey is added and averaged to produce a mean score. A t-test involving each of the four mean scores is used to determine how significant the differences between each school are.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is a data system platform that takes large data sets and uses a “vast library of machine-learning algorithms, text analysis, open-score extensibility, integration with big data and seamless deployment into applications” (Ibm.com). Of the many tools accessible via SPSS, I used a multiple-regression analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-tests to help organize and understand the independent variables. The ANOVA and t-test tools allowed me to compare the differences between implementation surveys, chronic absenteeism, suspensions, and state test scores. The data from ANOVA and t-test provided both descriptive and inferential outcomes.

More specifically, I was able to glean, via t-tests, the difference between mean scores for each of the fifteen survey questions. The mean scores helped determine the level of

implementation. I separated the number of questions by those that were considered high standard deviation percentages and low standard deviation scores. I was able to isolate the overall strengths and weaknesses by question. The larger standard deviation was a strong indicator of implementation of PBIS standards with fidelity and lower standard deviation scores were an indication of the opposite.

With respect to school discipline, I used a multiple-regression analysis of variance (ANOVA) to analyze school suspensions. The ANOVA process helped identify the significant differences in suspensions by subgroup, by year and race. The ANOVA process produced a marginal means resource controlling by population. This provided a clear visual identifying the differences in subgroups between the margins of school year, race and school.

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval

The International Review Board (IRB) protects the welfare, rights, and privacy of human subjects under study. It has the authority to approve, disapprove, monitor, and even require changes in all elements of a research project. Most of the data needed to conduct this study were extracted from Dataquest, a public data collection system available to all via www.cde.ca.gov. This study received IRB approval, allowing me to administer surveys to a total of eight adults using a publicly-provided survey via www.pbis.org. The participants include a single administrator and a single PBIS coordinator from each school site. The data excludes the involvement of children and posed few risks.

Chapter 4

Presentation, Analysis, and Interpretation of Data

PBIS Fidelity Survey

Each of the four schools under study completed a school-wide positive behavior support fidelity of implementation survey. I asked a principal and PBIS coordinator from each site to complete a Tier 1 fidelity inventory survey. Tier 1 interventions are focused on 80 to 90% of a school's student population. These interventions are considered universal and focus on school-wide efforts. Educators employ preventative and proactive tools, unlike historical practices involving student discipline. The survey focuses solely on Tier 1 interventions, as they are the foundational element that allows a school to successfully move through the tiered continuum with a large degree of success.

Tier 1 supports are foundational in that they impact most of the students and teachers, define appropriate and inappropriate behaviors, and monitor student and teacher progress. Most importantly, Tier 1 supports are data that allow the leadership team to make future decisions that are consistent and unfractured. This level of consistency is accomplished by establishing the following structures:

- A. Establishing a leadership team
- B. Establishing regular meetings and making routines
- C. Staff commitment to making PBIS structure of priority
- D. Commitment to use data to monitor evaluate and disseminate information
- E. Commitment to professional development for current and new personnel

Tier 2 interventions provide a system of targeted support for students who fail to find success in the first tier of PBIS intervention. Often, 10-15% of the student population are at-risk

of developing more serious problems, whether they be social, emotional, and/or academic. These supports are relegated to approaches that can be implemented for small, targeted groups such as behavior contracts positive rewards, etc. Behavior contracts are often armed with both parties coming to a mutual agreement. Included in this contract are designated rewards to achieve agreed-upon desired behaviors.

The check-in/check-out process is another method to support these small groups. By checking in with students daily to track their progress as they work toward agreed upon incentives, students receive timely feedback and support. These practices, along with other approaches, are designed to catch those students that have the potential to fall through the cracks.

Tier 3 counseling is designed to meet the needs of the smallest portion of a school's population (approximately 5%). This work is designed to be intentional and individualized. It involves intentional collaboration between parents, teachers, and service providers to address acute needs. These individualized efforts may include individualized behavior plans, counseling, and creative scheduling.

Many factors contribute to student breakdowns in each tier. A school's demographics often hinge on the intersections of race, class, and teaching force. These complex combinations have historically concluded with inequitable disciplinary practices resulting in disproportionalities. At the very bottom of the student hierarchy remains Black students. And rivaling Black boys and boys of all other subgroups in per capita suspensions are young Black girls.

The PBIS Fidelity survey used a Likert scale ranging from level 1 through level 3 to determine the level of intervention at individual schools. Level 1 represented the lowest level of implementation and Level 3 represented the highest level of implementation. The survey was

comprised of 15 questions. These questions dealt with policy, expectations, team components, procedure, professional development, recording keeping, evaluation, etc.

The purpose of the survey was to determine how well PBIS strategies were being implemented. Of the eight surveys, seven have been returned. Of the seven surveys, six were filled out entirely. Of those six surveys, all four schools under study were represented by an administrator responding to the survey. Out of a possible 45 points, the average score of the four schools was 37, representing an 81% fidelity rate. The lowest registered score was 56% and the highest 100% with a standard deviation of 17%.

Taking a deeper dive, the average score and standard deviation were used to categorize the average of each question. It is important to point out that when examining the findings for each of the 15 questions, none of them registered a standard deviation that exceeded 1, all within the average range. Scores were observed by percentages ranging from 72% to 77% fidelity and 78% to 89% fidelity. This information did not allow me to glean any solid conclusions. Out of the possible research questions, only two of the fifteen had fidelity averages below 78%.

Looking at the data through another lens, the fifteen questions were then separated by their standard deviations. Again, it is important to note that none of the standard deviations exceeded .92 (within the average range). The first chart consisted of six of the fifteen fidelity questions. Five of those six questions showed larger standard deviations, ranging from .82 to .98. The larger standard deviations were a strong indicator that these areas were implemented with less fidelity. The above was further supported when correlating the large standard deviations to each questions' fidelity percentage. All six of the fidelity questions realized fidelity percentages that fell below the average of 81%. Questions 6, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13 had the following respective fidelity scores: 78%, 72%, 78%, 78%, 78% and 78%.

In contrast, I created a second chart. The second chart includes nine of the fifteen questions. Of those nine questions, eight of them concluded with standard deviations ranging from .52 to .55. The consistency of seven of the nine survey responses is a strong indicator that schools implemented these aspects with greater fidelity. This conclusion is supported by their fidelity scores, as seven of the nine questions were represented by average scores that exceeded the mean fidelity score of 81%. Questions 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 14 and 15 had the following respective fidelity scores: 83%, 83%, 83%, 89%, 83%, 83% and 89%. See charts below.

Table 1

<i>Fidelity Survey-Highest Standard Deviation Percentages</i> #9. Feedback and Acknowledgement: A formal system (i.e., written set of procedures for specific behavior feedback that is [a] linked to school-wide expectations and [b] used across settings and within classrooms) is in place and used by at least 90% of a sample of staff and received by at least 50% of a sample of students.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tiered Fidelity Inventory (TFI) walkthrough tool. 	.98
#12. Discipline Data: Tier 1 team has instantaneous access to graphed reports summarizing discipline data organized by the frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and by individual student.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student outcome data not available to teachers • Lack of access to SWIS info • Info not shared frequently with staff 	.82
#11. Student/Family/Community Involvement: Stakeholders (students, families, and community members) provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, consequences, acknowledgements) at least every 12 months.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Failure to involve voices from the largest stakeholder group in your organization 	.82

#13. Data-based Decision Making: Tier 1 team reviews and uses discipline data at least monthly for decision-making.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data decisions not shared with stakeholders • Lack of meaningful PD to foster change when dictate via data 	.52
#10. Faculty Involvement: Faculty are shown school-wide data regularly and provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations acknowledgements, definitions, consequences) at least every 12 months.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informal surveys • PBIS surveys • Feedback from those in the trenches being impacted by decisions that did not include their voice 	.82
#6. Discipline Policies: School policies and procedures describe and emphasize proactive, instructive, and/ or restorative approaches to student behavior that are implemented consistently.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Failure to communication consistent proactive, instructive, and restorative approaches via discipline policies 	.82

Note. Information retrieved from www.pbis.org and www.surveymonkey.com

Table 2

Fidelity Survey-Lowest Standard Deviation Percentages

#15. Annual Evaluation: Tier 1 team documents fidelity and effectiveness of Tier 1 practices at least annually (including year-by-year comparisons) that are shared with stakeholders (staff, families, community, district) in a usable format.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Excellent job evaluating with help of stakeholders at end of process · Failed to involve them in these processes to help build and hone the process leading to a successful PBIS structure 	.52
#3. Behavioral Expectations: School has five or fewer positively stated behavioral expectations by student and staff behaviors (i.e., school teaching matrix) defined and in place.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Performed TFI walk-throughs · Behavioral Expectations in staff/student handbooks · Failed to share results w/ stakeholders 	.52
#7. Professional Development: A written process is used for orienting all faculty/staff on 4 core Tier 1 SWPBIS practices: (a) teaching school-wide expectations, (b) acknowledging appropriate behavior, (c) correcting errors, and (d) requesting assistance.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Provided necessary professional development · Failed to implement what was learned 	.52

#14. Fidelity Data: Tier 1 team reviews and uses SWPBIS fidelity (e.g., SET, BoQ, TIC, SAS, Tiered Fidelity Inventory) data at least annually	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Good job of posting policy (newsletter, handbook, etc.) · Struggled to implement posted policies 	.55
#1. Team Composition: Tier 1 team includes a Tier 1 systems coordinator, a school administrator, a family member, and individuals able to provide (a) applied behavioral expertise, (b) coaching expertise, (c) knowledge of student academic and behavior patterns, (d) knowledge about the operations of the school across grade levels and programs, and for high schools, (e) student representation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · In writing, did a good job of setting up structure and holding required meetings · Did not disseminate information and involve diverse stakeholders 	.55
#2. Team Operating Procedures: Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and has (a) regular meeting format/agenda, (b) minutes, (c) defined meeting roles, and (d) a current action plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Held required meetings and created action plan · Failed to disseminate info. From meetings to stakeholders and implement action plan 	.84
#5. Problem Behavior Definitions: School has clear definitions for behaviors that interfere with academic and social success and a clear policy/procedures procedure (e.g., flowchart) for addressing office-managed versus staff-managed problems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Behaviors defined in staff/student handbook · Defined in school policy and flowchart provided · Problem behaviors not implemented properly implemented/practiced 	.55
#8. Classroom Procedures: Tier 1 features (school wide expectations, routines, acknowledgements, in-class continuum of consequences) are implemented within classrooms and consistent with school-wide systems.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Procedures defined via handbook, walkthroughs, progress monitoring and data · Tier 1 features not properly disseminated to staff/stakeholders 	.55
#4. Teaching Expectations: Expected academic and social behaviors are taught directly to all students in classrooms and across other campus settings/locations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Admin/group walk-throughs · Professional development · Lesson planning · Informal walk-throughs 	.52

Note. Information retrieved from www.pbis.org and www.surveymonkey.com

From another angle, I have dissected the implementation of PBIS strategies to fidelity. Each score was submitted anonymously. For each of the four schools under study, I took the average PBIS fidelity score. The four schools had the following PBIS fidelity scores:

- School C 100%
- School D 88%
- School A 79%
- School B 56%

Self-scoring has the potential to be misleading, as institutions often lean toward a more positive self-assessment (supportive of the Social Desirability Bias Theory (Krumpal, 2013)). After reviewing the self-reported PBIS fidelity percentages in respect to our research question, there seemed to be a strong correlation between the self-reported data and each school's success or lack thereof when considering Black children in middle schools.

School B's fidelity score of 56% was significantly lower than the three other schools. School B registered increases amongst both White and Black students. More importantly, School B's increase in suspensions in respect to Black children grew 27.6%. This was the largest increase over the six-year period when compared to the other three middle schools.

This study investigated PBIS's impact on all children. School B struggled to implement PBIS strategies with fidelity when compared to the three other schools under study registering a strong correlation to increases in student discipline levels. As the study consistently points out, students who are disciplined at higher rates will not have access to quality instruction. This lack of access to quality instruction often concludes in poor student achievement. Again, when compared to the mean fidelity score of 81%, School B's efforts were comparably lower. As a result, there was a strong positive correlation between disciplinary sanctions and student

achievement. When comparing state test scores over a six-year period, School B seemed to have struggled when compared to all subgroups from the three other schools under study. When considering Black students between 2011/12 and 2017/18, School B realized the largest decline in 7th and 8th grade ELA and math scores in nine of the twelve possible levels. Amongst Hispanic students when compared to the other three schools under study, School B had the poorest state test score growth over the six-year period in eight of the twelve possible levels. The same trend existed amongst School B's Caucasian population, where School B had the largest decline in state test scores in nine of the twelve possible 7th and 8th grade math and ELA levels.

On the contrary, the fidelity survey scores told a different story when looking at the fidelity percentages from School D, and School C. School D's fidelity results may have carried greater merit as we received feedback from more than one participant. School D's mean PBIS fidelity survey score is 32% higher than School B at 88%. There was a strong correlation between their fidelity score and student achievement. School D's fidelity to the PBIS process when considering non-Black sub-groups was consistent with the other three schools under study.

School D, when compared to School A, had a greater suspension rate per capita amongst Latino boys and girls, and White female students after six years of implementation. When considering Black boy and girl subgroups, the data told a substantially different story. When compared to School A, Black girls and boys were suspended per capita at rates 30% and 19% lower.

School D exceeded School B in all four of the non-Black suspension categories. Per capita, School B realized suspension rates amongst Latino girls and boys and White girls and boys at respective percentages of 21%, 16%, 6% and 2% lower than School D. Amongst Black

boys and girls, School D finished the 2017/18 school year, after six years of implementation, with per capita suspensions significantly lower than School B. Amongst both Black subgroups, they registered percentage rates per capita more than fifty percentage points lower than School B.

Last, School D is compared to a school that registered an even greater fidelity score of 100% on the fidelity survey. Unlike School D, School C submitted only one fidelity survey. Their efforts are reflected in their disciplinary data, as School C registered lower suspension rates in four of the six subgroups (Hispanic boys and girls, White girls, and Black boys). Outside of School D, School C was the only other school to register lower suspension rates amongst any of the two Black boy and girl subgroups.

Of the four schools, School D and School C were two of the four schools under study to register fidelity scores above the mean of 81%. Both schools were also two of the four schools under study to show the smallest decline amongst either Black girl or boy subgroups' state test scores. With respect to non-Black students at School C, the data concerning Black and non-Black students is inconclusive. Although Black students at School C registered the second highest 7th grade ELA scores amongst the four schools, their data concerning 8th grade ELA, 7th grade math and 8th grade math ranked fourth, third and third when compared to the other schools under study.

School D, the only other school to have a PBIS fidelity score above the mean, showed great promise. In respect to Hispanic students, School D realized 2017/18 test scores that ranked first at each grade level, across each subject area and amongst all subgroups.

Although there was a strong correlation to a school that returned a high PBIS fidelity score and ranked first in all state test data (student achievement), the suspension numbers for

School D did not provide evidence that PBIS structures impact student behaviors that ultimately impact student achievement. As for School C, there was no evidence that PBIS structures positively impacted student behavior that would lead to increased student achievement. Unlike School D, School C's student achievement data, on average, ranked third amongst the four schools under study and in each of the subgroups across math and ELA subject areas.

Chronic Absenteeism/Truancy

“Those who are truant are at significant risk for developing additional difficulties, poor academic performance, delinquency, school dropout, employment problems, and earlier and increased substance use and abuse, among others” (Mallett, 2016, p. 337). Truancy is defined as students missing a full day of school, absent for more than a class period, or for 30 minutes or more. Truancy is one of several factors that plays a role in damaging student achievement amongst young Black girls; it remains a symptom of a greater problem that, via this study, is viewed through a “whole child” lens. In this study, I selected four California schools for review of school-wide truancy/chronic absenteeism reports for three specific school years: 2011/12, 2015/16, and 2017/18. In the 2011/12 school year, PBIS/other means of correction had not yet been mandated. The 2015/16 school year is a midpoint after several years of restorative justice implementation. Finally, I used the 2017/18 school year data to identify and assess correlations among six years of PBIS practices and student achievement.

Four years of truancy/chronic absenteeism data revealed obvious correlations among schools that have been successful at getting and keeping children in classrooms so that they are exposed to grade-level curriculum that could ultimately increase student achievement. The data studied included state, district, and individual school truancy rates for the four school years. Beginning in 2011/12 (before AB 1729 implementation), the state average of truant middle

school students was 29.20%. In 2011/12, three of the four schools under study performed below the state average: School C 27.58%, School D 20.18%, and School B 13.4%. The only school to exceed the state average of 29.20% was School A at 42.94%. In summary, before the implementation of AB 1729, 75% of the four selected schools were outperforming most schools in California.

Table 3

Truancy and Chronic Absenteeism Report for 2011/12, 2015/16 and 2017/18

	School C	School D	School A	School B	State Average
11/12 Truancy Rate	28.60%	13.36%	42.94%	12.56%	29.20%
15/16 Truancy Rate	40.83%	16.72%	45.93%	37.14%	34.07%
17/18 Truancy Rate	17.9%	17.8%	30.1%	23.3%	11.1%
Difference 11/12 to 15/16	Increased 12.23%	Increased 3.36%	Increased 12.14%	Increased 24.58%	Increased 4.87%
Difference 11/12 to 17/18	Decreased 9.4%	Increased 4.5%	Decreased 12%	Increased 11%	Decreased 18%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

This study identifies chronic student absenteeism/truancy as a possible contributor to poor student achievement. To help mitigate student absenteeism/truancy, California's AB 1729 mandate was adopted by California schools initiating the use of PBIS practices throughout the state. The interim perspective (2015/16 data) may contribute to the discussion connecting student attendance and student achievement; after four years of opportunities to implement practices designed to combat truancy/chronic absenteeism, I pulled 2015/16 data to study PBIS implementation results. Findings include the following:

In 2015/16, the California middle school truancy average had increased nearly 5% to 34.07%. After four years of implementing restorative practices, only School D had had truancy rates that fell below the state average. Although School D's truancy rate increased 3.36% in one year, the school registered the lowest truancy rate among the four selected schools for 2015/16. The remaining three schools (Schools C, B and A) did not benefit from the four-year opportunity to implement practices that would reduce truancy. Each of these three schools had truancy rates that exceeded the state 2015/16 average of 34.07%. School C, which had fared favorably in 2011/12, increased its truancy rate from 28.60% in 2011/12 to 40.83% in 2015/16. School A also increased its truancy rate from 42.94% to 45.93%, thereby underperforming when compared to the state average. Last, School B had previously (in 2011/12) registered truancy rates below the state average, but substantially increased from a then 12.56% truancy rate to a 37.14% truancy rate in 2015/16. The significant increases in truancy rates at School A may be attributed to changes in leadership. After nearly four years of consistent leadership and staff continuity at School A, a new administrator took the helm, and simultaneously, seven of the most successful teachers (one fourth of staff) were actively recruited to open a new flagship school. These changes had a profound impact on quality of instruction, school climate, and student truancy.

