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Teachers' Reaction to Gangs and School Violence and the Mediating Effects of Security Measures on Intentions to Leave Teaching

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Teachers' Reaction to Gangs and School Violence and the Mediating Effects Of

Security Measures on Intention to Leave Teaching

Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

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By

Suzanne King

Lynn University

2009

Teachers' Reaction to Gangs and School Violence and the Mediating Effects of Security

Measures on Intention to Leave Teaching

King, Suzanne, Ph. D.

Lynn University, 2009

APPROVAL OF DISSERTATION

Teachers' Reaction to Gangs and School Violence and the Mediating Effects of Security

Measures on Intentions to Leave Teaching

By Suzanne King

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ABSTRACT

The increase in youth gangs since the late 1980s and the related violence that has erupted in the schools has fueled the public's fear of these gangs. With the strong and proven correlation between the presence of gangs and guns and drugs in schools, this fear seems justified. The increase in violence on school campuses has created an environment of fear, which in turn has added to teacher stress, burnout, and attrition. In response, schools have teamed with law enforcement personnel to build and maintain safe schools and to provide for a safe teaching environment.

The purpose of this study was to examine K-12 teacher characteristics, school characteristics, and teachers' reactions to violence while also examining the possible mediating effects school security measures have on individual teacher intention to leave the teaching profession. A quantitative, non-experimental, exploratory, and explanatory online survey research design was used to examine the relationships among the variables for public elementary, middle, and high school teachers.

Three research questions were answered and three hypotheses were tested. Four of the 100 largest school districts in the United States agreed to participate in the study. A total of 332 responses was obtained with 297 (89.5%) of them being complete.

The majority of the respondents felt low levels of intrusion, low to moderate levels of avoidance tendencies, moderate levels of relief, and high levels of safety and trust. These findings may be due to the high level of security measures on respondents' campuses. Also, respondents with gang experience had a higher intention to leave and higher feelings of intrusion, avoidance, and relief as well as lower feelings of safety and trust than those with no gang experience. Finally, respondents with four to nine years of

teaching experience, those who reported a gang presence on their campus, and those in suburban middle schools reported the greatest intention to leave teaching when compared to their counterparts.

The findings in the study indicated that when teachers have greater feelings of safety and trust, they may be less likely to leave the teaching profession and when teachers trust their students and feel safe in their presence, they are less likely to experience avoidance tendencies. In addition, security on a school's campus may lower teacher intention to leave as the security measures on a campus mediate the relationship between teachers' feelings of safety and their intention to leave.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction and Background to the Problem

Gangs have spread throughout society (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005). What was once only a problem in large cities, has now become a global issue as gangs migrate across communities and countries and bring with them fear and violence. "Gangs threaten our schools, our children, and our homes. Gangs today are more sophisticated and flagrant in their use of violence and intimidation tactics" (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005, Executive Summary section, para. 1).

The increase in youth gangs since the late 1980s has fueled the public's fear of these gangs and their related violence spilling over into the schools. With the strong correlation between the presence of gangs and guns and drugs in schools, this fear seems justified. Most of the gangs students see at school are actively involved in numerous criminal activities including violent acts, drug sales, and carrying guns (U.S. Department of Justice, 1998).

Gangs and the resulting gang violence are not limited to a particular region or nation. Instead, gang violence has become a international issue that has also spilled over into our schools. In some schools drug use, drug sales, and weapons are commonplace as gangs rule the hallways and intimidate teachers, administrators, and other students (Bosch, 1997). The resulting increase in gang violence and gang activity on school campuses creates an environment of fear, which in turn is a factor in teacher stress, burnout, and attrition. In response, teachers and administrators have teamed up with law enforcement

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personnel to build and maintain safe schools in an attempt to improve campus safety and prevent violence, in turn providing for a safe learning and teaching environment.

Gang activity seemed to reach its peak and began to decline in mid-1990. However, reports show that during the 2003 -2004 school year, this trend reversed and there is once again an increase in gang activity (National School Safety and Security Services, 2007). Gang activity is a process which goes up, peaks, and then falls again. The problem, however, is that each time there is an increase, the level of violence also increases. Schools, criminal justice agencies, parents, businesses, and youth must work together to recognize and report gang activity before it becomes a problem.

Quantitative, non-experimental studies as well as data collection show the number of youth gangs and gang membership is on the rise, gangs are uniting to strengthen their criminal activities and recruit new members from elementary, middle, and high schools, and gangs remain a constant threat (Schwartz, 1996; US Department of Justice, 2004; National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2001). In addition, reports show that 94% of all medium and large cities in America have active youth gangs (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005) with members as young as 12 but averaging 17 or 18 years of age (National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2003; Howell, 1998). These gang youth are more likely to commit serious violent crimes than nongang youth and are more dangerous due to the availability of lethal weapons (National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2003; US Department of Justice, 2005). Furthermore, while gangs were once primarily male, more and more females are being recruited into gangs (Grant & Van Acker, 2002; Deschenes & Esbensen, 1999; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; US Department of Justice, 2000). .

Schools, which once had no gang activity (Parks, 1995; Goldstein & Kodluboy, 1998), are now seeing an increase in gang behaviors. These behaviors include graffiti (Arthur & Erickson, 1992; Griffin & Meacham; Valentine, 1995), weapon carrying, and drug sales and use (Arthur & Erickson, 1992; Page & Hammermeister, 1997; Gottfredson, et al., 2001; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Malecki & Demaray, 2003; Gaughan, et al., 2001; Lizotte et al., 2000; Decker, 2000).

Weapons are readily accessible to students (Page & Hammermeister, 1997; Gaughan, et al., 2001) and gang members are more likely than nongang members to carry a concealed weapon other than a pocket knife (Gottfredson, 2001; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005) as gangs have become more violent than those of the past (Parks, 1995; National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2003). In addition, gangs are the primary distributors of drugs in the United States (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2005; Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, Firearms and Explosives, 2005) primarily involved with the use and distribution of cocaine, crack cocaine, heroin, marijuana, and methamphetamine (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Hunt et al, 2002). The US Department of Education found that when gangs are on a campus there is a strong likelihood that both guns and drugs are also on that campus (The National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2001).

Gang membership and gang activity on school campuses are increasing (Howell & Lynch, 2000; Jackson & McBride, 1991) and as such have a negative impact on the school community. Parents, students, and educators are working to determine what can be done about gangs in schools so that students and teachers can feel safe. To this end, there are over 800,000 programs and activities in schools aimed at reducing or preventing gang

participation (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001). One such program involves law enforcement personnel on school campuses. These officers play a role in keeping gangs out of the schools (McDaniel, 2001). However, few studies exist that attempt to determine the effectiveness of the school resource officer program (May et al., 2004).

School violence is a national problem which has resulted in it becoming a national educational priority (Astor, Behre, Fravil, & Wallace, 1997). The violence in American society is working its way into our schools (Bennett-Johnson, 2004) and threatens the sense of security of both teachers and students (Kondrasuk et al., 2005) which in turn has focused the attention of researchers and policymakers on crime in schools (Verdalis & Kakar, 2000). Reports indicate that threats, bullying, and fights committed in schools by students on students have increased (Goldstein & Kodluboy, 1998), yet little research has been done focusing on violent acts committed by students upon teachers (Kondrasuk et al., 2005). However, teachers face a multitude of threats daily including physical harm, sexual assault, robbery and property damage (Rappaport, 2005; Kondrasuk et al., 2005; US Department of Education, NCES, 2005).

"School violence and disruption is a major concern of parents, students, educators, political leaders and others in the community" (Mayer & Leone, 1999, para. 2). As violence in the United States continues to escalate, the spillover into our schools becomes inevitable. In turn, this spillover affects students, teachers, and administrators in varying degrees. The added stress of violence on school campuses may increase the likelihood of teacher attrition and teacher shortages which are a major problem facing many school districts (Smith & Smith, 2006) as teacher attrition and turnover have negative effects on student achievement.

The epidemic of school violence has changed the ways in which schools are built as well as the laws pertaining to student rights and the ways in which administrators attempt to deal with the problem before it becomes deadly. "With regard to school violence, the organization of the school environment plays a critical role as either a facilitator or inhibitor of violence and disruption" (Mayer & Leone, 1999, Theoretical links section, para. 2). To this end, schools are employing a variety of measures to ensure the safety of students and staff.

School Resource Officers are but one security measure used in schools to help promote a safe campus. Other law enforcement methods include requiring visitors to sign in, security cameras, controlled access to school grounds and school buildings, and metal detectors. While some of these are intended to limit access to school campuses, other measures are designed to monitor people's behavior once they are on a school's campus (US Department of Education, 2004). However, Security measures such as cameras, metal detectors, controlled access to campuses, dress codes, locker searches, and the use of police officers have not been rigorously evaluated (Greene, 2005; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

The research consistently shows that teacher retention is an ongoing problem (Shen, 2001; Guarino et al., 2006; Ingersoll, 2001; Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005; Plash & Piotrowski, 2006). Teachers in public schools (Ingersoll, 2001; Guarino et al., 2006) with high-poverty (Ingersoll, 2001; Guarino, et al., 2006; Loeb et al., 2005), and low-achieving, minority students (Loeb et al., 2005; Guarino et al., 2006) are more likely to leave the teaching profession than their counterparts in other schools. While districts are

looking for ways to recruit new, highly qualified teachers, they must also look at ways to retain the existing teachers.

The literature consistently recognizes that job dissatisfaction including lack of support from administration, student discipline problems, and low salaries are causes of teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2001; Yell & Rozalski, 2000; Loeb et al.,2005) with student discipline rated among the top three reasons teachers leave the profession (Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Conversely, schools with lower levels of student discipline problems experience lower turnover rates (Ingersoll, 2001). Forty-two percent of all teachers leaving the profession report job dissatisfaction (e.g. low administrative support, low salaries, student discipline problems) or the pursuit of a better job as the cause of their leaving (Ingersoll, 2001).

There were no studies found which examine the relationship among teacher characteristics, school characteristics, teachers' reaction to school violence, and intention to leave the teaching profession. Furthermore, no studies were found which examine the mediating effect of security measures on teachers' reaction to school violence and their intention to leave the teaching profession.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine K-12 teacher characteristics, school characteristics, and teachers' reactions to violence while also examining the possible mediating effects school security measures have on teacher intention to leave the teaching profession. Specifically, the purposes of this study are as follows:

1 To describe K-12 teacher characteristics, school characteristics, teachers' reaction to school violence, which affect intention to leave the teaching profession.

2   To explore the differences in reactions to school violence and intention to leave the

     teaching profession according to teacher characteristics.

3   To explore the differences in reactions to school violence and intention to leave the

     teaching profession according to school characteristics.

4   To explain the relationship between teachers' reactions to school violence and their

     intention to leave the teaching profession.

5   To explain the relationship among teacher characteristics, school characteristics,

     reactions to school violence, and the intention to leave the teaching profession.

6   To explain if school security measures mediate the relationship between teacher

     reactions to school violence and intention to leave the teaching profession.

Research Questions

1.   What are K-12 teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang

     experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures),

     and teacher reaction to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance,

     trust, environmental safety, and relief) which affect intention to leave the teaching

     profession?

2.   Are there differences in teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety

     with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief), and intention to

     leave the teaching profession according to teacher characteristics (demographic,

     work profile, and gang experience)?

3.   Are there differences in teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety

     with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief), and intention to

leave the teaching profession according to school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures)?

Hypotheses

1. Teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) are significant explanatory variables of intention to leave the teaching profession.

2. Teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures), and reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) are significant explanatory variables of intention to leave the teaching profession.

3. School security measures mediate the relationship between teacher reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession.

Definition of Terms

Teacher Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics

Theoretical definition. The collection of demographic data provides information about the group of people being surveyed (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2007). The demographic categories are gender, age, race, and ethnicity.

Operational definition. Demographic characteristics (attribute variables) will be measured using five fill in the blank and multiple choice items in *Part 1: Teacher Characteristics* of the survey. The five items are as follows: 1) age in years (fill in the

blank); 2) gender (dichotomous); 3) race (multiple choice); 4) ethnicity (dichotomous); and

5) marital status (fill in the blank) (See Appendix A, Part 1: Teacher Characteristics).

Work Profile

   Theoretical definition. *Work profile* is defined by Miller, Brownwell, and Smith

(1999) in terms of historical (preparation, certification, gender, race, and age), microsystem

(caseload, diversity of load, student relations, efficacy, and years teaching experience),

mesosystem (workload manageability, support of administrators, frequency of recognition,

autonomy, role conflict, satisfaction, intercollegiality, support of community, and school

climate), exosystem (salary), and affective response (stress, commitment, and satisfaction).

   Operational definition. In this study, *Work Profile* consists of two items

developed by the researcher. The first item asks for number of years teaching experience

(fill in the blank) and the second question asks for the number of years in current school

(fill in the blank) (See Appendix A, Part 1: Teacher Characteristics).

Gang Experience

   Theoretical definition. *Gang experience* is defined as direct or indirect gang

victimization (Katz, Webb, & Armstrong, 2003).

   Operational definition. In this study, *gang experience* consists of 2 items

developed by the researcher. The first item measures the respondents experience with

gang crime (direct or indirect) (fill in the blank) while the second item measures contact

with gangs (4 point rating scale). These two questions make up the final questions in *Part*

1: Teacher Characteristics of the survey (See Appendix A, Part 1: Teacher

Characteristics).

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Reactions to School Violence

Intrusion

  Theoretical definition. Intrusion is defined as "entrance by force or without permission or welcome" by Merriam-Webster online dictionary.

  Operational definition. *Intrusion* will be measured in Part 2: *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* (TRSV) by Ting, Sanders, and Smith (2002) based on a 5-point frequency rating scale ranging from not at all to very important. Questions 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 30, 32, and 33 (16 total questions) will measure teachers' perceptions of intrusion (See Appendix A, Part 2).

Safety with Students

  Theoretical definition. Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary defines safety as the condition of being safe from hurt, injury or loss. Safety with students is defined as the condition of being safe from hurt, injury or loss by a student.

  Operational definition. *Safety with students* will be measured in Part 2: *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* (TRSV) based on a 5-point frequency rating scale ranging from not at all to very important. Questions 4, 9, 14, 18, and 34 (5 total questions) will measure teachers' perceptions of safety with students (See Appendix A, Part 2).

Avoidance

  Theoretical definition. Avoidance is defined as "an act or practice of avoiding or withdrawing from something" with avoiding being defined as "to keep away from" (Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary).

  Operational definition. *Avoidance* will be measured in Part 2: *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* (TRSV) based on a 5-point frequency rating scale ranging from not at

all to very important. Questions 8, 15, 24, and 28 (4 total questions) will measure teachers' perceptions of avoidance behaviors. (See Appendix A, Part 2).

Trust

Theoretical definition. Trust is defined as "assured reliance on the character, ability, strength, or truth of someone or something" (Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary).

Operational definition. *Trust* will be measured in Part 2: *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* (TRSV) based on a 5-point frequency rating scale ranging from not at all to very important. Questions 29, 31, and 35 (3 total questions) will measure teachers' perception of trust. (See Appendix A, Part 2).

Environmental Safety

Theoretical definition. Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary defines environment as the circumstances, objects or conditions by which one is surrounded and defines safety as the condition of being safe from hurt, injury or loss. Environmental Safety is defined as the condition of being safe from hurt, injury or loss from circumstances, objects or conditions by which one is surrounded.

Operational definition. *Environmental safety* will be measured in Part 2: *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* (TRSV) based on a 5-point frequency rating scale ranging from not at all to very important. Questions 2, 23, 26, and 27 (4 total questions) will measure teachers' perception of environmental safety. (See Appendix A, Part 2).

Relief

Theoretical definition. Relief is defined as "removal or lightening of something oppressive, painful, or distressing" (Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary).

Operational definition. *Feelings of relief* will be measured in Part 2: *Teachers'*
Reaction to School Violence (TRSV) based on a 5-point frequency rating scale ranging
from not at all to very important. Questions 12, 22, and 25 (3 total questions) will measure
teachers' feelings of relief. (See Appendix A, Part2).

School Characteristics

School Type

Theoretical definition. School level is defined as primary schools, middle schools,
high schools, or combined schools based on the school's lowest grade and the school's
highest grade. Primary schools were defined as school "in which the lowest grade was not
higher than grade 3 and the highest grade was not higher than grade 8" (US Department of
Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2006, C-3). Middle schools were
defined as "schools in which the lowest grade was not lower than grade 4 and the highest
grade was not higher than grade 9" (US Department of Education, National Center for
Education Statistics, 2006, C-3). High schools were defined as "schools in which the
lowest grade was not lower than grade 9 and the highest grade was not higher than grade
12" (US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2006, C-3).
Combined schools are defined as combinations of grades, including K-12 schools.

Next, enrollment size is defined as 1) less than 300 students; 2) 300-499 students;
3) 500-999 students; and 4) 1,000 or more students. Finally, the National Center for
Education Statistics (2006) divides urbanicity into four-levels: city, urban fringe, town,
and rural.

Operational definition. In this study, type of school will be measured in Part 3 of
the survey using multiple choice and fill in the blank questions. Type of school is

measured by level (elementary, middle, and high) (multiple choice), urban, suburban, rural (multiple choice), and total school enrollment (fill in the blank) items while gang presence is measured by one dichotomous (yes or no) item. School security measures are measured by 18 items using a dichotomous scale (yes or no) (See Appendix A, Part 3, School Characteristics).

Gang Presence

Theoretical definition. The National Center for Education Statistics (2006) identifies gangs as "an ongoing, loosely organized association of three or more persons, whether formal or informal, that has a common name, signs, symbols or colors, whose members engage, either individually or collectively, in violent or other forms of illegal behavior" (US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2006, D-5). *Gang presence* is defined as the perception of a gang on a school campus.

Operational definition. *Gang presence* is measured in Part 3 of the survey using one dichotomous (yes/no) question. (See Appendix A, Part 3, School Characteristics).

Security Measures

Theoretical definition. The National Center for Education Statistics (2006) defines security measures under the heading of Monitoring Access to Campus and includes requiring visitors to sign or check in, controlling access to the school building and school grounds during school hours, use of metal detectors, and closing the campus for lunch. School Resource Officers are defined as "career law enforcement officers with arrest authority, who are assigned to work in collaboration with school organizations" (US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2006, D-5).

Operational definition. In this study, *security measures* are measured through 18 yes or no questions (dichotomous). Question 1 relates to sign in procedures. Questions 2 and 3 relate to controlled access to campus. Questions 4 and 5 relate to metal detectors. Question 6 relates to security cameras. Questions 7 – 18 relate to the presence and responsibilities of law enforcement on the school's campus. (See Appendix A, Part 3).

Intention to Leave

Theoretical definition. Intention to leave is defined as a signal of quitting based on physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion resulting from a chronic state of cumulative pressure or stress at work (Weisberg, 1994).

Operational definition. In this study, *intention to leave* will be measured by 3 questions using a 5-point rating scale ranging from very little to very much. (See Appendix A, Part 4).

Justification

School violence in general is a national problem which has resulted in it becoming a national educational priority (Astor, Behre, Fravil, & Wallace, 1997). In the past several years there has been an increase in gang activity and gang violence on school campuses (National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2001). This violence has an effect on students, teachers, and other staff in the form of a reduced sense of safety and increased absenteeism as well as attrition (Smith & Smith, 2006). The problem of gangs in schools is one that demands attention as gangs play a significant role in the increase of violence in the schools. In addition, youths involved in gangs have a low regard for societal or school rules and a lower educational commitment and many do not expect to graduate (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

More and more, schools have become fertile grounds for victimization and the recruitment of adolescents into gang membership (Schwartz, 1996). The presence of a gang in a school can increase tensions and when a school is occupied by rival gangs, violence is sure to break out. Students in schools with a gang presence are twice as likely to report they fear becoming victims of violence as their peers at schools without gangs (Burnett & Walz, 2005). Teacher attrition may be another byproduct of gang violence on our nation's campuses as the threat of violence in urban schools is a factor which contributes to teachers' stress levels, which in turn cause them to leave the teaching profession (Smith & Smith, 2006). In addition, employee safety is a major concern to school administrators (Kondrasuk, Greene, Waggoner, Edwards, & Nayak-Rhodes, 2005).

Children cannot learn in a violent environment and many fall prey to the recruitment efforts of gang members which expose them to more violent victimization (Peterson, Taylor, & Esbensen, 2004). "A disruptive and violent school environment affects teachers as well" (Kakar, 1998, p. 59). Teacher attrition and teacher shortages are a major problem facing many school districts (Smith & Smith, 2006) which is compounded as teachers often will not remain in stressful environments. This in turn has a negative effect on student achievement.

Gangs and the resulting gang violence are not limited to a particular region or nation. Instead, gang violence has become a global issue that has spilled over into our schools. In some schools drug use, sales, and weapons are commonplace as gangs rule the hallways and intimidate teachers, administrators, and other students (Bosch, 1997). In fact, the number of gangs active in schools doubled from 1989 to 1995 (Howell & Lynch, 2000)

which has increased fear and disrupted the learning environment (Jackson & McBride, 1991).

Gangs and gang activity (i.e. violence, drug distribution, and weapon-involved crime) are on the rise and this increase is likely to continue (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Howell & Lynch, 2000; Jackson & McBride, 1991). This finding added to the facts presented by the National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center (2003) and the US Department of Justice (2000) combined with reports on victimization (Peterson, Taylor, & Esbensen, 2004), and gang violence (Joes, Roper, Stys, & Wilson, 2004) as well as that of the instances of gun, weapon, and drug use by gang members (Decker, 2000) show that the problem of gangs and gang violence is spreading. The resulting increase in gang violence and gang activity on school campuses creates an environment of fear which in turn increases teacher stress, burnout and attrition (Smith & Smith, 2006).

In response, teachers and administrators have teamed up with law enforcement personnel to build and maintain safe schools in order to improve campus safety and prevent violence which in turn provides for a safe learning and teaching environment. Schools are more likely to have developed policies regarding firearms and other weapons possession following highly publicized incidents of school crime (Snell, et. al, 2002). Policies against violence-related writing and gang-related paraphernalia are also common and have increased in recent years.

