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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
SANTA CRUZ

**DEVELOPMENT OF A RESTORATIVE JUSTICE EDUCATON SCALE
THROUGH SECONDARY DATA ANALYSIS OF
REAL-WORLD SCHOOL DATA**

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

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

PSYCHOLOGY

by

Tiffany N. Lockett

June 2022

The Dissertation of Tiffany N. Lockett is
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Vice Provost and Dean of Graduate Studies

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Abstract

Development of a Restorative Justice in Education Scale through Secondary

Data Analysis of Real-World School Data

Tiffany N. Lockett

Black students contend with negative stereotypes and biases about their racial identity, which adversely impact their experiences within school settings. These consequences are reflected in teachers' disproportionate use of exclusionary discipline against Black students (Okonofua & Eberhardt, 2015; Okonofua, Walton, et al., 2016; Raffaele Mendez et al., 2002). To mitigate these harsh effects, school administrators are starting to incorporate restorative justice education (RJE) – a community-based approach rooted in understanding and rectifying harmful behaviors – into their school policies to reduce discipline disparities and to improve teacher-student relationships (Gregory et al., 2016). The scale measures teachers perceptions of how well the school incorporates cultural diversity and highlights marginalized student voices, reinforces healthy relationships with their students, and recognizes the importance of restorative discipline to challenge the longstanding harms resulting from disproportionate discipline.

Current empirical research focuses on the implementation of teachers' restorative practices (Anyon et al., 2014; Gregory et al., 2018), and whole-school restorative programs (Kehoe et al., 2018; Gregory et al., 2016). However, research has yet to develop a robust measurement tool for assessing restorative justice education (RJE) attitudes. Testing the psychometrics of an RJE scale is important to

validate the perspectives of teachers and school staff and evaluate how well school administration implements the RJE tenets in their school climate.

Drawing from district school data, I conducted secondary data analysis of the 2018-2019 California School Staff Survey, an online survey that measures the perceptions and experiences of K-12 teachers and school support personnel (WestEd, 2019). Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses confirmed a unidimensional RJE scale with 27 items that included the three tenets of RJE. The scale had strong convergent validity, but the discriminant validity was problematic thus suggesting more analyses are needed. Results found that Black and Latinx teachers had more discerning views of their schools implementation of restorative policies and practices compared to White and Asian teachers. Similarly, teachers with five-to-ten years of teaching experience were also more likely to report that attitudes that were more critical than teachers with less than five years of teaching experience and teachers with more than 10 years of experience.

The study developed the first quantitative measure – guided by theoretical tenets of RJE – to evaluate restorative practices in real-world academic settings. The scale provides insight on the importance of implementing a holistic RJE approach for student success. Further, the study offers suggestions for future research to evaluate the effectiveness of RJE with Black students.

Dedication

In loving memory of my grandmother, Ernestine Vaughn Gardner, the trailblazer of

our family in juvenile advocacy.

Love you forever, Granny

Acknowledgments

First, giving honor and glory to God- without him and his plan on my life, none of this would be possible. To my incomparable advisor, Rebecca Guzman Covarrubias- my person over the last 6 years! Becca, there really aren't the right words to capture how much you mean to me. It wasn't until I started the discussion of this paper that I realized how to put in words what a profound influence you had on my academic journey. You are this work. You created a space where hundreds of students can celebrate their cultural uniqueness. You epitomize nurture in how you love and care for all of us so deeply. And you literally healed the broken heart of this black girl who was told she wasn't capable of doing research work at this institution. You restored my faith in myself as an academic and celebrated every milestone as if it was your own... because it was. This is OUR DEGREE. Without you, I would not have made it. I love you so much and cannot thank you enough for what you've done for me. To my dissertation committee members, Doug Bonett and Shelly Grabe. Doug, you met with me every week during your sabbatical (talk about going above and beyond!) and helped me develop in my statistical knowledge in this project and over my tenure at UCSC. I so appreciate your support and encouragement through this process and my time at UCSC. And to flip what you said in my defense, I am honored to be your colleague! Shelly, you showed up for me years ago to help me meet program milestones, but also showed out in how you supported me as a person! You checked in on me and helped me stay accountable to

the process but also to myself. Thank you showing me that I had another advocate in the program and for your genuine support!

To my village! I have been blessed with so many family, friends, sorors, and colleagues and I would be remiss if I did not share my appreciation for you all! First, I must thank my parents, Lynn and Jeff Lockett, for their unconditional love. Mom and Dad, your steadfast belief in me and support with whatever I wanted to do in my life made me who I am today. You have been with me every single day through this PhD journey, and I could never repay you for the sacrifices you have made for my success. I am who I am because of the love, resilience, and strength you poured into me. I am honored to be your daughter and love you both more than anything in this world. To my Lockett, Gardner, and Garr family- thank you all for your love. Thank you for being my case studies in life and for always helping me laugh and stay grounded.

To my extended family- there are far too many of you for me to type your names. But know that I thank God for you, and I will always love each one of you. Special thank you to my cousin Omari for paving the way in this PhD journey! I could not have made it without you as my sounding board. And to my Auntie Sharon- my mom's best friend of 50 years and my fiercest supporter- I am so excited for you to soon join the PhD club! I love you, Auntie! To my nieces and nephews- Auntie Tiffy loves you forever! To my godbabies: Lailah Chanel, Aliyah Marie, and Trestin Delorian- my proudest adult role is being your godmother. I know it was hard to not see me as much recently, and I know you have no idea what

I was doing that was keeping me so busy. But thank you for your patience! I love all three of you so deeply and am honored to be your TT/Nani/Godmommy. Special thank you to Regina Parker, Meshia Jones, Trestin George, and Lauren Pitcher for your constant love and support. I love you all so much! To Joy White, thank you for bringing balance to my life, reminding me that I am enough and deserving of the world, and for all our crazy adventures. Love you Rainbow!

To my South Bay Community Church family! Thank you for your love and prayers. Our church is something special; the number of aunts, uncles, siblings, nieces, and nephews I have gained within this family is something I will always treasure! To my BYA family- I love you all so much. Thank you Ms. Williams and Kevin Williams for being so supportive and flexible with my ever-changing schedule. You always believed in me, and I am grateful for your love and support over the last 10 years! To my ROC family (past and present), thank you for the work you do for our community. I am honored to work alongside you as we advocate for our youth and families! Thank you to my Sorors of Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Incorporated, especially my Spec, Prophytes, and Neos from the Xi Omega chapter at UC Irvine! To FuFi: Gloria Anebere, Lauren Savage, Dairian Roberts, and Angie Harris- I will move mountains for you. I love being your Acey and would not make it through this life without my sandz. I got your front forever! AOML.

To my Lab sisters: Giselle Laiduc, Ibette Valle, and Katherine Quinteros. Our lab family is something I am most proud of from my UCSC tenure. The love I

have for you all is endless, and our sisterhood is something I will forever cherish! I will forever be your big sis! To the Collab (I will never get used to CREA), I am unbelievably proud of each one of you. You have each gone on to do such amazing things in this world and I am privileged to have been a part of your journeys. To my social cohort- David Gordon and Sarah Harsey- I would not have made it through this crazy PhD marathon without you two. I appreciate the supportive bond we maintained the entire time, and would not want to do this with anyone else. To Kathy Montano and Allison Land- our department does not work without the two of you. Thank you for everything you do for us graduate students and the department. To my Lamat family- Deana Tanguay and Enrico Ramirez-Ruiz: I love you both so deeply. Thank you for welcoming me into the Lamat family and being so supportive over the years. To the UCSC students I have had the pleasure of teaching over the past 8 years- thank you for your support as I developed my own pedagogy. I will never forget the office hour meetings, check-ins after class, or emails from you all and your honesty about what I represented for you in your classes. Keep pushing forward and be the representations for the next generation!

This dissertation (and really my entire doctoral degree) would not have been completed without the immense support of so many people. Many have heard me say that this is "our degree" and I mean that wholeheartedly. I am certain I forgot to mention someone, but please know that I honor everyone who has been with me on this journey. Thank you for being part of my community and I love you all!

Forty percent of all students expelled from U.S. schools each year are Black (Gonzalez, 2012; NAACP, 2008). Black students are also more than three times as likely to be suspended and expelled compared to White students (PBS, n.d.; NYCLU, 2008; US DOECR, 2014). Suspension rates have consequences for high school attrition. According to the New York Civil Liberties Union (2008), students who have been suspended from school are more than three times likely to become school dropouts by the tenth grade compared to students who have never been suspended. In this way, current disciplinary approaches direct Black students – and other racially-minoritized youth (e.g., Latinx) away from learning institutions into juvenile and criminal justice systems, a process known as the school-to-prison pipeline (NYCLU, 2008; Gonzalez, 2012).

These disproportionate discipline statistics for Black Americans are likely influenced by negative representations about Black criminality and intelligence (Okonofua & Eberhardt, 2015; Okonofua, Walton, et al., 2016). More recent educational methods, such as restorative justice education (RJE), challenge these negative stereotypes and offer alternative perspectives when responding to Black students in the classroom. RJE is a practice that addresses conflict and harm within academic institutions and focuses on building learning communities that foster respect and dignity between adults and students (Evans & Vaandering, 2016).

Before we can understand the importance and utility of RJE, in the sections that follow, I first briefly review and discuss the content of dominant stereotypes of racially-minoritized groups, particularly Black Americans, that are prevalent in

mainstream U.S. culture and the psychological impact of these stereotypes on Black youth. I then briefly explore how these stereotypes contribute to implicit and explicit racial biases, with a focus on teacher bias in schools and the link to school discipline practices. Finally, I offer an overview of literature on restorative justice practices—community-based approaches to healing rather than punitive punishment (Zehr, 2015)—that can target negative stereotyping and bias and reframe teachers' disciplinary approaches with Black youth.

To date, most of the literature about RJE is largely conceptual, likening its success to juvenile and adult recidivism within the criminal justice system. There are only a handful of quantitative investigations of the impact of restorative approaches (Okonofua, Paunesku et al., 2016) and no existing validated measure of RJE. A validated measure of RJE is important because it can be used to assess, at-scale, the effectiveness and implementation of RJE within school settings. Moreover, a validated RJE scale can demonstrate how using RJE can decrease the negative experiences of marginalized students by identifying and promoting the need for a more holistically-integrated model of student academic and interpersonal success. For my dissertation, I developed and tested the reliability and validity of a RJE scale, using items grounded in real-world school data.