A final data point is the 2017/18 chronic absenteeism rates. The 2017/18 data closely mirrored the results of the 2015/16 school year. School D registered the most favorable truancy data in 2015/16; they registered the lowest truancy rates amongst the four schools in 2017/18 at 17.8%, despite an increase of 4.5%. School D's student achievement data, derived from CAASPP scores, showed that School D outperformed the other three schools in state test scores from 2011/12 to 2017/18. This preliminary information suggested a strong correlation between the two variables.

Finally, this study looked at chronic absenteeism (students missing more than ten percent of the total number of instructional days) across the four middle schools in 2017/18. The three schools with the poorest record of student achievement (School C, School A, and School B) also registered the worst chronic absenteeism rates (19.2%, 30.1%, and 23.3%, respectively). The school with the lowest chronic absenteeism/truancy rates (School D) concluded the 2017/18 school year with significantly higher CAASPP results.

Focusing on Suspensions

Table 4

Suspensions by Racial Subgroup

	School A	School C	School D	School B
11-12 Black	21.3%	19.6%	16.6%	41.9%
17-18 Black	42.4%	17.3%	15.8%	42%
11-12 to 17-18 Difference	21.1% increase	2.3% decrease	.8% decrease	.1% increase
11-12 Latino	52.50%	46.3%	48.2%	44.1%
17-18 Latino	35.6%	53.6%	64.2%	44.3%
11-12 to 17-18 Difference	16.9% decrease	7.3% increase	16% increase	.2% increase
11-12 White	19.2%	26.3%	30.7%	9.4%
17-18 White	15.7%	20.20%	11.7%	6.3%
11-12 to 17-18 Difference	3.5% decrease	6.1% decrease	19% decrease	3.1% decrease

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

The data in Table 4 answer important questions about claims of the uniform positive value of sound PBIS practices; a statewide view of suspensions and truancy indicating that these practices are of some value is supported by data the study extracts from the four school sites.

Between 2011/12 (AB 1729 implementation) and 2017/18, each school in this study reduced both their suspension and truancy rates.

But while the data under study indicate some positive value in current PBIS practices, it also demonstrates an imperative to restructure methods of communication and discipline in California middle schools to restore maximum benefit to all students. Despite the availability of such rich data, the results do not support the fact that PBIS impacts all California middle school children positively. It does help us identify the disproportionalities and help measure ways restorative practices impact young Black students.

To begin to comprehend the impact of disciplinary practices on seventh and eighth-grade Black girls, I looked at the impact of school-wide suspensions related to Latino, White, and Black boys, and the same female subgroups from each of the four selected schools. I pulled suspension figures from 2011/12 and 2017/18 Dataquest data. Again, 2011/12 represented a period before the implementation of AB 1729, with mandates of other means of correction before suspension/expulsion. The 2017/18 figure represents the results of six years of restorative practices designed to reduce student suspensions. It is reasonable to assume that schools that adhered to the state mandate and implemented structures with fidelity to reduce suspensions would have a positive impact not only on young Black girls but also on all children.

To make sense of the available data, for each of the four school years, I used the cumulative enrollment and percent of suspended students aggregated by race. To determine whether suspensions increased or decreased, for each year and race, I divided the number of suspensions by cumulative enrollment to reach a ratio for comparison of the 2011/12 and 2017/18 years.

Between 2011/12 and 2017/18, Black middle school students saw per capita increases in suspensions in three out of the four schools. Although four of the four schools showed school-wide improvements in suspensions from 2011/12 to 2017/18, Black students' suspension rates did not indicate similar results. At none of the four schools under study did Caucasian students register the largest per capita suspension rate among the three homogenous subgroups.

School A Suspension by Racial Subgroup

School A experienced a 16.9% decrease in Latino student suspensions from 2011/12 to 2017/18. White student suspensions also experience a decrease in suspension at 3.5% and maintained the lowest per capita suspension rates of all subgroups at 15.7%. The highest rate of student suspensions was among Black students, which increased from 21.3% to 42.4% between 2011/12 and 2017/18—the only increase in suspension from 2011/12 to 2017/18 amongst the three subgroups.

School C Suspension by Racial Subgroup

School C's suspensions amongst Black students decreased 2.3% to 17.3%. Latino students registered the highest suspension rate of 53.6, with an increase from 46.3% in 2011/12. Last, White students at School C realized a 6.1% decrease in suspensions to 20.20%. School C's White population was the only one of four schools where the subgroup did not have the lowest suspension percentage. From 2011/12 and 2017/18, School C's suspension range was a significant (36.3%). Although positive, there seemed to be a level of inconsistency in how discipline was administered across ethnic groups as indicated by the wide range is suspension percentages. When looking at the ratios between student populations and suspended students, the rate of African American suspensions exceeded all subgroups.

School D Suspension by Racial Subgroup

African American students were not the only subgroup to show improvements (0.8%) in suspensions across the six-year timespan under study; White students' suspension rates also decreased over the six-year restorative justice period by 19%. School D's Latino student suspension rate increased, by 16%. When comparing all four schools under study, School D's Black students concluded the 2017/18 school year with the lowest Black suspension rate at 15.8%.

School B Suspension by Racial Subgroup

African American students were not the only subgroup at School B to show an increase (0.1%) in suspensions across the six-year timespan. School D's Latino student suspension rate also increased, by 0.2%. Only among White students did suspension rates decrease over the six-year restorative justice period. White students were the only subgroup to show a decrease in suspensions amongst the three subgroups; White students' suspensions rates were 35.9% and 38% lower than Black and Latino subgroups respectively.

In continuing to investigate the relationships between chronic absenteeism/truancy, student achievement and discipline, the data in Table 4 answered important questions about the advantages and positive impact of sound PBIS practices: a statewide view of suspensions and truancy indicating that these practices are of some value and are supported by data the study extracts from the four schools under study. Between 2011/12 (AB 1729 implementation) and 2017/18, each school under study reduced both their suspension and their truancy rates.

But while the data under study found some positive value in current PBIS practices, it also demonstrated an imperative to restructure methods of communication and discipline in California middle schools to restore maximum benefit to *all* students. Despite the availability of

such rich data, the results did not support the claim that PBIS positively impacts all California middle school students.

Table 5

Student Suspensions 2011/12 and 2017/18 (race and gender subgroups)

	School A	School C	School D	School B
11-12 to 17-18 Black Girls	14.63% Increase	3.65% Decrease	61.9% Increase	16.7% Increase
11-12 to 17-18 Black Boys	11.36% Increase	39.46% Decrease	32.35% Increase	26.28% Increase
11-12 to 17-18 Latino Girls	25.74% Decrease	2.08% Decrease	2.2% Decrease	0.1% Decrease
11-12 to 17-18 Latino Boys	22.92% Decrease	5.32% Decrease	9.2% Increase	No change
11-12 to 17-18 White Girls	25.81% Decrease	9.59% Decrease	3.88% Decrease	53.63% Increase
11-12 to 17-18 White Boys	25.27% Increase	53.63% Increase	60.18% Decrease	24.11% Decrease

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Suspension by Race and Gender

While taking into account per capita suspension rate, School A produced similar results. Latino girls, Latino boys, and White girls were positively impacted by PBIS strategies as their suspension rates per capita declined 25.7%, 22.92%, and 25.8% respectively. Other than Black students, White males saw the only increase in per capita suspensions at 25.27%. Black girls and Black boys contributed the highest suspension rates (per capita) and saw increases in those per capita suspensions at 14.63% and 11.36% respectively. Of all the gender and racial subgroups at School A, Black girls represented the highest per capita suspension rate.

School C Suspension by Race and Gender

In five of the gendered subgroups, School C saw decreases in per capita suspensions over a six-year period following the implementation of AB 1729. The only subgroup to see increases was White males. Once again, Black girls represented the highest per capita suspension rate in 2017/18. Of all subgroups, when compared to per capita suspension rates for White girls, Black girls were being suspended at a rate 180% higher than that of White girls at School C. Black girls represented the largest per capita suspension rate in the entire school among both boys and girls.

School D Suspension by Race and Gender

School D saw declines in per capita suspension rates among Latina girls, White girls, and White boys (2.2%, 3.88%, and 60.18%). Latino boys realized a small increase in per capita suspensions at 9.2%. Black students saw significant increases in per capita suspensions for both boys and girls (61.9% and 32.3%). Although Black boys registered the largest per capita suspensions, Black girls saw the largest increase in per capita suspensions from 2011-2012 to 2017/18 (61.9%).

School B Suspension by Race and Gender

Black students at School B followed a similar pattern as the previous three schools presented above. Black girls and boys had the two highest per capita suspension rates in the entire school. They also saw increases in per capita suspension rates between 2011/12 and 2017/18 at 16.8% and 26.3% respectively. There were no increases in Latino students' per capita suspensions for either the boys or girls. White girls saw an increase in per capita suspensions and White boys a 24.1% decrease. Despite what seems like a significant increase in White girl suspensions, they registered the lowest per capita suspension rate amongst all subgroups.

Suspension Rates across Race and Gender Summarized

The opportunity to examine suspension rates across both race and gender provided answers to the following questions: Does PBIS positively impact all students? How does PBIS impact young Black middle school girls? Again, the study took the percent of cumulative enrollment and divided it into the percent of student suspensions by race and gender, focusing on the 2011/12 school year. Before 2012, there was no statewide focus on disenfranchised populations and no agreed-upon mechanisms or plans to address the obvious disproportionalities in school discipline. Black students were being suspended at rates nearly three times that of Caucasian students for the same or similar infractions (Carpenter & Ramirez, 2007).

A second data set was pulled from the 2017/18 school year, which marked nearly six years since the introduction of AB 1729, mandating that all schools employ “other means of correction” before suspending a student for a non-violent infraction. The 2017/18 school year reflected success rates of districts across the state after six years of implementing strategies to combat inequitable practices leading to student disproportionalities, with PBIS as the agreed-upon statewide restorative tool. Outcomes were anticipated to be positive, in the form of reduced suspensions for all kids. More importantly, the study expected that the strategies would have assisted in closing the discipline gap between White and Black students, and ultimately impacting student achievement.

Conclusion

Consistent with the literature reviewed and discussed, Black students showed increases in per capita suspensions in three of the four schools. In three of the four schools, White students recorded the lowest per capita suspension rates. In only one of the four schools were there decreases in suspension rates for any Black subgroup. Of all the boy and girl subgroups, Black

girls recorded the highest per capita suspension in three of the four schools. Also, in three of the four schools, Black girls realized increases in per capita suspensions from 2011/12 to 2017/18.

But while the data under study found some positive value in current PBIS practices, it also demonstrated an imperative to restructure methods of communication and discipline in California middle schools to restore maximum benefit to *all* students. Despite the availability of such rich data, the results matched the literature in that PBIS does not positively impact all California middle school children. The data we glean from the above did help identify some clear disproportionalities and may help us evaluate ways restorative practices impact young Black students.

Table 6

CAASPP Student Achievement 11/12 and 17/18: A California State Lens

	School D		School C		School B		School A	
	Change	Growth	Change	Growth	Change	Growth	Change	Growth
7 th ELA: 11/12 to 17/18								
Black	-21.43%	-42.9%	-16%	-44.4%	-39.48%	-85.83%	-23.15%	-59.36%
Latino	-7.1%	-16.14%	-33.65%	-64.71%	-21.01%	-50.02%	-26.85%	-54.8%
White	+.09%	+.15%	-25.22%	-47.58%	-25.86%	-51.72%	-39.84%	-56.4%
8 th ELA: 11/12 to 17/18								
Black	-8.95%	-29.83%	-24.47%	-69.91%	-20%	-52.63%	-24.93%	-59.36%
Latino	-14.23%	-31.62%	-26.33%	-54.85%	-23.24%	-56.68%	-21.20%	48.2%
White	-3%	-4.76%	-26.69%	-45.24%	-16.33%	-49.5%	-45.36%	-63.89%

7 th Math: 11/12 to 17/18								
Black	-4%	-13.8%	-15.28%	-72.76%	-31.92%	-96.63%	-17.59%	-70.36%
Latino	-9.47%	-27.01%	-8.23%	-68.94%	-31.04%	-79.59%	-44.24%	-80.44%
White	-8.23%	-17.9%	-12.34%	-42.55%	-37.10%	-84.32%	-52.5%	-75.1%
8 th Math: 11/12 to 17/18								
Black	+3.53%	+50.43%	-24.30%	-90%	-14.03%	-82.53%	-20.53%	-89.26%
Latino	+8.77%	+83.91%	-37.26%	-77.63%	-19.80%	-73.33%	-10.54%	-52.45%
White	+17%	+73.91%	-49%	-71.01%	-11.44%	-67.3%	-20.58%	-52.77%

This study included critical data from the state of California’s data collection system (Dataquest). I looked at the impact school discipline had on all children and in particular middle school Black girls. I also focused on student absenteeism recognizing scholarly studies emphasizing the negative impact that chronic absenteeism has on student achievement. With that said, it is important to remind all readers that chronic absenteeism, school discipline, and student achievement do not exist in isolation. The sum of these three parts and their interdependence serves as key indicators that help determine whether our children will become successful American citizens—or begin their journey toward what is commonly referred to as the school-to-prison pipeline.

To identify and evaluate the impact of chronic absenteeism, school discipline, and student achievement on young Black girls, the study focused on 2011/12 California Standardized Test (CST) scores and 2017/18 California Assessment of Student Performance and Progress (CAASPP) test scores. These two school years were chosen because they represented periods before and after the implementation of legislation that mandated that all California schools

revamp their disciplinary practices to serve disciplined children better (AB 1729). At the core of this journey are Positive Behavior Intervention and Supports (PBIS) practices designed to help increase student achievement by increasing their time in school.

In 2011/12, statewide CST results in English language arts (ELA) and math showed 62% of the state's middle school students achieving Advanced and Proficient test scores. Statewide, White middle school students (7th grade) exceeded the statewide ELA average by 17%. White 8th graders exceeded statewide ELA averages by 16%. White 7th graders exceeded statewide math averages by 15%. Statewide 8th-grade math scores combined general math, algebra, and geometry scores; in each of these three areas, White students outpaced statewide averages.

A striking fact emerges in reviewing these data points: more than twice as many Latino students as White students participated in 8th grade Math CSTs (231,958 to 120,945), yet White students achieved higher than Latino students who participated in higher-level math classes. Nearly 3,000 more White kids took the Geometry CST than Latino students. Per capita, a greater percentage of White students took Algebra, and fewer White students participated in the least rigorous math class, General Mathematics. Despite taking more rigorous math courses, White students outperformed Latino students in each of the three courses (general math, algebra, and geometry). Per capita, White students were better represented in more rigorous math courses and outpaced Black students as well.

Students of color did not fare well in comparison either to overall statewide results or to their White counterparts. Like the above, despite taking less rigorous courses, Latino and African American students achieved significantly below White students in 8th-grade math. In 7th and 8th grade ELA, there was a 29% and 24% range among all Black and Latino students respectively when compared to White students. In math, the gap was greater, at 31% and 24% respectively.

Last, 8th grade Black and Latino ELA students continued to be outperformed at ranges of 29% and 27% respectively.

Initially, the 2017/18 CAASPP scores posed a significant problem. The CST was no longer being administered; a new presidential administration had proposed new curriculum and a new assessment.

The new CAASPP exam did not allow for an apples-to-apples comparison with CST results. Because they represented two different assessments, I could not measure growth when comparing CAASPP scores to the 2011/12 CST. However, the 2017/18 CAASPP data did allow me to dissect student achievement data six years after the implementation of AB 1729.

Surprisingly, the variances between subgroups when compared to statewide test scores were largely comparable in both administrations, 2011/12 and 2017/18. White students (2017/2018) revealed less than a 2% variance (on average) in each grade level and subject matter (ELA and math):

- Less than a 1% variance in 7th grade ELA
- A 1% variance in 7th grade math
- A 1.3% variance in 8th grade math

Latino student test results resembled those of White students. The average variance was also less than 2% when compared to 2011/12 CST results. They are as follows:

- Less than a 1% variance in 7th grade ELA
- Less than a 1% variance in 8th grade ELA
- Less than a 4% variance in 7th grade math

Black students demonstrated the greatest variance between 2011/12 and 2017/18 state test scores. And unlike the variance between White and Latino students, Black students' test scores also declined at each grade level and subject matter. The average variance was nearly 5%.