Across the nation, security measures such as law enforcement on campus, security cameras, metal detectors, student and locker searches, controlled access to school campuses and school buildings, and visitor sign-in procedures are becoming more widely used practices and procedures to help ensure the safety of the students and staff (US

Department of Education, NCES, 2004). While some of these are intended to limit access to school campuses, other measures are designed to monitor people's behavior once they are on a school's campus (US Department of Education, 2004). A large majority of schools have zero-tolerance policies in place for firearms, other weapons, drug possession, fights, and sexual assaults (Texas, et al., 2002). However, many of these measures have not been rigorously evaluated (Greene, 2005; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

It is important to understand the effect gangs have on the school climate and on teacher perceptions of fear and safety and thus teacher retention due to the national teacher shortage and the need to maintain an environment conducive to teaching and learning. However, there is little research which focuses on acts of violence perpetrated upon teachers by students (Kondrasuk, et al., 2005) or which links teacher attrition with school violence or, more specifically, to gang violence on school campuses. Also, there are no measurements which specifically measure teachers' perception of the influence of gangs on teacher safety and teacher attrition and the mediating effect security measures on a school campus have on those perceptions.

There is a need to determine how teachers react to school and gang violence and to determine if school security measures mediate their intention to leave the teaching profession due to the violence. This is significant in that millions of public school dollars are spent each year in an effort to increase campus safety through the use of security measures. In addition, there is a national teacher shortage. Therefore, a need exists to determine if the dollars spent on security measures actually have a positive effect on teacher retention.

This study is worthy of research as it asks researchable questions and has variables which can be measured. The national survey design uses descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory procedures to answer the research questions asked and to test hypotheses. The study is feasible as it can be implemented in a reasonable amount of time using subjects who are available and willing to participate in the study, and it researches concepts that can be measured. In addition, statistical analyses can be performed to describe the variables and evaluate the similarities and differences among them. Lastly, the study can be implemented at a minimal cost and efforts will be made to implement ethical procedures and safeguard the rights of the participants.

Delimitations and Scope

The study is limited to the following:

1 Public elementary, middle, or high school teachers employed by the 100 largest school districts identified by the National Center for Education Statistics (2000) and those public elementary, middle, or high school teachers known to them

2 Public elementary, middle, or high school teachers personally known to the researcher and those public elementary, middle, or high school teachers known to them

3 Respondents must be of at least 21 years of age

4 Respondents must be able to read, write, and speak English

5 Respondents must have access to a computer

6 Respondents must have a valid email address

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, RESEARCH

QUESTIONS, AND HYPOTHESES

Review of the Literature

Introduction to the Literature Review

Gangs were once only a problem in large cities; however, gang activity has now become a global issue as gangs migrate across communities and countries and bring with them fear and violence. "Gangs threaten our schools, our children, and our homes. Gangs today are more sophisticated and flagrant in their use of violence and intimidation tactics" (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005, Executive Summary section, para. 1). Often gangs are uniting to strengthen their criminal activities and recruit new members from elementary, middle, and high schools (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005).

The National Youth Gang Center estimates there are 21,500 youth gangs with a membership totaling 731,500 youths and that all cities with populations greater than 250,000 report a youth gang problem while 87% of cities with populations between 100,000 and 249,999 report a youth gang problem (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005, Introduction section, para. 4). These results are consistent with studies conducted by the U.S. Department of Justice (2004) and the National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center (2001) which found gangs remain a constant threat. However, contrary findings based on the compilation of quantitative data received from 455 law enforcement agencies across the country, show a decrease in gang membership and gang problems from 1996 to 2004 (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005).

The 2005 National Gang Threat Assessment found:

- There are at least 600,000 youths currently in gangs
- Small cities and towns are now experiencing gang activity
- Many gangs are recruiting young members and females
- Violent street gangs are active in 94% of all medium and large sized cities in America
- Many of these cities have up to 40 different gangs
- Gangs remain the primary distributors of drugs throughout the United States
- Gangs are now associating themselves with various organized crime families
- Gangs are using more technology in the pursuit of their criminal activity
- Forming multi-agency task forces and community awareness groups are an effective way of dealing with the gang problem
- Gang members are recruiting in all levels of schools – elementary, middle and high school (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005)

The National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center in their 2003 study entitled *School Violence* reported:

- Some gang members are as young as 12, but the average age is about 17 or 18.
- Around half of youth gang members are 18 or older and these members are more likely to be involved in serious and violent crimes than younger members
- Teens that are gang members are much more likely than other teens to commit serious and violent crimes
- Gang violence has become more dangerous due to the availability of more lethal weapons and the increased use of cars in drive-by shootings

The U.S. Department of Justice in the report by compiled by Arlen Egley (2005) entitled Highlights of the 2002-2003 National Youth Gang Survey reported:

- In 2001, 7% to 9% of students in grades 9 to 12 reported being threatened or injured with a weapon such as a gun, knife, or club on school property in the past 12 months
- In 2001, about 6 percent of students carried a weapon such as a gun, knife, or club on school property in the past 30 days
- Between July 1, 1999, and June 30, 2000, there were 16 school-associated homicides of school-age children
- Between July 1, 1992 and June 30, 2000, 390 school-associated violent deaths occurred on campuses of U.S. elementary or secondary schools. Of these, 234 were homicides and 43 were suicides
- In 2001, 20% of students reported the presence of street gangs in their schools
- In 2001, students age 12 through 18 were victims of about 161,000 serious violent crimes at school, and about 290,000 crimes away from school
- Prevalence of Delinquency Among Gang and Non-gang Youth Ages 13 to 18 include:
  - Assault – 64% Gang vs. 18% Non-gang
  - Binge Drinking – 43% Gang vs. 24% Non-gang
  - Marijuana Use – 54% Gang vs. 26% Non-gang
  - Drug Selling – 51% Gang vs. 9% Non-gang
  - Arrest – 51% Gang vs. 14% Non-gang

The typical age range for gang members is 12 to 24 although there are increasingly younger members joining gangs (Howell, 1998). However, gang membership varies depending on the criminal activity in which the gang is engaged. Large, territorial gangs average 180 plus members while smaller specialty gangs (i.e. drug dealing) often have no more than 25 members (Howell, 1998). In addition, this same report finds that "Contemporary youth gangs are located primarily in lower-class, slum, ghetto, barrio, or working-class changing communities, but it is not clear that either class, poverty, culture, race or ethnicity, or social change per se primarily accounts for gang problems" (Howell &

Lynch, 2000, Demographic Characteristics section, para. 3). The information presented in this bulletin was derived from an extensive literature review about the history of gangs, demographic characteristics of gangs, gang specialization, and female gang delinquency.

At one time, gangs were comprised mostly of males. Yet today, more and more females are joining gangs either affiliated with male gangs or independent of male gangs (Grant & Van Acker, 2002). Most research has been focused on the male dominated world of gang membership but other studies show that females are also involved in gang membership and violent crimes (Deschenes & Esbensen, 1999). In fact, female gangs are on the rise and are often violent in nature. Their members come from every racial and ethnic group and are terrorizing many schools and neighborhoods (Coombs-Richardson, 2000).

Theories of Gang Development

There are several theories of gang development including social disorganization theory, strain theory, subculture theory, labeling theory, underclass theory, control theory, and differential association theory (Jones, Roper, Stys, and Wilson, 2004). Social disorganization theory originated in 1927 with Thrasher, who believed that gangs began with boys attempting to create a social organization which would provide for their needs and give them satisfaction as these needs were not being met by society. This theory was studied in 1942 by Shaw and McKay when they used police statistics to explain gang development in areas, usually around the center of a city, which were in social flux. Their research showed that it was the social disorganization within a community which determined gang formation and not individual characteristics of the gang member.

As one of the oldest theories surrounding gangs, the social disorganization theory explains gang membership as a means by which youth with no personal or community social connections can feel connected. This disconnection can result from migration, economic, social, or political changes, war, family disorganization, and the failure of social organizations such as schools, religious establishments, and governments. The social disorganization theory stresses the normality of gang formation in youths who find themselves in abnormal social environments (Jones, et al., 2004).

Papachristos and Kirk (2006) conducted a study on how social control and collective efficacy within neighborhoods are related to gang versus nongang homicide. They used a survey design and data collected from the Project on Human Development in Chicago neighborhoods (PHDCN) 1994-1995 Community Survey of 8,782 Chicago residents regarding neighborhood social processes. Ten survey items that focused on the constructs of social control and social cohesion/trust were used to measure neighborhood collective efficacy.

The authors looked at concentrated disadvantage, immigrant concentration, and residential stability within neighborhoods and made three hypothesis: 1) that concentrated disadvantage is positively associated with homicide due to the lack of resources in these communities and the lack of a middle class buffer zone; 2) that immigration concentration is positively associated with homicide because of its influence on weakening social ties and institutions; and 3) that residential stability is negatively related to crime since stability increases social networks. Nine statistical models, three sets of covariates and three dependent variables, were used. The dependent variables included: 1) total homicides per

neighborhood in 1995, 2) gang-related homicides per neighborhood in 1995, and 3) non-gang related homicides in 1995.

Results indicated that the majority of 1995 homicides had black victims with 21% of these homicides gang-related while 46% of Hispanic homicides were gang-related. When comparing the neighborhoods with homicides and those without, "On average, homicides occurred in neighborhoods with greater levels of concentrated disadvantage, less immigrant concentration, less residential stability, and greater concentrations of black residents" (Papachristos & Kirk, 2006, p. 71). Also, homicides occurred in neighborhoods with low levels of social cohesion and trust.

The association between the police count of gang and nongang homicides as measured by Spearman's rho equals .309 while the rho changes to .291 when the homicide rate is calculated based on 100,000 residents in a neighborhood instead of actual homicide counts. "These findings suggest that there may be differences in structural characteristics and social processes such as collective efficacy between neighborhoods with gang homicides and those with nongang homicides" (Papachristos & Kirk, 2006, p. 73).

Sobel and Osoba (2006) introduced their theory of gang development based on their analysis of economic literature on the formation of governments as well as their analysis of youth gangs. Their theory suggests that the failure of the government to protect the rights of youths cause gangs to form as protective agencies in areas of high violent crime rates. These gangs, like governments, use violence to enforce rules and as such actually lower the violent crime in the area. In schools, where "Bullying, theft of lunch money, physical coercion, and other types of violence or threats of violence are not only

common-place, but widely-accepted and tolerated even by school administrators" (Sobel & Osoba, 2006, p. 11), gang formation as protective agencies is likely.

Gang formation causes violent crime not that violent crime causes gang formation (Sobel and Osoba, 2006). The major propositions in this theory are 1) gangs form as protective agencies when government agencies fail to protect the rights of youth; 2) Gang membership tapers off through members' mid-20s instead of dropping off sharply at 18 as individuals under 18 are more likely to be victims; therefore there is little difference between the benefit of gang membership for 17, 18 or 19 year olds; and 3) Breaking up or destabilizing gangs would increase violence rather than deter violence.

To test their hypotheses, the researchers utilized six years of unpublished monthly gang membership data compiled by the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) Special Operations Support Division which contains information on total gang membership and data on membership in several gang categories. They do note that there are some limitations inherent in using this data, but that the LAPD uses the data to make internal decisions so they have a vested interest in making sure the data is as accurate as possible. In addition to the gang membership data, the authors used violent crime data from the LAPD's 2002 Statistical Digest which consists of information on the following Type 1 offenses: homicide, aggravated assault, and robbery (crime variables). Data from the two sources cover different time periods so the authors used only the data from the 57 months (April 1998 to December 2002) which overlap. They tested not only gang membership in general, but gang membership for the three largest gangs: Hispanic gangs, Crips, and Bloods. The Granger-Sims causality test is used to test the hypothesis regarding the causal direction between gang membership and the crime variables. An F-test was used to

evaluate the null hypothesis for each gang and crime to determine if any causal relationship exists.

The results indicate that "for total gang membership, as well as all three major subcategories of gangs, the causality tests show that there is a one-directional causal relationship: homicide causes gang membership" (Sobel & Osoba, 2006, p. 17). In addition, the authors found that as aggravated assault increases, it causes an increase in gang membership. However, there "is neither a causal relationship flowing from gang membership to robbery, nor from robbery to gang membership" (Sobel & Osoba, 2006, p. 18). In sum, no causal relationship was found showing that gang membership causes violent crime. However, areas with high violent crime rates also have higher rates of gang membership due to the increased violence (Sobel & Osoba, 2006).

Over the years, many studies have been conducted to determine the reasons youth join gangs. One factor which seems to be a common thread is the belief that by joining gangs, youth will be protected. In a study conducted by Peterson, Taylor, and Esbensen (2004) data from two studies, one cross-sectional and one longitudinal, were evaluated. The primary goal of the original study was to determine if the Gang Resistance Education and Training program was effective. However, additional questions were included in an effort to elicit information about a variety of topics such as peer relationships, school environment, family relationships, and victimization.

Peterson et al. (2004) used *t*-test of means comparisons to examine the differences between the level of violent victimization between gang and non-gang youths. Results showed that violent victimization rates were higher for gang members than non-gang members. The author then questioned whether "the greater involvement of gang than non-

gang youths in delinquency, rather than gang member status itself, is the reason for greater levels of victimization" (Delinquency section, para. 1) and created four groups: 1) gang-violent, 2) gang-nonviolent, 3) non-gang-violent, and 4) non-gang-nonviolent. They looked at violent victimization rates for these groups using a one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). In addition, "Bonferroni post-hoc tests were conducted to determine whether significant differences in victimization were present between specific pairs of groups" (Peterson et al., 2004, Delinquency section, para. 1).

The advantage for this methodology allows for the comparison of gang and non-gang members. In addition, the results can be generalized to public middle schools and the anonymous reporting allows the opportunity for students to answer truthfully. Limitations to the study include exclusion of private school students, exclusion of students who were absent during the time of the survey, and the potential for under-representation of youths who may be high-risk as it is usually these youth who are absent from school (Peterson et al., 2004). Additional limitations include attrition due to students dropping out of the longitudinal study.

The differential association theory, proposed in 1978 by Edwin Sutherland and Donald Cressey, and referenced in Jones, et al. (2004), states that criminal activity is a learned behavior and said behavior is acquired through contact with intimate social groups. Techniques, motives, and attitudes are taught by the group and youth will either move toward or away from crime depending on the beliefs of their core group (Jones, et al., 2004, Criminological Theories section, para. 12).

The subculture theory is based on the assumption that all youth share the same goals (Jones, et al., 2004). However, instead of trying to match the goals of the upper- or

middle-class, the lower class youth create their own subculture with norms that contribute to a criminal lifestyle: toughness, fate, anger, fear, and glory. In 1955, theorist Albert Cohen described subculture youth as frustrated about achieving a higher status and to combat this frustration, they turn to their own group which rewards negative behaviors with status (as cited in Jones, et al., 2004).

The social learning theory of gang development belongs to the psychological theory school of thought and "expands on the ideas of Sutherland and Cressey in order to explain how individuals learn criminal attitudes and behaviors" (Jones et al., 2004, Social Learning Theory section, para. 1). In 1985, Ronald Akers, one of the most prominent social learning theorists, proposed that all human behavior is the result of a person either seeking pleasure or avoiding pain. People learn certain behaviors through trial and error, repeating those that bring pleasurable consequences while discontinuing those that bring pain or discomfort. Criminal behavior is learned when the criminal act brings more pleasure than pain (Jones et al., 2004).

The social learning theory suggests that learning evolves from imitation of superiors, those with whom one has close contact. This theory is best applied to crimes which have a gain (i.e. burglary, murder for hire, etc.) and is often associated with groups such as gangs and peer groups that offer its members some form of reinforcement (Jones et al., 2004). In the gang setting the reinforcement may be positive attention from other members, monetary, or involve an increase in gang level or status. Humans learn behavior by engaging in acts that are reinforcing and avoid those that are punishing. Criminality, then, occurs when the criminal act is more reinforcing or pleasurable than it is punishing (Jones et al., 2004),

In 1999, Williams and McShane also found that an individual will choose to repeat criminal acts if the act brings more reinforcement than it does punishments. For example, if the criminal act produces reinforcement such as monetary or material gain or social reinforcement such as gang acceptance and this reinforcement outweighs the punishment (arrest, jail time, social embarrassment), then the individual is more likely to repeat the criminal act (as cited in Jones et al., 2004).

The social development theory's central theme is the opportunity for social development through the process of bonding, and the possession of the skills necessary to be a member of the family, school, or peer social community. There are specific developmental models during childhood and adolescence and within each model are risk and protective factors that foster either pro- or anti-social behavior. Some researchers view gang formation as a normal but "extreme extension" of an adolescent's move away from parental approval toward approval of peers. Other researchers view gang formation and its resulting violence as being separate from normal adolescent development (Parks, 1995, p. 47).

Gang Behavior and School Violence

Schools were once a neutral zone in which no gang activity was present; yet today, gang members no longer abide by the "neutral zone" (Parks, 1995; Goldstein & Kodluboy, 1998) and have brought gang behaviors such as drug sales and use, graffiti, extortion, assault, and weapons into the school as well as using the school as a place of recruitment for new members (Arthur & Erickson, 1992). However, while there is evidence of a change in youth gangs (i.e. more violence due to drugs and weapon availability), there is

also an "absence of strong empirical support for school gang violence" (Parks, 1995, Abstract section, para. 1).

There are several indicators of gang activity on a school campus including vandalism, arson, graffiti, and varying forms of violence such as stabbings and shootings as well as extortion of students and intimidation of teachers and administrators (Jackson & McBride, 1991). Other gang identifiers include common dress and tattoos (Valentine, 1995).

Graffiti is often one of the first indicators of gang activity on school campuses (Griffin and Meacham, 2005). Graffiti is used for many purposes ranging from marking the gang's territory to insulting rival gangs to memorializing a dead member to challenging and counterchallenging rival gangs (Valentine, 1995). Graffiti has the functional purpose of being a visible indicator of a gang's presence in a school or community (Griffin & Meacham, 2005).

Hand signals are another unique way gangs communicate as each adopts its own specific signs as a means to communicate (Valentine, 1995). Just as with graffiti, hand signals are used to insult and challenge other gangs, as a method of identification within gangs, and as a means by which to communicate (Griffin & Meacham, 2005; Valentine, 1995). Hand signals, while not illegal in and of themselves, can be an indicator of gang membership.

The gangs of today have become more complex and violent than those of years past with the increase in drug and weapon activity (Parks, 1995). Schools and communities throughout the United States have identified the carrying of weapons by youth to be an educational, social and health problem (Page & Hammermeister, 1997). While four of

every five firearms that are brought to school come from the student's home, guns are also readily accessible through other means such as theft or borrowing them from a friend (Page & Hammermeister, 1997). Gang members are much more likely to carry a concealed weapon other than a pocket knife than non-gang members (51% of gang involved boys versus 9% of non-gang participants and 32% and 2% of girls) (Gottfredson et al., 2001, Gang Participation section, para. 5).

"The increased visibility of gangs, coupled with the growing fear of juvenile crime, has led researchers and others to conclude that there is an association between gangs and crime" (Bjerregaard & Lizotte, 1995, p. 37). Bjerregaard and Lizotte (1995) examine the relationship between gun ownership, gun use, and gang membership. The authors use longitudinal data from the Rochester Youth Development Study (RYDS) to examine the causal nature of the relationship between gun ownership and gang membership and the impact of a gang on delinquency. The results indicated that gang members are significantly more likely to own a gun for protection than non-gang members; guns owned for sporting purposes are no more likely to be owned by gang members than non-gang members; for gang members, gun ownership increases over time; gang members are more likely to have peers who own guns for protection; gangs and their friends are more likely to own other types of weapons such as knives or clubs; and gang members are more likely than non-gang members to carry guns. Overall, the results showed that "gang membership is significantly related to both protection gun ownership and weapons ownership" (Bjerregaard & Lizotte, 1995, p. 47).

The 2005 National Gang Threat Assessment is the result of the compilation of survey information received from 456 law enforcement agencies across the United States.

These respondents are gang investigators from federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies who, among other topics, reported on the prevalence of firearm possession by gang members. The results of the survey found 23.5% of the respondents believe the level of gang involvement in firearms possession to be high, 13.7% of the respondents believe it to be moderate, 19.6% of the respondents believe it to be low, and 43.2% did not respond.

Malecki and Demaray (2003) examined the perceptions of social support among students who carry weapons and assessed the potential predictors of carrying a weapon to school. A 60 item survey was given to 461 students in an urban middle school in Illinois to determine the levels of healthy and non-healthy student behaviors. With regard to gender, the sample was distributed somewhat evenly -- 219 boys (47.5%) and 237 girls (51.4%) and 5 (1.1%) not reporting. Ethnically, the sample included 354 Hispanic (76.8%), 55 African American (11.9%), 24 White (5.2%), 12 Asian American (2.6%), 3 Native American (.7%), 7 Other (1.5%) and 6 not reporting (1.3%). Sixth graders accounted for 34.9% of the sample while seventh and eighth graders accounted for 30.6% and 33.6% respectively. The majority of the participants (70.7%) receive free or reduced lunch and 7.4% reported receiving special education services.

The survey given to the students consisted of two scales – The Child and Adolescent Social Support Scale (CASSS) Revised and an "untitled survey developed by a community agency to address health and safety issues at the school" (Malecki & Demaray, 2003, p. 171). The revised version of the CASSS shows strong evidence for reliability and validity and produces internal consistency alpha coefficient of .97 for the overall support scale and .92 - .95 on the subscales. Test-retest reliability produced 8- to 10-week

coefficients of .85 on the overall support score and .47 to .83 on the subscales. Finally, the CASSS has been correlated with other measures of social support.

Analysis of the data revealed 9.11% of the students surveyed reported carrying a gun to school during the last school year. In addition, the survey found that boys are much more likely than girls to carry a weapon and the students who reported carrying a weapon to school also reported less perceived social support than those who did not carry a weapon to school (Malecki & Demaray, 2003). The authors reported that their findings are comparable to those reported for middle school students in other studies.