Racial Stereotyping of Black Americans

A disproportionate number of mainstream cultural representations depict Black Americans as hyper-criminal and intellectually inferior in comparison to other social groups, particularly to White Americans (Parham et al., 1999). According to

social representation theory, these misrepresentations teach others how to engage and communicate with Black Americans because they are pervasive in mainstream institutions, such as the criminal justice system, media, and education system (Fryberg & Townsend, 2008; Purdie-Vaughns & Eibach, 2008). Social representations are normed ideas and beliefs that help us understand our environments, social interactions, and daily realities (Fryberg & Townsend, 2008). People use available social representations of their identity groups to understand messages about what is considered "right" in a social context and who belongs in that context (Fryberg & Townsend, 2008). These representations can inform culturally-shared stereotypes, which are overgeneralizations about a specific group (e.g., the belief that Black Americans are 'born athletic', Thomas et al., 2015).

One common and harmful negative misrepresentation of Black Americans is the belief that members of this community are more likely to engage in criminal behavior (Akbar, 1981; Burt et al., 2012; Dixon, 2008; Painter, 2007; Parham et al., 1999). Contemporary media programming, such as film and news coverage, perpetuate stereotypical narratives about Black American predisposition to criminality. The overexposure of Black Americans as criminal suspects in media compared to White suspects reinforces negative associations about race and crime (Intravia & Pickett, 2019; Oliver & Fonash, 2002), and shapes social beliefs of criminal offending as a "Black activity" (Dixon & Azocar, 2007; p. 245).

Although most research that focuses on the Black criminal stereotype focuses on adults, research also demonstrates how Black youth are disproportionately targeted

and criminally stereotyped. For example, the Black criminal stereotype adversely affects how Black students are viewed and treated within their schools. In a study by Okonofua and Eberhardt (2015), female K-12 teachers read about a Black or White middle-school student engaging in two different infractions—one described as insubordination and the other as a classroom disturbance. Then, teachers were asked about how they perceived the severity of the incident and their emotions about the student. Teachers reported no differences in feeling troubled after reading the first incident; however, racial differences were identified after the second infraction such that teachers reported higher feelings of frustration with the Black student after the second infraction (Okonofua & Eberhardt, 2015). Teachers were more likely to label Black students as troublemakers and make judgements about Black student misbehavior being a "connected pattern" when compared to White students engaging in similar behavioral infractions (Okonofua & Eberhardt, 2015, p. 620; see also, Huang, 2018; Kunesh & Noltemeyer, 2019; Skiba et al., 2002). This label misrepresents Black youth as problematic, aggressive, and as more likely to engage in negative behaviors, undermining chances educational success.

A second permeating representation in mainstream spaces is that Black Americans are academically inferior compared to White Americans (Hernstein & Murray, 1994; McKown & Weinstein, 2008; Peterson et al., 2016). The Black intellectual inferiority stereotype is reflected in teachers' expectations of their students. For example, research showed how Black elementary students were more susceptible to negative teacher expectancy than their White peers (McKown &

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Weinstein, 2008; Peterson et al., 2016). In diverse classrooms with teachers that were more racially-biased, teachers ranked Black students significantly lower than White and Asian students in reading and math ability (McKown & Weinstein, 2008). In contrast, there were no notable differences in student rankings in classrooms with low perceived teacher bias. These findings suggest if teachers are susceptible to the Black inferiority stereotype, they are less likely to see Black students as academically inclined and more likely to cast evaluative judgements against these students.

Implicit and Explicit Racial Bias

As stereotypes are pervasively reflected in structural institutions, such as the media and education, these generalizations are also salient in personal attitudes and manifest in intergroup interactions. Stereotypes can exist consciously or unconsciously. One area where these unconscious beliefs are the most salient is racial attitudes and biases. Implicit racial biases are learned associations of a racial group that often include implicit evaluations (i.e., racial attitudes and beliefs) and trait-like attributions that are reflective of cultural stereotypes (Amodio & Hamilton, 2012). Implicit racial biases are largely socially constructed by cultural narratives that create and control how others view and engage with those who differ from White cultural norms (Smith-McLallen et al., 2006). In this way, anti-Black stereotypes (e.g., criminality & inferiority) influence how White people perceive and interact with Black people, especially in evaluative situations (e.g., discipline, sentencing).

Research has explored the consequences of these stereotypes and racial biases across multiple contexts such as hiring and employment decisions (Dovidio &

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Gaertner, 2000; Kushins et al., 2014; Mobasseri, 2019), assessments of physical

spaces and neighborhoods (Bonam et al., 2016), and harsher sentencing in the

criminal justice system (Brunson & Miller, 2006; Burt et al., 2012; Dixon, 2008;

Eberhardt et al., 2006; Kahn & McMahon, 2015). These examples demonstrate the

many ways that these stereotypes negatively impact the Black community, with a

significant influence on the quality of life for Black individuals. In this paper, I focus

on the consequences of anti-Black stereotypes in educational settings for Black youth.

Black Youth Experiences with Implicit Bias in Academic Settings

Negative associations about Black racial identity are unconsciously reflected

in how teachers engage with and educate Black students. Teacher bias is

characterized as a disparate perception of student ability and potential (Dusek, 1975;

Riegle-Crumb & Humphries, 2012). In other words, teachers subconsciously believe

that student success will differ based on some arbitrary domain such as race, gender,

or socioeconomic status (Dusek, 1975). For example, Black students are often

expected to adhere to "implicit rules that embody the values, culture, and norms of

middle class Whites" (Cooper, 2003, p. 104). When students fail to assimilate to these

rules, they are labeled as "deviant" and as less capable than their White peers

(Cooper, 2003; Delpit, 1995).

Indeed, research has shown that teachers are more likely to be biased towards

Black students (Cherng, 2017; Cooper, 2003; Downey & Pribesh, 2004; Dusek,

1975). For example, studies have shown that math and English teachers from diverse

racial backgrounds are more likely to perceive their classes as more challenging for

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Black and Latinx students, despite controlling for variables like test scores and completed assignments (Cherng, 2017). Other studies have demonstrated how racial biases influence how teachers perceive Black student behavior. When assessing teachers' evaluations of student classroom behavior, researchers found that race impacted how teachers interacted with and evaluated Black students compared to White students (Downey & Pribesh, 2004).

Unconscious racial biases not only affect how White teachers perceive Black students in the classroom, but they also affect how White teachers relate to and engage with Black students. Teachers respond much more harshly to Black student misbehavior than with White students. One of the primary school discipline practices that teachers use is out-of-school suspension. Once considered one of the more extreme disciplinary practices (Raffaele Mendez et al., 2002), out-of-school suspensions are defined as the removal of a student from the academic institution for a period no longer than ten days. Suspensions are solely used for punishment as they occur without any additional interventions used to reinforce more appropriate behaviors or educate students on more effective and prosocial responses to tough situations (Raffaele Mendez et al., 2002). Suspensions as a discipline practice are often used to "push out" students from institutions, creating a "paper trail" that follows students throughout their academic career (Raffaele Mendez et al., 2002, p. 260). In doing so, schools use a student's history with suspensions to justify their use of exclusionary discipline (e.g., more suspensions, expulsions, alternative school transfers).

This approach to discipline has been disproportionately used against Black students, as these youth have been disciplined as a direct result of implicit biases that color how teachers perceive their behavior (Huang, 2018; Kunesh & Noltemeyer, 2019; Okonofua & Eberhardt, 2015). Despite accounting for sixteen percent of U.S. public school enrollment, Black students accounted for 31 percent of students who were referred to law enforcement or arrested at school. In comparison, White students, who made up 49 percent of public school enrollment, accounted for only 36 percent of student referrals (US DOECR, 2014). Research explores how race facilitates teachers' roles in furthering these discipline disparities (Huang, 2018; Kunesh & Noltemeyer, 2019). For example, Black students are punished for more subjective reasons, with their behavior being perceived as disrespectful, defiant, and threatening (Kunesh & Noltemeyer, 2019; Skiba et al., 2002). When faced with these types of subjective infractions, discipline is likely increased when teachers perceive a loss of control (Fenning & Rose, 2007). As such, teachers are more likely to challenge and discipline Black students in order to sustain their position of dominance within the classroom (Ferguson, 2001).

Bringing these concepts together, researchers have tested a full model linking race, perceptions of student behaviors, and disciplinary practices. Revisiting the study by Okonofua and Eberhardt (2015) I described earlier, they explored whether the troublemaker label would mediate the effect of race on teacher's use of discipline after two minor behavioral infractions (e.g., disrupting the classroom and insubordination). In the model, the troublemaker label mediated discipline outcomes,

such that the troublemaker label predicted harsher discipline outcomes for Black students than White students for the same minor infraction. Researchers coined this phenomenon the "Black escalation effect" to describe how misbehaviors from Black students can be uniquely perceived as a problematic pattern; the same is not true for White student behavior. The escalation effect demonstrates how teachers' race-based perceptions contribute to the unfair cycle of discipline that Black students navigate, and subsequently impact other academic outcomes.

Implicit racial biases against Black Americans often coincide with existing cultural stereotypes that overgeneralize and misrepresent Black Americans as a whole. In particular, Black youth contend with the consequences of their racial identity and cultural differences in one of the main institutions that is supposed to shape their academic, interpersonal, and emotional selves. Put simply, teacher bias harms outcomes and well-being for Black students. It is critical to explore how academic and community-based practices (i.e., restorative justice education) can confront and challenge negative representations and perceptions about Black youth and, in turn, rectify persisting harms.

Restorative Justice

Restorative justice is rooted in the understanding and rectifying of wrongdoing. Its history is rooted in collectivist cultural teachings, which view harm or crime as a demonstration of damaged relationships (Braithwaite, 2002). Specifically, restorative justice analyzes the effects of the harm or wrongdoing against all parties involved, and specifically addresses three particular roles: the

victim (i.e., the person who was harmed), the offender (i.e., those who caused the harm), and the community (i.e., all members of the community who were impacted by the harm behavior). Referring to these roles as 'stakeholders' in the justice process, restorative justice extends the focus of the criminal justice system to identify the needs of all people involved rather than just the victim of the offense. Restorative justice addresses the unique needs of victims including honesty, empowerment, and restitution, while encouraging offenders to take accountability for their actions and experience transformation in the process (Zehr, 2015).