They are as follows:

- Over 6% decline in 7th grade ELA
- Over a 4.5% decline in 8th grade ELA
- A 3.5% decline in 7th grade math

Table 7

CAASPP Student Achievement 11/12 and 17/18: A California Six-School Lens

California Standardized Testing & California Assessment of Student Performance and Progress						
7th and 8th grade ELA and Math Statewide CST Scores for 2011-2012						
	Statewide ELA 7th	Statewide Math 7th	Statewide ELA 8th	Statewide Math 8th		
Advance Scores	29%	21%	33%	145,158 scores GM 7%	275,743 scores Algebra 18%	29,099 scores Geometry 51%
Proficient Scores	33%	31%	26%	25%	31%	36%
	White ELA 7th	White Math 7th	White ELA 8th	White Math 8th		
Advance Scores	46%	31%	48%	36,989 scores GM 12%	73,916 scores Algebra 23%	10,040 scores Geometry 54%
Proficient Scores	33%	36%	27%	32%	37%	38%
	Black ELA 7th	Black Math 7th	Black ELA 8th	Black Math 8th		
Advance Scores	17%	10%	20%	17,869 scores Algebra 8%	847 scores Geometry 28%	11,332 scores Gen. Math 3%
Proficient Scores	33%	25%	26%	24%	43%	17%
	Latino ELA 7th	Latino Math 7th	Latino ELA 8th	Latino Math 8th		
Advance Scores	16%	14%	21%	84,026 scores Gen. Math 4%	140,597 scores Algebra 11%	7,335 scores Geometry 27%
Proficient Scores	34%	29%	27%	21%	28%	47%
	Statewide ELA 7th	Statewide Math 7th	Statewide ELA 8th	Statewide Math 8th		
Exceeded Standard	16.32%	18.69%	15.97%	20.76%		
Met Standard	33.83%	18.61%	33.15%	16.12%		
	White ELA 7th	White Math 7th	White ELA 8th	White Math 8th		
Exceeded Standard	25.09%	28.45%	23.90%	30.62%		
Met Standard	40.95%	24.97%	39.95%	21.20%		
	Black ELA 7th	Black Math 7th	Black ELA 8th	Black Math 8th		
Exceeded Standard	6.52%	6.10%	6.77%	7%		
Met Standard	25.37%	11.73%	24.69%	10.66%		
	Latino ELA 7th	Latino Math 7th	Latino ELA 8th	Latino Math 8th		
Exceeded Standard	8.18%	8.64%	7.97%	10.14%		
Met Standard	30.52%	15.73%	29.70%	13.77%		

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

This study's focal point was narrow; I focused on potential student achievement gaps at each site. By comparing 2011/12 CST scores and 2017/18 CAASPP scores, the growth was nearly identical. Focusing on the student achievement ranges with respect to specific assessments (CST and CAASPP) yielded a near apples-to-apples comparison as student ranges among Hispanic and Caucasian students differed less than 2% when averaged, so this study was able to dive more deeply into possible achievement gaps with respect to race. Since the passing of AB 1729 mandated that structures be put in place to close achievement gaps, this comparison presented an opportunity to determine the success of policy implementation. More specifically, it provided information to help determine whether “other means of correction” structures were positively impacting all kids. As mentioned earlier, “other means of correction” mandated that prior to suspension/expulsion, schools must make concerted efforts to correct misbehaviors in situations where students’ behaviors disrupted instruction. Other than acts of violent offenses and drug infractions, students could not be suspended on a first offense.

As this study focused on seventh and eighth grade ELA and math scores from 2011/12 and 2017/18 with respect to race, one of the four middle schools showed promise when compared to the entire group of schools germane to this study. School D’s findings, on average, revealed a large discrepancy in seventh and eighth grade ELA and seventh and eighth-grade math growth when comparing test administrations from both years.

Table 8

School D CAASPP and CST Scores

School D						
Black	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7th	ELA	50%	28.57%	-21.43%	-42.9%

	8 th	ELA	30%	21.05%	-8.95%	-29.83%
	7 th	Math	29%	25%	-4%	-13.8%
	8 th	Math	7%	10.53%	+3.53%	+50.43%

Note: Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D						
Hispanic	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7 th	ELA	44%	36.9%	-7.1%	-16.14%
	8 th	ELA	45%	30.77%	-14.23%	-31.62%
	7 th	Math	35%	25.53%	-9.47%	-27.01%
	8 th	Math	About 11%	20.2% %	+8.77%	+83.91%

Note: Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D						
White	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7 th	ELA	59%	59.09%	+.09%	+.15%
	8 th	ELA	63%	60%	-3%	-4.76%
	7 th	Math	46%	37.77%	-8.23%	-17.9%
	8 th	Math	23%	40%	+17%	+73.91%

Note: Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C CAASPP and CST Scores

School C						
Black	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7th	ELA	36%	20%	-16%	-44.4%
	8 th	ELA	35%	10.53%	-24.47%	-69.91%
	7 th	Math	21%	5.72%	-15.28%	-72.76%
	8 th	Math	27%	2.70%	-24.30%	-90%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C						
Hispanic	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7th	ELA	52%	18.35%	-33.65%	-64.71%
	8 th	ELA	48%	21.67%	-26.33%	-54.85%
	7 th	Math	31%	9.63%	-8.23%	-68.94%
	8 th	Math	48%	10.74%	-37.26%	-77.63%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C						
White	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7th	ELA	53%	27.78%	-25.22%	-47.58%
	8 th	ELA	59%	32.31%	-26.69%	-45.24%
	7 th	Math	29%	16.66%	-12.34%	-42.55%
	8 th	Math	69%	20%	-49%	-71.01%

Note: Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B CAASPP and CST Scores

Hook						
Black	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7th	ELA	46%	6.52%	-39.48%	-85.83%
	8 th	ELA	38%	18%	-20%	-52.63%
	7 th	Math	32%	1.08%	-31.92%	-96.63%
	8 th	Math	17%	2.97%	-14.03%	-82.53%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B						
Hispanic	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7th	ELA	42%	20.99%	-21.01%	-50.02%
	8 th	ELA	41%	17.76%	-23.24%	-56.68%
	7 th	Math	39%	7.96%	-31.04%	-79.59%
	8 th	Math	27%	7.20%	-19.80%	-73.33%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B						
White	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7th	ELA	50%	24.14%	-25.86%	-51.72%
	8 th	ELA	33%	16.67%	-16.33%	-49.5%
	7 th	Math	44%	6.90%	-37.10%	-84.32%
	8 th	Math	17%	5.56%	-11.44%	-67.3%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A CAASPP and CST Scores

School A						
Black	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7 th	ELA	39%	15.85%	-23.15%	-59.36%
	8 th	ELA	42%	17.07%	-24.93%	-59.36%
	7 th	Math	25%	7.41%	-17.59%	-70.36%
	8 th	Math	23%	2.47%	-20.53%	-89.26%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A						
Hispanic	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7 th	ELA	49%	22.15%	-26.85%	-54.8%
	8 th	ELA	44%	22.80%	-21.20%	48.2%
	7 th	Math	55%	10.76%	-44.24%	-80.44%
	8 th	Math	21%	10.46%	-10.54%	-52.45%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A						
White	Grade	Subject	CST	CAASPP	Growth Range	Percentage of Growth
	7 th	ELA	70%	30.16%	-39.84%	-56.4%
	8 th	ELA	71%	25.64%	-45.36%	-63.89%
	7 th	Math	70%	17.46%	-52.5%	-75.1%
	8 th	Math	39%	18.42%	-20.58%	-52.77%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

Schools A, B and C were separated from School D based on their CAASPP scores. When comparing the 2011/12 and 2017/18 CST and CAASPP scores with a focus on decreases/increases, each of the three schools registered declines of more than 50% in all subgroups and subject areas. School A's Black students averaged more than a 59% and 79% decline in ELA and math, respectively. School A's Hispanic students also registered a 51% and 66% decline in ELA and math, respectively. Last, White students declined more than 60.5% and 63% in ELA and math. Empirical data concluded that of the three subgroups (Black, Hispanic, and White), Black students' CAASPP (ELA and math) scores (on average) were more than 50% lower than those of White students. Despite having the lowest test scores of any subgroup, and more than a 50% range when compared to Caucasian students, Black ELA, and math scores from 2011/12 to 2017/18 showed the greatest decline among all subgroups.

Except for White students' ELA averages, when comparing 2011/12 and 2017/18 state test scores, School C registered declines greater than 50% in ELA and math among all subgroups, except for White ELA students. Black students' declines in ELA and math exceeded 57% and 81%, respectively. Hispanic students followed with declines exceeding 54% and 73% in ELA and math, respectively. White students registered the lowest declines at more than 46% and 56% in ELA and math, respectively. White students outpaced African American students in ELA by nearly 50%, and in math, White students registered results that outpaced Black test scores by more than four times (4% and 18%). Like School A, Black students, when compared to their White counterparts, registered significantly lower test scores, but still managed to have the sharpest declines among all subgroups.

Of the three schools identified as having the greatest challenges, School B struggled most. When comparing CST and CAASPP test scores between 2011/12 and 2017/18, the results had the

same trend as the other two schools. In each subject (ELA and math) and among each subgroup (Black, White, and Hispanic), the decline in ELA and math test scores at each grade level exceeded 50%. Of the three subgroups, School B's Black students fared the poorest and registered the greatest decline in both ELA and Math in 2011/12 and 2017/18 (69% and 89% in ELA and Math respectively). The decline was 16% and 19% steeper than both Hispanic and White students. Much like School A and School C, School B's Black students showed the greatest decline in both subject areas, and their 2017/18 overall scores were significantly lower than both White and Hispanic students in both ELA and Math.

Middle School Successes

Of the 2017/18 math and ELA scores, School D revealed declines from 2011/12 that were also substantially lower than those of School B, School A, and School C. Except for a single subgroup in a single subject at a single school, every subgroup at School D ended the 2017/18 school year with a less than 50% decline in state test scores when compared to 2011/12.

School D's student achievement rate was highest amongst the four selected schools. First, 2017/18 test scores among Black and Hispanic students in ELA and Math were the highest of the four schools. Black students averaged better than 24% and 17% of students who met or exceeded the standard in ELA and math respectively and Hispanic students better than 33% and 22% respectively. More importantly, each subgroup realized declines from 2011/12 that fall significantly below the 50% mark. For Black students, the decline in ELA was 36%. When compared to all four schools, School D is the only site to show increases for Black students' state marks. Their efforts managed to show an increase in Math scores at 18%.

I found similar results when reviewing Hispanic students' test scores. In ELA, Hispanic students declined just 23%, again well below the 50% threshold. For both subgroups, the greatest success and gains came in 8th grade math.

School D's high test scores, and lowest percentages of decline from 2011/12 were found in the White subgroup. Students averaged more than 59% in ELA and nearly 44% in math. The decline among White ELA students was a slight two percent. In math, students realized a 28% gain, showing significant increases at the 8th-grade level.

Table 9

Marginal Means, Standard Error, and Sample Size for Suspensions by School and Year/Race Controlling for Population

Combination	Marginal Means	SE	N
School A: 2017/18 Black	0.47	0.03	1
School C: 2017/18 Black	0.46	0.03	1
School D: 2017/18 Black	0.47	0.03	1
School B: 2017/18 Black	0.46	0.03	1
School A: 2011/12 Latino	0.19	0.04	1
School C: 2011/12 Latino	0.18	0.04	1
School D: 2011/12 Latino	0.19	0.04	1
School B: 2011/12 Latino	0.18	0.04	1
School A: 2017/18 Latino	0.14	0.05	1
School C: 2017/18 Latino	0.13	0.05	1
School D: 2017/18 Latino	0.14	0.05	1
School B: 2017/18 Latino	0.13	0.05	1
School A: 2011/12 White	0.34	0.03	1

School C: 2011/12 White	0.33	0.03	1
School D: 2011/12 White	0.34	0.03	1
School B: 2011/12 White	0.33	0.03	1
School A: 2017/18 White	0.37	0.04	1
School C: 2017/18 White	0.35	0.04	1
School D: 2017/18 White	0.36	0.04	1
School B: 2017/18 White	0.35	0.04	1
School A: 2011/12 Black	0.45	0.04	0
School C: 2011/12 Black	0.44	0.04	1
School D: 2011/12 Black	0.44	0.04	1
School B: 2011/12 Black	0.44	0.03	1

Note. Information retrieved from: www.analyze.intellectusstatistics.com

Post-hoc

Estimated marginal mean contrasts were calculated to examine the differences between the level combinations using Tukey comparisons based on an alpha of 0.05. For the main effect of Year/Race, the mean of suspensions for 2017/18 Black ($M = 0.47$, $SD = 0.12$) was significantly larger than for 2011/12 Latino ($M = 0.19$, $SD = 0.15$), $p = .004$. For the main effect of Year/Race, the mean of Suspensions for 2017/18 Black ($M = 0.47$, $SD = 0.12$) was significantly larger than for 2017/18 Latino ($M = 0.13$, $SD = 0.18$), $p = .002$. For the main effect of Year/Race, the mean of Suspensions for 2017/18 Black ($M = 0.47$, $SD = 0.12$) was significantly larger than for 2011/12 White ($M = 0.34$, $SD = 0.10$), $p = .012$. For the main effect of Year/Race, the mean of Suspensions for 2017/18 Black ($M = 0.47$, $SD = 0.12$) was significantly larger than for 2017/18 White ($M = 0.36$, $SD = 0.13$), $p = .037$. For the main effect of Year/Race, the mean of Suspensions for 2011/12 Latino ($M = 0.19$, $SD = 0.15$) was

significantly smaller than for 2011/12 Black ($M = 0.44$, $SD = 0.10$), $p = .011$. For the main effect of Year/Race, the mean of Suspensions for 2017/18 Latino ($M = 0.13$, $SD = 0.18$) was significantly smaller than for 2011/12 White ($M = 0.34$, $SD = 0.10$), $p = .048$. For the main effect of Year/Race, the mean of Suspensions for 2017/18 Latino ($M = 0.13$, $SD = 0.18$) was significantly smaller than for 2011/12 Black ($M = 0.44$, $SD = 0.10$), $p = .006$.

Table 10

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for Percent/Growth by Schools and Subject

Combination	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
School D/Black: ELA	-0.36	0.09	2
School D/Hispanic: ELA	-0.24	0.11	2
School D/White: ELA	0.73	1.09	2
School C/Black: ELA	-0.57	0.18	2
School C/Hispanic: ELA	-0.60	0.07	2
School C/White: ELA	-0.46	0.02	2
School B/Black: ELA	-0.69	0.23	2
School B/Hispanic: ELA	-0.53	0.05	2
School B/White: ELA	-0.51	0.02	2
School A/Black: ELA	-0.59	0.00	2
School A/Hispanic: ELA	-0.03	0.73	2
School A/White: ELA	-0.60	0.05	2
School D/Black: Math	0.18	0.45	2
School D/Hispanic: Math	0.28	0.78	2
School D/White: Math	0.28	0.65	2
School C/Black: Math	-0.81	0.12	2

School C/Hispanic: Math	-0.73	0.06	2
School C/White: Math	-0.57	0.20	2
School B/Black: Math	-0.90	0.10	2
School B/Hispanic: Math	-0.76	0.04	2
School B/White: Math	-0.76	0.12	2
School A/Black: Math	-0.80	0.13	2
School A/Hispanic: Math	-0.66	0.20	2
School A/White: Math	-0.64	0.16	2

Note. A '-' indicates the sample size was too small for the statistic to be calculated. Information retrieved from: www.analyze.intellectusstatistics.com

Post-hoc

I calculated paired *t*-tests between each pair of measurements to further examine the differences among the variables. I conducted Tukey pairwise comparisons for all significant effects based on an alpha of 0.05. For the main effect of Schools, the mean of Percent of Growth for School D/White ($M = 0.50$, $SD = 0.78$) was significantly larger than for School C/Black ($M = -0.69$, $SD = 0.19$), $p = .002$. For the main effect of Schools, the mean of Percent of Growth for School D/White ($M = 0.50$, $SD = 0.78$) was significantly larger than for School C/Hispanic ($M = -0.67$, $SD = 0.09$), $p = .003$. For the main effect of Schools, the mean of Percent of Growth for School D/White ($M = 0.50$, $SD = 0.78$) was significantly larger than for School C/White ($M = -0.52$, $SD = 0.13$), $p = .014$. For the main effect of Schools, the mean of Percent of Growth for School D/White ($M = 0.50$, $SD = 0.78$) was significantly larger than for School B/Black ($M = -0.79$, $SD = 0.19$), $p < .001$. For the main effect of Schools, the mean of Percent of Growth for School D/White ($M = 0.50$, $SD = 0.78$) was significantly larger than for School B/Hispanic ($M = -0.65$, $SD = 0.14$), $p = .003$. For the main effect of Schools, the mean of Percent of Growth for School

D/White ($M = 0.50$, $SD = 0.78$) was significantly larger than for School B/White ($M = -0.63$, $SD = 0.16$), $p = .004$. For the main effect of Schools, the mean of Percent of Growth for Student D/White ($M = 0.50$, $SD = 0.78$) was significantly larger than for Student A/Black ($M = -0.70$, $SD = 0.14$), $p = .002$. For the main effect of Schools, the mean of Percent/Growth for Student D/White ($M = 0.50$, $SD = 0.78$) was significantly larger than for Student A/White ($M = -0.62$, $SD = 0.10$), $p = .005$. No other significant effects were found.

Chapter Five

Discussion

Introduction

The heart of this study hinges on Crenshaw's (1989) theory of intersectionality. Through this lens, Crenshaw investigates the collective injuries of race, gender, and class as they impact Black women and girls. Of the highlighted subgroups in my study, only Black females are subjected to the injuries associated with the combination of race, gender, and class. Unlike Black men, White women, and White men, Black women and girls inherently escape all privileges associated with either race or gender.

The comparison of White and Black girls dominate this study's discussion for two very clear reasons: 1. Black girls have the greatest representation amongst female students who are disciplined in public schools; 2. White girls have the lowest representation in exclusionary disciplinary practices (Annamma et al., 2019). These experiences begin to manifest themselves even before they are introduced to a K-12 educational experience. In a large study in the state of Massachusetts' preschool system, researchers concluded that Black preschool students are expelled from their educational environments at a rate 34 times greater than children who are White (Gilman & Shahar, 2006).

As young Black students matriculate to K-12 environments, the struggle continues. Black girls are two and a half times more likely to be disciplined for disobedience (Green, 2017), twice as likely to be referred to the office when compared to their White peers, and five times more likely to receive a suspension or expulsion (Wallace et al., 2008). In 2011-2012, slightly higher than one in every eight Black girls were suspended (12%) compared to 2% of White girls (Civil Rights Snapshot, 2014).

The culmination of their experiences impacts these young ladies in and beyond their teenage years. Black girls ranging from 12 to 17 are incarcerated at a rate greater than three times what a White female will experience (Sentencing Project, 2015). The sum of these adversities has contributed to Black women becoming the fastest-growing prison population in the world (Braithwaite, 2005).

Concurrently, a much greater emphasis has been placed on the plight of young Black males. There is an abundance of information/research that addresses the inequities experienced by young Black men. The Black male experience has been captured in our school-to-prison pipeline conversations. Missing has been the discussion and research focused on young Black girls. There is a gap in available research consistent with Black girls in K-12 interactions and experiences. May this study encourage researchers to obtain a greater understanding of the lived experiences of young Black girls.

PBIS's Impact on Truancy/Chronic Absenteeism

Before the implementation of AB 1729 (other means of correction) mandates, three of the four schools under study registered truancy rates below CA State's average of 29.20%. The lone school with a truancy rate above the state average was School A.

After three solid years of implementing AB 1729, the mandates sent down from California's legislature (AB 1729), it seemed to have little impact on schools' efforts to increase student attendance. Of the four schools under study, only one of them made improvements around student truancy.