Implications for practice include the possibility that involvement from adults in students' lives and the help and support that comes with it may help students develop positive ways to solve problems and conflicts and increase their feelings of safety which in turn will reduce their perceived need to carry a weapon. However, Malecki and Demaray (2003) caution that more research needs to be conducted as the topic of perceptions of social support for students who carry weapons has not been thoroughly investigated.

There are several limitations to their study. First, as all the data were compiled through the use of student self-report surveys, a concern regarding honesty is raised. Next, there were a large number of surveys (19.8%) that were not included in the analysis due to incomplete or unreliable responses. This is a concern because of research which suggests that the rates of violent behavior are higher for students who do not provide complete or accurate information. Finally, the data cannot be used to determine which students specifically will carry a weapon to school.

In the non-experimental, quantitative case study conducted by Forrest, Zychowski, Stuhldreher and Ryan (2000), data from The National Longitudinal Survey of Adolescent

Health (Add Health), Waves I and II, 1994-1996, was examined to determine the prevalence and characteristics of students who carry weapons in school. Results indicate that "More than 10% of the students reported carrying a weapon, such as a gun, knife or club, on school property during the 30 days prior to administering the Add Health Survey" (Forrest et al., 2000, Results section, para. 1). In addition, males were more likely to carry a weapon on school grounds than females (8% versus 3%).

Today, gangs are more blatant in their use of violence and intimidation tactics and as such threaten our schools, children, homes, and society. As they move from state to state they bring with them drugs, weapons, and a general disregard for society's laws (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005). According to the Bureau of Justice Assistance (2005) and the National Alliance of Gang Investigators Association (2005) which, in partnership with the Federal Bureau of Investigation and the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, Firearms and Explosives, produced the 2005 National Gang Threat Assessment, gangs are the primary distributors of drugs throughout the United States. However, according to Lizotte, Krohn, Howell, Tobin and Howard (2000), drugs are more of an issue for larger gangs while turf issues and the resulting use of firearms and other weapons seem to drive smaller gangs.

The results of the 2005 National Gang Threat Assessment survey indicated that 31.6% of the respondents believe gangs are highly involved in drugs and drug distribution while 28.6% believe gangs are moderately involved. Of these it was reported that 52.9% of the gangs in the Northeast, 38.7% of the gangs in the South, 37.5% of the gangs in the Midwest, 32.9% of the gangs in the West, and 38.2% of the total gang population in the United States are involved in the distribution of powdered cocaine. While the percentages

are slightly lower, gangs are also believed to be involved in the distribution of crack cocaine, heroin, marijuana, methamphetamine, and MDMA (Ecstasy) (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005, Gangs and Drugs section, Table 2).

Decker (2000) explores the relationship between gang membership, drug prevalence and preferences and how drug sales affect drug use in an 11-city survey of arrestees. Empirical studies about the level of drug sales and drug use by gang members were examined leading to the gap in the literature about the "extent to which gang members are involved in the drug market as users and the role that involvement in drug sales plays in the use of drugs" (Decker, 2000, Abstract section, para. 1).

Qualitative and quantitative data were used in the form of interviews with gang members and analysis of data from the 1995 Drug Use Forecasting (DUF) Gun Addendum to determine the patterns of drug use and the context in which gang members used drugs. The DUF Gun Addendum consisted of interviews with 8,038 arrestees questioning drug use, gun possession, and gang membership. Fifty-eight percent of the interviewees were adult males, 23% adult females, 17% juvenile males, and 2% juvenile females. The majority (32%) were incarcerated for violent crime, 30% were charged with property crime, 18% with consensual crime (i.e. prostitution) and 5% were charged with a parole or probation violation (Decker, 2000).

The results indicate there are high levels of drug use among gang members as well as non-gang members. However, non-gang members are more likely to use cocaine while gang members are more likely to use marijuana. As reported by Decker (2000), these results contrast with existing ethnographic studies which found that gangs invariably abstain from drug use.

Research on drug use by female gang members is more limited than that of drug use by male gang members and much of the documentation on female gang member drug use comes from larger studies focusing primarily on understanding female gangs (Hunt, Joe-Laidler & Evans, 2002). By analyzing data taken from a longitudinal qualitative study of ethnic gangs in the San Francisco Bay Area, Hunt et al. (2002) "focus on the ways in which female gang members use drugs in a recreational manner, in a social setting where drug taking is a normative behavior" (Hunt et al, 2002, p. 375). The literature review was brief yet informative in comparing and contrasting the types of drugs used by female gang members leading to the gap in the literature about the context in which female gang members use drugs and the methods in which they determine the boundaries within which their drug use can take place.

Data from 168 interviews with female gang members over a period of two separate studies was used to study the context in which female gang members use drugs. In-depth interviews were conducted in which female gang members were asked to answer quantitative questions and then, in a tape-recorded session, were asked to answer questions about their gang experiences from a semi-structured guide. To address validity and reliability, the researchers re-phrased questions to note inconsistencies, used information from several members of the same gang to validate stories, conducted field observations, and used coders who were not involved in the interviews.

The findings indicate that 98% of the female gang members used an illicit drug with marijuana the most commonly used drug (96%) and the most frequently used drug (65% having used marijuana more than 50 times). In addition, female gang members reported having used LSD, PCP, crack cocaine, methamphetamine, cocaine, heroin,

glue/inhalants, MDMA (Ecstasy), and Quaaludes. However, it is interesting to note that for many of the respondents, drug use began prior to entry into the gang and often was a result of witnessing others' use of drugs, often family members. Within the gang, drugs are a part of the culture of the gang – both male and female. Yet, drug use for women more than men is a social activity and not a solitary activity, but also has more strict controls. These controls included "controls by age group, controls by men, whether homeboys or boyfriends, and controls imposed through notions of reputation and respect" (Hunt et al., 2002, p. 396).

These findings are consistent with those of the studies outlined in the literature review. One limitation of the study noted by the authors was the necessity of the interviewer to make judgments about the truthfulness of the answers received from the gang members. As a future area of study, the authors suggested the connection between sexuality and drug be explored.

Gottfredson and Gottfredson (2001) conducted a study about gang problems in schools and the approaches schools use to combat gang involvement in schools using a stratified probability of public and private schools in the United States. The study "describes students' involvement with gangs, the characteristics of students who are involved with gangs (including their levels of involvement with drugs, weapons, and other forms of delinquent behavior), and the extent and correlates of gang problems in schools" (Summary section, para. 1). In addition, this study examines what is being done to prevent gang problems in schools and how well the programs are working. Empirical studies about the types of programs used to prevent gang involvement, school gang problems, gang

participation, and the nature of the gang problem were examined leading to this study about the gang problem in schools.

A survey design of 1279 secondary schools was used resulting in a principal response rate of 66% in the initial survey and 50% in the secondary survey; a mean student response rate of 76%; a mean teacher response rate of 78% and a 52% response rate from activity coordinators. To address validity, the authors constructed a "Veridicality Index by comparing the responses of student survey participants to pairs of questions in which certain patterns of responding are logically inconsistent" (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001, p. 33). A score of three indicated no disagreement while a score of zero indicated all pairs were in disagreement. Respondents with scores of zero or one were excluded. To address the validity of principals' reports about the nature of the gang problem in their school, the authors compared the principals' report of gang problems with that of the students' reports. They then classified a school as having a gang problem if it was among the 10% of the schools with the largest number of students who reported that they were in a gang (approximately 14% of students).

The research questions addressed by this study were:

1. How common is gang participation among middle and high school students in the United States?

2. What students are involved in gang activity?

3. What is the relation between gang participation and other problem behaviors and personal victimization?

4. How many schools have problems with gangs?

5. What are the characteristics of schools with gang problems?

6. What explains the rate of student gang involvement observed in a school?

7. How much school-based gang prevention and intervention activity takes place?

8. What is the quality of school-based gang prevention and intervention programs?

9. Are students who participate in gangs more or less likely to be exposed to preventive interventions?

The results of the study indicate that an estimated 7.6% of male secondary school students belong to a gang while an estimated 3.8% of female secondary school students belong to a gang. Of the male students, 13% are Black, 11% Other, 11% American Indian or Alaskan Native, and 10% Hispanic. For females, the gang participation rate is higher for Hispanic (6.8%), Other (6.7%), and Black (6%) than it is for White (2.1%) or Asian or Pacific Islander (1.3%) girls. Results also showed that 91% of the students who were not involved in a gang expected to complete high school while only 75% of those involved with a gang expected to complete high school. Furthermore, the results indicate that gang members are more likely to be victims of various types of victimization and do not always feel safe at school. Compared with non-gang members, 57% of the gang boys and 54% of gang girls feel safe at school while 77% of non-gang boys and 80% of non-gang girls feel safe at school.

In terms of drug use, the results of the survey found that gang members are much more likely to be involved with drugs than non-gang members. "For example, 54% of male gang participants versus 9% of non-participants sold marijuana or other drugs in the last 12 months (42% and 4% of females, respectively)" (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001, p. 47). The ratio of heroin users among gang members to other youths is 25:1 for boys and 38:1 for girls. In terms of general delinquency, 63% of gang boys reported being in a gang

fight while 66% of female gang members reported being in a gang fight. Gang members are also more likely to carry hidden weapons.

These findings are consistent with the US Department of Justice (2004) findings that "Youth gangs are linked with serious crime problems in elementary and secondary schools in the United States" (US Department of Justice, 2004). In addition, there is a positive correlation between gang presence in schools and the amount of drugs and weapons also found in the schools (US Department of Justice, 2004).

There were several limitations to the study. First, the assessment of the quality of the program was dependent on the judgment of the authors on what aspects of quality to measure and since there is limited research on prevention and intervention activity, there is little on which to base their judgment. The authors stated: "Almost certainly we have failed to measure some aspects of quality that are not yet understood due to a lack of research or systematic scrutiny of much of what is done in programs" (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001, p. 113). A second limitation is based on a sample survey using principals, teachers, and students which creates questions as to the reliability and validity of their responses. In addition, non-participation by youths who may have already dropped out (and who are much more likely to be involved in delinquent behaviors) may have resulted in a bias. The final limitation is the statistical models used are based on cross sectional data and assumptions are made regarding causal direction.

While gangs and the drugs and weapons they bring on a campus are increasing, violence is another issue facing schools today. American violence has found its way into colleges, universities, high schools, junior high schools and even elementary schools (Bennett-Johnson, 2004). School violence has become a topic of national concern due to

the high profile school shootings in Littleton, Colorado; Jonesboro, Arkansas; Springfield, Oregon; and Red Lake, Minnesota. These incidents have threatened the sense of security once held by students and teachers (Kondrasuk, et al., 2005) and "Crime by and against students has become one of the major concerns for researchers and policymakers" (Verdalis & Kakar, 2000, p. 37). Schools which were once considered safe places are now being transformed into places that mirror society's crime problems and as crime on the streets becomes increasingly violent, so too is crime in the schools (Verdalis & Kakar, 2000).

Students and faculty of Alfred University spent two years studying media stories, research findings, and expert opinions on the causes of lethal violence in schools. The resulting report, *Lethal Violence in Schools*, breaks down the potential for violence in our nation's schools as follows:

- 37% of the respondents said there are kids at school that I think will shoot someone

- 61% of the respondents said they know students who could bring a gun to school

- 24% of the respondents said they could get a gun easily

- 75% of the respondents said they were concerned about a shooting taking place in their school (Gaughan, Cerio & Myers, 2001).

The 2004 Indicators of School Crime and Safety report shows the number of multiple victim homicides in schools is still very rare, but incidents of threats, bullying and fights have increased. However, the majority of media attention is on acts of violence perpetrated upon students by students with little focus on acts of violence perpetrated upon teachers by students (Kondrasuk, et. al., 2005) possibly due to the fact that "most

aggression in U.S. schools is directed toward other students" (Goldstein & Kodluboy, 1998, p. 95).

There is large variation in the types of threats teachers face daily (Rappaport, 2005). Violence against employees in schools is defined as "physical harm (e.g. hitting, pushing, throwing objects at, or damaging property of the employee), or threats of such harm, towards employees of schools" (Kondrasuk et al., 2005, p. 639). In addition, threats can range from a student pushing a teacher to injury while breaking up a fight, to threats, to physical attack (Rappaport, 2005). The victimization rate for teachers between 1994 and 1998 was 83 per 1,000 teachers as approximately 1.75 million crimes were committed against teachers in and around schools, which included approximately 1 million thefts and 668,000 violent crimes (Bureau of Justice Statistics and Department of Education Center for Educational Statistics, 2000).

Kondrasuk et al. (2005) used survey design of all the schools in the Portland, Oregon, metropolitan area to study violence affecting school employees. The authors' literature review was limited to the background of violence in schools and focused mainly on information obtained from the National Center for Education Statistics (US Department of Education, NCES, 2001). A major gap in the literature about the number and types of violence perpetrated against the employees of schools was found. This resulted in the Kondrasuk et al (2005) study focusing on the "extent, frequency, weapons, causation, prevention, responses, perpetrators, victims, and trends" (Kondrasuk et al., 2005, p. 641) of school violence.

A 17-item questionnaire was developed and mailed to the top administrator in each of the 824 schools included in the survey. Of the 824 questionnaires mailed out, 139 usable questionnaires were returned resulting in a response rate of 17%.

The findings indicated there was a low level of general violence against school employees with verbal threats being higher in all schools (2.8 per school with a 11.1 SD) than actual physical harm (.90 per school with a 3.3 SD). In addition, 14% of the respondents stated that they felt somewhat safe while 86% stated they felt very safe at their schools. None of the respondents stated they did not feel safe in their school. Furthermore, the respondents felt that violence against employees has remained stable over the past five years with 16% stating violence had increased, 69% stating violence had stayed the same, and 9% believing violence against employees would increase in the next five years. The majority of the respondents also felt that white students committed the majority of the violent acts against mostly white employees with female victims being more frequent than male victims. The number one factor believed to be the cause of the violence was a poor home life with drugs and alcohol abuse as the second factor.

The limitations of the study include possible bias due to the fact that the majority of the respondents were administrators (89.9%) as administrators are often removed from the direct contact with violence that teachers would face. In addition, administrators may tend to underreport acts of violence in an attempt to make the school and prevention programs look good. Another limitation is the low response rate (17%) and the demographic makeup of the respondents. Both prevent generalization of the findings. The authors state a need for additional study about the violence facing employees in schools.

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) in a compilation of findings from the School Survey on Crime and Safety: 2003-04, indicated that "eighteen percent of public schools reported at least one serious violent incident during the 2003–2004 school year; two percent of public schools reported hate crimes; five percent of public schools reported gang-related crimes" (Guerino, Hurwitz, Noonan & Kaffenberger, 2006). Furthermore, "annually, over the 5-year period from 1998 to 2002, teachers were the victims of approximately 234,000 total nonfatal crimes at school, including 144,000 thefts and 90,000 violent crimes (rape, sexual assault, robbery, aggravated assault, and simple assault)" (US Department of Education, NCES, 2005, Fast facts section). These violent incidents were most likely to occur in large, urban secondary schools (NECS, 2005) and male teachers were more likely than female teachers to be attacked (Rappaport, 2005).

The US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (2004) found that in the 1999-2000 school year the majority of schools (71%) experienced violent incidents yet the majority (64%) did not report these incidents to the police. "Approximately 1.5 million violent incidents occurred in about 59,000 public schools that year" (US Department of Education, 2004, p. 2). Of those schools, 28% experienced at least one serious violent incident (rape, sexual battery other than rape, physical attacks or fights with a weapon, threats of physical attack with a weapon, and robberies). Physical attack without a weapon led the list of percentage of public schools with specific crimes (64%) with threats of physical attack without a weapon (52%), vandalism (51%), theft or larceny (46%), possession of a knife or sharp object (43%), sexual harassment (36%), possession or use of alcohol or illegal drugs (27%), distribution of illegal drugs (12%), and threat of physical attack with a weapon (11%) also making that list.

Disciplinary problems in school often reduce the ability of teachers to teach and students to learn. "In 1999-2000, schools were more likely to have a serious problem with student bullying than with any other discipline problem (29%). Student acts of disrespect for teachers and undesirable gang activities (19% each) were the second most reported serious problems for schools" (US Department of Education, 2004, p. 5). About 54% of the schools took serious disciplinary action including suspensions for 5 days or more (83%), removal with no services (11%), and transfer to specialized schools (7%).

Astor, Behre, Fravil and Wallace (1997) conducted a study about school social workers' perceptions of violence in schools through a random sample of 1,200 school social workers. The literature review was brief regarding what is known about school violence from the perspective of those who work in the schools. Empirical studies about the American public's view of school violence and the need for training of school personnel to deal with violence were examined which led to the major gap in the literature about school-based employees' perception of school violence. This resulted in Astor et al.'s (1997) study of school social worker's perceptions of school violence and whether a zero-tolerance policy was used when dealing with violence in the school.

A random sample of 1,200 school social workers was sent a 10-page questionnaire with a follow-up questionnaire sent six weeks later. A total of 614 valid questionnaires were received for a response rate of 52.8%. Of the respondents, 37% were from suburban areas, 11% from rural areas, 15% from inner cities, and 15% from urban (not inner city) areas. A majority of the respondents were female (81.3%) and white (88.4%) with 23% in the 30 to 39 age range, 40.5% in the 40 to 49 age range, and 23.9% in the 50 to 59 age

range. Ninety-five percent of the respondents held Masters in Social Work while 4% held a doctorate in social work, education, or a related field.

The survey questions covered issues such as "global ratings of violence on school grounds, most violent events, and types of violence" (Astor et al., 1997, p. 58). Data collection procedures were clearly defined and outlined a three-tiered coding system developed to determine the nature of the most violent events. Independent coders were trained and the authors report inter-rater agreement at 94%.

The results indicate that 20.5% of the respondents believe that violence on their school campus was a big or very big problem while 37% indicated it was a mid-sized problem and 42.6% indicated it was little or no problem. The authors report that these findings are "similar to those of other surveys of teachers, psychologists, parents and students" (Astor et al., 1997, p. 59) but do not specify which studies. However, the authors also report that the majority (more than 70%) of respondents reported at least one lethal or potentially lethal incident in their school within the past year (Astor et al., 1997, p. 60). This seemingly contradicts the findings that the majority of the respondents indicated that violence was little or no problem. However, the authors stated that of the respondents who reported violence is a big problem, 94% had a potentially lethal event on campus while 83.8% of those rating violence as a moderate problem also reported a potentially lethal event and 61.1% of those rating violence as little or no problem also reported a potentially lethal event.

The community setting was also studied which resulted in the finding that no significant differences in the types of violent events were reported across settings, but social workers in inner city schools were more likely to report a lethal or potentially lethal

event while others reported severe or extremely dangerous events. In all other settings, the social worker's perceptions of violence were not determined by a single event and thus they did not use a zero-tolerance approach even when the event was life threatening (Astor et. al., 1997).

While there is considerable research regarding school violence, there is limited research on teachers' reactions to these events (Ting, Sanders, & Smith, 2002, p.1006). The Teachers' Reactions to School Violence Scale (TRSV), a 35 item self-report scale, was developed to measure teachers' reactions to an incident of school violence. A convenience sample consisting of 144 middle- and high-school teachers was used. A principal components analysis revealed six components: Intrusion (16 items with structure coefficients between .490 and .859), Perceived Safety With Students (5 items with structure coefficients between .530 and .838), Avoidance of Students/Situations (4 items with structure coefficients ranging between .557 and .778), Trust of Students (3 items with structure coefficients ranging between .523 and .813), Environmental Safety (4 items with structure coefficients between .498 and .785), and Feelings of Relief (3 items with structure coefficients ranging between .512 and .741).

Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the internal consistency reliability for the scales and subscales. For the total items on the TRSV Cronbach's alpha was .95. Reliability coefficients for the subscales were as follows: .95 for Intrusion; .84 for Perceived Safety With Students; .82 for Environmental Safety; .77 for Avoidance of Students/Situations; .68 for Trust of Students; and .60 for Feelings of Relief. To obtain criterion-related validity, scores on the TRSV from high violence and low-violence schools were compared. A *t* test was conducted to compare group means of TRSV total scores

resulting in 70.56 for teachers in low-violence schools and 101.93 for teachers in high-violence schools ($t = 9.69$, p<.001). Results of the TRSV indicate that teachers' psychological reaction to school violence is a multidimensional construct (Ting, et. al, 2002, p. 1017). However, limitations noted by the authors include the nonrandom sample and the bias inherent with it as well as the 4:1 person to item ratio and the inability to assure the stability factor.

Violence and gang activity in schools mirrors that which is occurring in the surrounding community (Jackson & McBride, 1991) and with the spread of gangs across the United States; our schools have become fertile grounds for gang activity. From 1989 to 1995, the number of schools reporting a gang presence on campus doubled (Howell & Lynch, 2000) as schools had become not only a good meeting place, but a base for gang activities (Jackson & McBride, 1991). This takes a toll on all members of the school community in the form of extortion, fear, intimidation, and the disruption of the educational process (Jackson & McBride, 1991). However, while gangs participate in some of the most violent forms of crime, gangs are not "causative factors for most delinquent acts committed by youths" (Parks, 1995, p. 49).

The Survey of School-based Gang Prevention and Intervention Programs (2001) described what is being done in American schools to address gang-related problems and to assess the effectiveness of these programs. In addition, this study described characteristics of students who are involved in gangs and the extent to which gang involvement creates gang problems in schools. The survey was conducted using a national sample of 1,279 middle and high schools with a 66% participation rate in the initial survey and a 50% participation rate in the secondary survey. Overall, 7.6% of the male and 3.8% of the

female high school students reported they are or were involved in a gang that "has a name and engages in fighting, stealing, or selling drugs" (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001, Gang Participation section, para. 1). The survey also found that youths who are involved in gangs have lower educational expectations and a higher victimization rate than those who are not involved in a gang. Youth gang members also have a low commitment to education, delinquent peers, feel unsafe in school, and have low regard for school or societal rules (Gottfredson & Gottfredson., 2001).