The concept of restorative justice started in the 1970s in North America to address the core issues of damaged relationships using victim offender reconciliation programs, or VORP (Zehr, 2015). In 1989, New Zealand first introduced restorative conferences in youth justice programs which had tremendous success in preventing recidivism and increasing personal growth for the youth (Bazemore & Umbreit, 1994; Sherman et al., 2015). These conferences were grounded in the values of interconnectedness and respect, aimed at addressing the interpersonal conflict between youth which led to subsequent behavioral and emotional harm (Zehr, 2015). Restorative practices were then introduced in the legal system to address minor criminal offenses, such as burglary and property crimes, with studies demonstrating how low-risk offenders were shown to benefit the most from restorative practices (Andrews & Bonta, 2003; Bonta et al., 2006). In response to their success, restorative practices were extended to include the "most severe forms of criminal violence"

against people, such as death from drunk driving, physical and sexual assault, and murder (Zehr, 2015, p. 6).

There are several key goals and parameters of restorative justice, all of which address the healing and collaborative nature of restorative processes. Restorative justice asserts that important decisions should be made directly by those individuals who have been affected by the crime, rather than a systemic set of rules of guidelines (Zehr, 2015). This belief emphasizes healing and transformative justice, rather than the punishment-based justice paradigm of the current legal system (Roberts & Stalans, 2004). The U.S. penal system is so deeply rooted in punishment and crime deterrence that it fails to uncover the underlying reasons most offenders engaged in misbehavior; instead of addressing the cause of the problem and truly rehabilitating the offender, this system further ostracizes and alienates them. In contrast, restorative justice supports the development of certain programs that reduce recidivism, focus on healing and growth, and reintegration back into their communities.

Restorative Justice Applications with Youth

Restorative practices have been explored among youth populations, first and most notably as a response to conduct and behavior issues in juvenile justice (Sherman et al., 2015), and then expanding to include disciplinary alternatives in educational settings. As incarceration does not reduce recidivism for juvenile offenders (Palermo, 2013), restorative practices present a cost-effective alternative to reducing reoffending (Sherman et al., 2015). In response to the successes seen in the judicial system, educational personnel began adjusting the practices to fit the

discipline needs of the school setting. For example, many states enacted "tough on crime" zero-tolerance policies to punish misbehavior in schools as a response to the Gun-free Schools Act of 1994 (GFSA). These policies disproportionately and discriminately targeted students of color, according to the US Department of Justice and US Department of Education (Evans & Vaandering, 2016). However, in the early 2000s, Minnesota's Department of Children, Family, and Learning started incorporating restorative practices in schools in an attempt to reduce suspensions and expulsions (Evans & Vaandering, 2016). After significant reductions in both forms of school discipline, restorative justice in education started to extend across the U.S. Utilizing these approaches, educators uncovered the importance of relational connections for youth (Evans & Vaandering, 2016).

Similar to the earlier mentioned principles of restorative justice, restorative justice education (RJE) promotes the values of respect, dignity, and human concern. Evans and Vaandering (2016) define RJE as "facilitating learning communities that nurture the capacity of people to engage with one another and their environment in a manner that supports and respects the inherent dignity and worth of all" (p. 8). In order for successful restorative practices to occur, schools must undergo a cultural shift where the norms, beliefs, values, and policies of the academic institution nurture and support both students and school-based personnel, rather than assert dominance or control over students in hierarchical power structures within school settings. RJE is markedly different from traditional education, which some researchers suggest devalues the wellbeing of students and communities (Skiba, 2000) and insists on

social control rather than social engagement (Anderson, 2004). RJE highlights the

unique characteristics of both adults and students, while simultaneously working to

rectify the harm that students have experienced throughout their academic journeys.

As Black students have been harmed by disproportionate discipline because of

fractured teacher-student relationships, RJE presents an alternative to the traditional

punishment model that integrates relationships and conflict processes through the use

of restorative discipline. Compared to punitive discipline more widely used in schools

in response to misbehavior, RJE promotes a discipline model that promotes personal

growth, accountability, and sustained positive relationships between teachers and

students. Both punitive and restorative approaches consider discipline as existing on a

continuum that includes punishment, consequences, solutions, and restoration

(Amstutz & Mullet, 2005). Both the punishment (i.e., arbitrary discipline) and

consequence (i.e., specific punishment to rectify the wrongdoing) approaches suggest

an unpleasant penalty to deter misbehavior. The solutions approach views the

misbehavior as a problem that needs to be solved, and works with the student to

develop an alternative plan to replace misbehavior with one that does not break any

rules. Finally, the restorative approach recognizes the unique needs of both the

offender and the person who was harmed, and restore healing in that relationship

(Amstutz & Mullet, 2005). Specifically, restorative discipline is characterized as a

long-term approach to discipline which helps youth take responsibility for their

behavior, and take accountability for the harm their actions caused against other

individuals and the larger community (Amstutz & Mullet, 2005). While traditional

punishment stresses obedience and compliance, restorative discipline specifically explores how students both experience appropriate consequences and learn accountability.

Using Restorative Practices to Empower Black Students

While RJE focuses on repairing harm, its tenets can also be used to empower Black students. Specifically, RJE addresses three key components that promote academic and relational success for Black students: creating equitable learning environments, nurturing healthy relationships between teachers and students, and addressing conflict and repairing harm within the institution (Evans & Vaandering, 2016).

Tenet 1: Creating equitable learning environments

First, RJE argues that learning environments should work toward cultural equity, whereby cultural identities and differences are celebrated (e.g., race, gender, social class) rather than stereotyped or minimized. Restorative practices challenge the use of colorblind ideologies that negate experiences of racism, trauma, and other personal and academic stressors negatively impacting Black youths' lives (Blitz et al., 2016; Evans & Vaandering, 2016; Townsend, 2000). These practices name and identify the harms caused by colorblindness as well as educate the perpetrators of these harms. For example, colorblindness suggests that everyone should be treated equally, and that racism and racial privilege are not as prevalent as people suggest (Plaut, 2010). Colorblindness maintains racial hierarchies by suggesting that race consciousness is more harmful than helpful because it separates individuals based on

racial characteristics rather than suggesting everyone be treated equally. This belief

system implies that harms against racial minorities should not be addressed (Plaut,

2010). RJE challenges this notion and suggests that addressing these harms can

increase Black students' belonging within their schools, and challenge the relative

invisibility they often experience (Wiggan & Watson, 2016).

Using RJE to counter colorblindness, teachers can employ practices that

respectfully navigate and bring attention to the experiences of students from

marginalized communities. For example, educators can incorporate culturally-

inclusive pedagogy into their teaching, such as using textbooks with diverse authors

or characters (Blitz et al., 2016; Evans & Vaanderling, 2016; Gay, 2018; Ladson-

Billings, 1995). Integrating writing from diverse perspectives validates the

experiences of other cultural groups and challenges the normalization of Whiteness

within education and the greater society. For example, educators can include

discussions of historical harms, such as the post-traumatic slave syndrome (DeGruy,

2005) or the New Jim Crow (Alexander, 2010), to educate themselves and Black and

non-Black youth on the current consequences of slavery and segregation that continue

to harm Black Americans. In doing so, the classroom community learns about the

current consequences of race, systemic trauma, and emotional reactivity, and

challenges deficit thinking of both teachers and students (Plaut, 2010). Incorporating

these practices can also help address racial conflict that occurs between students at

the school, helping dominant groups deepen their awareness of the racial experiences

of their peers.

Additionally, teachers can incorporate more accessible cultural representations, like popular and social media, to challenge colorblindness in the classroom. Studies have demonstrated how using culturally relevant tools such as music and language in teaching can be used to explore and challenge racial biases and stereotypes about Black Americans (Childs, 2014; Howard, 2001) For example, Childs (2014) discussed how using jazz music to educate students about the Harlem Renaissance era challenges historical negative stereotypes about Black people and instead highlights the "creativity, intelligence, and inventiveness of African Americans" (p. 296). Childs (2014) also shared how teachers can use television programs and commercials to explore the effects of cultural representations on Black students' self-image. This qualitative work suggests that when learning institutions promote familiar cultural stimuli, Black students are more likely to succeed academically (see also Adjapong, 2017; Young et al., 2017). Using culturally-relevant approaches highlight the nuances within the Black experience and celebrate racial diversity rather than ascribe to colorblind ideologies. In doing so, teachers affirm their students racial background instead of trying to force Black students to ascribe to the White educational standard; this type of pedagogy challenges the notion that education can only happen in a certain way. When teachers use approaches that are more accessible and relevant for Black students, they are more likely to experience belonging and success in their schools.

Tenet 2: Nurturing healthy relationships between teachers and students

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Second, RJE promotes the need for healthy relationships between teachers and students, and argues that both groups thrive when they feel mutually respected and accepted. In RJE, the relationship between students and teachers is less hierarchal than in traditional education models and instead rooted in mutual respect. According to Abinun (1981), teachers should view students as humans who are deserving of respect. This view focuses on students' feelings and uniqueness, rather than solely interacting with them in their subordinate role as a student within the classroom. Researchers have explored how students conceptualize and enact respect within the teacher-student relationship (Grimova & Van Schawlkwyk, 2016). In one study, thirteen Black high school students answered open-ended questions that explored how they perceived respect within educator-student relationships (Grimova & Van Schawlkwyk, 2016). Using thematic coding, the researchers found that most students classified educator respect through "well-intentioned behavior" such as listening, good communication, and support (p. 345). For example, the student participants suggested feeling respected when their opinions were validated within the classroom rather than being controlled or forced to assimilate in some way. Overall, the students promoted the idea that respect should be mutual and desired for their teachers to treat them fairly and equitably (Grimova & Van Schawlkwyk, 2016).