In 2017/18, three of the four schools failed to produce chronic absenteeism rates below the state average. 2017/18 marked nearly six years of implementation. Those six years of

implementation allowed schools to establish “structures” and norms aimed at addressing attendance rates for all students.

Research continues to indicate a strong correlation existing between school attendance and student achievement (Arcia, 2006). Looking at truancy/chronic absenteeism in isolation does not yet connect attendance and student achievement. However, the above data does help answer the research question concerning PBIS’s impact on all kids. Given the claim that “PBIS appears to be an effective evidence-based practice” (Wilson, 2015, pg. 92), the above research seems to present a challenge to PBIS’s evidence-based approaches. In terms of race and gender, the data do not isolate Black girls and how school attendance impacts their student achievement. The data are compared amongst four schools from Riverside and San Bernardino counties. Examining student attendance, disciplinary sanctions, and student achievement allows for comparisons and conclusions to be made when comparing specific student groups (specifically Black girls).

Focusing on Race and School Suspensions (no gender)

School A realized suspension increases in a single population (Black students). School D saw increases amongst Black and Latino students. School B saw increases in both Black and White student populations. Of the four schools, and over a six-year range, three schools experienced increases in African American suspensions, one in Latino suspensions, and two in White suspensions.

In all four of the selected schools, per capita, suspension rates were the highest amongst Black students in both 2011/12 (before AB 1729) and 2017/18. Consistent with zero tolerance research and the vast amounts of available research on disproportionalities concerning Black students, the information does inform us as to whether PBIS has been an effective tool in reducing suspensions across populations (Monroe, 2005; Nirvan, 2017). Based on the stark per

capita disproportionalities, one could assume that these inequalities negatively impact young Black girls as well. With that said, much of the available research does not speak specifically to PBIS's impact on Black girls. The assumption that Black girls also register disproportionate data, based on Dataquest results, is due to Dataquest electing to disaggregate suspension data by race, but not by race and gender.

Suspensions by Race and Gender

Of the four schools under study, when isolating race and gender, Black boys and Black girls showed increases at three of the four schools. Of those three schools, Black girls registered the highest per capita suspension rates of all subgroups in two of the four schools under study. In a single school, Latino boys' suspension rates increased. In two schools, White male suspension rates increased. When comparing 2011/12 and 2017/18 suspension rates, White females and Latina females did not show any increases in suspensions after the implementation of AB 1729.

Consistent with available research, Black girls' suspension rates ranked amongst the highest in the state. Black girls outpaced all other boy and girl subgroups, and in one-half of the cases, their per capita suspension rates exceeded Black boys. In revisiting our research question, PBIS does not seem to have had a positive impact on all kids, specifically Black males and females.

Statewide Student Achievement Lens (ELA/CST/7th grade)

Before the implementation of AB 1729, 2011/12 CST (ELA) test scores revealed the following: In ELA, White students outpaced Black and Latinos. Latino students scored below the state average by 12%, while White students exceeded state averages by 17%. Black students performed on par with Latinos at 50%, 12% below state averages. The range between Latino and Black student achievement when compared to the White ELA population was a considerable 29% for 7th grade ELA students achieving in the Advanced and Proficient ranges.

Statewide Lens (Math/CST/7th grade)

Before the implementation of AB 1729, 2011/12 CST (math) test scores results bore a resemblance to the above 2011/12 ELA test scores. Historically, students have performed better in math than ELA and it showed in statewide math scores. Statewide, 52% of all students scored proficient or advanced. White students fared well as their 7th-grade math scores topped the state average by 15%. Latino students scored 24% lower than their white counterparts, 9% below state averages, and 8% percent higher than Black students.

35% of Black students registered as Proficient and Advanced. Black students performed lower than Latino and White students and performed much lower than the state average. The range between White and Black student achievement was a sizable 32%.

Statewide Lens (ELA/CST/8th grade)

Eighth-grade ELA scores told an identical story. Consistent with 7th grade ELA and math scores, Black students scored 13% below the state average, 3% lower than Latino students, and a significant 29% lower than White students. Black students have scored below the state average and lower than all significant subgroups in 7th and 8th grade ELA and 7th-grade math.

Statewide Student Achievement Lens (math/CST/8th grade)

Eighth grade ELA scores told the same story, and yet a different one based on how we see kids of color and the expectations we have or do not have as they relate to our biases. Consistent with the three previous findings, White students outperformed Black and Latino students in 8th-grade math. White students outperformed Black and Latino students in each of the areas of math (General Math, Algebra, and Geometry). In General Math, White students outpaced Latino students, Black students, and state averages by 19%, 12%, and 12% respectively. In Algebra, White students outperformed Latino students, Black students, and state averages by 22%, 28%,

and 11% respectively. Last, White students also outperformed Latino students, Black students, and state averages in Geometry by 18%, 72%, and 5% respectively.

The other conversation that emerged from this research is the potential for educator bias. White student participation in the 2011/12 8th grade Math CST represented just more than one-fourth of all test takers and Latino students represented more than 50%. Yet, there were nearly 3,000 more White students taking the Geometry CST (higher-level math class) despite more than a 20% Latino advantage in those who participated in the state test. The findings seem to support claims that educator bias contributed to students gaining access to higher-level course work, therefore contributing to the decline in student achievement. Additionally, there were a low number of Black participants in the Geometry CST administration in 2011/12. Black students who did participate performed 72% lower than White students.

CAASPP State Testing

Isolating student performances on the 2017/18 CAASPP ELA test, students under study had been subjected to six years of AB 1729 implementation in hope of increasing Black student achievement and working to eliminate the substantial gap between them and other significant subgroups. Black students at all four school sites under study in both 7th and 8th grade ELA achieved below Latino and White students. In seven of the eight possible areas of growth, Black students achieved the lowest 2017/18 CAASPP scores in 7th and 8th grade ELA.

A second observation isolated student performance on the 2017/18 CAASPP math test. Students had experienced six years of AB 1729 implementation but still returned similar results when compared to the ELA administration. Black students at all four school sites under study in both 7th and 8th-grade math achieved CAASPP scores that failed to meet the levels of Latino

and White students. In all eight possible areas of possible growth, Black students earned the lowest 2017/18 CAASPP scores in 7th and 8th-grade math.

Although the data addressed 7th and 8th-grade students by race and not gender, the comprehensive lack of achievement amongst Black students presents a strong indicator that the achievement of Black girls is too challenged. It will be important that researchers understand the severity of their poor achievement, as the disparity between Black female and White female student achievement is greater than the disparity existing between White and Black males (Roberts, 2017).

The Transition from CST to CAASPP State Testing

In each of the four schools under study, Black students had the poorest transition and realized the least amount of growth. In 7th and 8th grade ELA and 7th and 8th-grade math across the four selected schools, there were sixteen possible areas for growth. In ten of those potential growth areas, Black students fared poorly, realizing the least amount of growth. In five of the six remaining areas for potential growth, Hispanic students' growth fared the poorest.

The transition from the 2011/12 CST to the 2017/18 CAASPP test was initially problematic. The new CAASPP proposal would not permit me to simply compare test scores to determine students' level of achievement. The two tests were fundamentally different in how they were scored, their testing platform, and their rigor. To better understand and compare the two administrations, I looked at the variances between the 2011/12 and 2017/18 administrations.

The variances in the two administrations amongst White students was less than 2% in 7th and 8th grade ELA and Math:

- Less than a 1% variance in 7th grade ELA

- A 1% variance in 7th grade math
- A 1.3% variance in 8th grade math

The variances in the two administrations amongst Latino students was also less than 2% in 7th and 8th grade ELA and Math:

- Less than a 1% variance in 7th grade ELA
- Less than a 1% variance in 8th grade ELA
- Less than a 4% variance in 7th grade math

Last, the variances in the two administrations amongst Black students was nearly 5%, more than double the lack of growth when compared to White and Latino students:

- Over 6% decline in 7th grade ELA
- Over a 4.5% decline in 8th grade ELA
- A 3.5% decline in 7th grade math

Considerable research exists that highlights the achievement gap that remains between students of color and all other subgroups. Much of this literature focuses on Black boys; the research on Black boys is consistent with the existing school to prison pipeline literature that often connects school discipline and attendance to student achievement. This study also speaks directly to the above inequities when observing student achievement. This area of the research likely answers the question, is PBIS a positive structure/tool for all kids? The study indicates the gaps in Black student achievement. What the above information does not speak directly to, but it is implied, is the student achievement specific to 7th and 8th-grade Black girls.

Intersectionality as it Leads to Implicit Bias

The intersectionality lens that suggests Black girls and women are subjected to the greatest levels of bias seems to be well documented in today's educational structure and outcomes.

Beyond the K-12 classroom, there is evidence of a “pipeline” to incarceration that has emerged for Black girls and women. As this study focuses on 7th and 8th-grade Black girls, it is important to add that these young ladies, beginning in 6th/7th grade, have registered incarceration rates between the ages of 12 to 17 that are more than three times greater than the experiences of White females (Sentencing Project, 2015). Beyond this revelation, as these young ladies move into adulthood, they also represent the fastest-growing prison population in the world (Braithwaite, 2005).

The biases consistent with Black students—and more specifically middle school Black females—surrounding their race, gender and possibly class can be implicit and attributed to unawareness. The assumed unintended practices have led to unintended consequences. Implicit biases can be found in how educators practice discipline and view and understand Black girls. This understanding may be best comprehended through an intersectionality lens where the combination of race, class, and gender may contribute to inequities amongst Black females. Black girls have been criticized for having confident demeanors and loud personas (Frazier-Kouassi, 2002). They have been seen as highly sexualized and harboring adult qualities that are inappropriate for teenagers (Epstein et al., 2017). These behaviors have led uninformed educators to perceive these girls as students who lack values and present socially in a manner that is foreign to a predominantly White educational force; the educational workforce in California is comprised of 4% Black and 77% White instructors (Cousins, 1999; Freedberg, 2018). Ultimately, these many perceptions have challenged educators’ biases on femininity. For too many of these young Black girls, their femininity does not conform with traditional standards and expectations of docility.

From 1991 to 2005, students across all student identity groups realized declines in discipline, except for Black students (Bradshaw, Mitchell, O'Brennan, et al., 2010; Kaufman et al., 2010; Skiba et al., 2002; Wallace & Goodkind, 2008). The result has been the suspension and expulsion of 43% of Black girls compared to between 7-26% of all subgroups (Wallace & Goodkind, 2008). The data suggests a challenge to the perceptions/biases that may have influenced undue levels of subjectivity, as 50% of the discipline referrals associated with Black girls have been for willful defiance (Counsel, 2012), a section of the education code that is often shrouded in subjectivity.

How we view students can lead to bias and ultimately impact our instructional practices in K-12 environments. In many cases, Black girls are rarely featured in staff discussions where collaboration and planning conducive to student achievement find both a level of importance and consensus (Connely, 1998; Henry, 1998; Mirza, 2006). These practices have too often rendered Black girls invisible. Absence from the educational focus and conversation has led to their exclusion from Advanced Placement, College Preparatory, and STEM academic tracks (Ansalone, 2001; Atwater, 2000; Kao & Tienda, 1998; Moore et al., 2008).

Policy: Zero Tolerance

The Prison Industrial Complex (PIC) marks the phenomena of a new age of incarceration. Each year, the PIC injects nearly \$80 billion into the American economy. For more than sixty years (1920-1980), America managed to keep incarceration rates at manageable levels. For sixty years, America's prison population never exceeded 400,000 inmates. Changes in public policy adopted a zero tolerance lens where "criminals" were being adjudicated at rates five times greater than years past. In thirty years (1980-2010), America's Black prison population ballooned to more than two million inmates. Of those 2.3 million or so Blacks jailed, Black folks

represented nearly 40% of the prison population while representing a mere 13% of the country (Carson & Sabol, 2016). Black women are imprisoned at twice the rate of White women (Bronson & Carson, 2019). The federal zero tolerance statutes adopted by public schools were being applied vigorously, mandating predetermined consequences that were often punitive and severe. The consequences were often absent interventions to curb future occurrences. Moreover, according to the study's data, disciplinary practices have been applied inequitably, resulting in stark disproportionalities.

Public policy began to translate to school policy as public schools embraced zero tolerance policies; these policies vastly increased rates of exclusion for kids across America, even though “there is no evidence that zero-tolerance policies-which mandate automatic punishment, such as suspension or expulsion, for infractions of a state rule-have done anything to decrease school violence” (Ward, 2014, pg. 1). Zero tolerance policies contradicted research connecting student achievement to disciplinary practices and attendance (Kang-Brown et al., 2013). Students who spend more time in school will engage academically at greater rates. Students who engage at greater rates will realize favorable outcomes in route to increasing student achievement. The result of zero tolerance exclusionary policies has had the greatest impact on Black students. Of these Black students under study, the largest impact per capita has been Black girls (Crenshaw et al., 2015; Skiba, 2014). The results are as follows:

- Black girls are twice as likely as the total population of White females to be permanently excluded from school (Blake et al., 2011)
- Black girls are 2.5 times more likely to be punished for disobedience (Green, 2017)
- Black girls are three times more likely to be cited for being disruptive (Green, 2017)

- Black girls are twice as likely to be sent to the office as their White peers and five times more likely to be suspended or expelled (Wallace et al., 2008)
- Black girls have the highest suspension rates of all girl subgroups and more than most boy subgroups (Blake et al., 2011)

The Black Female Pipeline: Suspensions by School, Race, and Gender

Students were observed by school, gender, and race. Their per capita suspensions were compared via subgroup and school. The findings were as follows:

- Black girls showed an increase in suspensions in three of the four schools under study
- Black boys also showed an increase in suspension in three of the four schools under study
- Unlike Black students, Latina girls showed decreases in suspensions in all four schools under study
- Also unlike Black students, Latino boys showed decreases in suspensions in three of the four schools under study
- Like Latino boys and Latino girls, White girls showed decreases in suspensions in each of the four schools under study
- White males showed decreases in two of the four schools
- Black girls realized the highest per capita suspensions in two of the four schools
- Black boys realized the highest per capita suspensions in two of the four schools
- In all four schools, Black boys and girls realized the highest per capita suspension when compared to all subgroups

By investigating student suspension by race and gender, the researcher was able to specifically address whether PBIS was beneficial to Black girls. The response is a resounding no. In all four of the schools under study, Black girls represented the highest suspension rates per

capita alongside Black males. More importantly, when comparing suspension rates before the implementation of PBIS (2011/12), Black girls showed increases in suspensions (after six years of implementation) in three of the four schools—outpacing Latino males, Latina females, White males, and White females. Their outcomes mirrored the increases of a single student subgroup, Black males.

The available literature is dominated by information germane to the needs of Black males in our K-12 school systems. The schools under study present a clear picture of the challenges facing young Black girls. The data involving school suspensions is nearly identical and some cases exceed that of what we have considered the neediest subgroup: a need so daunting that we have coined the term, “School to Prison Pipeline.” The above suspension data paints a clear picture that the available research has unintentionally excluded young Black girls, an invisible population in need of intervention. Young Black girls represent a population of third-class citizens.

Is PBIS an Effective Tool for 7th and 8th Grade Black Students?

“PBIS appears to be an effective evidence-based practice” (Wilson, 2015, pg. 92).

Although unpopular amongst CA educators, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) was one of the first pieces of legislation that demanded accountability from schools that went beyond school-wide totals. Schools were expected to disaggregate their population and focus on student populations that had long achieved failure rates that were hidden under the overall achievement of a school or district. Case in point: from 1991 to 2005, America observed declines in discipline across all subgroups; the lone group failing to realize a decrease in discipline was Black students. Such definitive evidence led to the State of California allowing data to drive their decision to implement AB 1729, a mandate designed specifically to address the large disparities in discipline

and student achievement of young Black students when compared to all other subgroups. A major component of AB 1729 was PBIS, an evidence-based approach designed to curb poor practices.

Although the efforts were honorable and borne from a progressive place, PBIS practices improved school discipline (campus climate) and achievement with respect to White and Latino students. Not only did Black students not realize similar results, but disciplinary sanctions and student achievement worsened since the implementation of structures to improve these very elements. The disconnect between young Black students and educators produced documented biases in how we teach, discipline, communicate, perceive, and embrace 7th and 8th-grade Black girls.

Representatives from the four schools under study filled out a survey provided by www.pbis.org about how they implemented PBIS at their respective schools. The responses from each school showed no significant differences in how PBIS structures were implemented, allowing for appropriate comparisons.

Before implementing AB 1729, the four schools under study produced truancy rates below the state average. Without any formal structures (PBIS), each school was successful in bringing more children to their sites when compared to state averages. After two years of PBIS/AB 1729 implementation, each school's truancy rates were reexamined to aid in answering our research question, is PBIS an effective resource for all 7th and 8th-grade students?

After three years of implementation, only two of the four schools realized truancy rates equaling or besting the CA state average. The assumption was that with evidence based PBIS practices, more students would find their way back to school with increased frequency. The

study's data indicates that PBIS/AB 1729 mandates have been less successful than a time (pre-AB 1729) when there were no mandated structures in place.

First, I compared the 2011/12 truancy data with the 2017/18 data. When looking at 2017/18 chronic absenteeism rates, all four of the schools under study failed to achieve a chronic absenteeism rate at or below the state average of 11.1%. Compared to pre-AB 1729 data, six years of PBIS/other means of correction implementation failed to produce similar success achieved during a time when no state-mandated structures to improve student behaviors existed.

I isolated school discipline as a second indicator of PBIS effectiveness by comparing the 2011/12 and 2017/18 suspension rates. Although White students show increases in suspension rates after six years of implementation, they still represented per capita suspension rates that fell well below Black students. On the contrary, Black girls showed increases in three of the four schools after six years of implementation. Unlike their White female counterparts, they significantly represented the largest per capita suspension rates at all four middle schools.

Finally, over the six-year period, Hispanic students realized decreases in suspension rates in three of the four schools under study. In three of the four schools, Hispanic students represented the lowest per capita suspension rates. In answering whether PBIS benefits all students, the data is less than inconsistent. In two of the three significant subgroups, PBIS strategies failed to improve suspension data after six years of implementing other means of correction legislation. The data is extremely helpful in determining the effectiveness of PBIS strategies and their impact on race but does little to isolate their success by gender.

PBIS Fidelity Survey

“In 2006, the suspension rate of African American elementary and secondary pupils in this state was more than double the rate of suspensions for White, Hispanic, Asian pupils, and there is no

evidence demonstrating that pupils of color or other pupil populations misbehave at greater rates than their peers” (Educator Toolkit, 2014).