Five percent of the principals surveyed in the study reported that gangs were a problem in their schools while 36% reported a community gang problem. Urban and secondary school principals surveyed were more likely to report gang problems in their school than other principals. However, in the 10% of the schools which reported the highest level of student gang members, only 18% of the principals reported a school-wide gang problem. "Nevertheless, principals' reports of school gang problems are associated with more victimization, less safety, and poorer administrator leadership according to teacher reports" (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001, Gang Problems section, para. 1).

While the number of gangs is important, it is the violence associated with these gangs that has the attention of many Americans. Often a dispute will originate in the community and then be brought onto the school campus where the possibility of an audience and the intervention of school staff increase (Goldstein & Kodluboy, 1998). Most of the violence that takes place within a gang is verbal in contrast to the physical attacks on rival gang members, strangers, or school staff (Goldstein & Kodluboy, 1998). The escalation in violence has made gang prevention and intervention a priority.

Knox (2007) compiled data from the National Gang Crime Research Center (NGCRC) research project entitled *The 2006 School Survey of Gang-Related Issues* to examine how the gang problem related to problems in American public schools. While this survey included many qualitative questions, the special report provides only descriptive statistical findings from the research. The sample size included 212 respondents from 46 different states. Selected findings include:

- Most respondents (82.9%) stated there was no increase or decrease in the number of School Resource Officers (SRO) on campus

- Approximately 67% stated they had a full time SRO while approximately 20% stated they had no SRO

- The majority of schools (67.9%) stated they had a written policy against gang activity

- The majority of schools (92.3%) prohibit the wearing of clothing with gang symbols

- The majority of schools (96.4%) prohibit gang and hate group slogans on clothing

- The majority of schools (80.5%) believe uniforms eliminate certain gang problems

- Over 1/3 of the schools reported gang recruiting near their school within the last year

- Few schools provide gang training for teachers and staff although 94.6% support training for teachers and 93.1% support training for administrators

- Approximately 26% of the schools reported a gang shooting near their school in the last year

- An estimated 12.4% of threats of violence on school grounds were gang-related

- Over 75% of respondents want a gang prevention program

- An estimated average of 38% of the students per school were gang members

- Approximately 38% of the respondents report gang conflicts on campus

- Gang graffiti is not disappearing

- Approximately 1/5 of the schools reported female gangs near their school

- About 50% of the schools conduct locker searches while 60.5% utilize drug sniffing dogs

- Metal detectors are used in only about 2.7% of the schools

- Approximately 2/5 of the respondents expect an increase in gang problems in the next year

Strategies to Reduce Gang Membership and Violence

The national, bipartisan, nonprofit anti-crime organization Fight Crime: Invest in Kids (2004) offers three steps to reduce gang violence:

1. Build on successful models of collaboration between law enforcement, street mentors, and community leaders as a method to turn violent youths away from gangs and back to school or employment.

2. Adopt programs which have been successful in keeping youths out of gangs and out of prison.

3. Seek out and intervene in the lives of at-risk kids before they join a gang and/or become criminals.

The same report also outlines what works with gangs including:

1. Sending a clear message that violence will not be tolerated.

2. Providing services such as after-school programs and anti-bullying workshops to at-risk students to help keep them away from drugs and in school or in legal employment.

3. Providing training for parents to help them identify behaviors in their children which may signal gang involvement

The International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) (1999) offer a multitude of suggestions for school administrators, teachers, staff, students, parents, the community, and law enforcement to assist in preventing and responding to school violence. "To be effective, violence prevention programs require community-wide, collaborative efforts that include students, families, teachers, administrators, staff, social and mental health professionals, law enforcement, emergency response personnel, security professionals, school board members, parents, the business community, etc." (IACP, 1999, Prevention section, para. 1). Schools cannot combat gang activity and gang violence alone and require the help and cooperation of the community and the police (Grant & Van Acker, 2002).

"There are approximately 803,000 programs, activities, or arrangements operating in the nation's schools that are intended to reduce or prevent gang participation" (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001, p. 73). Of the prevention programs, about 49% involve direct services to families and students with 15% of all gang prevention programs operating in schools. Of the intervention programs, approximately 66% involve direct services to families and students with 13% of all gang intervention programs operating in schools.

One effort to reduce student gang participation is the Gang Resistance and Education Training (G.R.E.A.T.) program. Ramsey, Rust, and Sobel (2003) hypothesized in their quantitative study entitled *Evaluation of the gang resistance and education training (G.R.E.A.T.) program: A school-based prevention program* that the G.R.E.A.T. program would have a positive effect on the behaviors and attitudes toward authority figures, impulsivity, attitude about gangs, and their feelings about certain deviant behaviors of the students participating in the program (treatment group).

The results showed greater gang resistance when comparing the pre- and post-test. However, no attitudinal changes were found in the treatment group. According to the authors, the study indicates that no consistency between the changes in gang-related attitudes for the treatment and contrast groups could be attributed to the G.R.E.A.T. program (Ramsey et al., 2003).

The effectiveness of the G.R.E.A.T. program was assessed in a quasi-experimental longitudinal study (Esbensen, Osgood, Taylor, Peterson and Freng, 2001). The measures used included student questionnaires measuring behavior and attitudes. The University of Nebraska Institutional Review Board approved the research design which allowed for passive consent from parents for pretest and post-test data collection but required active consent for the surveys. The overall response rate of 67% was obtained. Of the 2,045 students for whom active consent was obtained, 86% completed surveys during the year one follow-up, 76% in year two, 69% in year three, and 67% in year four.

The results found G.R.E.A.T. to have "a small but systematic beneficial effect . . . which is statistically significant for five of the outcome measures: victimization, negative views about gangs, attitudes toward police, pro-social peers, and risk seeking" (Esbensen

et al., 2001, Overall Program Impact section, para. 1). Interestingly, there is a lack of evidence in the longitudinal study to support the program's primary stated objective to reduce gang activity (Esbensen et al., 2001). Another objective, developing positive relations with law enforcement, however, was realized. "G.R.E.A.T. students reported more favorable attitudes toward the police and more negative attitudes about gangs than did the non-G.R.E.A.T. students" (Esbensen et al., 2001, Discussion section, para. 5).

Law enforcement personnel play an important role in keeping gangs and gang violence out of schools (McDaniel, 2001). As an integral part of a school's safe school planning, law enforcement personnel, including but not limited to, school resource officers and specialized gang units, become part of the school community and may be utilized to help improve school security. The presence of a law enforcement officer on a school campus has the potential to impact many aspects of the school including student, staff, and parental feelings about or perceptions of school safety and the number of criminal and violent incidents which occur on school property (McDaniel, 2001).

Although there is no one standardized definition for what a school resource officer is, the federal definition is:

> A career law enforcement officer, with sworn authority, deployed in community-oriented policing, and assigned by the employing police department or agency to work in collaboration with schools and community-based organizations to: (a) address crime and disorder problems, gangs, and drug activities affecting or occurring in or around an elementary or secondary school; (b) develop or expand crime prevention efforts for students; (c) educate likely school-age victims in crime prevention and safety; (d) develop

or expand community justice initiatives for students; (e) train students in conflict resolution, restorative justice, and crime awareness; (f) assist in the identification of physical changes in the environment that may reduce crime in or around the school; and (g) assist in developing school policy that addresses crime and recommend procedural changes (McDaniel, 2001, What We Know section, para. 2).

In short, school resource officers are law enforcement personnel who are assigned to a school on a permanent basis (McDaniel, 2001). The law enforcement training and experience a school resource officer brings to a school adds to their ability to maintain the safety and security of the school campus as well as assists the school resource officer in fulfilling the three roles they are trained to carry out as a school resource officer. These roles are that of law enforcement officer, law-related counselor/advisor, and law-related education teacher (McDaniel, 2001). Officers who work in high schools spend more of their time working in the law enforcement role while officers assigned to elementary and middle schools are able to spend more time in the law-related education role. The role of law-related counselor is equally important across all three settings (McDaniel, 2001).

McDaniel (2001) reported on data from a 1997 survey conducted by the National Association of School Resource Officers (NASRO) which found:

- More school resource officers are assigned to high schools than elementary or middle schools
- The majority of the school resource officers are assigned to cover only one school

- The majority of the school resource officers are not rookie law enforcement personnel. Instead, they are usually police officers who have done time in the streets

- The majority of the school resource officers are sworn law enforcement officers who are assigned to either the police or sheriff's departments

- Most school resource officers wear their uniform and carry a gun while working in their assigned schools

- The majority of school resource officers are male and Caucasian.

"On any given day, there are more than 3800 school resource officers (SROs) that assist law enforcement agencies and communities in their effort to increase school safety" (May, Fessel, & Means, 2004, p. 75). However, despite their widespread use, only "a limited number of studies exist that attempt to assess (at least in part) the effectiveness of an SRO program" (May, et al., 2004, p. 77).

Jackson (2002), in a study using 271 public high schools in a rural part of southeast Missouri, attempted to gauge students' interactions with their school resource officer to determine if the interaction has an impact on students' perceptions of the police, delinquency, and their belief they would be identified if they were to participate in some form of delinquency. The results indicated a weak impact of school resource officers (SRO) on youth's attitudes about police and committing offenses.

These results suggest that having a school resource officer on school campuses does little to deter crime and violence on the campus. Administrators would do better using limited financial resources in the areas of counseling or awareness programs. However, "the legal implications which can arise from non-law enforcement personnel

conducting law enforcement activities can prove to be both devastating and discouraging to school faculty, administrators, and students and the public in general" (Jackson, 2002, School Violence section, para. 1). In addition, the author points out that while SROs by their mere presence may deter some criminal activity; they do not deter that activity which is deliberate and concealed. Finally, the study did find that the presence of an SRO on a school campus is helpful in preventing assaults.

May, et al. (2004) conducted a study to determine "the impact of SROs on perceptions of school safety among school administrators in Kentucky" (p. 75) Six page surveys were mailed to 177 principals of which 128 were returned for a response rate of 72.3%. Control variables which included gender, race, number of years an SRO has been assigned to the school where the principal worked, frequency of the meetings between the principal and the SRO's law enforcement supervisor, the principal's perception of the importance of the SRO to the overall school safety plan, and the principal's perception of the safety of the school were included in the multivariate models.

The level (elementary, middle, or high) of the school in which the principal worked was also controlled for by creating a dichotomous variable. Finally, the level of offending within the schools was controlled by utilizing data from the 2001-2002 school year. A multivariate linear regression was used to examine the "impact of contextual and demographic factors on principals' perceptions of SRO effectiveness" (May, et al., 2004, p. 83). Listwise deletion was used to ensure continuity across variables.

The majority of the principals in the sample were male (64.8%), White (92.2%) and over the age of 40 (80%). The principals also were experienced with one in four (24.2%) in public education for 21 to 25 years while one in five (20.2%) had been in public

education for 26 to 30 years and almost three in five (58.9%) had been a principal for six or more years.

The results showed "that most principals in Kentucky feel that SROs provide a valuable addition to school safety in their schools; however, the results also reveal the importance of communication between principals, SROs, and law enforcement supervisors regarding the nature of the SRO role" (May, et. al., 2004, p. 75). Principals felt SROs: 1) reduced problematic behaviors at school; 2) were an important part of the school safety plan; 3) should be assigned to all middle-, high-, and alternative schools; and 4) were effective (May, et al., 2004). However, "the single most important (and only statistically significant) predictor of a school administrator's perception of SRO effectiveness was the frequency of meetings between the administrator and the SRO's law enforcement supervisor" (May, et. al., 2004, p. 92). Another study found that school administrators as well as students felt that SROs were necessary in order to reduce the number of weapons and gang activity on a school campus which in turn provided for a greater sense of security (Johnson, 1999).

The Virginia State Department of Criminal Justice Services (2000) compiled a report from the ongoing evaluation of local School Resource Officer programs. The data "were obtained from 3,244 Student Incident Reports, a survey of 2,067 school staff, a survey of 11,864 middle and high school students, and 104 SRO quarterly Activities Reports"(Abstract section, para. 1). The evaluation had four major objectives: 1) to provide information about the scope and nature of school-based behavior; 2) to determine the extent that students and staff are fearful of being victimized while at school and the extent to which they are exposed to criminal behavior; 3) to find out the perceptions of

school administrators and staff with regard to their school's SRO program; and 4) to determine the activities SROs are engaged in with regard to crime prevention, law enforcement, community relations, and as instructors.

Findings from the Student Incident Reports (SIR) indicate that 48% of all SIR incidents are crimes against persons, while 18% were property crime, 10% were drug related, and 2% were gang related. With regard to the offenders, 85% were students with 76% of these being male. Of the victims, 24% were school staff with 50% of these being female. Findings from the Student and School Staff data indicate that both students and staff feel safe at school with lower feelings of safety among females. Twenty-four percent of the staff stated they were "somewhat" or "very" fearful that intruders would victimize them. That percentage dropped to 13% when asked about their fear of gang victimization. Both "students and staff felt most vulnerable in places where students congregated freely and where school staff might be absent (parking lots, hallways, bathrooms, stairwells, cafeterias, locker rooms, etc.)" (DCJS Crime Prevention Center, 2000, p. iii). Finally, 90% of respondents "strongly agreed" that SROs were a welcomed presence in their school.

According to the Center for Prevention of School Violence (2003), school resource officers are seen as an important part of a school's safe school planning and have a positive impact on the physical, social, and academic environment of a school. School resource officers are described as a resource available to the schools in which they are assigned and can play an important role in the planning of safe schools.

In another study, a qualitative evaluation of the effectiveness of school resource officers was conducted by measuring school administrators' beliefs about the effectiveness of the school resource officer program (McDaniel, 2001). Findings suggest that while

many administrators were initially hesitant to have a school resource officer on campus, after having one for at least part of one school year, 62% later rated the school resource officer program as being the most effective strategy in creating and maintaining safe schools. Another 26% rated the school resource officer program as the second highest effective strategy (McDaniel, 2001).

Specialized gang units have been formed in many schools and communities in response to the rising gang problem. These units are charged with apprehending gang members and helping to deter gang related activities. "In 1999, the Law Enforcement and Management Administrative Statistics (LEMAS) survey reported that among large agencies with 100 or more sworn officers, special gang units existed in 56% of all municipal police departments, 50% of all sheriff's departments, 43% of all county police agencies, and 20% of all state law enforcement agencies" (Katz, 2003, p. 485).

Katz (2001) uses a "conceptual framework grounded in institutional theory to add to the limited research that has focused on the police response to gangs" (Katz, 2001, Present Study section, para. 1) and to explore how the forces that caused the creation of the gang unit influenced their response to the community's gang problem. A multimethodological research design was used to identify and examine the factors which have led to the creation of specialized gang units across the nation.

Multiple data sources including field observations, in-depth interviews, and documents were used while approximately 300 hours were spent in field observations with gang unit officers (253 with seven gang unit officers, 20 with two gang unit supervisors, and 16 with two civilians in the gang unit) (Katz, 2001). Interviews were also conducted with the gang unit officers to better understand their perspective on the gang problem.

Finally, a review of 62 official documents from the gang unit as well as 162 newspaper articles dated January 1987 to 1997 was conducted. Forty–six non-gang unit personnel (8 officers from seven units in the police department, 16 members of the Law Enforcement Network/Tracking System, 14 school administrators, and 7 people representing special interest groups) were also interviewed to determine the gang unit's response to the community's gang problem.

The results of the study provided support for the institutional perspective theory and suggest that "the gang unit was created as a consequence of pressures placed on the police department from various powerful elements within the community, and that once created, the gang unit's response to the community's gang problem was largely driven by its need to achieve and maintain legitimacy among various sovereigns in their environment" (Katz, 2001, Conclusions section, para. 1). However, two limitations to the study were reported.

First, the findings should not be generalized to other communities because both a community's gang problem and the police response to the problem are unique to the community. Second, "it is possible the data were contaminated by the presence of the investigator" (Katz, 2001, Conclusion section, para. 8) even though repeated observations of gang unit officers over a period of time and the utilization of data from several sources were used to increase validity. Future research should focus on the impact that stakeholders have on the creation of gang units and the effect they have on the unit after it is created as well as racial factors which may have an impact on the unit.

Katz, Maguire, and Roncek (2002) used data from 284 communities and police departments around the country to determine why law enforcement agencies have begun to

create specialized gang units. Specifically, the contingency theory, social threat theory and resource dependency theory were studied. Survey data were collected utilizing five different data sets to control for vertical differentiation, organizational age, ethnicity, income, age, sex, functional differentiation, and to reduce measurement error. Results suggest that police departments do not establish gang units in response to the level of gang crime in the community (contingency theory). There is some support for the social threat theory with bivariate correlations for the African-American population being statistically insignificant while the bivariate correlations for the Hispanic population (b=6.81) are statistically significant; and the resource dependency theory also being correct (b=1.57) (Katz et al., 2002).

The social threat theory is derived from the conflict theory which states that members of the majority group will try to exert control over the minority group when the majority group feels threatened. "As ethnic and economic minorities become more visible, social control agencies increase the intensity of their crime control efforts to maintain domination over less powerful groups" (Katz et al., 2002, Social Threat section, para. 1). In addition, it is reported that some gang-oriented researchers claim that police create specialized gang units to control the populations they deem as threatening. Often this equates to minorities or marginalized populations and has little to do with rational considerations. Instead these units are most likely to be organized in neighborhoods with a large number of minorities or in neighborhoods of low socioeconomic status (Katz et al., 2002).

The contingency theory states that organizations "are rational entities, adopting organizational structures and operational activities that are most effective and efficient in

achieving specific goals" (Katz et al., 2002, Contingency theory section, para. 1). The contingency theory is the most dominant theory researchers use to examine police organizations, behaviors, and practices (Katz et al., 2002). In addition, early researchers who examined the problem of gangs found that the typical police response to gang issues was the creation of a specialized gang unit which also weighs in as evidence in favor of the contingency theory.

The resource dependency theory suggests that organizations must obtain and maintain resources to ensure survival and that to do so they must be political in nature and be able to proactively react and adapt to changes or perceived changes in their environment (Katz et al., 2002). The resource dependency theory has not been used often in researching police departments in the United States. However, some gang researchers suggest that access to federal dollars is more likely if the law enforcement agency can show gang activity in their community. Proponents of the resource dependency theory state that specialized gang units are created due to threats, real or imagined, in order to justify the need for additional resources (Katz, et al., 2002).

School Resource Officers are but one security measure used in schools to help promote a safe campus. Other law enforcement methods include requiring visitors to sign in, security cameras, controlled access to school grounds and school buildings, and metal detectors. While some of these are intended to limit access to school campuses, other measures are designed to monitor people's behavior once they are on a school's campus (US Department of Education, 2004). The 2000 School Survey on Crime and Safety found that of 2,270 public elementary, middle, secondary, and combined schools, 97% required visitors to sign in while 75% controlled access to school buildings, 65% closed campus

during lunch, 34% controlled access to school grounds, 7% employed random metal detector checks, and 1% required students and visitors to pass through metal detectors. In addition, to monitor the school campus, security cameras were used in 19% of the public schools surveyed (US Department of Education, 2004).

While schools remain one of the safest places for children, school violence is still a major concern (Snell, Bailey, Carona, and Mebane, 2002). In their study of 800 randomly selected administrators from public and private middle- and high-schools in the state of Texas, Snell, et al., (2002) found that "the vast majority of schools have zero-tolerance policies in place for firearms (91%), other weapons (91%), drug possession (90%), fights (83%), and sexual assaults (86%)" (Results section, para. 2). In addition, schools are more likely to have developed policies regarding firearms and other weapon possession following highly publicized incidents of school crime (Snell, et. al, 2002). Policies against violence-related writing and gang-related paraphernalia are also common (67% and 83% respectively) and have increased in recent years. In terms of physical security on campus, 14% of the schools surveyed have metal detectors, 32% have video cameras, 40% monitor exits, and 81% have some partnership with law enforcement (Snell et al., 2002).

The physical environment may need to be changed in order to prevent or reduce school violence (International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), 1999). The IACP recommends administrators conduct a comprehensive survey of their school's physical design which must include the physical layout of buildings, any and all safety policies, and emergency plans. Following this comprehensive survey, administrators should create a safety and violence prevention committee consisting of all stakeholders and charge them with creating a detailed security plan based on the school's needs.

Not all of the literature on public school security measures finds the measures to be positive. "Law enforcement expansion in schools and the vanishing Fourth Amendment rights of public school children" (Beger, 2002, p. 119) is examined as the "climate of fear generated by recent school shootings has spurred school administrators to increase security through physical means (locks, surveillance cameras, metal detectors) and to hire more police and security guards" (Beger, 2002, p. 119). Instead of safeguarding our students' rights, however, his article explores the courts' granting of more authority to conduct student searches which in turn has reduced Fourth Amendment protection in public school. It is his belief that "children are unsafe in public schools today not because of exposure to drugs and violence, but because they have lost their constitutional protections under the Fourth Amendment" (Beger, 2002, p. 127).

While security cameras and metal detectors are "the most widely used electronic approaches to security" (Greene, 2005, p. 239) whether or not these devices reduce levels of violence has not been tested. In fact, other measures such as controlled access to campus, increased lighting, electronic-card-entry devices, dress codes, locker searchers, and the use of security guards or police officers have not been rigorously evaluated (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001). In fact, traditional law enforcement methods used in schools may carry major negative side effects and can create "A prison like atmosphere of surveillance cameras, security guards, body searches, and a variety of punishments (which) can create a pervasive atmosphere of apprehension and coercion among faculty, staff, students, and parents" (Stanley, et al., 2004, Typical Law Enforcement Methods section, para. 2).

Theoretical Models of Fear, Crime, and Gangs

In an attempt to combat the growing gang crime problem and the costs associated with fear of gangs, an increase in the implementation of programs designed to reduce the fear has occurred (Katz, Webb and Armstrong, 2003). The threat of gang violence prompted the U.S. Senate to hold hearings about gang violence in an effort to "do something" about gangs because they believed that gangs held the nation "in the grip of fear" (Lane & Meeker, 2003, p. 425). The study of the fear of crime has revolved around four theoretical models: 1) the victimization model, 2) the disorder model, 3) the community-concern model, and 4) the subcultural-diversity model (Katz, et al, 2003). Lane & Meeker (2003) also studied the fear of gang crime based on the subcultural diversity theory, the disorder theory, and the community concern theory.