When students feel respected by their teachers, they are more likely to be receptive to RJE approaches. For example, Black students might be more receptive to addressing conflict if they feel respected and have good communication with their teachers. Using RJE, students can learn ways to navigate the consequences of

historical educational harms, whereas teachers can learn how to communicate empathically with Black students about their needs and daily experiences. In doing so, teachers can treat students more empathically and support them by identifying and validating them for who they are, instead of judging them based on behavioral problems or academic struggles. When teachers purposefully adjust how they approach youth in ways that are more relational and less hierarchal, students are more likely to trust in their teachers, feel less defensive, and demonstrate more respectful and less reactive behavior (Grimova & Van Schawlkwyk, 2016). In turn, teachers might be more likely to explore issues with students rather than classify them as disrespectful or examples of punishable misbehavior.

Tenet 3: Addressing conflict and repairing harm

The final tenet of RJE recognizes that despite changes to educational institutions and among teacher-student relationships, there are persisting effects of conflict and harm. Teachers can use restorative discipline to challenge and repair the harms experienced by Black students, and drastically reduce the disproportionate representation of Black students in discipline statistics. Social psychologists have suggested that school leaders need to incorporate more open dialogue about the goals of the discipline systems at schools, and explore the disciplinary patterns based on race, ethnicity, and gender (Langhout & Mitchell, 2008). These conversations could minimize teachers use of discipline and rectify the harms students have experienced based on their race and gender.

More recently, social psychologists have examined how racial disparities in school discipline can be mitigated using restorative approaches (Goyer et al., 2019; Okonofua, Paunesku et al., 2016; Okonofua, Walton et al., 2016;). For example, researchers explored the use of empathic discipline as an approach that focuses on improving teacher-student relationships, one of the foundational principles of restorative practices in education. In a study, K-12 teachers were assigned to one of two conditions that described teachers' role in addressing misbehavior using either an empathic or punitive mindset (Okonofua, Paunesku et al., 2016). Next, the teachers were asked how they would respond to three separate incidents of student misbehavior. Coders measured if the teacher's response was more punitive (i.e., threatening punishment, calling an administrator) or empathic (i.e., talking with student about their misbehavior, adjusting the physical space to be better suited for student success). As expected, teachers in the empathic-mindset condition were less likely to use punitive responses and more likely to be empathic in their responses to student misbehavior.

These findings demonstrate the profound influence that teachers' mindsets can have on student behavior, and how empathic discipline can address Black students' negative experiences. First, student misbehavior should first be viewed in "nonpejorative ways," or take into account how students' experiences with racial stigmatization and threat influence their misbehavior (Okonofua, Walton et al., 2016, p. 389). Second, teachers should move away from punitive and reactionary discipline and instead use their role as teachers to encourage student development and growth.

Third, teachers should use clear communication with students about their intentions in using discipline, especially with Black students who internalize negative interactions as lack of belonging in school or a result of negative relationships (Okonofua, Walton et al., 2016). These aims are student-focused and highlight the importance of trust between teachers and students when using discipline in school settings. Since RJE asserts that the focus should be on healing instead of what punishment is deserved, adjusting the culture of discipline within school systems is one step toward addressing the school-to-prison pipeline issue. As RJE promotes learning and accountability, these approaches can lead to personal and relational growth for both teachers and students, especially when both are willing to engage in restorative processes.

Measurement of Restorative Justice Education

The majority of scholarship on RJE is comprised of theoretical reviews, opinion-based articles, or a combination of the two (Katic et al., 2020). Empirical work on RJE has been primarily qualitative, using methods such as interviews and focus groups to collect data about teachers' and students' experiences with restorative practices and interventions in academic settings. Such interventions explored the effects of restorative practices on measurable outcomes, such as student behavior, relationships, and intergroup conflict (Kehoe et al., 2018; Lustick, 2017; Ortega et al., 2016; Sandwick et al., 2019).

In one qualitative study, researchers interviewed teachers and students to assess the impact of a "whole-school" restorative practice approach model on social skills in elementary and middle schools in Melbourne, Australia (Kehoe et al., 2018).

The researchers concluded that teachers and students recognized the benefits of restorative practices (e.g., daily circles, restorative conferences). They also identified a framework with five practices that impacted student behavior: harmony, empathy for others, awareness and accountability for one's actions, respectful relationships, and thinking reflectively (*H.E.A.R.T* framework). This qualitative study—similar to other qualitative work (Ortega et al, 2016; Reimer, 2019)—demonstrates the benefits of RJE within schools that adopt a holistic restorative approach. While useful for understanding the benefits of RJE, these studies have been conducted in educational contexts in Australia (Kehoe et al. 2018) or Hong Kong (Wong et al., 2011), limiting our understanding of the experiences of racially-minoritized students in the U.S.

There are some approaches in the U.S. that have examined the benefits of restorative interventions in school settings. For example, studies have analyzed student demographic data (i.e., race, gender, socioeconomic status) and discipline records (i.e., office referrals, exclusionary discipline) to measure links between participation in alternative approaches, like restorative interventions, and future discipline outcomes (Anyon et al., 2014; Anyon et al., 2016). Using large district datasets, restorative practices were coded dichotomously based on whether or not students participated in a restorative practice. These studies showed that participation in restorative approaches (versus no participation) was linked to less use of harsh, exclusionary discipline overall (e.g., out-of-school suspensions, law enforcement referrals).

These studies have the benefit of examining correlational links in school settings, yet experimental approaches to this question are able to establish casual links between restorative approaches and outcomes. Specifically, as described earlier, Okonofua and colleagues (2016) examined how reinforcing an empathic discipline mindset—such as valuing student perspectives, building positive relationships with students, and encouraging positive behavior—led teachers to report less punitive responses to student misbehavior and higher empathy. This study demonstrates the benefits of empathic discipline and observed the effects of practices that are similar to restorative justice. Yet, empathic discipline differs from RJE because this approach primarily focuses on relationships and fixing behavior, instead of simultaneously including the need for equity within classroom spaces or rectifying the harms caused by traditional school discipline.

Together, these aforementioned studies – though they rigorously establish links between restorative approaches and critical outcomes – do not include any tools for systematically measuring RJE. That is, they do not assess RJE using established measures, which would support large-scale assessment in schools. One study did aim to do this. Researchers used survey methods to examine whether teachers that were more likely to implement restorative practices had more positive relationships with their students (Gregory et al., 2016). This study focused on teachers and students from two East Coast high schools that recently adopted a whole-school restorative practices (RP) program at their school. The survey tools included subscales that assessed students' perspectives about how well teachers engaged in six RP elements

from the IIRP Whole-School change program. However, only four subscales (a total of 44 items) were used due to teachers not completing all the survey items.

These four subscales included: affective statements (e.g., "My teacher is respectful when talking about feelings"); restorative questions (e.g., "When someone misbehaves, my teacher responds to negative behaviors by asking students questions about what happened, who has been harmed and how the harm can be repaired"); items about engagement in proactive circles (e.g., "My teacher uses circles to provide opportunities for students to share feelings, ideas and experiences"); and fair process items (e.g., "Asks students for their thoughts and ideas when decisions need to be made that affect the class") (Gregory et al., 2016). The researchers conducted factor analyses and linear regression models to assess how student and teacher relationships impacted teachers' use of exclusionary discipline (i.e., drawn from school discipline records). Teachers who were perceived by students to use more restorative practices had more positive relationships with their ethnically-diverse students; additionally, the discipline gap between Asian/White and Black/Latinx students was smaller with these teachers (Gregory et al., 2016). Other studies have also used large existing school data sets to examine the benefits of restorative practices for students (Darling-Hammond et al., 2021).

This type of approach – using secondary data analysis (SDA) – to assess RJE is beneficial because it helps to measure the effectiveness of restorative justice in a real-world context. That is, using existing datasets to measure RJE helps researchers explore the benefits of such practices in real time and with participants who actively

benefit from these approaches. Still, there are gaps in the literature. First, neither

project assessed all three theoretical tenets of RJE. Without this, it is hard to

encapsulate the entirety of restorative justice. For example, the IIRP surveys observed

the implementation of RJ practices (e.g., circles) instead of the benefits of adopting a

restorative justice mindset within all aspects of school culture (e.g., relationships,

discipline, rectifying harms). Second, neither of these studies examined the reliability

or predictive validity of their measurement, which limits the generalizability, quality,

and accuracy of the measures. Thus, there needs to be a validated RJE scale that

measures teachers' restorative approaches within their schools, which can then be

tested with other outcome variables, such as teacher use of exclusionary discipline.

The Current Study

The present study aimed to develop and validate an RJE scale. To do so, I

conducted SDA using a statewide dataset of K-12 teachers that completed the

California School Staff Survey (CSSS) in the 2018-2019 academic year (California

Department of Education, n.d.-a). While I cannot directly assess the use and impact of

RJE practices with Black students, my target group of interest, I drew from data on

teachers in districts that serve large numbers of racially-minoritized students (i.e.,

55.2% Latinx, 5.3% Black, 4.1% mixed race) in public and charter schools

throughout the state of California (California Department of Education, n.d.-b).

There are notable considerations in using archival data in empirical research

studies, with substantial research across disciplines (e.g., sociology, psychology,

education) demonstrating how SDA significantly adds to scientific study (Jones,

2010). SDA presents many opportunities for researchers, such as cost-effectiveness, accessibility, and real-world applicability (Jones, 2010; Smith, 2008). Researchers save time and resources when using SDA. For example, researchers do not need to secure money for compensating participants, nor do they have to spend as much money for travel to gather data (Jones, 2010). Using existing data, researchers also have access to large datasets with participants from diverse backgrounds which helps with the generalizability of the research. SDA also allows researchers to analyze research questions using data that is grounded in real-world experiences. As such, SDA approaches and results have unique real-world implications and allow researchers to add new perspectives to science (Hewson, 2006; Jones, 2010; Smith, 2008).

Given these benefits, I aimed to use SDA to create a RJE scale that measures teachers' assessment of RJE tenets. First, using survey items from the CSSS, I performed three exploratory factor analyses – driven by theoretical tents of RJE – to develop a quantitative RJE scale. Second, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to verify the factor structure of the RJE scale and measure the scale's validity and reliability. Specifically, I aimed to develop a scale that measured teachers' attitudes and perceptions about how their schools incorporate cultural diversity and highlight marginalized student voices, reinforce healthy relationships with their students, and recognize the importance of restorative discipline to challenge the longstanding harms resulting from disproportionate discipline.