California’s AB 1729 legislation incorporates specific language designed to address the disciplinary sanctions that were disproportionately impacting Black children. The primary resource to accomplishing these goals rested on the “shoulders” of the PBIS process, an evidenced-based tiered framework designed to marry educational systems ultimately affecting student achievement. It was assumed that to achieve such a goal, by using an evidence-based approach, the implementation of such a program would have to be implemented to fidelity so that those outcomes could come to fruition. Using the PBIS fidelity survey, I tried to measure the PBIS implementation process to see how it impacted an overall PBIS program en route to increasing student achievement. The completion of the surveys provided to school representatives was my attempt to measure each school’s fidelity prior to judging the impact of PBIS in the respective schools. With respect to school suspensions, the evidence among non-Black students revealed a common trend. Amongst the four schools under study, over 75% of the non-Black populations decreased their suspensions (Hispanic and White students). For Black boys and girls, after six years of PBIS implementation, 75% of the schools’ Black populations showed suspension increases.

After six years of implementation, none of the four schools registered chronic absenteeism rates at or below the state level. The PBIS implantation across all four schools, regardless of their level of implementation, PBIS strategies did little to impact chronic absenteeism as it is compared to schools statewide.

Of the four schools under study, the fidelity mean score was 81%. Only two of the four schools had fidelity scores that exceeded the mean at 88% and 100% fidelity. Where the school

registering 88% fidelity led all four schools in state testing data, the school with a 100% fidelity score, on average, ranked third amongst the four schools under study.

The study revealed weak correlation between PBIS structures and positive student achievement. There were indeed two correlations between PBIS implementation and student behavior. First, these practices did have a positive impact on non-Black students in terms of suspension rates. Second, these practices had a negative impact on Black boys and girls, as suspension rates amongst this population increased in 75% of the possible subgroups. Third, with regard to student achievement amongst the three subgroups—when comparing the variances in math and ELA test scores from 2011/12 and 2017/18—Black students registered the greatest variances by nearly three times. Additionally, Black students registered the greatest declines in student achievement in three of the four schools under study. This leaves us to conclude that the implementation of PBIS strategies over six years, following California's AB 1729 mandate, has not positively impacted all students and student populations in CA.

Implications/Suggestions for Future Study

Enhancing Policy and Practice

While PBIS enjoys increasing policy-level support and popularity nationally and internationally, PBIS scholars have not been able to resolve three critical issues regarding its effective and sustainable implementation:

- Making PBIS culturally responsive to vastly diverse social contexts of local schools
- Facilitating authentic student/family/community involvement
- Addressing racial disproportionality (Bal, 2015).

Students across our great nation populate pre-K-12 grade schools that are absent of meaningful parent involvement. These kids endure the challenges of neighborhoods riddled with

poverty, minimal academic foundational skills, and lack the connectedness to the adults that manage their schools. This combination of struggle causes a wedge between community and school; the result is a growing achievement gap. The intersectional approach outlined in this study may provide answers for stakeholders to work collaboratively in bridging the social, economic, and educational gaps prevalent amongst communities battling race and poverty.

Implicit Bias Professional Development

Unless we can explicitly address systematic inequities and implicit bias, our PBIS/MTSS system can both hide and enable inequitable school outcomes (Anti-Racism and Equity, 2021). Research documents the prejudgments that are commonplace in our educational systems that promote stereotypes and marginalize poor communities. This is often a result of ignorance via cultural differences (Brown et al., 1991; Canon et al., 1992; Mandell & Strain, 1978; Myles & Simpson, 1989). These biases and misunderstandings manifest in poor classroom management and unfair disciplinary practices that lead to disproportionalities. Through schools committed to providing robust and ongoing professional development to identify biases as they pertain to the cultural and social capital our students bring to school each day, we can eradicate the barriers that stand tall between schools and communities (Emmer, 1994; Kearney et al., 1988).

If equity is at the core of the PBIS mission, it is impossible to build the structure minus critical voices of those they claim to help. Resounding voices from the creation to the implementation to the sustainability of school structures champion and support PBIS. From school site councils to PTOs to student governments, the voices of “third class citizens” are often silenced. Not only have these spaces not been created, but research suggests that they have often been discouraged as Black families’ perceptions become their reality: a reality where they feel unwelcome, unheard, and unappreciated. The lack of equitable spaces and inability for parents to

involve themselves in their child's educational journey has created distrust and severely crippled PBIS' ability to serve the very community it was designed to impact.

Absent the stakeholder involvement and voice of the communities it was designed to assist, we also fail to tackle the root of the above challenges: implicit/unconscious bias. Because these powerful biases are manifested outside of one's conscious, in order to offer correctives, a significant level of professional development would have to become part of the educational culture.

The prevalence of bias and preconceived lenses have and will create challenges as for the effective implementation of PBIS structures. PBIS structures have failed in three critical areas, all dealing with elements affected by bias:

1. Failure to be culturally responsive
2. Failure to achieve diverse community involvement
3. Failure to address racial disproportionalities

As PBIS continues to celebrate its successes, it is important that the powers that be are reminded of AB 1729's original mission. In 2012, California passed legislation aimed at addressing the huge disparities in both student discipline and student achievement as they specifically affect African American students.

Culturally Relevant Pedagogy to Cultural Proficiency

How we process information is guided by our individual cultures. African American cultures have long been delivered orally, which demands a level of social engagement and brain memory. Cultural learning resources (oration, music, repetition, etc.) can serve as tools that help deliver culturally-relevant instruction (Hammond, 2014). It may be advantageous for students to engage in a curriculum that is relevant and connect to their lived experiences. Using their cultural

and social capital as an impetus to academic success may be the bridge needed to achieve cultural competence (Ladson-Billings, 1995). Cultural competence simply becomes a vehicle to deal with social and emotional roadblocks specific to children outside of the dominant culture (i.e. Black children). Cultural competence becomes a tools for educators to address the uncomfortable conversations surrounding race, ethnicity, gender bias, homosexuality, cultural bias, and an array of other taboo issues that many educators are ill-equipped to deal with. Cultural competence builds teacher capacity to address the individual and unique value of the student, how they fit into a group, and how that group melds with the larger community.

Obtaining cultural competence will broaden educators' awareness in terms of the importance of culturally-relevant pedagogy. Finding and using curriculum that is germane to disenfranchised groups will serve as a valuable tools towards empowerment, self-orientation, and ultimately a therapeutic forum where students and educators can understand the worth and potential of those unlike them.

The introduction of culturally-relevant pedagogy is simply the beginning of the journey toward cultural competence. The pedagogy is merely the tool and teaching instrument to delivering the message of equity for both staff and students. Culturally-relevant pedagogy begins the experience as we all travel along the continuum of cultural competency. Appropriate pedagogy addresses the six stages of cultural competency. Because we know that students and staff are at various stages of cultural competency, it is imperative that all six are reintroduced:

- Cultural destructiveness: students and staff are forced to assimilate, rights are subjugated, and privileges are available to mostly dominant groups
- Cultural incapacity: the proliferation of racism, stereotypes and unfair hiring practices

- Cultural blindness: ignoring differences, quailing social and cultural capital opportunities, treating everyone the same and ultimately meeting primarily the needs of the dominant group
- Cultural pre-competence: commitment to cultural exploration and assessment of organizational needs
- Cultural competence: acknowledgement and recognition of differences in culture; commitment to involving all stakeholders and hiring culturally unbiased staff
- Cultural proficiency: implementing changes that have been identified as services that will positively address the identified cultural needs of a given institution

Cultural proficiency as it pertains to PBIS structures is of great relevance. PBIS principles are sound on paper but subject to bias. The bias exists in those who are charged with implementing a resource designed to help eliminate disproportionalities in student discipline, and ultimately student achievement. As educators attempt to address these disproportionalities, they are marred by implicit bias. Implicit bias is prevalent simply because it is a bias that exists outside of one's consciousness. Using culturally-relevant pedagogy to combat bias and achieve cultural proficiency may play a major role in bridging the achievement gap through existing PBIS structures.

Enhancing Community Involvement

Unlike churches, schools struggle to gain the trust and extend their hospitality to Black parents (Strier & Katz, 2015; Thompson, 2003; Williams, 2007). Some Black parents find schools to be indifferent to their concerns, their ideas, and their presence. They report experiencing racism, bias, and judgmental attitudes in their interactions with school personnel. (Howard & Reynolds, 2008; Milner, 2007; Reynolds, 2010).

Historically, low-income communities and parents have exhibited minimal parent involvement compared to their White counterparts (Wallis, 1995). Many minority and poor parents that have made efforts to do so left feeling “spoken to” and received passive roles instead of opportunities to actively participate and engage in decision-making processes (Lightfoot, 2004). And for those who demanded engagement and active participation, they faced resistance (Lareau & Horvat, 1999). Perhaps schools pledging a commitment to diversifying their decision-making committees, understanding time constraints that limit stakeholder involvement, and embracing the institutional fears prevalent amongst our Latino and African American communities could serve as the olive branch needed to mend age-old fears and stereotypes.

Creating Safe Spaces for Black Voices

“Many students that you’re rooming with or taking classes with don’t understand the struggles you face and aren’t willing to” and “It is so important to have a safe space to go where people look like you, have similar experiences as you and where you can go for support” (Tang & Mottley, 2020)

Illuminating the voices of African American parents and students should be a priority when mitigating multi-dimensional challenges that young Black middle school females face each day. For districts committed to this process, most have implemented vehicles to bring together these voices in safe spaces where the challenges facing young Black girls can be discussed, lamented about, challenged, and ultimately solved. Although the desired outcome would be closing the achievement gap, the safe spaces tackle the symptoms that must be solved before that goal can be reached. In this study, I identify the symptoms that lead to achievement gaps in K-12 settings.

A strong recommendation for every LEA in California would be to build an African American Parent Advisory Committee (AAPAC). This safe space will provide for many the following opportunities for disenfranchised Black families:

- Empowerment
- Assistance in navigating our public school systems
- Opportunity to create a collective voice to promote equitable practices
- A safe space to obtain resources absent of judgment
- A safe place to foster support for academic and social-emotional growth

Creating a Roadmap for Black Female Excellence

Attempting to address race, poverty and gender in a single conversation is daunting and unreasonable. The conversation has begun, and although fragmented efforts have begun to improve the lives of Black girls, they are currently trapped in a cycle where Black women are far more likely than other female subgroups to be the primary wage earner (Glynn, 2019). Moreover, these resilient women receive 65% on each White male dollar as they struggle to maintain a sense of normalcy in each of their homes (Gould & Schieder, 2017).

Stakeholder/Parent Involvement

The solutions to generational racism, sexism, and poverty cannot be addressed in a quick and trivial fashion. The solutions must be methodical and attack the core of these generational atrocities. First, these young women are without a voice or a vehicle. Many young Black girls and their parents have not been trained to navigate through the educational language and structures to properly advocate for their children and peers. Throughout this study, we have highlighted the disciplinary disproportionalities existing amongst young Black girls when compared to their female peers. California Assembly Bill 1729 is a powerful resource to assist in

mitigating these disproportions. The bill removes many of the subjective elements used to suspend students of color. It mandates that educators find alternative means prior to electing to suspend. Unfortunately, these types of resources are not being disseminated to the parents and populations they were designed to protect. During the 2019/20 school year, I presented to community and AAPAC members in three diverse settings. The members included Black teachers, city employees, lawyers, parents, etc. Not a single participant was aware of CA's AB 1729 mandate. In fact, a parent was able to use the assembly bill information to have his son's suspension overturned due to the middle school's failure to properly implement the law. I share this with you in hopes of eliminating the myth that minority parents don't care and are not involved in their child's educational journey. The seeming lack of involvement or concern is often a failure on the institution's part to assist disenfranchised groups in navigating their way through an educational system that was not designed to meet their needs.

So, how can Black families and disenfranchised groups learn to navigate their way through an intricate web of eduspeak? One simple answer would be increased parent involvement. Often criticized for their lack of involvement, families of color are poorly represented amongst key stakeholder groups in K-12 education. Studies have concluded that the poor involvement in stakeholder groups and public schools has as much to do with the institution as the parents they serve (Gorski, 2008). Many times, minority parents have reported feeling unwelcome and intimidated. Most often, parent groups such as school site council do not reflect the socio-economic makeup of the site. A school that is 65% Hispanic and 90% free and reduced lunch should have those same family types represented in their stakeholder groups. By failing to purposefully reach out to these parent types, schools reveal their unwillingness and failure to bring broader voices to the decision-making process.

Intentionally, I focused on schools' school site council representatives because it is here where critical amounts of monies are spent to support the school's climate, instruction, and resources allocated to address the whole child. It is here where the voices of a few weigh in on how best to support their children via a budget that often consists of hundreds of thousands of dollars. The voices of only a few are instrumental in creating a roadmap for students' success. And if those voices remain White and privileged, then the resources so urgently needed to support young Black girls and disenfranchised students that mirror a school's needs are squandered in areas that do little to support the greatest needs en route to school-wide student achievement.

Above and beyond school site council stakeholders, via the CA Dashboard, student and parent surveys, schools must continue identifying needs and add stakeholder groups that have not traditionally existed, such as a strong, active, and involved African American Parent Advisory group where the supporters of the Black girls under study have a safe space and platform to address many of the barriers facing them. Again, it is incumbent upon each school site to be purposeful in how they build and who they include in each group so that the voices fairly represent the population they serve.

Mentorship

Traditionally, Black women have benefitted from the tutelage of their grandmothers, mothers, aunts, Black women's clubs, and an extended Black female network. These mentors were often found in churches, community leaders, extended family, and friends. The illuminated voices of these women provided wisdom, self-efficacy, grit, historical value, pride, and resiliency amongst these young ladies. More importantly, they have shared with young Black

girls a pathway to build relationships amongst each other, creating a strong network which allows even the strongest of them an opportunity to rely on a trusted ally.

Black girls cannot present to the world their authentic “faces.” The organic nature of their strength, individuality, and voice is often off-putting in K-12 environments. Mentorships involving professional Black women and Black female elders will combine the social and cultural capital traits of middle school Black females and teach them how to channel characteristics foreign to many educators. Black females will learn to transform their capital into positives. Mentors will impart “wisdom, experiences and survival skills” (Ricks, 2014, p. 16). This will require a concerted effort on the part of public education to secure quality and purposeful mentorships with Black females across the professional gambit. While providing the social skills to successfully navigate the public school “matrix,” Black girls will be introduced to college and career opportunities.

Mental Health

Above, we discussed the strength and resiliency that exists amongst Black women. That same strength and resiliency also works against Black communities embracing services provided by mental health organizations. 63% of Black Americans view mental health conditions as a sign of personal weakness. Associated with their views are high levels of shame harbored by the community, and many feel they will suffer from discriminatory practices pertaining to mental illness (Ward et al., 2013). There is a perception that Black Americans possess some sort of gene that allows their strength and resiliency to replace the need for mental health services. While young Black girls weather many storms associated with the challenges presented through an intersectionality lens, they endure unparalleled trauma. Quietly, Black females, grades 9-12, were 60 percent more likely to attempt suicide in 2019, as compared to non-Hispanic white

females of the same age (NSDUH, 2019). Black girls' trauma is rooted in race, gender and poverty. These challenges begin as little girls and becomes part of a lifelong continuum. The psychological challenges put Black women at risk of encountering mental illness due to taking on multiple familial and community roles and trying to accomplish all of this with low paying jobs (Immerman & Mackey, 2003). As Black women progress through life, the trauma is compounded; older Black women are at the greatest risk due to vast exposures to traumatic events. Despite being challenged with mental health issues, very few access mental health services (Matthews & Hughes, 2001; Neal-Barnett & Crowther, 2000).

It would be advantageous for these young women to have access to resources that build social and cultural capital that often is germane to the experiences of Black women.

Unfortunate, only five percent of all psychologists are Black. Young Black girls having the opportunity to seek counseling via a therapist that shares their values could assist in building social and cultural capital and capacity. Most California public school lack this resource. They often rely on guidance counselors that specialize in the academic needs of students, but fail to address the social emotional needs of students struggling with mental health. And per capita, at the bottom end of those struggling in our K-12 schools are young Black girls.

Limitations

Sample Size

The sample size was a limitation in my study. Black students make up 16% of the K-12 population where young Black girls represent about 8% of the national population. Therefore, solicitation of an adequate sample size presents a challenge. Employing a reduced sample size may impact the p-value with the potential for it to stray from significance.

Another limitation concerning sample size could be the degree of generalizability. The study embraced students from the high desert of Southern California and the low desert of Southern California. The two schools in the low desert have vastly different demographics with respect to median income (nearly a 25% difference).

Self-Reporting

Each school was asked to self-report its fidelity to implementing PBIS structures in each of their respective schools. Self-reporting offers a distinct limitation. When considering self-reporting, it is important to consider response bias. This can occur for several reasons. The respondent may have a social-desirability bias, allowing them and their school to look favorably in the survey whether it will be published or anonymous.

Number of Selected Middle Schools

The four middle schools selected for the study represent a mere .003% of all California middle schools. Middle schools may vary in a variety of ways. Schools vary in terms of where they are located (urban or suburban), population, socioeconomics, parent's income, percentage of credentialed teachers, rigorous academic offerings, etc. The variance in any of the above elements can have a profound impact on the study's findings.

Per Capita versus Total Population

It is important to note that of all school suspensions, boys represent most of them, outpacing girls more than two to one. It is important to make such a point clear as the study focuses on subgroups over time. The study focuses on per capita suspensions and the growth of per capita suspensions between 2011/12 and 2017/18. Although this is important in answering the research questions and isolating the importance of a growing trend impacting Black girls, the

per capita representations are not reflective of the overall numbers where boys are suspended at better than twice the rate of girls.

PBIS Structure/Design

California's AB 1729 mandate speaks specifically to why the bill is important and who the mandate targets. The bill addresses the disproportionalities that exist between Black students and every other subgroup. When considering the PBIS tool, there is no language that acknowledges behavioral modifications specific to the population the bill was designed to address. More specifically, www.pbis.org concludes that "PBIS creates schools where all students succeed," making no mention of the specific population of students the bill was designed to help.

Summary

Countless documents of empirical evidence support the notion that African American students in public educational arenas throughout California fare poorly when considering student achievement. In 2012, Assembly Bill 1729 committed all public schools to adopt a paradigm and practices that would positively impact the achievement gap and begin reversing the course for this population of students.