"The victimization model attempts to explain fear of crime through a number of concepts related to perceived vulnerability, personal victimization, vicarious experiences with victimization, and the media" (Katz, et al., 2003, Theoretical models section, para. 2). This model focuses on peoples' perceived vulnerability and hypothesizes that women and older persons have a higher fear of crime due to their perception of physical vulnerability while minority groups, low income, and low educational level groups perceive an ecological vulnerability and thus have a higher fear of crime. (Katz et al., 2003). In short, those who perceive themselves to be vulnerable to crime have a higher fear of crime than those without this perception.

The emphasis in the disorder model lies with the "belief that disorder, left unattended, leads residents to believe that informal social control has broken down" (Katz, et al., 2003, Disorder section, para. 1). Disorder in the form of vandalism, graffiti, and

abandoned buildings are often the initial signs which cause residents to believe that societal values have disappeared which in turn increases fear (Katz, et al., 2003).

Many fear of crime studies have looked at the effects that disorder (e.g. trash, homeless people, graffiti, abandoned buildings) have had on people to help determine if these symbols of disorder make them "more afraid of becoming a victim of crime" (Lane & Meeker, 2003, p. 431). Similar to the disorder model, the community concern model, developed in response to the victimization model, focuses on social-psychological issues and residents' perception of the deterioration of the neighborhood (Katz, et. al., 2003). This model "argues that fear of crime is primarily due to concern over community decay" (Lane & Meeker, 2003, p. 432).

The idea that people are afraid of those with different values and attitudes and who come from different backgrounds is the basis for the subcultural-diversity model (Katz, et. al, 2003). According to the subcultural-diversity model, "the manners and behaviors of 'others' are difficult to interpret, which leads to unease and fear" (Katz, et al., 2003, Diversity section, para. 4).

In their study of the fear of gangs, Katz, et. al. (2003) used "data collected as part of an ongoing effort to provide a variety of information to community leaders and public officials who are responsible for the strategic direction and operation of a gang intervention project in Mesa, Arizona" (Methods section, para. 1). Telephone surveys were conducted from August 15, 2001, to September 8, 2001. The sample consisted of 800 randomly selected respondents with 400 of those from high-gang areas and 400 from low-gang areas. The authors report a confidence interval of .95 with a margin of error of

+/- 3.5%. The response rate was reported as 25% which is "low but consistent with recent trends in telephone surveys" (Sample section, para. 3).

The authors used factor analyzed, summative scales to measure the two dependent variables of fear of crime and fear of gangs. The independent variables measured consisted of individual characteristics (race, gender, age, etc.). Direct and indirect nongang and gang victimization were measured for the victimization model while home ownership, perception of neighborhood cohesion, and perception of neighborhood deterioration were measured for the community-concern model. For the subcultural diversity model, a measure of concern about subcultural diversity was included and measures of social and physical disorder were included for the disorder model (Independent variable section, para. 1). The reliability coefficient for the fear-of-crime scale is .66 (Cronbach's alpha); for fear of gangs, .81 (Cronbach's alpha); for neighborhood cohesion, .73 (Cronbach's alpha); for subcultural diversity, .66 (Cronbach's alpha); for social disorder, .86 (Cronbach's alpha); and for physical disorder, .82 (Cronbach's alpha).

Direct gang and nongang victimization, indirect nongang victimization, being nonwhite, subcultural diversity, and physical and social disorder increased fear of gangs (Katz et al., 2003). In addition; gender and awareness of neighborhood deterioration when social disorder is included in the model increased fear of crime. The authors also report that "gender and subcultural diversity had the strongest impact on fear of crime, whereas ethnicity and disorder (both physical and social) had the strongest impact on fear of gangs (Katz et al, 2003, Results section, para 7). "Direct gang and nongang victimization and indirect nongang victimization significantly increased fear of crime and fear of gangs and

that the effect of these factors influenced both types of fear to a similar extent" (Katz et al., 2003, Discussion section, para. 3).

In another study, Lane and Meeker (2003) looked at three theoretical models, subcultural diversity, disorder/incivilities, and community concern – all having roots in the social disorganization theory – with the goal of testing the impact that perceived diversity, disorder, and community decline has on people's fear of crime. Their study was set in Orange County, California, an area with increasing racial and ethnic diversity as well as a history of gang problems. The sample was 63% white, 18% Latino, 6% Asian American, and about 11% others which is consistent with the ethnic makeup of the county.

With regard to diversity, "being female, younger, and minority has a direct significant impact on gang fear, independent of concerns about diversity" (Lane & Meeker, 2003, p. 443). While diversity has a direct significant impact on fear, education has no significant effect. With regard to disorder, people who perceive disorder are more afraid of gangs and "being female, younger, and minority have a direct, significant, independent effect on fear" (Lane & Meeker, 2003, p. 443) and disorder has a stronger effect on fear than that of diversity. Lastly, minorities are more afraid of gangs when they perceive more disorder in their communities.

Consistent with the disorder model, there is an indirect relationship between race and fear, but whites are now more likely to perceive decline and those that do are also more afraid of gangs. One finding which was consistent across all models is that females, younger people, and minorities are more afraid of gangs without regard for their perceptions of disorder or community decline. This study is socially significant as it

reaffirms the results of previous fear of crime studies – fear of gangs is not only about crime and the risk of victimization (Lane & Meeker, 2003).

In a different study, Lane and Meeker (2003) examined the different effects of "sexual and nonsexual assault offenses that may be coupled with specific gang crimes" (Abstract section, para. 1). They hypothesized that women will be more afraid than men, that perceived risk will be a significant predictor of fear of all types of crimes, that fear of sexual assault will be a much stronger predictor of other fears for women than for men, and that fear of gang-related assault will be a strong predictor of fear for both women and men (Characteristics section, para. 6). In addition, Lane and Meeker (2003) hypothesized that younger people, minorities, those with less education, and those who rent will be more afraid.

To test these hypotheses, Lane and Meeker (2003) developed five research questions: 1) Are women more afraid of gang crimes and of rape/sexual assault than are men? 2) Is fear of rape/sexual assault an important predictor of fear of gang crimes? 3) If so, is fear of rape/sexual assault a perceptually contemporaneous offense only for women? 4) How do fear of rape/sexual assault and fear of nonsexual (gang-related) assault compare as predictors of fear of other types of crimes? 5) Once we control for fear of assault generally, how important is the sexual component?

Their findings support the first research question as women were found to be more afraid than men in each of the crimes analyzed (the mean difference is statistically significant at .001 for all crimes). Women were most afraid of rape, then gang assault, then carjacking; however, fewer were afraid of crimes that posed less chance of physical harm – graffiti, and gang harassment. For men, rape ranked sixth while gang assault

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ranked fourth. Finally, for both men and women, the perceived risk of victimization was low (less than 20% for both men and women).

For the second and third research question the results indicated that fear of rape is a significant predictor of fear and perceived risk is significant for women. For men, fear of rape is a significant predictor for fear and perceived risk is significant. However, the coefficient comparison tests indicate that fear of rape has a significantly different effect for men and women.

As to the fourth research question, findings showed the fear of assault is more predictive than fear of rape for both women and men and perceived risk remains significant. Finally, results showed that the sexual component is important but not a key factor in explaining fear of other types of crimes for both men and women.

To summarize, Lane and Meeker (2003) report the findings indicate "that the importance of demographic characteristics diminished when we controlled for perceived risk and fears of rape and gang assault" (Summary section, para. 1). In addition, while the "magnitude of fear for women is greater than it is for men, the patterns of variables that predict fear are similar for both men and women" (Implications section, para. 1).

Teacher Retention and Attrition

The public school system is designed to provide not only a high quality education, but a safe environment in which to teach and learn which can only be achieved by providing high-quality teachers. However, "Contemporary educational theory holds that one of the pivotal causes of inadequate school performance is the inability of schools to adequately staff classrooms with qualified teachers" (Ingersoll, 2001, p. 499). "Districts

and schools are constantly engaged in activities related to the recruitment and retention of their instructional staff" (Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006, Abstract section, para. 1).

Finding and keeping highly qualified teachers is an ongoing concern (Shen, 2001, p. 81). "A conservative national estimate of the cost of replacing public school teachers who have dropped out of the profession is $2.2 billion a year" (Alliance for Excellence in Education, 2005). However, the price tag may be even higher when "the loss in teacher quality and student achievement" is added (Teacher attrition: A costly, 2005). "In addition to the issue of quality, high rates of teacher attrition disrupt program continuity and planning, hinder student learning, and increase school districts' expenditures on recruiting and hiring" (Shen, 2001, p. 81).

Marvel, Lyter, Peltola, Strizek, and Morton (2006) in conjunction with the U.S. Department of Education and the National Center for Education Statistics compiled information for the 2004–2005 Teacher Follow-Up Survey (TFS) in their report, *Teacher Attrition and Mobility: Results for the 2004-2005 Teacher Follow-up Survey.* The 2004-2005 TFS was completed by 7,429 current and former teachers with 2,864 teachers in the same school as the previous year ("stayers"); 1,912 teaching at a different school ("movers"); and 2,653 who had left the teaching profession altogether ("leavers"). Selected findings reported include:

- Of the 3,214,900 public school teachers teaching during the 2003-2004 school year, 84% were "stayers", 8% were "movers", and 8% were "leavers". Among the private school teachers, 81% were "stayers", 6% were "movers", and 14% were "leavers".

- Among the public school teachers younger than age 30, about 15% were "movers" and 9% were "leavers" while in private schools, 12% were "movers" and 20% were "leavers".

- Thirty-eight percent of public and 33% of private school "movers" stated the opportunity for a better teaching assignment as very important or extremely important in their decision to move while 46% of the private school teachers also rated better salary and benefits as very or extremely important.

- Among the "leavers", 25% of public and 30% of private school teachers rated pursuing a position other than a K-12 teacher as very or extremely important in their decision to leave. In addition, 31% of public school teachers rated retiring as very or extremely important while 25% of private school teachers rated pregnancy or child care issues as very or extremely important.

An estimated 611,500 special education teachers will be needed by the year 2010, yet each year about 13.2% of special educators leave their teaching positions (6% leave teaching altogether while 7.2% move to general education) (Plash and Piotrowski, 2006). A study of special education teachers in southeastern Alabama was conducted to determine the "issues that relate to the attrition, migration, and turnover of special education teachers" (Plash & Piotrowski, 2006, p. 125) utilizing a 63-item instrument that reflected specific issues (job satisfaction, administration support, employment preparation, and reasons for termination of employment) related to retention of special education teachers. A packet was sent to 260 special education teachers employed by the county and 117 were returned. Of the 117 teachers, 70 were classified as highly qualified and thus made up the sample for this study.

Their results indicated that "stress from the demands of the job, inadequate planning time, wide diversity of student needs, class size/caseload size, excessive paperwork, and demands associated with IDEA compliance" (Plash & Piotrowski, p. 126) are the major reasons that special education teachers leave the profession. Other issues such as threats of litigation and spousal job relocation were also noted as important.

In their review of empirical literature, Guarino, Santibanez, and Daley (2006) found the highest attrition rates for teachers occurs in their first years of teaching and after many years of teaching (retirement); minority teachers had lower attrition rates than white teachers; mathematics and science teachers were more likely to leave the teaching profession than teachers in other fields; teachers with higher measured abilities were more likely to leave than those with lower measured abilities; and females had higher attrition rates than males (Remarks section, para. 2). In addition, with regard to external factors, public schools with a large proportion of low-income, minority students in urban school districts tended to have higher attrition rates.

Beginning teachers were surveyed to determine the attitudes of beginning teachers in order to determine positive aspects of the teaching profession which may lead to teacher retention (Inman & Marlow, 2004). One thousand two hundred fifty surveys were sent to a random sample of teachers in Georgia. The results indicated that "salary was the only external factor identified by beginning teachers as a reason for remaining in the teaching profession" (Inman & Marlow, 2004, p. 609) while employment factors (support from administration, class size, resources, job security, intrinsic rewards) played a significant role in teachers with 4 – 9 years teaching experience staying in the classroom. Conversely, Certo and Fox (2002) found that while there are many reasons teachers leave the

profession, salary is the number one factor followed closely by lack of administrative support (Results section, para. 7).

Goddard and Goddard (2006) hypothesized there would be a significant positive association between burnout and turnover intention in the early part of teachers' careers. Participants were 121 beginning teachers in Queensland, Australia, who agreed to participate by returning a completed survey. Burnout was measured by the Educator Survey of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and consisted of three subscales: Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment. Turnover intention was measured by asking respondents the following question: "Are you seriously considering leaving your current job?" (Goddard & Goddard, 2006, p. 66). The results indicated there is "support for the hypothesis that there is a meaningful association between serious intentions to leave the teaching profession and burnout levels reported by teachers who are at the beginning of their teaching careers" (Goddard & Goddard, 2006, p. 71).

In an examination of the causal pattern of relationships among stress, satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intentions a structural equation analysis approach was utilized. The results indicated a "strong causal link between stress and satisfaction (high stress leads to lower satisfaction) and between satisfaction and commitment (lower satisfaction leads to lower commitment), and a reciprocal relationship between commitment and turnover intentions (lower commitment leads to greater intentions to quit which, in turn, further lowers commitment)" (Elangovan, 2001, Abstract section, para. 1).

Weisberg (1994) studied workers' burnout and its influence on productivity, commitment, and intentions to leave a job by studying the relationship between burnout in

female school teachers and its effect on their intention to leave their job (Weisberg, 1994, Abstract section, para. 1). Weisberg utilizes Pines and Kafry's 1978 definition of burnout "When one can no longer tolerate occupational pressures and feel totally overwhelmed by stress, one is likely to reach breaking point and experience burnout" (as cited in Weisberg, 1994, para. 8).

"Workers in human services organization (e.g. police officers, social workers, nurses, and teachers), and those workers who have extensive interaction with demanding subpopulations, are more vulnerable to high degrees of burnout" (Weisberg, 1994, para. 8). Burnout for teachers has been linked to "excessive work, inadequate salaries, disciplinary problems, lack of student interest, overcrowded classrooms, a requirement to give too many tests, difficulty in advancement, lack of a support team and equipment, unwanted transfers to other schools, conflict in job perceptions, and public criticism of teachers and their work" (Weisberg, 1994, para. 9).

In-depth interviews based on biodemographic, burnout, and intention-to-leave aspects with 28 female secondary school teachers in Tel-Aviv was conducted utilizing the 1981 Pines, Aronson, and Kafry 21-item burnout inventory which was translated into Hebrew (Weisberg, 1994). The variables included intention to leave, overall burnout, and physical, emotional, and mental burnout measures. Intention to leave was evaluated on a five-point scale ranging from very little to very much and measured the degree to which the teacher assessed her intention to leave her current job. Three statements were presented with the second statement reverse coded: 1) I have considered leaving teaching; 2) I think that if I were choosing my career again, I would choose teaching; and 3) I think in the near future I will leave teaching.

Overall burnout was measured with a single question: "To what extent do you feel that your work burns you out?" Physical, emotional, and mental burnout were measured utilizing the burnout scale developed by Pines and Kafry and consisted of 21 items placed in random order and evaluated on a seven-point scale ranging from never to always. Burnout means score was measured for each respondent while control variables of age and tenure were also included.

The study was designed in three stages. First, the 21-item burnout scale was factor analyzed and classified as physical, emotional, and mental. Cronbach alpha-coefficients were calculated to test reliability and showed a reliability of 89%. Second, the relationship of age, tenure, and burnout were measured utilizing bi-variate Pearson correlations. The dependent variable, intention to leave, was regressed overall, mean score, and physical, emotional and mental burnout with the control variables of age and tenure included. All three models utilized to test the impact of burnout on intention to leave were found to be significant (Weisberg, 1994, Multivariate Regression Analysis section). The major limitation of Weisberg's (1994) study is the small sample. The author suggests additional testing to "verify its validity in other populations" (Weisberg, 1994, Discussion section, para.8).

In a similar study, Weisberg and Sagie (1999) studied the impact of burnout on female Israeli teachers' intention to leave their current jobs. The 21 item Burnout Scale created in 1981 by Pines, Aronson, and Kafry was factor analyzed identifying three subscales: physical, emotional, and mental burnout. Findings indicate that both physical and mental exhaustion positively and significantly influenced the intention to leave while emotional exhaustion was not significant. In addition, while teachers' ages were not

significant, "tenure was negatively and significantly correlated with both burnout and intention to leave" (Weisberg & Sagie, 1999, Abstract section, para. 1).

Waltington, Shockley, Earley, Huie, et al. (2004) examined four South Florida School Districts – Broward, Palm Beach, St. Lucie, and Okeechobee Counties – to determine demographic variables associated with teacher retention. Two Thousand One Hundred Twenty Nine teachers hired in the four school districts (62% in Broward, 25% in Palm Beach, 12% in St. Lucie, and 1% in Okeechobee) in the 2000 – 2001 school year were tracked and variables associated with "teacher demographics and the relationship of teacher retention to variables such as age, gender, race, preparation and assignment were analyzed" (Waltington et al., 2004, Description section, para. 1). Three years of data from school personnel files were used to identify subjects in relation to the demographic variables (Description section, para. 1). *T*-tests were performed on the quantitative variables while chi-square was performed on the nominal variables.

The sample was mostly female (77%), ethnically diverse (65% Caucasian, 23% African American, 9% Hispanic, and 3% Asian/American Indian), had a mean age of 34.96 years, and was recruited mostly from within Florida (65%). In addition, 62% were trained through a teacher education program at a college or university, 15% from an alternative teacher preparation program, and 23% with no prior teacher training.

The results showed that during the first year, there was little attrition (95.6% retention) with out-of-state hires less likely to be retained, older hires less likely to be retained than younger hires, and out-of-field teachers less likely to be retained than in-field teachers. During year two, the retention rate dropped greatly (79.8%) with the same trends found in the first year continuing with the addition of males being less likely to be

retrained than females and alternative preparation teachers more likely to be retained than approved program and teachers that had no preparation. During the third year the retention rate again dropped (72.8%) with the same trends evident.

Notably, there was a difference in the retention rates among the four geographically close school districts with Broward County having the highest retention rate (80.5%) followed by Palm Beach County (65.2%), Okeechobee County (58.6%) and St. Lucie County (48%). In addition, when comparing specific variables – gender, race, field placement, and training program – Broward County had higher retention rates than the other three counties. When removing Broward County from the 3rd year sample, the other districts show "African American teachers were less likely to be retained than other racial groups, and Hispanic teachers were more likely to be retained than Caucasian teachers" (Comparison section, para. 2). Finally, older teachers were less likely to be retained than younger teachers.

One Thousand Five Hundred Seventy Six Florida special education teachers were surveyed in an effort to determine factors which contributed to the likelihood of them to leave or stay in the classroom or transfer to a new school (Miller, Brownell, & Smith, 1999). Specifically, the teacher and workplace variables that were significant predictors in a teacher's decision to leave or transfer out of the special education classroom were examined. The authors utilized the 1993 conceptual framework of Brownell and Smith which incorporates the 1976 ecological model of Bronfenbrenner. Variables such as 1) historical factors (age, race, teacher efficacy, certification); 2) microsystem factors (relationships with students, reasonableness of workload, and student caseload); 3) mesosystem factors (relationships with colleagues, support from administrators, and role

conflict) and 4) exosystem factors (salary, service delivery system, and job benefits) (Miller, et al., 1999, Method section, para. 2) were included as well as measures of job satisfaction, stress, commitment, and intent to stay in special education teaching.

Results indicate that insufficient certification, high stress, and perceptions of poor school climate play a significant role in teachers leaving special education teaching. Of those who transferred to a different school or district, perceptions of high stress and poor school climate were significant as well as age -- these teachers were significantly younger than those who stayed. The authors do point out that while their study "provides a larger picture of the attrition problem by including classroom and school environment variables" (Miller, et al., 1999. Conclusions section, para. 2) more research is needed.

The personal and demographic characteristics of retained teachers of special education were studied using a mixed method design requesting respondents to answer questions relating to their demographic and personal characteristics as well as their perceptions of the special education classroom (Olivarez and Arnold, 2006). Forty-eight school districts and charter schools were sent the Retention Study for South Texas Special Educators survey. Of the 750 surveys sent to special education teachers, only 228 were returned for a response rate of 30%. The results showed the personal and demographic characteristics of the retained special education teachers studied to be:

- Gender = 85% female; 15% male

- Age = 37% between the ages of 41 – 50; 12% between the ages of 20 -- 30; 24% between the ages of 31 – 40; 24% between the ages of 51 – 60; 4% over the age of 61

- Experience = 28% had zero to 5 years experience; 26% had 6 to 8 years experience; 10% had 11 to 15 years experience; 14% had 16 to 20 and 21 to 25 years experience; 7% had 26 to 30 years experience; 1% had over 31 years experience

- Marital Status = 75% married; 10% single; 2% widowed; 13% divorced

- Ethnicity = 75% Caucasian; 31% Latino; 4% African American; 7% Asian; 7% Other; 41% reported being bilingual

- Education = 55% reported a BS/BA degree as the highest degree earned; 34% held Master's degrees; 10% had coursework beyond Master's; 1% Doctoral degree.

Within the last several years researchers have begun to study how the school climate contributes to violence in the school. Students who have become alienated often hold hostile and aggressive feelings toward the school (Hyman & Snook, 2001). Buck (2006) examined the relationship between types of school violence and teacher burnout. The first goal of his study was to examine the nature of teachers' experiences with school violence while the second goal was to examine how direct or indirect experience with differing types of violence in schools related to teacher burnout.

A 61-item survey was distributed and collected with the assistance of a local chapter of the National Education Association and had a total of 315 respondents. Results indicate that "teachers were more likely to experience psychologically violent acts than physically violent acts, but they were aware of students and other teachers who had experienced physical violence" (Buck, 2006, Discussion section, para. 1). In addition, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were the result of direct and indirect exposure to violence and that high school teachers experience a great deal of violence in their work environments which may lead to professional burnout (Buck, 2006).