Third, I examined important group differences on these three tenets based on teachers' racial identity (i.e., Black, Latinx, White, Asian) and career experience (i.e., early-, mid-, and advanced-career). Consistent with past work (Egalite et al., 2015; Gavrielides, 2014; Holt & Gershenson, 2015; McGrady & Reynolds, 2013), I predicted that Black and Latinx teachers would be more likely to critique their school's endorsement of the three facets of RJE compared to White and Asian teachers. Consistent with previous research about the impact of career experience (Singh & Billingsley, 1998; Strauss, 2005), I predicted that advanced-career teachers would be more critical towards their school's implementation of RJE compared to mid-career and early-career teachers.

Method

Survey Respondents

The entire dataset included survey responses from 54,142 teachers and support staff from 3,045 public schools in 371 districts across 46 counties in the state of California. Direct classroom staff represented the majority of the sample, including K-12 teachers (61%), paraprofessionals such as teaching and instructional assistants (8.3%), and special education teachers (8.2%). Other classified and certified staff (i.e., librarian, janitorial, secretarial, school safety officers) and service providers (i.e., occupational therapists, speech therapists) accounted for 17.1% of the respondents. School administrators (3.6%), counselors and psychologists (3.5%), and nurses and health aides (1.3%) were also surveyed.

For this study, I selected responses from school staff with direct student classroom facilitation. Thus, the final sample included 36,054 K-12 and special education teachers. Most participants identified as White, non-Hispanic (59.7%), followed by Hispanic/Latinx (20.9%), Other or Multiethnic (7.9%), Asian/Pacific Islander (6.1%), African American, non-Hispanic (2.4%), American Indian/Alaska Native (0.7%); 2.3% of participants declined to report their ethnic identity. No gender demographic information was collected within this dataset. However, in the 2018-2019 academic year, the majority of public school teachers identified as female (73.3%) (California Department of Education, n.d.-c).

To assess prior job experience, participants were asked how many years they worked at any school in their current role. Participants selected from the following options: A = *less than one year*, B = *1 to 2 years*, C = *3 to 5 years*, D = *6 to10 years*, and E = *over 10 years*. Participants were considered early career if they reported working up to five years, mid-career if they reported working six to ten years, and advanced career if they reported working over 10 years in their current role. The current sample included 24.4% early career staff, 14.4% mid-career staff, and 61.2% advanced career staff; 0.8% declined to respond. Participants were also asked how many years, using the same scale, they worked at this school in any career position. In the current sample, 42.5% of staff responded less than 5 years, 15.5% of staff between 6 and 10 years, and 42.0% worked more than 10 years at their current institution. 0.9% declined to respond.

Survey Administration

Participants received an email with a link to the online survey which could be completed on their own devices at two different time points in the 2018-2019 academic school year. The fall survey was available between October 2018 and January 2019, and the spring survey was available between February and July 2019. The CSSS reportedly took an average of 15 minutes, and maximum of 50 minutes, to complete. Participants were thanked for their participation after completing the online survey.

Survey Instrument

The data are drawn from the CSSS, an online survey that measures the perceptions and experiences of K-12 teachers and school support personnel (WestEd, n.d.). The CSSS was first introduced in the 2004-2005 school year and required for all education agencies in the state of California; schools must administer the survey at least once every two years to satisfy the requirements outlined by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (WestEd, n.d.). The CSSS includes 109 items that assess four core areas: perceptions of the school environment, working relationships and professional development, student support services, and parent support services.

As this study (HS-FY2022-81) used a public dataset, the UC Santa Cruz Institutional Review Board (IRB) determined it did not meet the requirements of Human Subjects Research and, thus, did not require formal approval.

Proposed Factors

After reading through all the survey items within the CSSS dataset, I identified 45 items (see Table 1) that aligned with RJE tenets.

Factor 1: Creating equitable learning environments. To align with the first tenet of RJE, I selected 10 scale items that reflected teachers' use of culturally-relevant teaching modalities and the degree to which teachers agreed with how the school implemented policies that reflect cultural diversity. The items also highlighted areas that the school can improve on with respect to increasing school diversity. Participants rated the extent to which they agreed with each item, from A (*Strongly Agree*) to D (*Strongly Disagree*). One sample item included, *This school emphasizes using instructional materials that reflect the culture or ethnicity of the students.*

Factor 2: Nurturing healthy relationships between teachers and students. To align with the second tenet of RJE, I selected 14 scale items that explored how participants perceived the relational health between teachers and students. These items directly measured how participants perceived the importance of healthy relationships between multiple stakeholders (e.g., teachers, students) in the school setting. All the items were rated from A (*Strongly Agree*) to D (*Strongly Disagree*). Two sample items included: *Adults in this school really care about every student* and *Adults in this school support and treat each other with respect.*

Factor 3: Addressing conflict and repairing harm. The final set of 21 items aligned with the third tenet of RJE and assessed staff perceptions of discipline and rule enforcement at their schools. This factor included items that explored three facets: school discipline policies, students' understanding of discipline, and how schools responded to specific needs, like prevention and safety. Sample items from each facet, respectively, included: *This school handles discipline problems fairly,*

Students know what the rules are, and *This school collaborates well with law enforcement organizations.* All items were rated from A (*Strongly Agree*) to D (*Strongly Disagree*).

Survey Coding

All the items measuring agreement were originally coded using a 4-point scale: *Strongly Agree* was coded as a 1, *Agree* was coded as a 2, *Disagree* was coded as a 3, and *Strongly Disagree* was coded as a 4. For these questions, lower scores indicated a higher level of agreement, while higher scores indicated less agreement.

Missing Data

According to Rubin (1976), there are three mechanisms by which data can be missing: missing completely at random (MCAR; i.e., data missing entirely at random), missing at random (MAR; i.e., missing data systematically related to the observed variables), or missing not at random (MNAR; i.e., data missing for reasons unknown) (Newman, 2014). Data were analyzed based on the three levels of "missingness": item-level (i.e., how many individual items did the respondent fail to answer), construct-level (i.e., did the respondent fail to answer all items from a particular subscale), and person-level (i.e., did the respondent not answer anything on the measure) (Newman, 2014, p. 374-375). With SPSS, I performed a missing value analysis of the items of interest in the dataset to describe the patterns of the missing data.

Based on the missing value analysis, four of the initial items chosen for the RJE scale (e.g., Q115, Q118, Q120, and Q127) needed to be addressed. These items

included specific instructions for completion for teachers whose work responsibilities included specific categories (e.g., health, prevention, safety, and counseling). As such, most participants did not respond to these items which led to the removal of these items from the analysis. This left a total of 41 items. After removing these items, it appeared that the remaining missing data was based on item-level missingness, where participants sporadically failed to respond to several items with no relation between the missing items. With SPSS, I used listwise deletion to remove any participants who had missing values amongst the survey items; as such, 6,069 participants were removed from the dataset. This ensured that all analyses were conducted with participants who responded to all possible scale items and there was the least amount of bias in the results (Newman, 2014). Thus, the final sample was comprised of 29,985 teachers.

Results

Before conducting factor analyses, the data were screened for any univariate outliers (Field, 2009). The minimum sample size for factor analysis was satisfied, since there were over 300 participants, and the ratio of participants to variables was met (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Yong & Pearce, 2013). I performed three EFAs using randomly-generated samples of 500 participants from the public dataset. Then, I performed scale-item validity analyses to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of scale items. After completing the EFAs and item validity analyses, I conducted a final confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with the remaining participants

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to finalize the scale. Once completed, I assessed the validity of the completed scale and performed group difference tests to evaluate the generalizability of the scale.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Sample 1

Before starting the initial EFA, inter-item correlation tests were conducted to ensure that all items were related with a value greater than the recommended .30 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Seven items were removed from analysis due to a low correlation with most of the survey items. These items included: Q58, Q79, Q80, Q81, Q94, Q95, and Q97. Thus, there were 34 items in the first iteration of the EFA.

Prior to factor extraction, I performed the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy and generated a value of .865 which suggested that the data were suitable for factor analysis (Beavers et al., 2013). In the initial EFA, principal axis factoring was used to determine the number of factors, while oblique rotation was used as the factors were expected to be correlated (Gorusch, 1983; Yong & Pearce, 2013). Preliminary results indicated that there were possibly three factors based on the eigenvalues (see Table 2).

Due to the preliminary findings and the original hypotheses, I conducted a second iteration measuring a three-factor solution to see if this model was interpretable. Results indicated that the three-factor solution was undesirable. There was no correlation between the three factors (see Table 3) and there was no clear structure in the factor matrix (Williams et al., 2010). Based on these findings, and the fact that there was only one large eigenvalue, I decided to examine a single factor

solution. The screeplot also strongly suggested a single factor model (See Figure 1).

Before testing the single factor model, I reviewed the factor loadings and removed

two items with factor loadings that were lower than .6 from the analysis (Q22, Q23). I

then performed another iteration of the EFA testing a single factor solution.

After testing the single factor model, I reviewed all loadings and removed any

items with loadings that were insufficient for the single factor solution (Q82). As

such, the final model included 31 items with suitable factor loadings and a

Cronbach's alpha of .97, thus indicating the single factor model was appropriate.

Sample 2

Because the hypothesized three-factor solution had no clear pattern

interpretation, and the single factor provided desirable results, I tested the single-

factor solution with a second random sample of 500 participants. Consistent with the

previous sample, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy confirmed that

the data were suitable for factor analysis. With the single factor model, all factor

loadings with this sample were within a suitable range (.51 - .83) and the Cronbach's

alpha was .97. See Table 4 for factor loadings. To strengthen the scale, I decided to

remove items with factor loadings less than .6 for future analyses (Q59, Q70, Q78),

leaving a total of 28 items.

Item Selection Process

Before proceeding with the next iteration of the EFA, I performed item-level

correlations as part of the selection process for the RJE scale items. With the second

random sample of participants, I conducted item-level validity analyses on the

remaining 28 items to explore the individual scale items convergent and discriminant validity. First, I assessed the convergent validity of the scale items by testing the link between each of the 28 RJE scale items and items in the CSSS that measure empathy. Empathy was defined as the emotional (i.e., the emotional reaction to someone else's emotional response) and cognitive (i.e., an intellectual understanding of others' feelings) ability to understand and respond to others' emotions (Spreng et al., 2009). Literature suggests a link between empathy and RJE (Okonofua, Paunesku et al, 2016). For example, Okonofua and colleagues (2016) argued that teachers committed to techniques similar to RJE, such as using empathic discipline, should be more likely to engage in various forms of empathy. As such, survey respondents might demonstrate more emotional awareness of student stressors or of how the enforcement of school policies might negatively impact student behavior (Okonofua, Paunesku et al., 2016; Okonofua, Walton, et al., 2016).