Additional research highlights the importance of addressing the symptoms contributing to poor achievement outcomes for African American students. At the forefront of these symptoms is our failure to speak to the biases that influence how educators discipline African American children. Educators' failure to employ equitable disciplinary practices has impeded African American students from obtaining access to the social, emotional, and pedagogical instruments in our public schools that work to establish the whole child.

Current research has overwhelmingly spotlighted the negative effects that the combination of bias, attendance, and disciplinary sanctions have had on African American males. As this study has addressed the gap in research, a new phenomenon emerged, hidden in plain sight. African American seventh and eighth-grade females are being impacted similarly.

We must revisit this study's research question: is PBIS an effective intervention for Black female middle school students in California? To be clear, PBIS has indeed been an effective tool in increasing practices that lead to positive student achievement. Of all male and female non-Black subgroups, African American girls—when compared to White girls and boys and Latino girls and boys—were the only subgroup to show increases in suspensions after six years of PBIS implementation. More specifically, when compared to female subgroups, Latina girls realized decreases in suspensions in all four schools, White girls realized decreases in three of the four schools, while African American girls remained the only female subgroup to realize increases in three of the four schools.

Ultimately, the increased suspension rates specific to African American girls when compared to boys and girls of other races contributed to poor student achievement outcomes six years following the implementation of AB 1729 and PBIS practices. In 2017/18, amongst the four schools under study, and in fourteen of the possible sixteen ELA and math slots in both seventh and eighth grade, Black students realized the lowest state test scores when compared to Latino and White students.

Looking at student achievement growth from another vantage point over the six years of PBIS implementation, not only did Black students overwhelmingly produce poor test scores when compared to Latino and White boys and girls, but after six years, PBIS practices did little to promote the growth of African American student achievement. When comparing the 2011/12

and 2017/18 state test scores, not only did African American students realize the lowest state test scores, but they also registered the lowest percentage of growth in 11 of the possible 16 categories amongst the four schools in seventh and eighth grade ELA and math.

After six years of implementing PBIS practices aimed at addressing America's third-class citizens, young seventh and eighth-grade Black girls, the study concludes that PBIS practices failed to serve as an effective intervention for Black female middle school students in California.

Appendix A: Confidence Interval by Population

Population Size	Confidence = 95%				Confidence = 95%			
	Margin of Error				Margin of Error			
	5%	3.5%	2.5%	1%	5%	3.5%	2.5%	1%
75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75
200	132	160	177	196	154	174	186	198
500	217	306	377	475	285	365	421	485
1,000	278	440	606	906	399	575	727	943
10,000	370	727	1,332	4,899	622	1,193	2,098	6,239
25,000	378	760	1,448	6,939	646	1,285	2,399	9,972
50,000	381	772	1,491	8,056	655	1,318	2,520	12,455
100,000	383	778	1,513	8,762	659	1,336	2,585	14,227

<http://www.research-advisors.com/tools/SampleSize.htm>

Appendix B: Independent Variable and their Sources

Multivariate Analysis: Interval/Ratio Scale

Quantitative Measure

Descriptive Statistical Section

Sources	Independent Variables	Black Boys	Latino Boys	White Boys	Black Girls	Latina Girls	White Girls
Dataquest	State Testing						
Dataquest	Chronic Absenteeism						
Dataquest	Student Suspensions						

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Appendix C: PBIS Fidelity

Survey was designed to measure the fidelity of implementing the PBIS essentials

Tier 1 team includes a Tier 1 systems coordinator, a school administrator, a family member, and individuals able to provide (a) applied behavioral expertise, (b) coaching expertise, (c) knowledge of student academic and behavior patterns, (d) knowledge about the operations of the school across grade levels and programs, and for high schools, (e) student representation	<p>0 = Tier 1 team does not exist or does not include coordinator, school administrator, or individuals with applied behavioral expertise</p> <p>1 = Tier 1 team exists, but does not include all identified roles or attendance of these members is below 80%</p> <p>2 = Tier 1 team exists with coordinator, administrator, and all identified roles represented, AND attendance of all roles is at or above 80%</p>
Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and has (a) regular meeting format/agenda, (b) minutes, (c) defined meeting roles, and (d) a current action plan	<p>0 = Tier 1 team does not use regular meeting format/agenda, minutes, defined roles, or a current action plan</p> <p>1 = Tier 1 team has at least two but not all four features</p> <p>2 = Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and uses regular meeting format/agenda, minutes, defined roles, AND has a current action plan</p>
Behavioral Expectations: School has five or fewer positively stated behavioral expectations and examples by setting/location for student and staff behaviors (i.e., school teaching matrix defined and in place)	<p>0 = Behavioral expectations have not been identified, are not all positive, or are more than five in number</p> <p>1 = Behavioral expectations identified but may not include a matrix or be posted</p> <p>2 = Five or fewer behavioral expectations exist that are positive, posted, and identified for specific settings (i.e., matrix AND at least 90% of staff can list at least 67% of the expectations)</p>
Teaching expectations: Expected academic and social behaviors are taught directly to all students in classrooms and across other campus settings/locations	<p>0 = Expected behaviors are not taught</p> <p>1 = Expected behaviors are taught informally or inconsistently</p> <p>2 = Formal system with written schedules is used to teach expected behaviors directly to students across classroom and campus settings AND at least 70% of students can list at least 67% of the expectations</p>
Problem Behavior Definitions: School has clear definitions for behaviors that interfere with academic and social success and a clear policy/procedure (e.g., flowchart) for addressing office-managed versus staff-managed problems.	<p>0 = No clear definitions exist, and procedures to manage problems are not clearly documented</p> <p>1 = Definitions and procedures exist but are not clear and/or not organized by staff-versus office-managed problems</p> <p>2 = Definitions and procedures for managing problems are clearly defined, documented, trained, and shared with families</p>

Scoring Criteria: 0=Not implemented; 1=Partially implemented; 2=Fully implemented

Note. Information retrieved from www.pbis.org

Discipline Policies: School policies and procedures describe and emphasize proactive, instructive, and/or restorative approaches to student behavior that are implemented consistently.	0 = Documents contain only reactive and punitive consequences 1 = Documentation includes and emphasizes proactive approaches 2 = Documentation includes and emphasizes proactive approaches AND administrator reports consistent use
Professional Development: A written process is used for orienting all faculty/staff on four core Tier 1 SWPBIS practices: (a) teaching school-wide expectations, (b) acknowledging appropriate behavior, (c) correcting errors, and (d) requesting assistance.	0 = No process for teaching staff is in place 1 = Process is informal/unwritten, not part of professional development calendar, and/or does not include all staff or all 4 core Tier 1 practices 2 = Formal process for teaching all staff all aspects of Tier 1 system, including all 4 core Tier 1 practices
Classroom Procedures: Tier 1 features (school-wide expectations, routines, acknowledgements, in-class continuum of consequences) are implemented within classrooms and consistent with school-wide systems	0 = Classrooms are not implementing Tier 1 1 = Classrooms are informally implementing Tier 1 but no formal system exists 2 = Classrooms are formally implementing all core Tier 1 features, consistent with school-wide expectations
Feedback and Acknowledgement: A formal system (i.e., written set of procedures for specific behavior feedback that is (a) linked to school-wide expectations and (b) used across settings and within classrooms) is in place and used by at least 90% of a sample of staff and received by at least 50% of a sample of students.	0 = No formal system for acknowledging students 1 = Formal system is in place and is used by at least 90% of staff OR received by at least 50% of students 2 = Formal system for acknowledging student behavior is used by at least 90% of staff AND received by at least 50% of students
Faculty Involvement: Faculty are shown school-wide data regularly and provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, acknowledgements, definitions, consequences) at least every 12 months.	0 = Faculty are not shown data at least yearly and do not provide input 1 = Faculty have been shown data more than yearly OR have provided feedback on Tier 1 foundations within the past 12 months but not both 2 = Faculty are shown data at least 4 times per year AND have provided feedback on Tier 1 practices within the past 12 months

Scoring Criteria: 0=Not implemented; 1=Partially implemented; 2=Fully implemented

Note. Information retrieved from www.pbis.org

Student/Family/Community Involvement: Stakeholders (students, families, and community members) provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, consequences, acknowledgements) at least every 12 months.	0 = No documentation (or no opportunities) for stakeholder feedback on Tier 1 foundations 1 = Documentation of input on Tier 1 foundations, but not within the past 12 months or input but not from all types of stakeholders 2 = Documentation exists that students, families, and community members have provided feedback on Tier 1 practices within the past 12 months
Discipline Data: Tier 1 team has instantaneous access to graphed reports summarizing discipline data organized by the frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and by individual student.	0 = No centralized data system with ongoing decision making exists 1 = Data system exists but does not allow instantaneous access to full set of graphed reports 2 = Discipline data system exists that allows instantaneous access to graphs of frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and student
Data-based Decision Making: Tier 1 team reviews and uses discipline data and academic outcome data (e.g., Curriculum-Based Measures, state tests) at least monthly for decision-making	0 = No process/protocol exists, or data are reviewed but not used 1 = Reviewed and used for decision-making, but less than monthly 2 = Team reviews discipline data and uses data for decision-making at least monthly. If data indicate an academic or behavior problem, an action plan is developed to enhance or modify Tier 1 supports
Fidelity Data: Tier 1 team reviews and uses SWPBIS fidelity (e.g., SET, BoQ, TIC, SAS, Tiered Fidelity Inventory) data at least annually.	0 = No Tier 1 SWPBIS fidelity data collected 1 = Tier 1 fidelity collected informally and/or less often than annually 2 = Tier 1 fidelity data collected and used decision making annually
Annual Evaluation: Tier 1 team documents fidelity and effectiveness (including on academic outcomes) of Tier 1 practices at least annually (including year-by-year comparisons) that are shared with stakeholders (staff, families, community, district) in a usable format.	0 = No evaluation takes place, or evaluation occurs without data 1 = Evaluation conducted, but not annually, or outcomes are not used to shape the Tier 1 process and/or not shared with stakeholders 2 = Evaluation conducted at least annually, and outcomes (including academics) shared with stakeholders, with clear alterations in process based on evaluation

Scoring Criteria: 0=Not implemented; 1=Partially implemented; 2=Fully implemented

Note. Information retrieved from www.pbis.org

Appendix D

School A ELA 2011/2012 Hispanic Students

CST English Language Arts

Results Type	Grade 7	Grade 8
Students Tested	191	196
% of Enrollment	49.2%	54.6%
Student with Scores	191	196
Mean Scale Score	347.3	343.4
% Proficient and Above	49%	44%

Note: Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A CAASPP ELA 2017/2018 Hispanic Students

CAASPP English Language Arts

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2468.1	2496.4
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	1.90%	.58%
Standard Met: Level 3	20.25%	22.22%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	27.85%	29.82%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	50%	47.37%

Note: Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Math 2011/2012 Hispanic Students

CST Mathematics

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	190	N/A
% of Enrollment	49%	N/A
Student with Scores	189	N/A

Mean Scale Score	366.9	N/A
% Proficient and Above	55%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Math 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST Algebra 1

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	1	195
% of Enrollment	0.3%	54.3%
Student with Scores	1	195
Mean Scale Score	*	311.1
% Proficient and Above	*	21%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Math 2017/2018 Hispanic Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2436.1	2454.1
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	3.80%	4.65%
Standard Met: Level 3	6.96%	5.81%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	20.89%	19.19%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	68.35%	70.35%

Note: Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A ELA 2011/2012 African American Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	57	31
% of Enrollment	14.7%	8.6%
Student with Scores	57	31
Mean Scale Score	335	329.6
% Proficient and Above	39%	42%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A ELA 2017/2018 African American Students
CAASPP English Language Arts

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2450.7	2447.7
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	2.44%	0.00%
Standard Met: Level 3	13.41%	17.07%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	19.51%	13.41%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	64.63%	69.51%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Math 2011/2012 African American Students
CST Mathematics

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	57	31
% of Enrollment	14.7%	8.6%
Student with Scores	57	31
Mean Scale Score	333.5	329.6
% Proficient and Above	25%	42%

Note: Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Math 2011/2012 African American Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	30
% of Enrollment	N/A	8.4%
Student with Scores	N/A	30
Mean Scale Score	N/A	311.4
% Proficient and Above	N/A	23%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Math 2017/2018 African American Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2408.2	2400.5
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	2.47%	0.00%
Standard Met: Level 3	13.58%	2.47%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	19.51%	9.88%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	79.01%	87.65%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A ELA 2011/2012 White Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	71	78
% of Enrollment	18.3%	21.7%
Student with Scores	71	78
Mean Scale Score	372.8	371.1
% Proficient and Above	70%	71%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A ELA 2017/2018 White Students
CAASPP ELA

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2493.3	2506.5
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	0.00%	2.56%
Standard Met: Level 3	30.16%	23.08%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	33.33%	30.77%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	36.51%	43.59%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Math 2011/2012 White Students
CST Mathematics

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	71	N/A
% of Enrollment	18.3%	N/A
Student with Scores	71	N/A
Mean Scale Score	391.5	N/A
% Proficient and Above	70%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Math 2011/2012 White Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	80
% of Enrollment	N/A	22.3%
Student with Scores	N/A	79
Mean Scale Score	N/A	329.3
% Proficient and Above	N/A	39%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School A Math 2017/2018 White Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2470.1	2469.7
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	7.94%	10.53%
Standard Met: Level 3	9.52%	7.89%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	30.16%	23.68%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	52.38%	57.89%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B ELA 2011/2012 African American Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	94	114
% of Enrollment	21.7%	29%
Student with Scores	94	113
Mean Scale Score	332	328.5
% Proficient and Above	46%	38%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B ELA 2017/2018 African American Students
CAASPP ELA

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2421.2	2476.6
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	0%	1%
Standard Met: Level 3	6.52%	17%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	13.04%	26%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	80.43%	56%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B Math 2011/2012 African American Students
CST Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	95	N/A
% of Enrollment	21.9%	N/A
Student with Scores	95	N/A
Mean Scale Score	322.8	N/A
% Proficient and Above	32%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B Algebra 2011/2012 African American Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	114
% of Enrollment	N/A	29%
Student with Scores	N/A	114
Mean Scale Score	N/A	302
% Proficient and Above	N/A	17%

Note: Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B Math 2017/2018 African American Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2380.3	2426.7
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	0%	0%
Standard Met: Level 3	1.08%	2.97%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	5.38%	13.86%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	93.55%	83.17%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B ELA 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	230	201
% of Enrollment	53%	51.1%
Student with Scores	230	199
Mean Scale Score	333.8	339.6
% Proficient and Above	42%	41%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B ELA 2017/2018 Hispanic Students
CAASPP ELA

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2467.9	2485.4
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	.38%	1.16%
Standard Met: Level 3	20.61%	16.60%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	24.81%	29.73%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	54.20%	52.51%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B Math 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	231	N/A
% of Enrollment	53.2%	N/A
Student with Scores	227	N/A
Mean Scale Score	335.9	N/A
% Proficient and Above	39%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B Algebra 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	1	201
% of Enrollment	0.2%	51.1%
Student with Scores	1	201
Mean Scale Score	*	313.6
% Proficient and Above	*	27%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B Math 2017/2018 Hispanic Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2432.8	2445.1
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	1.14%	0.38%
Standard Met: Level 3	6.82%	6.82%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	25% %	17.80%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	67.05%	75%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B ELA 2011/2012 White Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	48	30
% of Enrollment	11.1%	7.6%
Student with Scores	48	30
Mean Scale Score	346.7	343.9
% Proficient and Above	50%	33%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B ELA 2017/2018 White Students
CAASPP ELA

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2481.2	2490.3
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	3.45%	0%
Standard Met: Level 3	20.69%	16.67%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	27.59%	50%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	48.28%	33.33%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B Math 2011/2012 White Students
CST Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	48	N/A
% of Enrollment	11.1%	N/A
Student with Scores	48	N/A
Mean Scale Score	346.8	N/A
% Proficient and Above	44%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B Algebra 2011/2012 White Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested		30
% of Enrollment		7.6%
Student with Scores		30
Mean Scale Score		313.3
% Proficient and Above		17%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School B Math 2017/2018 White Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2451.1	2439.1
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	3.45%	0%
Standard Met: Level 3	3.45%	5.56%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	37.93%	16.67%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	55.17%	77.78%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D ELA 2011/2012 African American Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	36	23
% of Enrollment	10.6%	6.7%
Student with Scores	36	23
Mean Scale Score	341.3	332.3
% Proficient and Above	50%	30%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D ELA 2017/2018 African American Students
CAASPP ELA

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2502.3	2454.6
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	10.71%	0%
Standard Met: Level 3	17.86%	21.05%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	28.57%	10.53%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	42.86%	68.42%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D Math 2011/2012 African American Students
CST Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	34	N/A
% of Enrollment	10%	N/A
Student with Scores	34	N/A
Mean Scale Score	319.7	N/A
% Proficient and Above	29%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D 2011/2012 African American Students
CST General Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	16
% of Enrollment	N/A	4.7%
Student with Scores	N/A	16
Mean Scale Score	N/A	286.4
% Proficient and Above	N/A	0%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D Algebra 2011/2012 African American Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	3	14
% of Enrollment	0.9%	4.1%
Student with Scores	3	14
Mean Scale Score	*	306.8
% Proficient and Above	*	14%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D Math 2017/2018 African American Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2465.7	2423.6
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	10.71%	0%
Standard Met: Level 3	14.29%	10.53%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	17.86%	15.79%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	57.14%	73.68%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D ELA 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	168	177
% of Enrollment	49.3%	51.5%
Student with Scores	168	177
Mean Scale Score	340	339.9
% Proficient and Above	44%	45%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D ELA 2017/2018 Hispanic Students
CAASPP ELA

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2520.7	2517.3
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	7.49%	4.73%
Standard Met: Level 3	29.41%	26.04%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	31.55%	31.36%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	31.55%	37.87%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	152	N/A
% of Enrollment	44.6%	N/A
Student with Scores	152	N/A
Mean Scale Score	330.2	N/A
% Proficient and Above	35%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST General Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	66
% of Enrollment	N/A	19.2%
Student with Scores	N/A	66
Mean Scale Score	N/A	284.5
% Proficient and Above	N/A	3%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	16	119
% of Enrollment	4.7%	34.6%
Student with Scores	16	119
Mean Scale Score	340.9	312.1
% Proficient and Above	38%	16%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D Math 2017/2018 Hispanic Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2493.5	2485.9
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	11.17%	8.33%
Standard Met: Level 3	14.36%	11.90%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	25%	23.21%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	49.47%	56.55%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D 2011/2012 White Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	69	80
% of Enrollment	20.2%	23.3%
Student with Scores	69	80
Mean Scale Score	360.8	373.2
% Proficient and Above	59%	63%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D 2011/2012 White Students
CAASPP English Language Arts