Stated limitations include the lack of generalizability to populations outside the southeastern city from which the sample was drawn, a lack of ethnic diversity, and the absence of a method by which to determine who was perpetrating the violence reported by the teachers (i.e. students, other staff members, "outsiders" such as drug dealers, or parents). Additional weaknesses include a lack of a way for respondents to rate the level of severity of the violent incident and the teachers' perceived impairment due to the act. Finally, the cross-sectional and self-report nature of the study requires that the findings be interpreted with caution (Buck, 2006).

Working conditions play a key role in teacher's decisions to leave the profession (Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005). Teachers are more likely to leave schools serving high proportions of low-achieving, low-income, and minority students instead seeking schools with higher-income, higher-performing students (Loeb et. al., 2005). The major areas of dissatisfaction were found in student motivation and discipline as well as a lack of administrative support (Loeb et al, 2005, p. 47). High-poverty public schools have moderately higher rates of teacher turnover, while larger schools, public schools in large school districts, and urban public schools do not have as high a turnover rate as small private schools (Ingersoll, 2001).

The literature consistently recognizes that job dissatisfaction including lack of support from administration, student discipline problems, and low salaries are causes of teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2001; Yell & Rozalski, 2000; Loeb et al.,2005) with student discipline rated among the top three reasons teachers leave the profession (Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Conversely, schools with lower levels of student discipline problems experience lower turnover rates (Ingersoll, 2001). Forty-two percent of all teachers leaving the

profession report job dissatisfaction (e.g. low administrative support, low salaries, student discipline problems) or the pursuit of a better job as the cause of their leaving (Ingersoll, 2001).

Liu and Meyer (2005) conducted a study about teachers' perceptions of their jobs. They used a multilevel analysis of the Teacher Follow-up Survey for 1994 – 1995 which is based on a "nationally representative sample stratified by state, sector, and school level" and "offers comprehensive information about teachers and general conditions of America's public and private elementary and secondary schools" (Liu & Meyer, 2005, p. 989). The literature review was concise and informative and led to the gap in the literature about teacher perceptions of their job conditions and the factors which led to them leaving the teaching profession.

Data was used from 6,279 teachers from public and private schools who responded to the 1994 – 1995 survey. The respondents were 71% female with ages equally distributed among the less than 30, 30 – 39, 40 – 49, and 50 or older ranges. Eighty-Seven percent were Caucasians, 5% African Americans, 5% Asians, and 1% American Indians. Forty-one percent of the teachers had stayed in the same teaching position since the first survey while 38% had left the profession and 21% had moved to a different teaching position.

The data set consisted of questionnaire items which asked teachers to rate their satisfaction with five different job aspects using a 4-point Likert scale. The authors then "compared multiple regression, multivariate analysis of variance, and hierarchical liner modeling" (Liu & Meyer, 2005, p. 990) to relate outcome variables to predictor variables. The results indicate that while teachers are least satisfied with salary and benefits, they are

almost equally unhappy about student discipline problems while being neutral regarding work conditions, and relatively satisfied with school climate and professional support. There is a high correlation between school climate and work conditions ($r = .77$); a moderately high correlation between student discipline problems and professional support ($r = .60$); and little association between satisfaction with salary and perception of student discipline problems ($r = .09$) suggesting that a high salary might not compensate for student discipline problems.

With regard to school climate, the empirical literature reviewed by Guarino, et al (2006) found:

- Schools with higher proportions of minority, low-income, and low-performing students tended to have higher teacher attrition rates.

- In most studies, urban school districts had higher teacher attrition rates than suburban and rural districts.

- Teacher retention was generally found to be higher in public than in private schools.

Teachers, students, and administrators have become more and more aware of the increasing levels of violence in their schools (Yell & Rozalski, 2000). Violence in schools has become a major concern and as such has prompted federal, state, and local authorities to create new laws to address the issue. Some of these laws, such as adopting zero-tolerance approaches, conducting targeted and random searches of students and their property, metal detectors, and violence prevention programs are examined by Yell and Rozalski (2000) and suggestions are made for developing policies to address school violence. The cases examined in the review detailed the U.S. Supreme Court's

acknowledgement of the constitutional rights of students in public schools while also acknowledging that "schools have a duty to educate students in a safe and orderly environment" (Yell & Rozalski, 2000, Supreme Court section, para. 1).

The Effective School Battery developed by Gottfredson Associates, Inc., was used to determine teachers' views on classroom order, victimization, safety, organizational focus, administrator leadership, planning, and morale. The results indicated that the odds that the principal will report a gang problem in the school are lower in schools with orderly classrooms, where teachers feel safe, where the school has clear goals and expectations established, where the teachers believe the principal to be a good leader, and where the morale is good. When teachers report high levels of personal victimization, the odds are greater that the principal will report a gang problem. A principal will indicate a gang problem in the school more often if the schools is large and has a high percentage of students or teachers who are Hispanic and if the school is located in an urban setting instead of a rural setting. In addition, high school principals indicate a gang problem more often than elementary school principals (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

The study conducted by Smith and Smith (2006) offered an interpretation of teachers' perceptions of violence and how these perceptions influenced their decisions to leave urban schools. In an effort to determine their perceptions of the school, in depth, qualitative interviews were conducted with twelve teachers who had left teaching. In general, the study found that teachers perceived inner-city schools as violent and chaotic places where anything can happen" (Smith & Smith, 2006, Introduction section, para. 1). The effect of this chaos is often increased stress which in turn leads to burnout.

Occupational stress is a factor that has been reported as being "a considerable problem within today's working professionals" (Jepson & Forrest, 2006, Abstract section, para. 5). In addition, teachers view workload, student behavior and discipline, and initiative overload as reasons which contribute to their desire to leave the profession. Teaching is viewed as being extremely hard, poorly paid, and held in low public esteem which in turn has a detrimental effect on recruitment and retention (Jepson, et al, 2006). Teachers who quit the profession cite not only pay issues but low administrative support, student discipline and student motivation as reasons for their decision (Stolpa-Flatt, 2006).

Billingsley (2004) compiled an analysis of studies which investigated factors that lead to teacher attrition and retention in special education. She looked at four factors in conducting this analysis: teacher characteristics and personal factors, teacher qualifications, work environments, and teachers' affective reactions to work. The review found that there is a large variation in the factors which lead to teacher attrition and retention and suggests that the work environment can lead to negative affective reactions which eventually lead to attrition. In addition, "teacher characteristics and qualifications that are linked to attrition include the following: (a) special educators who are younger and inexperienced are at higher risk of leaving than their older more experienced counterparts, (b) those who are uncertified are more likely to leave than those who are certified, and (c) those with higher test scores are more likely to leave than those with lower scores" (Billingsley, 2004, Summary section, para. 3).

"Work environment factors (e.g., low salaried, poor climate, lack of administrative support, role problems) can lead to negative affective reactions (e.g., high levels of stress

as well as low levels of job satisfaction and commitment). These negative reactions lead to

withdrawal and eventually attrition" (Billingsley, 2004, Summary section para. 1).

Synopsis of the Literature

Theoretical Literature

There are several theories of gang development from two schools of thought – criminological and psychological -- present throughout the literature. However, the social disorganization theory and the social learning theory appear most often. The social disorganization theory is the oldest of the gang theories and considers gang development as "an alternative avenue for youth who otherwise lack social connectedness with personal and community institutions" (Jones et al., 2004, Social Disorganization Theory section, para. 1).

The literature about the social disorganization theory demonstrates that it is the social characteristics of a given community which lead to gang development, not biological characteristics of gang members. This theory guides researchers by focusing on social issues such as lack of connectedness, political or economic changes, war, racism, shifts in the labor market, or the failure of socialization institutions such as schools, religious establishments, and governments and reinforces the normality of gang formation in "abnormal social situations" (Jones et al., 2004, Social Disorganization section, para. 1). As shown by Papachristos and Kirk (2006), the majority of homicides occurred in neighborhoods with higher levels of social disorganization. However, these authors do suggest future areas of study include research into the similarity of neighborhood effects across ethnic groups, how gangs integrate into social networks within neighborhoods, and why some neighborhoods have gangs while others do not.

Sobel and Osoba (2006) also explored the social disorganization theory by focusing on the failure of the government (a social agent) to provide for and protect its citizens, thus

causing the formation of gangs as a protective agency. Their study showed that homicide causes gang membership and not the other way around. Conversely, Peterson, et al. (2004) showed that violent victimization rates were higher for gang members than non-gang members. There are several limitations to these studies – namely the lack of generalization and the lack of reported reliability and validity.

The strength of the social disorganization theory is that it deals with a visible element, social issues, which can assist a researcher in focusing on an area of study. The weakness of this theory is that it does not take into consideration any biological abnormalities which may influence an individual's decision to associate with or join a gang.

The social disorganization theory may be developed further by researching how the theory may be utilized in gang interventions and/or school programs aimed at reducing gang activity on school campuses. Also, the role this theory has on gang activity in schools and teacher intention to leave when employed in communities with a large amount of social disorganization should be explored. Further study should also focus on how the social disorganization theory may be used to create a program aimed at school aged children with the goal of preventing gang membership and providing the social connectedness which may be lacking in a child's life.

The social learning theory expands on the differential association theory of gang development and suggests that imitation of those close to us provides for learning opportunities. This theory is usually applied to crimes such as burglary which have some form of monetary gain or reinforcement. The social learning theory guides professional practice in that it makes it clear that punishments must not only fit the crime, but also be

severe enough that the individual does not want to repeat the act. In a school setting this may include removal from class or lunch (social settings) and placement in in-school suspension. However, this will only work if the in-school suspension in and of itself is not a rewarding experience.

Even as a group psychological theories do not take into consideration all the facets of gang development and as such create a weakness when attempting to explain gang development. However, one of the strengths of this theory is it will help guide a researcher when studying individual psychological reasons for joining a gang.

Researchers have attempted to explain the phenomenon of gang development since it became a social concern. However, while there are many criminological, biological, and psychological theories on gang development, no one theory has emerged as the main reason young people join gangs. In addition, with so many conflicting theories, it makes review or comparison of gang literature more difficult. A review of the literature has found agreement and disagreement on the rationale of gang membership usually within each school of thought. Further study should be conducted with an emphasis on combining criminological, biological, and psychological theories in an effort to better understand the factors contributing to gang development.

While early studies conducted in 1927 by Thrasher focused on descriptive accounts of the nature of gangs and gang activity, there remains a need for additional studies of youth gangs as these gangs have increased substantially and the number of cities reporting gang problems has grown nearly tenfold between the 1970s and the late 1990s (Peterson, Taylor, and Esbensen, 2004). In addition, there remains a need to study gangs and gang activity in the school setting to determine their effects on the school community.

The fear of crime and the fear of gangs both revolve around three theoretical models: the disorder model, the community-concern model, and the subcultural diversity model (Katz, et al., 2003; Lane & Meeker, 2003) with a fourth model, the victimization model, included in the Katz et al (2003) study on fear of crime. The research consistently shows that women are more afraid than men, ethnicity and disorder have the strongest impact on fear of gangs, and gender and subcultural diversity have the strongest impact on fear of crime (Lane & Meeker, 2003; Katz, et al., 2003). Katz et al. (2003) also found that being a minority, having low-income and low-education levels, being non-white, and having an awareness of neighborhood deterioration increased fear of crime while, subcultural diversity, physical disorder, and social disorder also increased fear of gangs. Previous victimization significantly influenced both fear of crime and fear of gangs (Katz et al., 2003). However, Lane and Meeker (2003) found a person's educational level had no significant effect on their fear of gangs. In addition, Lane and Meeker (2003) found younger people are more afraid of gangs while Katz et al. (2003) found older people are more afraid of crime.

Empirical Literature

Quantitative, non-experimental studies as well as data collection show the number of youth gangs and gang membership is on the rise, gangs are uniting to strengthen their criminal activities and recruit new members from elementary, middle, and high schools, and gangs remain a constant threat to student and staff safety (Schwartz, 1996; US Department of Justice, 2004; National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2001). In addition these reports show that 94% of all medium and large cities in America have active youth gangs (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005) with members as young as 12 but

averaging 17 or 18 years of age (National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2003; Howell, 1998). These gang youth are more likely to commit serious violent crimes than nongang youth and are more dangerous due to the ease of availability of lethal weapons (National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2003; US Department of Justice, 2005). Furthermore, while gangs were once primarily male, more and more females are being recruited into gangs (Grant & Van Acker, 2002; Deschenes & Esbensen, 1999; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; US Department of Justice, 2000).

These statistics come from national samples with only the Bureau of Justice Assistance (2005) in disagreement regarding the continued increase in the number of youths joining gangs as shown in the 2005 National Gang Threat Assessment. However, the Bureau of Justice Assistance (2005) notes with regard to the 2005 National Gang Threat Assessment, "the information reported is not representative of the nation as a whole, nor is it based on a statistically valid sample" (Methodology section, para. 2).

One limitation to the studies and reports reviewed regarding gang statistics is that most were conducted regarding youth street gangs and not specifically toward youth gangs in schools. The findings of a decrease in gang membership and gang activity may mean interventions by schools, communities, and law enforcement agencies are working. However, additional study is needed as there is little evidence supporting this supposition. In addition, the reliability and validity of these studies were not reported and since there is no one universally accepted definition of a gang (Maxson, 1998), the question of reliable and valid statistics remains.

Another limitation to these studies includes the fact that gang-related statistics are maintained sporadically which makes it difficult to obtain true gang violence measures.

Also, measures of the exact number of gangs and gang members in the United States are only estimates and differ across studies. However, the research consistently demonstrates that gang violence continues to be a problem in almost every state in the nation (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2003; Egley, 2005), but additional study is needed to accurately measure the number of gangs and gang members in the US; to determine the extent to which communities and schools are in denial of a gang problem; to measure the extent of gang related crimes both in the community and on school campuses; and to determine the effect gangs and the gang-related crimes have on school personnel.

Schools, which once had no gang activity (Parks, 1995; Goldstein & Kodluboy, 1998), are now seeing an increase in gang behaviors such as graffiti (Arthur & Erickson, 1992; Griffin & Meacham; Valentine, 1995), weapon carrying (Arthur & Erickson, 1992; Page & Hammermeister, 1997; Gottfredson, et al., 2001; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Malecki & Demaray, 2003; Gaughan, et al., 2001), and drug sales and use (Arthur & Erickson, 1992; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2005; Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, Firearms, and Explosives, 2005; Lizotte et al., 2000; Decker, 2000).

Weapons are readily accessible to students (Page & Hammermeister, 1997; Gaughan, et al., 2001) and gang members are more likely to carry a concealed weapon other than a pocket knife than nongang members (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005) as gangs have become more violent than those of the past (Parks, 1995; National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2003). In fact, 7% to 9% of high school students reported being threatened by a weapon (US Department

of Justice, 2005) while 6% in one study (US Department of Justice, 2005), 9.11% in another study (Malecki & Demaray, 2003) and 10% in another study (Forrest, et al., 2000) stated they carried a weapon to school.

Malecki and Demaray (2003) studied middle school students' perceptions of social support for weapon carrying while The 2005 National Gang Threat Assessment surveyed law enforcement agencies and Page and Hammermeister (1997) and Gottfredson and Gottfredson (2001) studied high school students' weapon carrying activities. Limitations to these studies include possible bias from law enforcement agencies, the use of self-report surveys, and the lack of generalization. However, the research consistently demonstrates that gang members are more likely to carry a weapon than nongang members (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005), boys are more likely than girls to carry a weapon (Malecki & Demaray, 2003; Forrest, et al. 2000), and that when perceived social support is low, a student is more likely to carry a weapon (Malecki & Demaray, 2003). Additional research is needed to address the stated limitations of these studies.

Gangs are the primary distributor of drugs in the United States (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2005; Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, Firearms and Explosives, 2005) and are primarily involved with the use and distribution of cocaine, crack cocaine, heroin, marijuana, and methamphetamine (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Hunt et al, 2002). There is a high percentage of drug use among gang as well as nongang members (Decker, 2000). Hunt, et al (2002) also found that the majority of gang members, in this study, female gang members, used illicit drugs. This is consistent

with the literature which states that drug use is part of the culture for gangs (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

The findings reported in the 2005 National Gang Threat Assessment which state that gangs are highly involved with drug distribution are not consistent with the findings of the National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center (2001) which states that the financial gain associated with drug distribution is not a priority to gang members. Instead, turf issues were of most concern. The discrepancy between these two studies may be explained by the 13 year separation in studies. In fact, the US Department of Education found that when gangs are on a campus there is a strong likelihood that both guns and drugs are also on that campus (The National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center, 2001).

The limitations of the 2005 National Gang Threat Assessment include the small number of law enforcement agencies responding to the survey, the fact that gang-related statistics are not maintained consistently which makes it difficult to obtain exact measurements of drug and weapon activity, and the study is working from an estimate of the actual number of gangs operating in the United States which also results in an estimate of the number of gang members in the United States.

Further empirical study should be conducted to determine the effect migration has on gang activity including drug distribution and weapon use, whether or not gangs are uniting to strengthen drug distribution pipelines, and the effect law enforcement efforts have on disrupting the distribution of drugs and the use of weapons by gang members. Additional studies also should be conducted to determine the effect gang weapon use and distribution of drugs has on local schools and school personnel.

The research consistently shows that gang members are more likely to be involved with drugs than nongang members (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Decker, 2000; Hunt et al., 2002; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001) but additional study is needed to determine the impact gang members' drug use has on the school climate and to address the stated limitations in the studies including research on prevention and intervention activities.

The violence inherent in American society is working its way into schools (Bennett-Johnson, 2004) and threatens the sense of security of both teachers and students (Kondrasuk et al., 2005), which in turn has focused the attention of researchers and policymakers on crime in schools (Verdalis & Kakar, 2000). Reports indicate that threats, bullying, and fights committed in schools by students on students have increased (Goldstein & Kodluboy, 1998) yet little research has been done focusing on violent acts committed by students upon teachers (Kondrasuk et al., 2005). Teachers face a multitude of threats daily including physical harm, sexual assault, robbery, and property damage (Rappaport, 2005; Kondrasuk et al., 2005; US Department of Education, NCES, 2005). The Astor et al. (1997) survey of school social workers also noted that almost 58% of the respondents felt that violence on their school campus was a big or very big problem. Further study is needed in the area of violence facing employees in schools and its effect on those employees.

Gang activity and gang violence are also spreading into neighborhood schools (Jackson & McBride, 1991) with the number of gangs active in schools doubling from 1989 to 1995 (Howell & Lynch, 2000) which is exacting a toll on the school community by way of increased fear and disruption of learning (Jackson & McBride, 1991). Gang

members generally feel unsafe in school, have a low regard for school and societal rules, and have delinquent peers as well as having a higher victimization rate than nongang members (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001). This finding is consistent with the results of the Peterson et al. (2004) study that found gang member victimization rates were higher than non-gang member rates. The research evidence consistently demonstrates that membership in a gang does not offer members protection from violent victimization and in fact, increases it as gang membership puts gang members at a higher risk for violent victimization (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001; Peterson et al., 2004). Further study is needed to address students' perceptions of gang violence as the majority of the studies focus on adult perceptions.

There are over 800,000 programs and activities in schools aimed at reducing or preventing gang participation (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001). One such program is The Gang Resistance Education and Training (G.R.E.A.T.) program, aimed at middle school children, developed by the Phoenix Arizona Police Department and the United States Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms and focuses on the prevention of gang involvement.

There is a discrepancy between studies of the G.R.E.A.T. program with one study, finding no attitudinal changes and no consistency between changes in gang-related attitudes of the students surveyed (Ramsey et al., 2003), while the other found a small beneficial effect with students having a more favorable attitude toward police and a less favorable attitude toward gangs (Esbensen et al., 2001). There were several challenges to the validity of the Ramsey et al. (2003) study including the nonrandom assignment of

treatment and control groups, sample size, and lack of geographic diversity. In addition, the Esbensen et al. (2001) study lacked evidence that gang activity was actually reduced.

Further research needs to be conducted to determine the effect GREAT has on students and whether a decrease in gang activity can be determined. If the study were to be replicated, the authors recommend that a same-age control group be used and that participants, as well as teachers and parents, be asked to evaluate the GREAT program. It is also suggested that school administrators correlate participation in the GREAT program with instances of classroom misbehavior (Ramsey et al., 2003, Discussion section, para. 6) or look at post-middle school classroom misbehavior. In addition, further study should include a wider range of geographic areas and age groups as this current study can not be generalized to all populations. Finally, a pre-screening of participants should be conducted to determine if anyone has any current or past affiliation with a gang.

Law enforcement personnel on school campuses play a role in keeping gangs out of the schools (McDaniel, 2001). However, few studies exist that attempt to determine the effectiveness of the school resource officer program (May et al., 2004). The studies conducted by Jackson (2002) and May et al. (2004) are inconsistent, with Jackson (2002) determining a weak impact of school resource officers on youth's attitudes about police and committing offenses and May et al. (2004) finding that most principals surveyed felt that school resource officers were beneficial to the safety of schools.

The data from the Jackson (2002) study were analyzed using a multivariate analysis (MANOVA) and other mixed-model analysis of variance (ANOVA) and reinforces the author's three hypotheses: 1) Interaction with SROs will not have a significant impact on students' perception of the police in general (Cronbach's alpha 0.68); 2) Interaction with

SROs will not have a significant impact in shaping students' perceptions of offending (Cronbach's alpha 0.98); and 3) Interaction with SROs will not have a signification impact on students' perceptions of being identified (Cronbach's alpha 0.84) (Jackson, 2002, School Violence section, para. 2). However, Jackson does agree that despite the reluctance of some administrators to have a police officer on campus, "the increasing level of violence and delinquency on school campuses has forced many schools to consider the utilization of police in the role of school resource officers (SRO) to ensure safety" (Jackson, 2002, School Violence section, para. 1).

Stated limitations include lack of generalization due to the limited sample population, data can not be matched due to the difficulty in administering the time series questionnaire (absenteeism, testing, parental refusal), and reduced degrees of freedom in the case of the response-means analysis (Jackson, 2002, Conclusion section, para. 2). In light of these limitations, future research should be conducted to determine how students who have interacted with a school resource officer for more than one year, perceive the officer and the officers' ability to limit or stop violence on the school campus.