While we were unable to directly measure empathy, there are items within the dataset that are closely related to teachers' ability to recognize and respond to students' emotional needs. For example, the CSSS has 5 items that measure how teachers react to bullying on campus, including how the teachers provide emotional support for these students. These items were more likely to speak to emotional and cognitive empathy that would be demonstrated from teachers who are more likely to focus on and appropriately respond to students emotional wellbeing. These included: *Teachers here make it clear to students that bullying is not tolerated, If a student tells a teacher that someone is bullying her or him, the teacher will do something to help,*

Students here try to stop bullying when they see it happening, and *If a student was bullied, he or she would tell one of the teachers or staff at school.* Plainly, a test of convergent validity would suggest that teachers who use RJE practices in their pedagogy are more likely to be empathic and responsive towards their students. Thus, I expected a moderate positive link between RJE items and the empathy measure.

Second, I assessed the discriminant validity of the scale items with two items that measured a completely different construct like teachers' recognition of employment resources at school. Teachers' ability to identify how the school supports their individual and employment needs (i.e., benefits, training, mentorship) theoretically should be weakly or not related to their RJE responses. To test the discriminant validity of the RJE scale, I used the following two items: *This school provides the materials, resources, and training (professional development) needed to do your job effectively,* and *This school provides adequate benefits (e.g., salary, fringe benefits, and retirement options) to support my continued employment.* These items were more likely to speak to how teachers identify how well the school met their occupational needs.

Using a bivariate correlation, I tested the relationship between each individual item with the five-item empathy scale and the two-item employee resources scale. All correlations for scale items and the empathy scale were within the desired range of a moderate, positive correlation (.40 - .66). All correlations for the scale items and the employee resources scale fell within a weak to moderate, positive correlation (.35 - .50). After reviewing the item validity analyses, I removed one item (Q40) from the

RJE scale because the item was correlated too strongly with employee resources, which left 27 items for the next EFA. See Table 5 for item correlation matrix for empathy. See Table 6 for item correlation matrix for employee resources.

Sample 3

Based on the validity analyses and findings from the second EFA, I conducted a third random sample to assess how well the single factor model fit another group of 500 participants. Consistent with the previous samples, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy confirmed that the data were suitable for factor analysis. In this iteration, all factor loadings with this sample were within the desired range (.61 - .82). See Table 7 for factor loadings. Cronbach's alpha was consistent at .97, thus indicating high internal consistency reliability and I could proceed with a CFA with the remaining sample.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

I conducted an EFA with maximum likelihood estimation to confirm a one-factor model in the remaining sample of 28,485 participants. In a one-factor model with uncorrelated unique factors, the standardized maximum likelihood estimates in an EFA model and a CFA model are the same. Consistent with the previous samples, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy indicated that the data were suitable for factor analysis. The goodness-of-fit (χ^2 (324) = 145087.67, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .125) indicated a less than perfect fit. All factor loadings in this final sample were within the desired range (.58 - .80). See Table 8 for factor loadings.

Cronbach's alpha was .96 (95% CI [.959, .961]), which was similar to the reliability estimates obtained in the previous samples.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Using a bivariate correlation, I tested the relationship between teachers' average scores on the RJE measure with the 5-item empathy scale and the 2-item employee resources scale (see Table 9). With this sample, RJE and empathy were moderately positively correlated, $r(28484) = .76$, $p < .001$. 95% CI [.75, .76], demonstrating that teachers average scores on the RJE scale were correlated as expected with empathy. I also tested whether teachers' responses on the RJE scale would be weakly correlated with or unrelated to items that measure employee resources at their schools. Unexpectedly, there was a moderate correlation between RJE and employee resources, $r(28484) = .44$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.44, .45].

Finally, I tested the difference in strengths among the correlation between RJE and empathy and the correlation between RJE and employee resources. To do this, I computed a confidence interval for the difference in correlations. Results revealed a difference in strengths between these two sets of correlations, $r_{diff}(28484) = .32$, 95% CI [.31, .33]. The RJE and empathy correlation was at least .31 larger than the RJE and employee resources correlation.

Group Differences on RJE Scale

After constructing the unidimensional RJE scale, I explored differences on the measure based on teachers' racial/ethnic backgrounds (i.e., Black, White, Asian, Latinx) and career teaching experience (i.e., early-career, mid-career, advanced

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career). Cronbach's alpha was consistent among the four racial/ethnic groups, 95% CI [.97 - .97]: Black participants (α=.97); White participants (α=.96); Asian participants (α=.96); and Latinx participants (α=.97). Similarly, Cronbach's alpha was similar among career experience, 95% CI [.96 - .96]: early-career (α=.96); mid-career (α=.96); and advanced-career (α=.98). These values illustrated the high precision of these reliability estimates across all racial/ethnic and career subgroups.

First, I performed a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to measure racial/ethnic group differences in RJE scale responses. Results showed a statistically significant but small effect, $F(3,25562) = 13.20$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .002$, 95% CI [.001, .003]. I further probed group differences using independent samples t-tests to compare four distinct racial categories: Black, Latinx, White, and Asian. On average, Black teachers reported higher scores on the RJE measure ($M = 1.81$, $SD = .51$) compared to both White ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .48$), $t(18007) = 3.75$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.04, .11] and Asian ($M = 1.75$, $SD = .45$), $t(2278) = 3.11$, $p = .002$, 95% CI [.03, .11] teachers. Latinx teachers reported higher scores on the RJE measure ($M = 1.78$, $SD = .50$) compared to both White ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .48$), $t(23284) = -5.36$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.05, -.03] and Asian ($M = 1.75$, $SD = .48$), $t(7555) = -2.54$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.06, -.01] teachers. However, there were no differences between Black and Latinx teachers, $t(6495) = 1.63$, $p = .102$, 95% CI [-.01, .08]. Similarly, there were no differences between White and Asian teachers, $t(19067) = -.39$, $p = .713$, 95% CI [-.03, .02]. Confidence intervals indicated that the mean difference among the four racial/ethnic groups was at most .11 on the 1 to 4 scale.

Next, I performed a one-way ANOVA to measure the effects of career teaching experience on teachers' responses. Results showed a statistically significant but small effect, $F(2,28483) = 6.80$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .001$, 95% CI [.000, .001]. I then explored group differences on the RJE scale by teaching experience, using independent samples t-tests. Mid-career teachers reported higher scores on the RJE measure ($M = 1.79$, $SD = .48$) compared to both early-career ($M = 1.76$, $SD = .49$), $t(10914) = -3.44$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.05, -.01] and advanced-career ($M =1.76$, $SD = .49$), $t(21874) = 3.39$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.01, .05] teachers. There were no differences between early- and advanced-career teachers, $t(24616) = -.646$, $p = .52$, 95% CI [-.02, .01]. Confidence intervals indicated that the mean difference among the three career stages was at most .05 on the 1 to 4 scale, suggesting that the scale was appropriate for all three stages of career experience.

Assessing the Fit of the RJE Scale with Other School Staff

Although the RJE scale was designed for teachers, I evaluated the generalizability of the scale to assess its use with other populations, namely paraprofessionals. Paraprofessionals included school staff with classroom contact, though their responsibilities do not include teaching direct teaching. Nonetheless, paraprofessionals spend a lot of time with students and can have a significant impact on students' educational experiences.

To assess the RJE scale with this population, I conducted an EFA with a random sample of 500 paraprofessionals to assess the single factor model. Consistent with the previous EFAs and CFA, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sampling adequacy

and Bartlett test of sphericity confirmed that the data were suitable for factor analysis. In this EFA iteration, all factor loadings with this final sample were within the desired range (.58 - .82; see Table 10 for factor loadings). Cronbach's alpha was consistent at .97, thus indicating the RJE scale was in fact generalizable to this population.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to develop a scale that measures teachers' attitudes and perceptions of school-implemented RJE. I expected to see that selected survey items would align with the tenets of RJE: creating equitable learning environments, nurturing healthy relationships between teachers and students, and addressing conflict and repairing harm within the institution (Evans & Vaandering, 2016). Instead, the findings from this study resulted in a unidimensional RJE scale consisting of 27 items.

Though the analyses did not support a three-factor solution, the final scale consisted of multiple items from each of the proposed factors thus indicating that the three tenets are still useful. First, the final scale included 12 items assessing teachers' views on healthy teacher-student relationships, highlighting how both the school encourages these practices and how well adults work to create and sustain positive relationships with students. Second, the scale also included 10 items assessing teachers' assessment of their schools' utilization of restorative discipline, with a specific focus on how well the school communicates with students about rules and consequences of misbehavior. Last, this scale included five items assessing how well the school culture encourages and celebrates the diversity of their students, such as

using culturally-relevant materials and respecting student diversity. By including items that cover the three tenets, this scale specifically measures how well schools incorporate restorative practices that align well with theory and research.

This study also produced initial evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the newly-developed scale. As expected, the RJE scale correlated to empathy-related items in the CSSS survey. This relationship was consistent with literature documenting a similar association between RJE and empathy (Goyer et al., 2019; Okonofua, Paunesku et al., 2016). Empathy, as observed in teachers' mindsets and interactions with students, has been shown to positively affect teacher-student relationships and students' sense of belonging, and to reduce experiences with harsh discipline (Hagenauer et al., 2015; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). When teachers are empathic, they are more likely to recognize the harms their students have faced and adjust their approaches to better support students. Still, the moderate correlation reveals important differences between RJE and empathy. Plainly, although empathy is an important part of the teacher-student relationship, there are other dynamics that RJE promotes that extend beyond how teachers experience their students' feelings. Extending beyond empathy is critical for facilitating other practical outcomes of RJE for students, such as promoting cultural equity, improving cultural representations, and implementing changes to disproportionate discipline policies. Empathy alone is not sufficient for reversing the institutional consequences of racial stereotypes and biases that adversely impact the experiences of racially-minoritized students.