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2567.8	2587.9
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	25%	13.33%
Standard Met: Level 3	34.09%	46.67%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	15.91%	23.33%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	25%	16.67%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D 2011/2012 White Students
CST Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	56	N/A
% of Enrollment	16.4%	N/A
Student with Scores	56	N/A
Mean Scale Score	343.3	N/A
% Proficient and Above	46%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D 2011/2012 White Students
CST General Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	22
% of Enrollment	N/A	6.4%
Student with Scores	N/A	22
Mean Scale Score	N/A	290.5
% Proficient and Above	N/A	5%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D 2011/2012 White Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	14	53
% of Enrollment	4.1%	15.4%
Student with Scores	14	53
Mean Scale Score	339.4	329.3
% Proficient and Above	36%	34%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School D Math 2017/2018 White Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2527.7	2554
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	24.44%%	20%
Standard Met: Level 3	13.33%	200%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	28.89%	26.67%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	33.33%	33.33%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 African American Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	36	37
% of Enrollment	9.5%	8.8%
Student with Scores	36	37
Mean Scale Score	329.9	329.5
% Proficient and Above	36%	35%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2017/2018 African American Students
CAASPP English Language Arts

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2494.4	2464.6
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	5.71%	0%
Standard Met: Level 3	14.29%	10.53%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	31.43%	18.42%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	48.57%	71.05%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 African American Students
CST Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	34	N/A
% of Enrollment	9%	N/A
Student with Scores	34	N/A
Mean Scale Score	301.4	N/A
% Proficient and Above	21%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 African American Students
CST General Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	27
% of Enrollment	N/A	6.4%
Student with Scores	N/A	26
Mean Scale Score	N/A	316.7
% Proficient and Above	N/A	27%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 African American Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	2	8
% of Enrollment	0.5%	1.9%
Student with Scores	2	8
Mean Scale Score	*	*
% Proficient and Above	*	*

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 African American Students
CST Geometry

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	2
% of Enrollment	N/A	0.5%
Student with Scores	N/A	2
Mean Scale Score	N/A	*
% Proficient and Above	N/A	*

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C Math 2017/2018 African American Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2448.3	2427.6
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	2.86%	0%
Standard Met: Level 3	2.86%	2.70%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	28.57%	21.62%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	65.71%	75.68%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	187	193
% of Enrollment	49.3%	46%
Student with Scores	187	193
Mean Scale Score	354.1	351.8
% Proficient and Above	52%	48%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2017/2018 Hispanic Students
CAASPP English Language Arts

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2479	2493.4
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	2.75%	1.67%
Standard Met: Level 3	15.60%	20%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	33.49%	29.17%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	48.17%	49.17%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	160	N/A
% of Enrollment	42.2%	N/A
Student with Scores	160	N/A
Mean Scale Score	326	N/A
% Proficient and Above	31%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST General Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	136
% of Enrollment	N/A	32.4%
Student with Scores	N/A	136
Mean Scale Score	N/A	339.8
% Proficient and Above	N/A	41%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	26	35
% of Enrollment	6.9%	8.3%
Student with Scores	26	35
Mean Scale Score	414	347.9
% Proficient and Above	77%	49%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/g>

School C 2011/2012 Hispanic Students
CST Geometry

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	23
% of Enrollment	N/A	5.5%
Student with Scores	N/A	23
Mean Scale Score	N/A	395
% Proficient and Above	N/A	91%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C Math 2017/2018 Hispanic Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2452.8	2469.4
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	0.46%	2.89%
Standard Met: Level 3	9.17%	7.85%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	30.28%	22.31%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	60.09%	66.94%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 White Students
CST English Language Arts

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	101	112
% of Enrollment	26.6%	26.7%
Student with Scores	101	111
Mean Scale Score	357.2	360
% Proficient and Above	53%	59%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2017/2018 White Students
CAASPP English Language Arts

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2512.6	2513.8
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	7.41%	4.62%
Standard Met: Level 3	20.37%	27.69%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	35.19%	24.62%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	37.04%	43.08%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 White Students
CST Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	84	N/A
% of Enrollment	22.2%	N/A
Student with Scores	84	N/A
Mean Scale Score	326.5	N/A
% Proficient and Above	29%	N/A

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 White Students
CST General Math

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	61
% of Enrollment	N/A	14.5%
Student with Scores	N/A	61
Mean Scale Score	N/A	336.8
% Proficient and Above	N/A	44%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 White Students
CST Algebra

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	16	35
% of Enrollment	4.2%	8.3%
Student with Scores	16	45
Mean Scale Score	383.3	346.2
% Proficient and Above	63%	58%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C 2011/2012 White Students
CST Geometry

Results Type	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Students Tested	N/A	9
% of Enrollment	N/A	2.1%
Student with Scores	N/A	9
Mean Scale Score	N/A	*
% Proficient and Above	N/A	*

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

School C Math 2017/2018 White Students
CAASPP Math

Achievement Level	7 th Grade	8 th Grade
Mean Scale Score	2482.4	2490.9
Standard Exceeded: Level 4	3.70%	4.62%
Standard Met: Level 3	12.96%	15.38%
Standard Nearly Met: Level 2	38.89%	29.23%
Standard Note Met: Level 1	44.44%	50.77%

Note. Information retrieved from: <https://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

Appendix E: Fidelity Survey Responses

PBIS Assessment

SurveyMonkey

#6

COMPLETE

Collector:

Web Link 1 (Web Link)

Started:

Wednesday, March 17, 2021 6:46:04 PM

Last Modified:

Wednesday, March 17, 2021 6:58:57 PM

Time Spent:

00:12:52

IP Address:

68.127.185.165

QUIZ SUMMARY

76%

SCORE

34/45

POINTS

5/6

RANK

33%

PERCENTILE

QUIZ RESULTS

Correct	Incorrect	Partially Correct	Skipped	Total Questions
4	0	11	0	15

Page 2: Implementing Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports with Fidelity

Q2

Tier 1 team includes a Tier 1 systems coordinator, a school administrator, a family member, and individuals able to provide (a) applied behavior expertise, (b) coaching expertise, (c) knowledge of student academic and behavior patterns, (d) knowledge about the operations of the school across grade levels and programs, and for high schools, (e) student representation.

✗ Tier 1 team exists, but does not include all identified roles or attendance of these members is below 80% (2pts)

2/3 pts

Q3

Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and has (a) regular meeting format/agenda, (b) minutes, (c) defined meeting roles, and (d) a current action plan.

✗ Tier 1 team has at least 2 but not all 4 features (2pts)

2/3 pts

Q4

School has five or fewer positively stated behavioral expectations and examples by setting/location for student and staff behaviors (i.e., school teaching matrix) defined and in place.

✓ Five or fewer behavioral expectations exist that are positive, posted, and identified for specific settings (i.e., matrix) AND at least 90% of staff can list at least 67% of the expectations (3pts)

3/3 pts

1 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q5

Expected academic and social behaviors are taught directly to all students in classrooms and across other campus settings/locations.

2/3 pts

✗ Expected behaviors are taught informally or inconsistently (2pts)

Q6

School has clear definitions for behaviors that interfere with academic and social success and a clear policy/procedure (e.g., flowchart) for addressing office-managed versus staff-managed problems

3/3 pts

✓ Definitions and procedures for managing problems are clearly defined, documented, trained, and shared with families (3pts)

Q7

School policies and procedures describe and emphasize proactive, instructive, and/or restorative approaches to student behavior that are implemented consistently.

2/3 pts

✗ Documentation includes and emphasizes proactive approaches (2pts)

Q8

A written process is used for orienting all faculty/staff on 4 core Tier 1 SWPBIS practices: (a) teaching school-wide expectations, (b) acknowledging appropriate behavior, (c) correcting errors, and (d) requesting assistance.

2/3 pts

✗ Process is informal/unwritten, not part of professional development calendar, and/or does not include all staff or all 4 core Tier 1 practices (2pts)

Q9

Tier 1 features (schoolwide expectations, routines, acknowledgements, in-class continuum of consequences) are implemented within classrooms and consistent with school-wide systems.

2/3 pts

✗ Classrooms are informally implementing Tier 1 but no formal system exists (2pts)

Q10

A formal system (i.e., written set of procedures for specific behavior feedback that is [a] linked to school-wide expectations and [b] used across settings and within classrooms) is in place and used by at least 90% of a sample of staff and received by at least 50% of a sample of students.

2/3 pts

✗ Formal system is in place and is used by at least 90% of staff OR received by at least 50% of students (2pts)

2 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q11

Faculty are shown school-wide data regularly and provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, data more than yearly OR have acknowledgements, definitions, consequences) at least every 12 months.

3/3 pts

✓ Faculty are shown data at least 4 times per year AND have provided feedback on Tier 1 practices within the past 12 months (3pts)

Q12

Stakeholders (students, families, and community members) provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, consequences, acknowledgements) at least every 12 months.

3/3 pts

✓ Documentation exists that students, families, and community members have provided feedback on Tier 1 practices within the past 12 months (3pts)

Q13

Tier 1 team has instantaneous access to graphed reports summarizing discipline data organized by the frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and by individual student.

2/3 pts

✗ Data system exists but does not allow instantaneous access to full set of graphed reports (2pts)

Q14

Tier 1 team reviews and uses discipline data at least monthly for decision-making.

2/3 pts

✗ Data reviewed and used for decision-making, but less than monthly (2pts)

Q15

Tier 1 team reviews and uses SWPBIS fidelity (e.g., SET, BoQ, TIC, SAS, Tiered Fidelity Inventory) data at least annually

2/3 pts

✗ Tier 1 fidelity collected informally and/or less often than annually (2pts)

Q16

Tier 1 team documents fidelity and effectiveness of Tier 1 practices at least annually (including year-by-year comparisons) that are shared with stakeholders (staff, families, community, district) in a usable format.

2/3 pts

✗ Evaluation conducted, but not annually, or outcomes are not used to shape the Tier 1 process and/or not shared with stakeholders (2pts)

3 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

#5

COMPLETE

Collector: Web Link 1 (Web Link)
Started: Monday, March 15, 2021 10:18:49 PM
Last Modified: Monday, March 15, 2021 10:50:33 PM
Time Spent: 00:31:44
IP Address: 66.74.23.138

QUIZ SUMMARY

100%
SCORE

45/45
POINTS

1/6
RANK

100%
PERCENTILE

QUIZ RESULTS

Correct	Incorrect	Partially Correct	Skipped	Total Questions
15	0	0	0	15

Page 2: Implementing Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports with Fidelity

Q2

Tier 1 team includes a Tier 1 systems coordinator, a school administrator, a family member, and individuals able to provide (a) applied behavior expertise, (b) coaching expertise, (c) knowledge of student academic and behavior patterns, (d) knowledge about the operations of the school across grade levels and programs, and for high schools, (e) student representation.

3/3 pts

✓ Tier 1 team exists with coordinator, administrator, and all identified roles represented, AND attendance of all roles is at or above 80% (3pts)

Q3

Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and has (a) regular meeting format/agenda, (b) minutes, (c) defined meeting roles, and (d) a current action plan.

3/3 pts

✓ Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and uses regular meeting format/agenda, minutes, defined roles, and has a current action plan (3pts)

Q4

School has five or fewer positively stated behavioral expectations and examples by setting/location for student and staff behaviors (i.e., school teaching matrix) defined and in place.

3/3 pts

✓ Five or fewer behavioral expectations exist that are positive, posted, and identified for specific settings (i.e., matrix) AND at least 90% of staff can list at least 67% of the expectations (3pts)

1 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q5

Expected academic and social behaviors are taught directly to all students in classrooms and across other campus settings/locations.

3/3 pts

✓ Formal system with written schedules is used to teach expected behaviors directly to students across classroom and campus settings AND at least 70% of students can list at least 67% of the expectations

(3pts)

Q6

School has clear definitions for behaviors that interfere with academic and social success and a clear policy/procedure (e.g., flowchart) for addressing office-managed versus staff-managed problems

3/3 pts

✓ Definitions and procedures for managing problems are clearly defined, documented, trained, and shared with families

(3pts)

Q7

School policies and procedures describe and emphasize proactive, instructive, and/or restorative approaches to student behavior that are implemented consistently.

3/3 pts

✓ Documentation includes and emphasizes proactive approaches AND administrator reports consistent use

(3pts)

Q8

A written process is used for orienting all faculty/staff on 4 core Tier 1 SWPBIS practices: (a) teaching school-wide expectations, (b) acknowledging appropriate behavior, (c) correcting errors, and (d) requesting assistance.

3/3 pts

✓ Formal process for teaching all staff all aspects of Tier 1 system, including all 4 core Tier 1 practices

(3pts)

Q9

Tier 1 features (schoolwide expectations, routines, acknowledgements, in-class continuum of consequences) are implemented within classrooms and consistent with school-wide systems.

3/3 pts

✓ Classrooms are formally implementing all core Tier 1 features, consistent with school-wide expectations

(3pts)

Q10

A formal system (i.e., written set of procedures for specific behavior feedback that is [a] linked to school-wide expectations and [b] used across settings and within classrooms) is in place and used by at least 90% of a sample of staff and received by at least 50% of a sample of students.

3/3 pts

✓ Formal system for acknowledging student behavior is used by at least 90% of staff AND received by at least 50% of students

(3pts)

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q11

Faculty are shown school-wide data regularly and provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, data more than yearly OR have acknowledgements, definitions, consequences) at least every 12 months.

3/3 pts

✓ Faculty are shown data at least 4 times per year AND have provided feedback on Tier 1 practices within the past 12 months (3pts)

Q12

Stakeholders (students, families, and community members) provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, consequences, acknowledgements) at least every 12 months.

3/3 pts

✓ Documentation exists that students, families, and community members have provided feedback on Tier 1 practices within the past 12 months (3pts)

Q13

Tier 1 team has instantaneous access to graphed reports summarizing discipline data organized by the frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and by individual student.

3/3 pts

✓ Discipline data system exists that allows instantaneous access to graphs of frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and student (3pts)

Q14

Tier 1 team reviews and uses discipline data at least monthly for decision-making.

3/3 pts

✓ Team reviews discipline data and uses data for decision-making at least monthly. If data indicate a problem, an action plan is developed to enhance or modify Tier 1 supports (3pts)

Q15

Tier 1 team reviews and uses SWPBIS fidelity (e.g., SET, BoQ, TIC, SAS, Tiered Fidelity Inventory) data at least annually

3/3 pts

✓ Tier 1 fidelity data collected and used for decision making annually (3pts)

Q16

Tier 1 team documents fidelity and effectiveness of Tier 1 practices at least annually (including year-by-year comparisons) that are shared with stakeholders (staff, families, community, district) in a usable format.

3/3 pts

✓ Evaluation conducted at least annually, and outcomes shared with stakeholders, with clear alterations in process based on evaluation (3pts)

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

#4

COMPLETE

Collector: Web Link 1 (Web Link)
Started: Tuesday, March 09, 2021 10:14:32 AM
Last Modified: Tuesday, March 09, 2021 2:06:32 PM
Time Spent: 03:52:00
IP Address: 24.205.119.93

QUIZ SUMMARY

56%
SCORE

25/45
POINTS

6/6
RANK

17%
PERCENTILE

QUIZ RESULTS

Correct	Incorrect	Partially Correct	Skipped	Total Questions
1	0	14	0	15

Page 2: Implementing Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports with Fidelity

Q2

Tier 1 team includes a Tier 1 systems coordinator, a school administrator, a family member, and individuals able to provide (a) applied behavior expertise, (b) coaching expertise, (c) knowledge of student academic and behavior patterns, (d) knowledge about the operations of the school across grade levels and programs, and for high schools, (e) student representation.

2/3 pts

✗ Tier 1 team exists, but does not include all identified roles or attendance of these members is below 80%

(2pts)

Q3

Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and has (a) regular meeting format/agenda, (b) minutes, (c) defined meeting roles, and (d) a current action plan.

1/3 pts

✗ Tier 1 team does not use regular meeting format/agenda, minutes, defined roles, or a current action plan

(1pt)

Q4

School has five or fewer positively stated behavioral expectations and examples by setting/location for student and staff behaviors (i.e., school teaching matrix) defined and in place.

3/3 pts

✓ Five or fewer behavioral expectations exist that are positive, posted, and identified for specific settings (i.e., matrix) AND at least 90% of staff can list at least 67% of the expectations

(3pts)

1 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q5

Expected academic and social behaviors are taught directly to all students in classrooms and across other campus settings/locations.

2/3 pts

✗ Expected behaviors are taught informally or inconsistently (2pts)

Q6

School has clear definitions for behaviors that interfere with academic and social success and a clear policy/procedure (e.g., flowchart) for addressing office-managed versus staff-managed problems

2/3 pts

✗ Definitions and procedures procedure exist but are not clear and/or not organized by staff- versus office-managed problems (2pts)

Q7

School policies and procedures describe and emphasize proactive, instructive, and/or restorative approaches to student behavior that are implemented consistently.

1/3 pts

✗ Documents contain only reactive and punitive consequences (1pt)

Q8

A written process is used for orienting all faculty/staff on 4 core Tier 1 SWPBIS practices: (a) teaching school-wide expectations, (b) acknowledging appropriate behavior, (c) correcting errors, and (d) requesting assistance.

2/3 pts

✗ Process is informal/unwritten, not part of professional development calendar, and/or does not include all staff or all 4 core Tier 1 practices (2pts)

Q9

Tier 1 features (schoolwide expectations, routines, acknowledgements, in-class continuum of consequences) are implemented within classrooms and consistent with school-wide systems.

2/3 pts

✗ Classrooms are informally implementing Tier 1 but no formal system exists (2pts)

Q10

A formal system (i.e., written set of procedures for specific behavior feedback that is [a] linked to school-wide expectations and [b] used across settings and within classrooms) is in place and used by at least 90% of a sample of staff and received by at least 50% of a sample of students.

1/3 pts

✗ No formal system for acknowledging students (1pt)

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q11

Faculty are shown school-wide data regularly and provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, data more than yearly OR have acknowledgements, definitions, consequences) at least every 12 months.