The results of the Jackson (2002) study are consistent with the results from other studies cited in the report but inconsistent with other studies that found "SROs have the potential for impacting many aspects of the schoolhouse to which they are assigned" (McDaniel, 2001, What We Think We Know section, para. 16; May et al., 2004) including students, teachers, administrators, and parents.

May et al. (2004) surveyed administrators in Kentucky to determine their perceptions of the effectiveness of the school resource officer program. Results indicate that most principals feel school resource officers are beneficial to the overall safety of the

school. Limitations to this study include the limited geographic area and limited sample size.

The research on the ability of school resource officers to change the perception students have regarding the officer's effect on violence on school campuses and the perception students' have about the officer is inconsistent. However, some of the inconsistency may be due to the difference in the sample (students vs. adults). Additional study is needed to determine 1) the officer's ability to stop violence on school campuses; 2) the perception students have regarding the school resource officer; and 3) the effect having a school resource officer has on students' and teachers' feelings of safety.

In response to the rising national concern regarding gangs and gang violence, law enforcement agencies across the nation have been establishing specialized gang units to combat the problem. These units operate within the schools and surrounding communities to alleviate the gang problem. The gang units are an emerging form of social control yet research into the creation of these units "suffers from a number of theoretical and methodological shortcomings" (Katz et al., 2002, Abstract section, para. 1). Many theories have evolved regarding the creation of gang units including contingency theory, social threat theory, and resource dependency theory (Katz et al, 2002), yet there has not been much research into why these units have been created (Katz, 2001).

The results of the Katz et al (2002) study are consistent with the findings of Katz (2001) in which the institutional theory was studied in an ethnographic study of one police gang unit. This study utilized a multimethodological approach and combined field observations, in-depth interviews, and documents as well as reflective data. Similar to the resource dependency theory, the institutional theory suggests that specialized gang units

are created due to pressures from powerful community members and once created is driven by the need to conform to the political environment (Katz et al., 2002).

Katz (2003) took these theories further and in a multimethodological approach explored the methods used by one Midwestern police gang unit to produce and disseminate gang data. The results of this study do not indicate that gang statistics are influenced or manipulated for the benefit of the police agency. Instead, gang related statistics are influenced in this department by "serious abnormalities in internal information processing" (Katz, 2003, Policy section, para. 2).

All of these studies lack the ability for generalization due to small or limited sample populations. Katz et al. (2002), while attempting to control for a variety of issues, also stated ambiguity about what constitutes a gang unit, excluded police agencies, the possibility that illegal immigrants were not counted, and the questionable reliability and validity of some of the data as limitations to the study. Another limitation noted included the possibility of contamination of the findings due to the presence of the investigator. However, the validity of the findings was increased due to repeated measurement of the data. The main limitations stated in Katz (2003) include the lack of generalization, the use of police officers observations and discretion, and the delay in entering possible gang members into the database.

The research on the establishment of specialized gang units consistently demonstrates a number of reasons for the creation of these units other than a proliferation of gang members and gang activity. However, additional study is needed to account for the stated limitations and to 1) widen theoretical understanding of police organizations 2) determine how other factors influence the establishment of specialized gang units (Katz, et

al., 2002); 3) examine the impact that stakeholders have on the creation of specialized gang units and their response to gangs focusing on racial components (Katz, 2001); and 4) examine the method by which gang related data is collected and disseminated and how this affects those people who are identified as gang members (Katz, 2003).

School Resource Officers are one security measure used in schools to help promote a safe campus. Other law enforcement methods include requiring visitors to sign in, security cameras, controlled access to school grounds and school buildings, and metal detectors (US Department of Education, 2004).

The majority of schools have zero-tolerance policies in place for firearms, other weapons, drug possession, fights, and sexual assaults (Snell, et. al., 2002). In addition, schools are more likely to have developed policies regarding firearms and other weapon possession following highly publicized incidents of school crime (Snell, et. al, 2002, Results section, para. 2). Policies against violence-related writing and gang-related paraphernalia are also common and have increased in recent years. In terms of physical security on campus, metal detectors, video cameras, monitoring of exits, and some partnership with law enforcement are also common (Snell et al., 2002).

The physical environment may need to be changed in order to prevent or reduce school violence (International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), 1999). The IACP recommends administrators conduct a comprehensive survey of their school's physical design which must include the physical layout of buildings, any and all safety policies, and emergency plans and create a safety and violence prevention committee consisting of all stakeholders and charge them with creating a detailed security plan based on the school's needs.

Not all of the literature on public school security measures finds the measures to be positive. Beger (2002) examined the expansion of law enforcement on school campuses and the resulting loss of students' Fourth Amendment rights. Beger (2002) states that the fear caused by recent school shootings has created the need to increase security through physical means (locks, surveillance cameras, metal detectors) and to hire more police and security guards which, instead of safeguarding our students' rights, grants more authority to conduct student searches which in turn has reduced Fourth Amendment protection in public school.

Greene (2005) notes that while security cameras and metal detectors are "the most widely used electronic approaches to security" (Greene, 2005, p. 239) whether or not these devices reduce levels of violence has not been tested. In fact, other measures such as controlled access to campus, increased lighting, electronic-card-entry devices, dress codes, locker searchers, and the use of security guards or police officers have not been rigorously evaluated (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001). Stanley, Juhnke and Purkey (2004) also found that traditional law enforcement methods used in schools may carry major negative side effects.

As violence in the United States continues to escalate, the spillover into our schools becomes inevitable. In turn this spillover affects students, teachers, and administrators in varying degrees. The epidemic of school violence has changed the ways in which schools are built as well as the laws pertaining to student rights and the ways in which administrators attempt to deal with the violence problem before it becomes deadly. The added stress of violence on school campuses may increase the likelihood of teacher

attrition. While districts are looking for ways to recruit new, highly qualified teachers, they must also look at ways to retain the existing teachers.

The literature consistently recognizes that job dissatisfaction including lack of support from administration, student discipline problems, and low salaries are causes of teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2001; Yell & Rozalski, 2000; Loeb et al.,2005) with student discipline rated among the top three reasons teachers leave the profession (Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Conversely, schools with lower levels of student discipline problems experience lower turnover rates (Ingersoll, 2001). Forty-two percent of all teachers leaving the profession report job dissatisfaction (e.g. low administrative support, low salaries, student discipline problems) or the pursuit of a better job as the cause of their leaving (Ingersoll, 2001).

The research consistently shows that teacher retention is an ongoing problem (Shen, 2001; Guarino et al., 2006; Ingersoll, 2001; Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005; Plash & Piotrowski, 2006). Teachers in public schools with high-poverty, and low-achieving, minority students are more likely to leave the teaching profession than their counterparts (Ingersoll, 2001; Guarino, et al., 2006; Loeb et al., 2005). In addition, female teachers (Guarino, et al., 2006; Waltington et al., 2004) with high measured ability (Billingsley, 2004; Guarino, et al., 2006) who are inexperienced and perceive a poor work climate (Billingsley, 2004) also have a high attrition rate. However, while one study shows young teachers are more likely to leave than older teachers (Billingsley, 2004), another study shows just the opposite (Waltington, et al., 2004). Both of these studies do agree that uncertified teachers or teachers working out-of-field are more likely to leave teaching than certified teachers working in-field (Billingsley, 2004; Waltington, et al.,

2004). As for ethnicity, Guarino, et al. (2006) found white teachers are more likely to leave while Waltington, et al. (2004) found African Americans more likely to leave followed by Whites and then Hispanics.

Other issues surrounding teacher attrition include:

- Salary and benefits (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Jepson, et al., 2006; Stolpa-Flatt, 2006; Billingsley, 2004; Inman & Marlow, 2004)

- Student discipline (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Jepson, et al., 2006; Stolpa-Flatt, 2006; Loeb, et al., 2005)

- Student motivation (Stolpa-Flatt, 2006; Loeb, et al., 2005)

- Lack of administrative support (Stolpa-Flatt, 2006; Billingsley, 2004; Inman & Marlow, 2004; Loeb, et al., 2005)

- Workload (Jepson, et al., 2006; Plash & Piotrowski, 2006)

- Low public esteem (Jepson, et al., 2006).

Plash and Piotrowski (2006) also found special education teachers with a great deal of stress, inadequate planning time, large class size, and diversity of student needs as well as threats of litigation, IDEA compliance issues, and spousal relocation leave the teaching profession.

The research shows that there is a link between numerous personal and demographic factors, school characteristics, and teacher intention to leave the teaching profession as well as teacher stress and intention to leave the teaching profession. However, there is little research which links school violence or teachers' perceptions of school violence to teacher intention to leave the teaching profession. Furthermore, there is no literature which directly links a gang presence on a school campus and teachers'

reactions to violence with teacher intention to leave the teaching profession. Additional study needs be conducted about the relationship among K-12 teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures), reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief), and intentions to leave a school .

Based on the review of literature, the following conclusions can be made:

1. Both the social disorganization theory as developed by Shaw and McKay in 1942 and the social learning theory as developed by Akers and Burgess in 1966 provide frameworks for thinking about gangs and gang violence and the effect gangs have on schools and offer a visible (breakdown of social institutions) guide for studying gangs and gang prevention strategies.

2. There are numerous theories regarding gang development and membership, including the social disorganization theory (Jones, et al., 2004; Papachristos and Kirk, 2006; Sobel and Osoba, 2006, Peterson et al., 2004) and the social learning theory (Akers, 1985).

3. Several theories regarding the fear of crime and fear of gangs have emerged including the disorder model, the community-concern model, the subcultural diversity model, and the victimization model (Katz, et al., 2003; Lane & Meeker, 2003).

4. There is no one universally accepted definition of a gang which makes the true numbers of gangs and gang members in the United States unknown (Maxson, 1998).

5. Urban and secondary school principals were most likely to report a gang problem (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

6. Weapons are readily available to students (Malecki & Demaray, 2003; Page & Hammermeister, 1997; Alfred University, 2001)

7. Gang members are more likely to carry a concealed weapon than nongang members (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005), and boys are more likely than girls to carry a weapon (Malexki & Demaray, 2003; Forrest, et al., 2000).

8. Gangs are the primary distributor of drugs in the United States (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2005; Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, Firearms, and Explosives, 2005)

9. Drug use is part of the culture of gangs (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

10. The effect of youth gangs in schools has not been exhaustively researched and no model or theory was found which related a gang's presence on a school campus to teacher attrition.

11. The available research consistently shows that women are more afraid than men, ethnicity and disorder have the strongest impact on the fear of gangs while subcultural diversity has the strongest impact on the fear of crime, and being a minority and having a low-income increased a person's fear (Lane & Meeker, 2003; Katz et al., 2003.

12. Gangs and gang activity (i.e. violence, drug distribution, and weapon-involved crime) are on the rise and this increase is likely to continue (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; Howell & Lynch, 2000; Jackson & McBride, 1991).

13. Gangs are recruiting members from elementary, middle, and high schools (Schwartz, 1996; US Department of Justice, 2004; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2005; National Youth Violence Prevention Center, 2001; Howell, 1998).

14. More females are joining gangs (Grant & Van Acker, 2002; Deschenes & Esbensen, 1999; Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2005; US Department of Justice, 2000).

15. Youths involved in gangs have a low regard for societal or school rules and a lower educational commitment (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

16. There are conflicting accounts of whether gangs cause violence (Jones et al, 2004; Papachristos & Kirk, 2006; Peterson, et al. 2004) and increase a member's victimization (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001; Peterson, et al., 2004) or gangs form due to violence which erupts due to the failure of social organizations (Sobel & Osoba, 2006).

17. There is little research focusing on violent acts committed upon teachers by students (Kondrasuk, et al., 2005).

18. The number of gangs active in schools has doubled from 1989 to 1995 (Howell & Lynch, 2000) which has increased fear and disrupted the learning environment (Jackson & McBride, 1991).

19. There are over 800,000 programs and activities in schools aimed at reducing or preventing gang membership and activity (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

20. Conflicting results from studies examining the effect law enforcement personnel on school campuses have on gangs and gang activity on the campus exist. Jackson (2002) found that having a school resource officer on campus does little to deter

violence on the campus while May et al. (2004), McDaniel (2001), Johnson, (1999), and the Center for Prevention of School Violence (2002) found school resource officers to be beneficial to the safety of the school.

21. More research needs to be conducted into why specialized gang units have been created (Katz, 2001; Katz, et al., 2002). No studies were found that show the effect specialized gang units have on schools and school personnel.

22. Law enforcement methods employed on school campuses include requiring visitors to sign in, security cameras, controlled access to school grounds and school buildings, and metal detectors. (US Department of Education, 2004).

23. "The vast majority of schools have zero-tolerance policies in place for firearms (91%), other weapons (91%), drug possession (90%), fights (83%), and sexual assaults (86%)" (Texas, Snell, et al., 2002, Results section, para. 2).

24. Schools are more likely to have developed policies regarding firearms and other weapon possession following highly publicized incidents of school crime (Snell, et. al, 2002, Results section, para. 2).

25. Policies against violence-related writing and gang-related paraphernalia are common (67% and 83% respectively) and have increased in recent years (Snell et al., 2002).

26. Security measures such as cameras, metal detectors, controlled access to campuses, dress codes, locker searches, and the use of police officers have not been rigorously evaluated (Greene, 2005; Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001).

27. Teacher retention is an ongoing problem (Shen, 2001; Guarino et al., 2006; Ingersoll, 2001; Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005; Plash & Piotrowski, 2006).

28. The research consistently shows that public school teachers (Ingersoll, 2001; Guarino et al., 2006), working in high-poverty schools (Ingersoll, 2001; Guarino, et al., 2006; Loeb et al., 2005), with low-achieving, minority students (Loeb et al., 2005; Guarino et al., 2006) are more likely to leave the teaching profession than their counterparts.

29. Female teachers (Guarino, et al., 2006; Waltington et al., 2004) with high measured ability (Billingsley, 2004; Guarino, et al., 2006) who are inexperienced and perceive a poor work climate (Billingsley, 2004) also have a high attrition rate. However, there is a discrepancy between two studies with one study showing young teachers as more likely to leave than older teachers (Billingsley, 2004), and the other study showing just the opposite (Waltington, et al., 2004).

30. Uncertified teachers or teachers working out-of-field are more likely to leave teaching than certified teachers working in-field (Billingsley, 2004; Waltington, et al., 2004).

31. Guarino, et al. (2006) found white teachers are more likely to leave while Waltington, et al. (2004) found African Americans more likely to leave followed by Whites and then Hispanics.

32. Other issues surrounding teacher attrition include

    a. Salary/benefits (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Jepson, et al., 2006; Stolpa-Flatt, 2006; Billingsley, 2004; Inman & Marlow, 2004)

    b. Student discipline (Liu & Meyer, 2005; Jepson, et al., 2006; Stolpa-Flatt, 2006; Loeb, et al., 2005)

    c. Student motivation (Stolpa-Flatt, 2006; Loeb, et al., 2005)

    d. Lack of administrative support (Stolpa-Flatt, 2006; Billingsley, 2004; Inman & Marlow, 2004; Loeb, et al., 2005)

    e. Workload (Jepson, et al., 2006; Plash & Piotrowski, 2006)

    f. Low public esteem (Jepson, et al., 2006).

33. Burnout for teachers has been linked to "excessive work, inadequate salaries, disciplinary problems, lack of student interest, overcrowded classrooms, a requirement to give too many tests, difficulty in advancement, lack of a support team and equipment, unwanted transfers to other schools, conflict in job perceptions, and public criticism of teachers and their work" (Weisberg, 1994, para. 9).

34. The major limitation of Weisberg's (1994) study is the small sample.

35. There is little research which focuses on acts of violence perpetrated upon teachers by students (Kondrasuk, et al., 2005).

36. There is little research which links teacher attrition with school violence or, more specifically, to gang violence on school campuses.

37. There are no measurements which specifically measure teachers' perception of the influence of gangs on teacher safety and teacher attrition and the mediating effect security measures on a school campus have on those perceptions.

Few empirical studies examine the relationship between the presence of school security measures on a school's campus and a decrease in gang activity on that campus as

well as the effect school security measures have on teacher perceptions of safety. Additional research about the relationship between the presence of school security measures on school campuses and gang related violence is necessary as well as examining the effect school security measures on a school campus have on teacher perceptions of safety and whether these perceptions are related to teacher intentions to leave. Therefore, it is recommended that a non-experimental, descriptive, exploratory (comparative), and explanatory (correlational), online survey research of the relationship among K-12 teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures), reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief), and intention to leave the teaching profession be conducted.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study about the relationship among K-12 teacher characteristics, school characteristics, reactions to school violence, and intention to leave the teaching profession is based on the phenomenon of school violence and reactions to school violence, victimization theory, subcultural diversity theory, awareness of physical and social disorder, school climate, teacher characteristics, perceived vulnerability, stress, burnout, and intention to leave theory.

Fear of crime and the fear of gangs are associated with demographic variables and people's perceptions of physical and social disorder. Women are more afraid than men, and ethnicity and disorder have the strongest impact on fear of gangs while gender and subcultural diversity have the strongest impact on fear of crime ((Lane & Meeker, 2003; Katz, et al., 2003). In addition, being a minority, having low-income and low-education

levels, being non-white, and having an awareness of neighborhood deterioration increased fear of crime while, subcultural diversity, physical disorder, and social disorder increased fear of gangs. Previous victimization significantly influenced both fear of crime and fear of gangs (Katz et al., 2003).

A person's educational level had no significant effect on their fear of gangs (Lane & Meeker, 2003) but older people are more afraid of crime due to their perception of physical vulnerability (Katz et al. (2003). Minority groups, low income and low educational level groups perceive an ecological vulnerability and thus have a higher fear of crime. (Katz et al., 2003). In short, those who perceive themselves to be vulnerable to crime have a higher fear of crime than those without this perception.

Direct gang and nongang victimization, indirect nongang victimization, subcultural diversity, and physical and social disorder increased fear of gangs; gender and awareness of neighborhood deterioration when social disorder is included in the model increased fear of crime, and being nonwhite increased fear of gangs (Katz et al., 2003). Gender and subcultural diversity had the greatest impact on fear of crime while ethnicity and both physical and social disorder had the greatest impact on fear of gangs. In addition, a person's fear of crime and fear of gangs was greatly increased if they had experienced prior direct gang and nongang victimization and indirect nongang victimization (Katz et al., 2003).

With regard to diversity, young, minority, females have a greater fear of gangs while diversity has a direct significant impact on fear and education has no significant effects. With regard to disorder, people who perceive disorder are more afraid of gangs and again being female, younger and minority has a significant effect on fear and disorder

has a stronger effect on fear than that of diversity. Finally, minorities are more afraid of gangs when they perceive more disorder in their communities (Lane & Meeker, 2003).

There is an indirect relationship between race and fear, but whites are now more likely to perceive decline and those who do are also more afraid of gangs. One finding which was consistent across all models is that females, younger people, and minorities are more afraid of gangs without regard for their perceptions of disorder or community decline (Lane & Meeker, 2003).

Women were more afraid than men while being most afraid of rape, then gang assault, then carjacking; however, fewer were afraid of crimes that posed less chance of physical harm – graffiti, and gang harassment. For men, rape ranked sixth while gang assault ranked fourth. In addition, fear of rape has a significantly different effect for men and women. The fear of assault is more predictive than fear of rape for both women and men and perceived risk remains significant. The sexual component is important but not a key factor in explaining fear of other types of crimes for both men and women (Lane & Meeker, 2003).

Demographic variables, age, gender, race, preparation, and assignment, are associated with teacher retention. Married, Caucasian, female teachers between the ages of 41 and 50 with zero to 5 years experience who hold a BS or BA Degree are most likely to be retained as special education teachers (Olivarez & Arnold, 2006; Billingsley, 2004). The highest attrition rates for teachers occurs in their first years of teaching and after many years of teaching (retirement); minority teachers had lower attrition rates than White teachers; mathematics and science teachers were more likely to leaving the teaching profession than teachers in other fields; teachers with higher measured abilities were more

likely to leave than those with lower measured abilities; and females had higher attrition rates than males (Guarino, et al., 2006).

Teachers, students, and administrators have become more and more aware of the increasing levels of violence in our schools which has prompted federal, state, and local authorities to create new laws to address these issues (Yell & Rozalski, 2000). Students who have become alienated often hold hostile and aggressive feelings toward the school (Hyman & Snook, 2001). In actuality, the number of nonfatal crimes in schools has decreased (US Department of Education, NCES, 2000). However, certain types of crimes such as being threatened, injured with a weapon, and fights have remained a constant threat. In fact, teachers were victims of 1.7 million nonfatal crimes at school with male, middle- and high-school teachers in urban areas most often the victim (US Department of Education, NCES, 2000).

Ting, et al. (2002) found that teachers' psychological reaction to school violence is a multidimensional construct. Teachers affected by violence will have a difficult time returning to work as the job will be a constant reminder of the violent act. Teachers will avoid situations and students they perceive as violent or having the potential for violence. The teachers' perception of personal and environmental safety, sense of control, and level of trust will be altered. These reactions are similar to the reactions of those who have been victims of trauma, rape, assault, or natural disasters (Ting et. al, 2002).

Smith and Smith (2006) found that the threat of violence in urban schools was a major factor contributing to the stress of teachers. This was compounded by their perception that "the violence of the inner city which had seeped into the school environment was a tangible threat to their safety" (Smith & Smith, 2006, Discussion

section, para. 1). Teachers perceived inner-city schools as violent and chaotic places where anything can happen.

In an attempt to combat the growing gang crime and violence problem and the costs associated with fear of gangs, an increase in the implementation of programs designed to reduce the fear has occurred (Katz, et al., 2003; Lane & Meeker, 2003). One such measure undertaken is the increase of security measures on school campuses – namely school resource officers or armed security guards, metal detectors, security cameras, and closed campuses.