While the scale correlated as expected with empathy, the scale had a stronger association with employee resources than anticipated. In my initial hypotheses, I thought items assessing teachers' assessment of employment benefits would be unrelated to their responses on the RJE scale. One could argue that teachers' perceptions of whether they receive appropriate resources to sustain employment would also be linked to their perceptions of how schools support students more generally. Perhaps both scales are capturing general perceptions of support for both teachers and students, thus demonstrating a strong link between these facets.

Another explanation for the correlation involves the use of response sets, the tendency to respond to all survey items in either positive, negative, or neutral patterns regardless of what question is being asked (Morling, 2020). Research has shown that with SDA and with larger questionnaires, survey responses can be affected by an acquiescence response set, the underlying motivation to respond positively to survey items (Weitjers et al., 2010). Teachers might have answered the various facets of the survey instrument using a response set, creating a higher than expected correlation across various subscales. Future work should tease this out better. Despite the correlation being higher than expected, the strength of this relationship was still significantly less strong than the relationship between RJE and empathy, suggesting some distinction between RJE and employee resources.

Part of my goal in this research was to also examine group differences to see how teachers' race/ethnicity impacted their views of their schools RJE climate. This study found significant, yet small racial/ethnic differences in teacher responses. On

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average, White and Asian teachers reported lower scores on the RJE measure than Black and Latinx teachers. This suggests that White and Asian teachers were more likely to agree that their schools promote and encourage restorative practices on their campuses. Conversely, Black and Latinx teachers held a less favorable view of their schools' implementation of the RJE tenets.

These findings support previous qualitative research about the effects of race on teachers' opinions of their schools' implementation of restorative practices (Charkoudian & Wayne, 2010; Lustick, 2017). In qualitative interviews with Black K-12 teachers and counselors, school staff voiced their experiences with "double consciousness" in how their schools promoted RJE while also utilizing discipline policies that were rooted in maintaining order and control (Lustick, 2017, p. 121). This level of perception might caution teachers of color from fully implementing RJE approaches despite their proposed benefits.

Given their direct experiences with racism, racially-minoritized teachers might experience increase distrust of school administration and how schools implement restorative practices. Using interviews and observational methods, researchers have identified that although Black teachers commended school administration for being more inclusive of different perspectives, they also critiqued how the schools' implementation of restorative practices failed to consider racial prejudice in these approaches (Lustick, 2017). Further, racially-minoritized teachers are more likely to feel alienated from fellow teachers and school administration who refrain from discussing race and schooling, which is linked to feelings of

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marginalization (Quiocho & Rios, 2000). This disconnect undoubtedly affects

minority teachers perceptions of the school climate, implementation, and support of

RJE. Future studies can assess the effect of teachers' racial/ethnic identity on their

resistance to RJE and provide suggestions for how schools implementation of RJE

can be improved.

In response to institutional racism and prejudice, teachers of color are

incorporating methods that specifically challenge the biased educational standards

that adversely impact students of color. Research suggests that Black and Latinx

teachers demonstrate more multicultural awareness than White teachers, stemming

from their own cultural experiences and identities (Cherng & Halpin, 2016; Kohli,

2009; Lustick, 2017; Quiocho & Rios, 2000). As such, teachers of color attempt to

mitigate students experiences with racism at school and incorporate teaching methods

that celebrate cultural diversity – one of the tenets of RJE. For example, Black

teachers, drawing from their own histories and experiences with institutional racism,

adapt their own pedagogy to help Black students process the everchanging racial

climate within schools and the larger community (Duncan, 2020). Black teachers

push back against state education mandates and instead use "emancipatory teaching

methods" to foster classroom spaces that develop more critically-conscious students

(Duncan, 2020, p. 177). Future studies can explore the more nuanced and

individualized approaches that Black and Latinx teachers use in their pedagogy.

Further, this work can assess the level of institutional support given to teachers of

color, and explicitly measure how well the school administration supports teachers and students in the process.

As with teachers' race/ethnicity, there were notable differences within career experience. Mid-career teachers held less favorable perceptions of their schools' utilization of restorative practices than early-career and advanced career teachers. Presently, literature has not made the link between career experience and RJE attitudes or school implementation. However, research has shown that teachers with more career experience tend to have less favorable perspectives of school administration and professional commitment (Singh & Billingsley, 1998), thus suggesting a link between teaching experience, perception, and professional effort. Consequently, later-career teachers might have more experience with school leadership and policies, thus leading to more cautious resistance of schools RJE implementation. Future work should assess why advanced-career teachers are more critical of how their school implements RJE, and if their resistance negatively impacts how they use restorative approaches.

Implications and Other Areas for Future Research

While other studies measured the effectiveness of RJE implementation on their campuses using qualitative methods (Kehoe et al., 2018; Reimer, 2019), no current scales explicitly measure teachers' assessment of how their schools support RJE based on the three theoretical tenets. The current scale is unique in that it speaks to both teachers' internal beliefs about RJE as well as measures how the school integrates RJE policies.

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Developing a robust and accessible measurement tool for assessing RJE has important implications for school practice. Critiques of RJE implementation argue that restorative practices and approaches are more likely to be "compromised and co-opted by the dominant cultural ethos" of the specific institution they are trying to change (Schiff, 2013, p. 163). For example, schools might attempt to increase cultural representations within instructional materials to align with one of the RJE tenets. However, if administration does not reflect the diversity of the students or teachers, these increased cultural representations remain shallow and likely would undermine a sense of belonging (Covarrubias et al., 2018; Pippert et al., 2013).

In using the measure to assess teachers' perceptions, I found that racially-minoritized teachers had less favorable perceptions of their schools' integration of RJE (Lustick, 2017). These racial differences matter; the RJE survey becomes a critical accountability tool for assessing, at scale, how RJE is being implemented in schools. It can provoke conversations about how to more effectively implement RJE in schools and how to ensure that school policies and practices consider the unique needs of all students, and especially Black students. This scale directly speaks to the school climate and policies needed to effectively integrate RJE by including the voices of multiple community stakeholders to improve academic experience for students, teachers, and school administration.

But there are limitations in this assessment. In using SDA, the scale was limited to items that were previously measured in the CSSS. As such, this study had to work around what the dataset provided and, in turn, was limited in how I grounded

the work in theory or other research. For example, because there are no current scales that measure teachers' perceptions of restorative practices, this study chose items within the CSSS that were loosely related to the three RJE tenets. Therefore, I was limited to certain information. Moving forward, research studies can conduct new surveys that build on this existing scale and introduce other items that more closely align with the RJE tenets.

The CSSS dataset also did not collect gender demographic information so there was no way to analyze the effects of gender on teachers' responses. Some research has explored the relationship between gender and restorative justice modalities. For example, one study argued that more women, in particular, need to be included in restorative mediation to increase equity in such processes (O'Reilly & Súilleabháin, 2013). Researchers argued that involving women in the mediation process leads to sustained long- and short-term institutional improvements within conflict resolution and peacekeeping efforts. Additional research should examine the role, if any, gender plays in restorative attitudes and in teacher perceptions of school RJE implementation.

Another area we were unable to study involves student perspectives of RJE, especially the experiences of Black students. Research indicates there are discrepancies between teacher and student perceptions of school culture (Mitchell et al., 2010). Without student perspectives, we cannot accurately assess how students feel about their schools' implementation of RJE or compare student and teacher

experiences of RJE within the school climate. Future scholarship can develop a student RJE scale that measures students RJE attitudes and assessment of the school culture to see if there is a link between teacher and student attitudes and perceptions.

Relatedly, future scholarship is needed to specifically measure Black students' perceptions of RJE within their school climate. Studies should assess to what degree Black students agree with the current implementation of the RJE tenets in their schools, or assess how the current practices might facilitate or harm their academic success. If the findings from this study with Black teachers are replicated with Black students, this might suggest that more work is needed to improve RJE implementation. Future research can also measure which tenets are more meaningful for Black youth, which could provide guidance for school administration to better improve the academic, cultural, and social needs of Black students. For example, researchers can examine the correlation between Black students' perceptions of RJE, school belonging, and awareness of cultural stereotypes at school. Such research would assess how Black students perceive their school's cultural climate and the extent to which their experiences with restorative tenets at school either cultivate or challenge racial bias on campus.

Finally, with a large and diverse sample, I was able to use real-world data to demonstrate how teachers assess RJE tenets within various school settings across the state of California. The state of California is well known, and often critiqued, for its more liberal politics and diverse educational approaches (Kornfield, 2021; Ohanian, 2021). For example, school districts in California are starting to integrate course

material that highlights the struggles and contributions of minoritized groups, like Black and Latinx Americans, to educate K-12 students on the experiences of racial/ethnic groups that have historically been ignored (Kornfield, 2021). One could argue that teachers in California are encouraged to identify RJE tenets within the school climate, and critique school interventions that do not adequately address diversity and culture.

However, teachers in other states whose laws are stricter might not feel as comfortable critiquing or challenging school policies or interventions. For example, there is significant discourse currently about limiting diverse cultural frameworks like critical race theory (CRT) in educational settings across the U.S. (Dutton, 2021; Greene, 2022). CRT is a theoretical model that critiques systems and institutions of power from a race-based lens (Solórzano et al., 2000). CRT allows researchers to examine and challenge the cultural and structural norms in education (Allen et al., 2013; Solórzano et al., 2000). Teachers from states that are considering banning or have already banned CRT might be unable to implement explicit pedagogy that directly relates to the cultural needs of Black students or might create a climate that makes teachers fearful of reporting RJE implementation. In using the scale in various sociocultural environments, researchers must be mindful of how dominant political ideologies affect the school culture and subsequently the implications from the RJE scale in these settings.

Concluding Remarks

In this study, I developed and started to test the reliability and validity of a RJE scale, using items grounded in real-world school data. With this quantitative measure, I demonstrated how teachers' attitudes and perceptions are integral to measuring the effectiveness of school implemented RJE tenets. In using real-world school district data, I was able to ground my assessment of RJE practices in the daily experiences of school staff – both teachers and paraprofessionals – who are keenly aware of the impact of school policies on student success.