1/3 pts

✗ Faculty are not shown data at least yearly and do not provide input (1pt)

Q12

Stakeholders (students, families, and community members) provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, consequences, acknowledgements) at least every 12 months.

1/3 pts

✗ No documentation (or no opportunities) for stakeholder feedback on Tier 1 foundations (1pt)

Q13

Tier 1 team has instantaneous access to graphed reports summarizing discipline data organized by the frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and by individual student.

1/3 pts

✗ No centralized data system with ongoing decision making exists (1pt)

Q14

Tier 1 team reviews and uses discipline data at least monthly for decision-making.

2/3 pts

✗ Data reviewed and used for decision-making, but less than monthly (2pts)

Q15

Tier 1 team reviews and uses SWPBIS fidelity (e.g., SET, BoQ, TIC, SAS, Tiered Fidelity Inventory) data at least annually

2/3 pts

✗ Tier 1 fidelity collected informally and/or less often than annually (2pts)

Q16

Tier 1 team documents fidelity and effectiveness of Tier 1 practices at least annually (including year-by-year comparisons) that are shared with stakeholders (staff, families, community, district) in a usable format.

2/3 pts

✗ Evaluation conducted, but not annually, or outcomes are not used to shape the Tier 1 process and/or not shared with stakeholders (2pts)

3 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q5

Expected academic and social behaviors are taught directly to all students in classrooms and across other campus settings/locations.

3/3 pts

✓ Formal system with written schedules is used to teach expected behaviors directly to students across classroom and campus settings AND at least 70% of students can list at least 67% of the expectations

(3pts)

Q6

School has clear definitions for behaviors that interfere with academic and social success and a clear policy/procedure (e.g., flowchart) for addressing office-managed versus staff-managed problems

3/3 pts

✓ Definitions and procedures for managing problems are clearly defined, documented, trained, and shared with families

(3pts)

Q7

School policies and procedures describe and emphasize proactive, instructive, and/or restorative approaches to student behavior that are implemented consistently.

3/3 pts

✓ Documentation includes and emphasizes proactive approaches AND administrator reports consistent use

(3pts)

Q8

A written process is used for orienting all faculty/staff on 4 core Tier 1 SWPBIS practices: (a) teaching school-wide expectations, (b) acknowledging appropriate behavior, (c) correcting errors, and (d) requesting assistance.

3/3 pts

✓ Formal process for teaching all staff all aspects of Tier 1 system, including all 4 core Tier 1 practices

(3pts)

Q9

Tier 1 features (schoolwide expectations, routines, acknowledgements, in-class continuum of consequences) are implemented within classrooms and consistent with school-wide systems.

3/3 pts

✓ Classrooms are formally implementing all core Tier 1 features, consistent with school-wide expectations

(3pts)

Q10

A formal system (i.e., written set of procedures for specific behavior feedback that is [a] linked to school-wide expectations and [b] used across settings and within classrooms) is in place and used by at least 90% of a sample of staff and received by at least 50% of a sample of students.

3/3 pts

✓ Formal system for acknowledging student behavior is used by at least 90% of staff AND received by at least 50% of students

(3pts)

2 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q11

Faculty are shown school-wide data regularly and provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, data more than yearly OR have acknowledgements, definitions, consequences) at least every 12 months.

3/3 pts

✓ Faculty are shown data at least 4 times per year AND have provided feedback on Tier 1 practices within the past 12 months (3pts)

Q12

Stakeholders (students, families, and community members) provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, consequences, acknowledgements) at least every 12 months.

3/3 pts

✓ Documentation exists that students, families, and community members have provided feedback on Tier 1 practices within the past 12 months (3pts)

Q13

Tier 1 team has instantaneous access to graphed reports summarizing discipline data organized by the frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and by individual student.

3/3 pts

✓ Discipline data system exists that allows instantaneous access to graphs of frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and student (3pts)

Q14

Tier 1 team reviews and uses discipline data at least monthly for decision-making.

3/3 pts

✓ Team reviews discipline data and uses data for decision-making at least monthly. If data indicate a problem, an action plan is developed to enhance or modify Tier 1 supports (3pts)

Q15

Tier 1 team reviews and uses SWPBIS fidelity (e.g., SET, BoQ, TIC, SAS, Tiered Fidelity Inventory) data at least annually

3/3 pts

✓ Tier 1 fidelity data collected and used for decision making annually (3pts)

Q16

Tier 1 team documents fidelity and effectiveness of Tier 1 practices at least annually (including year-by-year comparisons) that are shared with stakeholders (staff, families, community, district) in a usable format.

3/3 pts

✓ Evaluation conducted at least annually, and outcomes shared with stakeholders, with clear alterations in process based on evaluation (3pts)

3 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

#2

COMPLETE

Collector: Web Link 1 (Web Link)
Started: Monday, March 08, 2021 11:55:58 AM
Last Modified: Monday, March 08, 2021 12:01:02 PM
Time Spent: 00:05:04
IP Address: 163.150.108.158

QUIZ SUMMARY

78%
SCORE

35/45
POINTS

4/6
RANK

50%
PERCENTILE

QUIZ RESULTS

Correct	Incorrect	Partially Correct	Skipped	Total Questions
6	0	9	0	15

Page 2: Implementing Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports with Fidelity

Q2

Tier 1 team includes a Tier 1 systems coordinator, a school administrator, a family member, and individuals able to provide (a) applied behavior expertise, (b) coaching expertise, (c) knowledge of student academic and behavior patterns, (d) knowledge about the operations of the school across grade levels and programs, and for high schools, (e) student representation.

2/3 pts

✗ Tier 1 team exists, but does not include all identified roles or attendance of these members is below 80%

(2pts)

Q3

Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and has (a) regular meeting format/agenda, (b) minutes, (c) defined meeting roles, and (d) a current action plan.

3/3 pts

✓ Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and uses regular meeting format/agenda, minutes, defined roles, and has a current action plan

(3pts)

Q4

School has five or fewer positively stated behavioral expectations and examples by setting/location for student and staff behaviors (i.e., school teaching matrix) defined and in place.

2/3 pts

✗ Behavioral expectations identified but may not include a matrix or be posted.

(2pts)

1 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q5

Expected academic and social behaviors are taught directly to all students in classrooms and across other campus settings/locations.

2/3 pts

✗ Expected behaviors are taught informally or inconsistently (2pts)

Q6

School has clear definitions for behaviors that interfere with academic and social success and a clear policy/procedure (e.g., flowchart) for addressing office-managed versus staff-managed problems

2/3 pts

✗ Definitions and procedures procedure exist but are not clear and/or not organized by staff- versus office-managed problems (2pts)

Q7

School policies and procedures describe and emphasize proactive, instructive, and/or restorative approaches to student behavior that are implemented consistently.

3/3 pts

✓ Documentation includes and emphasizes proactive approaches AND administrator reports consistent use (3pts)

Q8

A written process is used for orienting all faculty/staff on 4 core Tier 1 SWPBIS practices: (a) teaching school-wide expectations, (b) acknowledging appropriate behavior, (c) correcting errors, and (d) requesting assistance.

3/3 pts

✓ Formal process for teaching all staff all aspects of Tier 1 system, including all 4 core Tier 1 practices (3pts)

Q9

Tier 1 features (schoolwide expectations, routines, acknowledgements, in-class continuum of consequences) are implemented within classrooms and consistent with school-wide systems.

3/3 pts

✓ Classrooms are formally implementing all core Tier 1 features, consistent with school-wide expectations (3pts)

Q10

A formal system (i.e., written set of procedures for specific behavior feedback that is [a] linked to school-wide expectations and [b] used across settings and within classrooms) is in place and used by at least 90% of a sample of staff and received by at least 50% of a sample of students.

1/3 pts

✗ No formal system for acknowledging students (1pt)

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q11

Faculty are shown school-wide data regularly and provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, data more than yearly OR have acknowledgements, definitions, consequences) at least every 12 months.

2/3 pts

✗ Faculty have been shown data more than yearly OR have provided feedback on Tier 1 foundations within the past 12 months but not both (2pts)

Q12

Stakeholders (students, families, and community members) provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, consequences, acknowledgements) at least every 12 months.

2/3 pts

✗ Documentation of input on Tier 1 foundations, but not within the past 12 months or input but not from all types of stakeholders (2pts)

Q13

Tier 1 team has instantaneous access to graphed reports summarizing discipline data organized by the frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and by individual student.

2/3 pts

✗ Data system exists but does not allow instantaneous access to full set of graphed reports (2pts)

Q14

Tier 1 team reviews and uses discipline data at least monthly for decision-making.

2/3 pts

✗ Data reviewed and used for decision-making, but less than monthly (2pts)

Q15

Tier 1 team reviews and uses SWPBIS fidelity (e.g., SET, BoQ, TIC, SAS, Tiered Fidelity Inventory) data at least annually

3/3 pts

✓ Tier 1 fidelity data collected and used for decision making annually (3pts)

Q16

Tier 1 team documents fidelity and effectiveness of Tier 1 practices at least annually (including year-by-year comparisons) that are shared with stakeholders (staff, families, community, district) in a usable format.

3/3 pts

✓ Evaluation conducted at least annually, and outcomes shared with stakeholders, with clear alterations in process based on evaluation (3pts)

3 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

#1

COMPLETE

Collector: Web Link 1 (Web Link)
Started: Monday, March 08, 2021 8:56:34 AM
Last Modified: Monday, March 08, 2021 9:04:06 AM
Time Spent: 00:07:32
IP Address: 163.150.108.155

QUIZ SUMMARY

 80%
SCORE

 36/45
POINTS

 3/6
RANK

 67%
PERCENTILE

QUIZ RESULTS

Correct	Incorrect	Partially Correct	Skipped	Total Questions
6	0	9	0	15

Page 2: Implementing Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports with Fidelity

Q2

Tier 1 team includes a Tier 1 systems coordinator, a school administrator, a family member, and individuals able to provide (a) applied behavioral expertise, (b) coaching expertise, (c) knowledge of student academic and behavior patterns, (d) knowledge about the operations of the school across grade levels and programs, and for high schools, (e) student representation.

3/3 pts

✓ Tier 1 team exists with coordinator, administrator, and all identified roles represented, AND attendance of all roles is at or above 80% (3pts)

Q3

Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and has (a) regular meeting format/agenda, (b) minutes, (c) defined meeting roles, and (d) a current action plan.

3/3 pts

✓ Tier 1 team meets at least monthly and uses regular meeting format/agenda, minutes, defined roles, and has a current action plan (3pts)

Q4

School has five or fewer positively stated behavioral expectations and examples by setting/location for student and staff behaviors (i.e., school teaching matrix) defined and in place.

2/3 pts

✗ Behavioral expectations identified but may not include a matrix or be posted. (2pts)

1 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q5

Expected academic and social behaviors are taught directly to all students in classrooms and across other campus settings/locations.

2/3 pts

✗ Expected behaviors are taught informally or inconsistently (2pts)

Q6

School has clear definitions for behaviors that interfere with academic and social success and a clear policy/procedure (e.g., flowchart) for addressing office-managed versus staff-managed problems

2/3 pts

✗ Definitions and procedures procedure exist but are not clear and/or not organized by staff- versus office-managed problems (2pts)

Q7

School policies and procedures describe and emphasize proactive, instructive, and/or restorative approaches to student behavior that are implemented consistently.

2/3 pts

✗ Documentation includes and emphasizes proactive approaches (2pts)

Q8

A written process is used for orienting all faculty/staff on 4 core Tier 1 SWPBIS practices: (a) teaching school-wide expectations, (b) acknowledging appropriate behavior, (c) correcting errors, and (d) requesting assistance.

3/3 pts

✓ Formal process for teaching all staff all aspects of Tier 1 system, including all 4 core Tier 1 practices (3pts)

Q9

Tier 1 features (schoolwide expectations, routines, acknowledgements, in-class continuum of consequences) are implemented within classrooms and consistent with school-wide systems.

2/3 pts

✗ Classrooms are informally implementing Tier 1 but no formal system exists (2pts)

Q10

A formal system (i.e., written set of procedures for specific behavior feedback that is [a] linked to school-wide expectations and [b] used across settings and within classrooms) is in place and used by at least 90% of a sample of staff and received by at least 50% of a sample of students.

3/3 pts

✓ Formal system for acknowledging student behavior is used by at least 90% of staff AND received by at least 50% of students (3pts)

2 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Q11

Faculty are shown school-wide data regularly and provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, data more than yearly OR have acknowledgements, definitions, consequences) at least every 12 months.

2/3 pts

✗ Faculty have been shown data more than yearly OR have provided feedback on Tier 1 foundations within the past 12 months but not both (2pts)

Q12

Stakeholders (students, families, and community members) provide input on universal foundations (e.g., expectations, consequences, acknowledgements) at least every 12 months.

2/3 pts

✗ Documentation of input on Tier 1 foundations, but not within the past 12 months or input but not from all types of stakeholders (2pts)

Q13

Tier 1 team has instantaneous access to graphed reports summarizing discipline data organized by the frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and by individual student.

3/3 pts

✓ Discipline data system exists that allows instantaneous access to graphs of frequency of problem behavior events by behavior, location, time of day, and student (3pts)

Q14

Tier 1 team reviews and uses discipline data at least monthly for decision-making.

2/3 pts

✗ Data reviewed and used for decision-making, but less than monthly (2pts)

Q15

Tier 1 team reviews and uses SWPBIS fidelity (e.g., SET, BoQ, TIC, SAS, Tiered Fidelity Inventory) data at least annually

2/3 pts

✗ Tier 1 fidelity collected informally and/or less often than annually (2pts)

Q16

Tier 1 team documents fidelity and effectiveness of Tier 1 practices at least annually (including year-by-year comparisons) that are shared with stakeholders (staff, families, community, district) in a usable format.

3/3 pts

✓ Evaluation conducted at least annually, and outcomes shared with stakeholders, with clear alterations in process based on evaluation (3pts)

3 / 3

Note. Information retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com

Appendix F: ANCOVA for Suspensions by School, Year/Race controlling for Population

Suspensions by Race and School year

Results

Introduction. An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in Suspensions by Year/Race while controlling for Population.

Figure 1

Mean value of Suspensions by the level of Year/Race

Note. Information retrieved from: www.analyze.intellectusstatistics.com

Appendix G: ANOVA for Percent/Growth by Schools and Subject

]

Test Scores for CAASPP and CST: Filtered By: Grades (7th and 8th)

Introduction

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in Percent/Growth by Schools and Subject.

Figure 2

Studentized residuals plot for outlier detection

Note. Information retrieved from: www.analyze.intellectusstatistics.com

Results

The ANOVA was examined based on an alpha value of 0.05. The results of the ANOVA were significant, $F(12, 35) = 4.36, p < .001$, indicating there were significant differences in Percent/Growth among the levels of Schools and Subject (Table 1). The main effect, Schools was significant, $F(11, 35) = 4.64, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = 0.59$, indicating there were significant differences in Percent/Growth by Schools levels. The main effect, Subject was not significant, $F(1, 35) = 1.29, p = .264$, indicating there were no significant differences of Percent/Growth by Subject levels.

Appendix H: ANOVA by Race Focusing on Suspension and School

Analysis of Variance Table for Percent/Growth by Schools and Subject

Term	SS	df	F	p	η_p^2
Schools	6.63	11	4.64	< .001	0.59
Subject	0.17	1	1.29	.264	0.04
Residuals	4.55	35			

Note. Information retrieved from: www.analyze.intellectusstatistics.com

Figure 3

Percent/Growth Means by factors levels of Schools

Note. Information retrieved from: www.analyze.intellectusstatistics.com

Appendix I: Hierarchical Linear Regression

Filtered By: School (School A, School C, School D and School B)

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Population

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Step 1						
(Intercept)	-0.02	0.03	[-0.08, 0.04]	0.00	-0.63	.532
Suspensions	1.05	0.08	[0.88, 1.21]	0.88	12.84	< .001
Step 2						
(Intercept)	-0.03	0.03	[-0.08, 0.03]	0.00	-1.01	.317
Suspensions	0.63	0.06	[0.51, 0.75]	0.53	10.73	< .001
Race11/12 Blk Boys	0.04	0.03	[-0.02, 0.09]	0.05	1.40	.171
Race17/18 Blk Boys	0.03	0.03	[-0.03, 0.08]	0.04	0.97	.337
Race11/12 Lat Girls	0.27	0.03	[0.21, 0.32]	0.37	9.42	< .001
Race17/18 Lat Girls	0.32	0.03	[0.26, 0.38]	0.44	11.48	< .001
Race11/12 Lat Boys	0.26	0.03	[0.20, 0.31]	0.36	9.47	< .001
Race17/18 Lat Boys	0.31	0.03	[0.25, 0.37]	0.43	10.91	< .001
Race11/12 Whi Girls	0.13	0.03	[0.07, 0.19]	0.18	4.59	< .001
Race17/18 Whi Girls	0.09	0.03	[0.03, 0.15]	0.13	3.14	.003
Race11/12 Whi Boys	0.12	0.03	[0.07, 0.18]	0.17	4.44	< .001
Race17/18 Whi Boys	0.08	0.03	[0.02, 0.14]	0.11	2.80	.008
Race11/12 Blk Girls	0.03	0.03	[-0.02, 0.09]	0.05	1.28	.208

Note. Information retrieved from: www.analyze.intellectusstatistics.com

Appendix J: School-related Arrests by Offense and Race, Maryland

Arresting Offense	Total	Black		White		Other	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#
Arson	15	*	*	*	*	*	*
Assault	1059	760	72%	180	17%	119	11%
Breaking and Entering	14	13	93%	0	0%	*	*
Controlled Substance Possession to or on school property	331	139	42%	135	41%	57	17%
Controlled Substance Possession with intent to distribute	100	64	64%	18	18%	18	*
Disorderly Conduct	251	196	78%	32	13%	23	9%
Other	683	370	54%	167	24%	146	21%
Physical Attack or fight with Weapon	17	16	94%	*	*	*	*
Physical Attack or fight without a weapon	33	*	*	*	*	*	*
Possession of firearm or explosive device	30	25	83%	*	*	*	*
Robbery with a weapon	12	*	*	*	*	*	*
Robbery without a weapon	30	28	93%	*	*	*	*
Sexual Battery	10	*	*	*	*	*	*
Theft Misdemeanor	133	100	75%	22	17%	11	8%
Trespassing	61	47	77%	*	*	*	*

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