The scale also demonstrated the importance of diversity in teaching employment. While research that suggests RJE is linked to more positive student experiences (Anyon, et al., 2016; Blitz, et al., 2016; Kehoe et al., 2018; Sandwick et al., 2019), this study demonstrated that teachers of color need to be included in the creation, assessment, and implementation of these RJE practices. Because of the unique roles that racially-minoritized teachers play in students' academic experiences (Cherng & Halpin, 2016; Gershenson et al., 2021), their perspectives need to be included to ensure that schools are not isolating and further discriminating against racially-minoritized youth. The scale developed in this study offers a beginning practical resource that has the potential to hold schools and teachers accountable when implementing restorative approaches.

RJE necessitates that teachers and students work together to seek out and co-create knowledge that challenges cultural stereotypes and racial biases that marginalize racially-minoritized youth. Black students face particularly unique challenges as they contend with the effects of the racial biases and stereotypes in

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academic settings. These effects are especially troublesome for Black youth who are developing their sense of value, identity, and self-worth. Their exposure to harmful, and often incorrect, representations of Blackness continue to pathologize them well into their adult years, as evidenced by the school-to-prison pipeline. RJE attempts to subvert that pipeline with a focus on community restoration between all educational stakeholders, as well as the ways in which restorative justice addresses harm and justice from a collaborative and educational perspective. With this RJE scale, we can start to challenge stereotyped norms embedded in cultural learning environments and improve the ways that Black students, and other racially-minoritized students more broadly, experience academic settings.

Table 1

Proposed RJE Scale Items from the CSSS

Tenet	Item	Scale item
1. *Respect cultural diversity and highlight marginalized student voices*	Q11	This school emphasizes teaching lessons in ways that are relevant to students.
	Q21	This school emphasizes using instructional materials that reflect the culture or ethnicity of its students.
	Q22	This school has staff examine their own cultural biases through professional development or other processes.
	Q23	This school considers closing the racial/ethnic achievement gap a high priority.
	Q26	This school emphasizes showing respect for all students' cultural beliefs and practices.
	Q58	There is a lot of tension in this school between people of different cultures, races, or ethnicities.
	Q59	Students in this school respect each other's differences (e.g., gender, race, culture, sexual orientation).
	Q60	Adults in this school respect differences in students (e.g., gender, race, culture, sexual orientation).
	Q61	Teachers show that they think it is important for students of different races and cultures at this school to get along with each other.
	Q95	How much of a problem AT THIS SCHOOL is racial/ethnic conflict among students?
2. *Reinforce healthy relationships with teachers and students rooted in mutual respect and acceptance*	Q16	This school encourages opportunities for students to decide things like class activities or rules.
	Q17	This school gives all students equal opportunity to participate in classroom discussions or activities.
	Q19	This school gives students opportunities to "make a difference" by helping other

		people, the school, or the community (e.g., service learning).
	Q33	Adults in this school really care about every student.
	Q34	Adults in this school acknowledge and pay attention to students.
	Q36	Adults in this school listen to what students have to say.
	Q37	Adults in this school believe that every student can be a success.
	Q38	Adults in this school treat all students fairly.
	Q40	Adults in this school support and treat each other with respect.
	Q71	This school encourages students to understand how others think and feel.
	Q74	This school encourages students to care about how others feel.
	Q75	Teachers go out of their way to help students.
	Q76	Adults at this school treat all students with respect.
	Q97	How much of a problem AT THIS SCHOOL is a lack of respect of staff by students?
3. *Use restorative discipline to challenge disproportionate discipline.*	Q27	This school clearly communicates to students the consequences of breaking school rules.
	Q28	This school handles discipline problems fairly.
	Q69	This school encourages students to feel responsible for how they act.
	Q70	Students are often given rewards for being good.
	Q72	Students are taught that they can control their own behavior.
	Q73	This school helps students resolve conflicts with one another
	Q77	The school rules are fair.
	Q78	Students in this school are well behaved.
	Q79	The rules in this school are too strict.
	Q80	It is easy for students to get kicked out of class or suspended.

Q81	Students get in trouble for breaking small rules.
Q82	Teachers are very strict here.
Q83	Rules in this school are made clear to students.
Q84	This school clearly informs students what will happen if they break school rules.
Q85	Students know what the rules are.
Q86	The school makes it clear how students are expected to act.
Q94	How much of a problem at this school is disruptive student behavior?
Q115	This school collaborates well with law enforcement organizations.
Q118	This school considers sanctions for student violations of rules and policies
Q120	This school enforces zero tolerance policies.
Q127	This school uses restorative practices to help resolve conflicts.

Table 2

Initial EFA Variance Explained

Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	19.39	43.09	43.09
2	2.88	6.41	49.50
3	2.32	5.16	54.66
4	2.15	4.77	59.43
5	1.72	3.82	63.25
6	1.55	3.45	66.70
7	1.28	2.85	69.55
8	1.23	2.73	72.27
9	1.11	2.46	74.73

Table 3

Factor Correlation Matrix for Initial Three-Factor Model

Factor	1	2	3
1	1.00	.03	.01
2	.03	1.00	-.06
3	.01	-.06	1.00

Table 4

Single-Factor Model Factor Loadings (Sample 2)

Item	Component
Q11	.72
Q16	.68
Q17	.75
Q19	.71
Q21	.68
Q26	.77
Q27	.77
Q28	.71
Q33	.79
Q34	.83
Q36	.81
Q37	.81
Q38	.81
Q40	.69
Q59	.51
Q60	.73
Q61	.79
Q69	.83
Q70	.56
Q71	.70
Q72	.67
Q73	.73
Q74	.75
Q75	.66
Q76	.74
Q77	.73
Q78	.53
Q83	.77
Q84	.70
Q85	.70
Q86	.79

Table 5

Inter-item Correlations for RJE Scale Items and 5-item Empathy Scale

Item	Empathy
Q11	.57
Q16	.53
Q17	.61
Q19	.40
Q21	.55
Q26	.62
Q27	.55
Q28	.51
Q33	.61
Q34	.64
Q36	.60
Q37	.64
Q38	.63
Q40	.59
Q60	.61
Q61	.63
Q69	.59
Q71	.63
Q72	.61
Q73	.58
Q74	.59
Q75	.61
Q76	.66
Q77	.59
Q83	.53
Q84	.51
Q85	.50
Q86	.57

Table 6

Inter-item Correlations for RJE Scale Items and 2-item Employee Resources Scale

Item	Employee Resources
Q11	.46
Q16	.39
Q17	.43
Q19	.38
Q21	.46
Q26	.35
Q27	.41
Q28	.44
Q33	.45
Q34	.42
Q36	.41
Q37	.42
Q38	.42
Q40	.50
Q60	.33
Q61	.34
Q69	.41
Q71	.39
Q72	.43
Q73	.40
Q74	.40
Q75	.34
Q76	.39
Q77	.40
Q83	.38
Q84	.37
Q85	.38
Q86	.45

Table 7

Single Factor Model Factor Loadings (Sample 3)

Item	Component
Q11	.65
Q16	.61
Q17	.71
Q19	.60
Q21	.62
Q26	.75
Q27	.74
Q28	.74
Q33	.79
Q34	.80
Q36	.80
Q37	.77
Q38	.81
Q60	.63
Q61	.70
Q69	.76
Q71	.82
Q72	.80
Q73	.80
Q74	.82
Q75	.63
Q76	.74
Q77	.75
Q83	.69
Q84	.68
Q85	.65
Q86	.73

Table 8

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Single Factor Model Loadings

Item	Component
Q11	.69
Q16	.61
Q17	.71
Q19	.58
Q21	.60
Q26	.75
Q27	.73
Q28	.72
Q33	.72
Q34	.78
Q36	.78
Q37	.76
Q38	.79
Q60	.68
Q61	.72
Q69	.74
Q71	.77
Q72	.77
Q73	.76
Q74	.80
Q75	.67
Q76	.75
Q77	.77
Q83	.70
Q84	.69
Q85	.70
Q86	.74

Table 9

Correlation Matrix for Scale Validity

|	RJE	Empathy	EmpResources
RJE	1.00	.76**	.44**
Empathy	.76**	1.00	.57**
EmpResources	.44**	.57**	1.00

[**] Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 10

EFA Single-Factor Model Loadings (Paraprofessionals)

Item	Component
Q11	.741
Q16	.575
Q17	.707
Q19	.607
Q21	.632
Q26	.776
Q27	.726
Q28	.723
Q33	.663
Q34	.771
Q36	.818
Q37	.805
Q38	.724
Q60	.733
Q61	.750
Q69	.756
Q71	.760
Q72	.810
Q73	.818
Q74	.808
Q75	.714
Q76	.717
Q77	.795
Q83	.633
Q84	.702
Q85	.693
Q86	.735

Figure 1

Screeplot for Initial EFA Three-Factor Model (Sample 1)
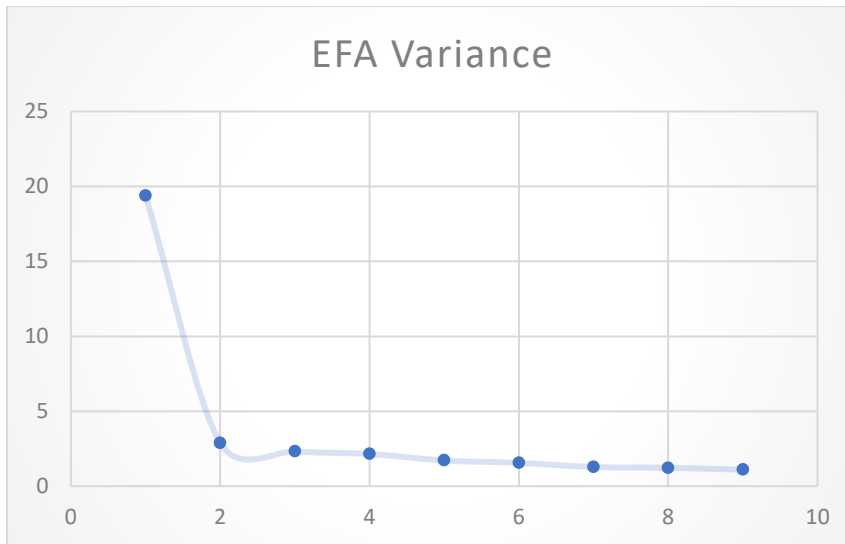
Note: This figure demonstrates that the amount of variance within the three-factor

model was insufficient, thus supporting a single-factor solution.

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