School Resource Officers (SROs) are a valuable addition to school safety, help reduce problematic behaviors at school, are an important part of the school safety plan, should be assigned to all middle-, high-, and alternative schools, and are effective (May, et al. 2004, McDaniel, 2001). School administrators as well as students felt that SROs were necessary in order to reduce the number of weapons and gang activity on a school campus which in turn provided for a greater sense of security (Johnson, 1999). In 2003, the Center for the Prevention of School Violence, found that school resource officers are seen as an important part of a school's safe school planning. In addition, school resource officers have a positive impact on the physical, social, and academic environment of a school.

Other security measures include requiring visitors to sign in, security cameras, controlled access to school grounds and school buildings, and metal detectors (US Department of Education, 2004). Greene (2005) notes that while security cameras and metal detectors are "the most widely used electronic approaches to security" (Greene, 2005, p. 239) whether or not these devices reduce levels of violence has not been tested. In fact, other measures such as controlled access to campus, increased lighting, electronic-

card-entry devices, dress codes, locker searchers, and the use of security guards or police officers have not been rigorously evaluated (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2001). Stanley, Juhnke and Purkey (2004) also found that traditional law enforcement methods used in schools may carry major negative side effects.

Working conditions play a key role in teacher's decisions to leave the profession (Loeb et al., 2005) with the major areas of dissatisfaction in student motivation and discipline as well as a lack of administrative support. Ingersoll (2001) found that high-poverty public schools have moderately higher rates of teacher turnover, larger schools, public schools in large school districts, and urban public schools do not have as high a turnover rate as small private schools. Liu and Meyer (2005) found that while teachers are least satisfied with salary and benefits, they are almost equally unhappy about student discipline problems while being neutral regarding work conditions, and relatively satisfied with school climate and professional support. There is a high correlation between school climate and work conditions; a moderately high correlation between student discipline problems and professional support; and little association between satisfaction with salary and perception of student discipline problems suggesting that a higher salary might not compensate for student discipline problems.

Billingsley (2004) found environmental work factors such as low salaries, poor climate, lack of administrative support, and role problems can lead to negative affective reactions including high levels of stress as well as low levels of job satisfaction and commitment. These negative reactions lead to withdrawal and eventually attrition (Billingsley, 2004). In schools with orderly classrooms, where teachers feel safe, where the school has clear goals and expectations established, where the teachers believe the

principal to be a good leader, and where the morale is good, gang problems are less likely to occur. However, when teachers report high levels of personal victimization, the odds are greater that the principal will also report a gang problem (Billingsley, 2004).

Gottfredson and Gottfredson (2001) found that a principal will indicate a gang problem in the school more often if the school is large and has a high percentage of students or teachers who are Hispanic and if the school is located in an urban setting instead of a rural setting. In addition, high school principals indicate a gang problem more often than elementary school principals.

Finding and keeping highly qualified teachers is an ongoing concern (Shen, 2001). "Stress from the demands of the job, inadequate planning time, wide diversity of student needs, class size/caseload size, excessive paperwork, and demands associated with IDEA compliance" (Plash & Piotrowski, 2006, p. 126) are the major reasons that special education teachers leave the profession. Other issues such as threats of litigation and spousal job relocation were also noted as important. Employment factors (support from administration, class size, resources, job security, intrinsic rewards) played a significant role in teachers with 4 – 9 years teacher experience staying in the classroom (Inman & Marlow, 2004). Certo and Fox (2002) found that while there are many reasons teachers leave the profession, salary is the number one factor followed closely by lack of administrative support.

Occupational stress is a factor that has been reported as being "a considerable problem within today's working professionals" (Jepson & Forrest, 2006, Abstract section, para. 5). Teachers view workload, student behavior and discipline, and initiative overload as reasons which contribute to their desire to leave the profession and see teaching as being

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extremely hard, poorly paid, and held in low public esteem which in turn has a detrimental effect on recruitment and retention (Jepson, et al, 2006). Teachers who quit the profession cite not only pay issues but low administrative support, student discipline and student motivation as reasons for their decision (Stolpa-Flatt, 2006).

The literature consistently recognizes that job dissatisfaction including lack of support from administration, student discipline problems, and low salaries are causes of teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2001; Yell & Rozalski, 2000; Loeb et al.,2005) with student discipline rated among the top three reasons teachers leave the profession (Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Schools with lower levels of student discipline problems experience lower turnover rates (Ingersoll, 2001).

Research questions and hypotheses are proposed about the relationship among K-12 teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures), reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief), and intention to leave a school . These are based on the key gaps in the literature, the recommendations addressed in this study, and the theoretical framework that is used to guide this study.

Research Questions

1. What are K-12 teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (level, area, enrollment, gang presence, and security measures), reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) which affect intention to leave the teaching profession?

2. Are there differences in teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief), and intention to leave the teaching profession according to teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience)?

3. Are there differences in teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief), and intention to leave the teaching profession according to school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures)?

Hypotheses

1. Teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) are significant explanatory variables of intention to leave the teaching profession.

2. Teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures), and reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief), are significant explanatory variables of intention to leave the teaching profession.

3. School security measures mediate the relationship between teacher reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession.

A hypothesized model (see Figure 2-1) depicts relationships between major theories and hypotheses tested in this study. Figure 2-1 presents a hypothesized model, which combines the theoretical framework and hypotheses tested in this study. The model

identifies the explanatory relationships between teachers' reactions to school violence and their intention to leave the teaching profession (H1). The model also identifies the explanatory relationships of K-12 teacher characteristics, school characteristics, reactions to school violence, and intention to leave the teaching profession (H2). Finally, this model identifies the mediating relationship of school security measures on teacher reactions to school violence and their intention to leave the teaching profession (H3).
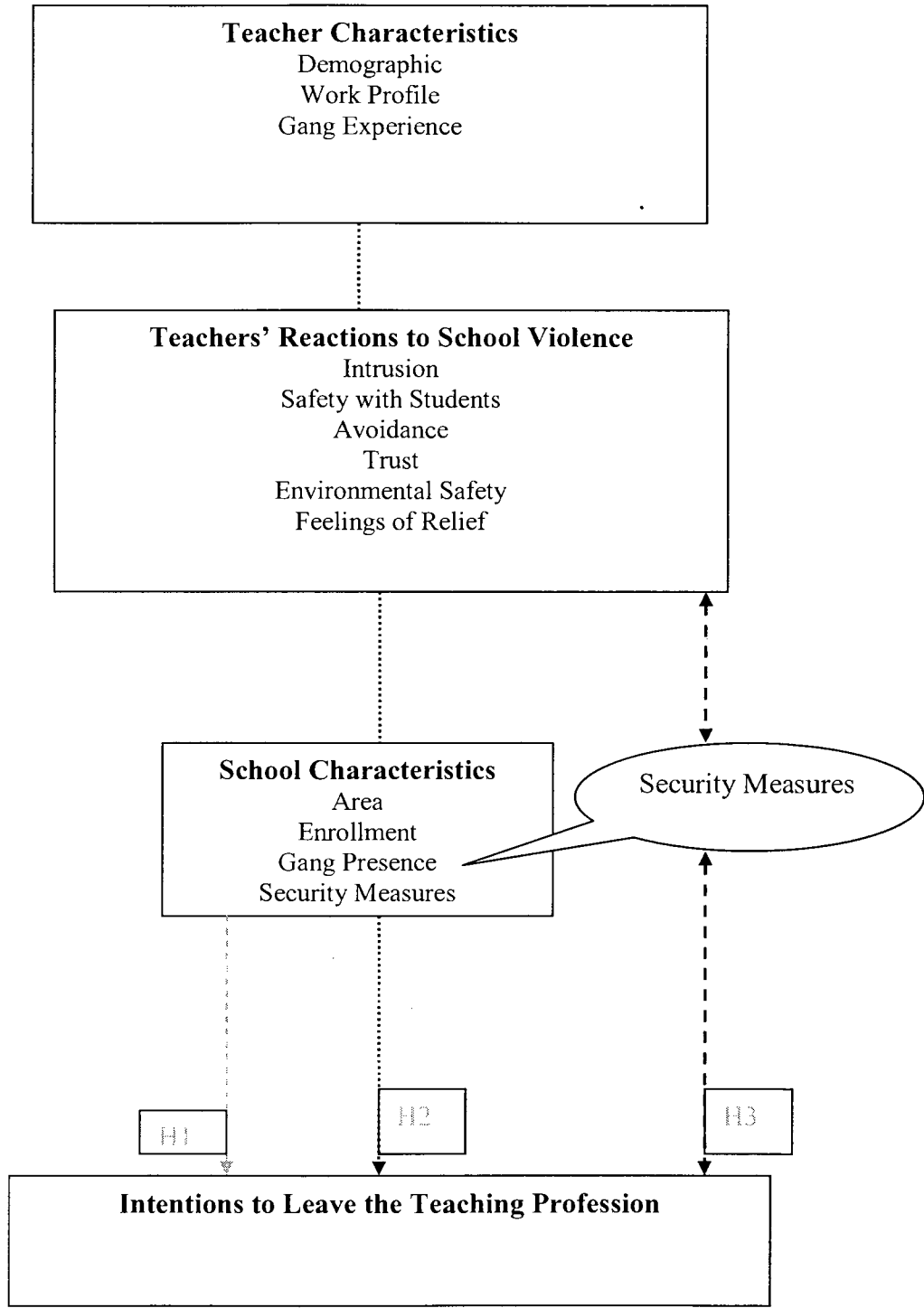
Figure 2-1 Hypothesized model of the propositions tested in this study

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter III identifies the research methods used to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses as they related to the relationship among teacher characteristics, school characteristics, reactions to school violence, and intention to leave the teaching profession and the mediating effects of security measures. The research questions and hypotheses, which appear at the end of Chapter II, evolved from gaps in the literature and involved a quantitative examination of the variables in these relationships. This chapter describes the research design, population, sampling plan and setting, measurement, ethics and data collection methods, methods of data analysis, and evaluation of research methods associated with the relationships.

Research Design

A quantitative, non-experimental, exploratory (comparative), and explanatory (correlational) online survey research design was used to examine the relationships among the variables for public elementary, middle, and high school teachers who had access to a computer. The final data-producing sample was self-selected and consisted of those who met the inclusion criteria and were willing to respond.

The survey instrument for this study consisted of four parts (see Appendix A). *Part I: Teacher Characteristics*, developed by the researcher, measured demographic variables of age, gender, race, ethnicity, marital status, work profile, and gang experience (attribute variables in RQ1, RQ2, and H2, explanatory variables in H1 and H2). *Part II: Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* measured teachers' perceptions of intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief (descriptive variables in RQ1,

exploratory variables in RQ2, and explanatory in H1, H2, and H3) and utilized the Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale developed by Ting, Sanders, and Smith (2002). *Part III: School Characteristics* measured level of school, urban, suburban, rural, and school enrollment size, gang presence, and security measures (descriptive variables in RQ1 and comparative variables in RQ3) and security measures alone were examined as explanatory (mediating variable in H3). School level and gang presence were measured utilizing a scale created by the researcher while security measures were measured utilizing a scale adapted from the US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics 2005-2006 School Survey on Crime and Safety. *Part IV: Intention to Leave* measured teachers' intention to leave the teaching profession (descriptive variable in RQ1, and dependent variable in RQ2, RQ3, H1, H2, and H3) and utilized the Intention to Leave Scale developed by Jacob Weisberg (1994).

To answer Research Question 1 about K-12 teacher characteristics, school characteristics, reactions to school violence, and intention to leave the teaching profession, frequency distributions, measures of central tendency, and variability were used. To answer Research Question 2 about the differences in teachers' reactions to school violence and intention to leave the teaching profession according to teacher characteristics, independent *t*-tests for two group comparisons and ANOVA tests followed by post hoc comparisons where there were significant differences among three or more group comparisons were used to determine if there were differences according to teacher characteristics. To answer Research Question 3 about the differences in teachers' reactions to school violence and intention to leave the teaching profession according to school characteristics, independent *t*-tests for two group comparisons and ANOVA tests followed

by post hoc comparisons where there were significant differences among variables were used.

To test Hypothesis 1, multiple regression using hierarchical (forward) method was used to examine whether there was a significant explanatory relationship among teachers' reactions to school violence and intention to leave the teaching profession. To test Hypothesis 2, multiple regression analysis using the hierarchical (forward) method was used to examine the order of importance among teacher characteristics, school characteristics, reaction to school violence, and intention to leave the teaching profession. To test Hypothesis 3, multiple mediated regression (MMR) analysis was used to determine if school security measures mediates the relationship between teachers' reactions to school violence and intention to leave the teaching profession.

Population and Sampling Plan

Target Population

In the process of collecting quantitative data, one of the first steps was to identify the participants in the study, the procedure for selecting these individuals, and determine the number of participants needed for data analysis (Creswell, 2005). In this study, the target population consisted of public elementary, middle, and high school teachers who were employees of one of the 100 largest school districts in the United States as identified by the National Center for Education Statistics (2001). In addition, the public elementary, middle, and high school teachers who were personally known to the researcher were asked to participate as well as to identify other potential participants.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) Schools and Staffing Survey 2003-2004, there were 3,250,600 public school teachers working in 88,113

public schools in the United States during the 2003-2004 school year (US Department of Education, NCES, 2006, p. 13). Of these, 2,107,900 teachers worked in 61,572 public elementary schools while 975,200 teachers worked in 19, 886 public secondary schools (US Department of Education, NCES, 2006, p. 13). During the 1999-2000 school year, there were 627,436 full-time equivalent teachers employed by 15,563 schools in the 100 largest public elementary and secondary school districts in the United States (National Center for Education Statistics, 2001).

Accessible Population

For this study, the accessible population was the target population of public elementary, middle, and high school teachers who were employees of the 100 largest public elementary and secondary school districts in the United States as identified by the National Center for Education Statistics (2001) and who could be contacted via email as well as those known personally by the researcher. In addition, the accessible population included the teachers known personally by the public elementary, middle, and high school teachers who were employees of the 100 largest public elementary and secondary school districts in the United States as identified by the National Center for Education Statistics (2001) which had been asked to participate by said employees. This population was limited to the teachers who could be contacted via email and who agreed to participate.

Sampling Plan

The sampling plan used in this study was a snowball quantitative sampling plan in which the researcher asked participants to identify other participants to become members of the sample. The final data producing sample consisted of the public school teachers that agreed to participate in the survey. One of the strengths of the study is that the entire

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accessible population of elementary, middle, and high school public school teachers employed by the 100 largest school districts in the United States were asked to participate in this study as well as teachers personally known to other teachers, which provided a chance for each member of the population to be represented. This enhanced the sample representativeness of the target population and external validity (Trochin, 2006). The entire accessible population was invited to participate; therefore, sampling errors and bias were expected to be minimized.

After approval by the IRB, eligible participants completed the online survey located at SurveyMonkey.com, a virtual platform. The final data producing sample was self-selected based on those that agreed to participate in the study.

Sample Size

In this study, multiple regression analysis was used to test hypotheses and answer research questions. There were 20 explanatory variables including nine teacher characteristics (attribute variables), six related to teachers' reactions to school violence, and five school characteristics.

The minimum sample size needed was estimated by multiplying the number of explanatory variables by 20 (Garson, 2007). Therefore, the minimum sample size calculation was 20 x 20 making the minimum sample size necessary to conduct multiple regression analysis, 400. Another method of estimating minimum sample size to conduct multiple regression analysis was based on having a number of cases greater than eight times the number of independent variables plus 50 (Green, 1991). Based on this requirement, the calculation was 50 + (8 x 20), and the appropriate sample size needed was greater than 210.

The longest scale was used to calculate an estimate of the sample size needed to conduct exploratory factor analysis. The 35 item *TRSV* was the longest scale used in this study. For exploratory factor analysis, the range is 3 to 20 times the number of items or absolute values of 100 - 1000. In this study the range was 105 to 700 (Mundfrom, Shaw, & Ke, 2005).

Gay and Airasran (2001) estimated the sample size needed for population validity purposes, based on the target population size of over 100,000, would be 384. However, a sample size of "500 would be an even more confident sample size" (Gay and Airasran, 2001, p. 135). In summary, to conduct the statistical analysis, and to ensure a sufficient size sample based on the population size, a range of 280 to 500 would represent an adequate and optimal total sample range, respectively.

The sampling of teachers for this study came from the United States population of elementary, middle, and high school public school teachers. For multiple regression analysis, 400 was the needed sample size calculated by multiplying the number of explanatory variables by 20 (Garson, 2007). For exploratory factor analysis, the needed sample size was 700. The minimum sample size based on population was 500. A range of 400 to 700 represented the minimum to adequate total sample size range need to conduct the statistical analysis and to have ensured a sufficient size sample based on the population size.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Inclusion criteria. To be eligible to participate in this study, respondents had to be:

1   Public elementary, middle, or high school teachers either employed by one of the 100 largest school districts in the United States as identified by the National Center for Education Statistics (2001) or personally known by the researcher

2   Public elementary, middle, or high school teachers known by other public elementary, middle or high school teachers

3   At least 21 years of age

4   Able to read, write, and speak English

5   Must have had access to a computer

6   Must have had a valid email address

Exclusion Criteria.

1   Non-public school employees

2   Employees who were not teachers

3   Teachers at the pre-school or university level

4   Not 21 years of age

5   Didn't read, write, and speak English

6   Had no access to a computer

7   Did not have a valid email address

Setting

The online survey was administered through SurveyMonkey.com, a virtual platform. All data collection was conducted through SurveyMonkey.com and was tabulated and downloaded to the researcher in an SPSS spreadsheet. No data was collected outside of this platform. Respondents completed the survey in a natural environment, not in a lab setting, – either at work or at home.

Evaluation of Sampling Design

Instrumentation

In this study, a self-report survey (See Appendix A), consisted of four parts: Part 1: *Teacher Characteristics*, Part 2: *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence*, Part 3: *School Characteristics*, and Part 4: *Intention to Leave*. The survey instrument contained a total of 69 questions and was conducted electronically. Table 3-1 illustrates the constructs measured, authors of measures, types of scales measured, number of items, and scoring range.

Table 3-1

Constructs Measured in the Study, Authors of Measures, Types of Scales Measured, and Number of Items and Scoring Range, in the Survey Instrument

Part	Construct	Instrument and Author	Type of Measure	Number of Items	Score Range
1	Teacher Characteristics				
	Demographics	Researcher	Fill in the blank; multiple choice	5	Age, gender, ethnicity, race, marital status
	Work Profile	Researcher	Fill in the blank; multiple choice	2	Years teaching experience
	Gang Experience	Researcher	3 and 4-point frequency rating scale;	2	2 – 7
2	Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale	*Ting, Sanders, & Smith (2002)*	5-point frequency rating scale ranging from not at all to very often		
	Intrusion		1,3,5,6,7, 10,11,12,15, 16,18,20,21,29,31,32	16	16 to 80
	Perceived Safety With Students		4,9,13,17,33	5	5 to 25
	Avoidance of Students/Situation		8,14,24,27	4	4 to 20
	Trust of Students		28,30,34	3	3 to 15
	Environmental Safety		2,23,26,35	4	4 to 20
	Feelings of Relief		19,22,25	3	3 to 15
3	School Characteristics				
	Type of School	Researcher	Multiple choice Fill in the blank	2 1	Level, Area, Enrollment
	Gang Presence	Researcher	Dichotomous Scale Yes/No (1 = Yes 0=No)	1	0-1
	Security Measures	*National Center for Education Statistics* 2005-2006 School Survey on Crime and Safety	Dichotomous Scale Yes/No (1 = Yes 0=No)	18	0 to 18
4	Intention to Leave Teaching Profession	*Weisberg* (1994) Intention to Leave Scale	Five-point rating scale	3	3 to 15

Part 1. Teacher Characteristics

Part one of the survey was designed by the researcher and consisted of nine questions regarding teacher demographics (age in years, gender, ethnicity, race, marital status), work profile (years of experience, years at current school) and gang experience (amount, direct or indirect victimization). Age in years and years of experience were fill in the blank; Gender, ethnicity, current position, and direct or indirect gang victimization were dichotomous; and race, marital status, and gang experience were fill in the blank.

Part 2. Teachers' Reaction to School Violence (TRSV)

Part two was the *Ting, Sanders, & Smith (2002)* Teachers' Reactions to School Violence Scale (TRSV) developed by Ting, Sanders, and Smith (2002), which consisted of 35 questions answered by a five-point frequency rating scale with response options of: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Not Often, 3 = Occasionally, 4 = Often, and 5 = Very Often. Teachers' psychological reactions to school violence was a multidimensional construct and this scale consisted of six components: (1) Intrusion was measured with 16 items (1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10,11,13,16,17,19,20, 21,30,32,33 with a score range of 16 to 80) and high scores were associated with more of the construct; (2) Perceived Safety with Students was measured with 5 items (4,9,14,18,34 with a score range of 5 to 25) and high scores were associated with more of the construct; (3) Avoidance of Students/Situations was measured with 4 items (8,15,24,28 with a score range of 4 to 20) and high scores were associated with more of the construct; (4) Trust of Students was measured with 3 items (29, 31, 35 with a score range of 3 to 15) and high scores were associated with more of the construct; (5) Environmental Safety was measured with 4 items (2, 23, 26, 27 with a score range of 4 to 20) and high scores were associated with more of the construct; and (6) Feelings of Relief

is measured with 3 items (12, 22, 25 with a score range of 3 to 15) and high scores were associated with more of the construct.

Reliability

Cronbach's alpha was used to determine internal consistency reliabilities for the total scale and its subscales. Results were .95 for the total TRSV, .95 for Intrusion, .84 for Perceived Safety with Students, .82 for Environmental Safety, .77 for Avoidance of Students/Situations, .68 for Trust of Students, and .60 for Feelings of Relief (Ting, et. al, 2002, p. 1012). Note that trust and feelings of relief were "low". In this study, coefficient alphas were reported for the total TRSV and its six subscales.

Validity

Convergent and discriminant validity were tested by comparing scores on the TRSV with scores on the Impact of Events Scale (IES) which was developed in 1979 by Horowitz, Wilner, and Alvarez and measured current subjective distress related to a specific event. Results showed a reasonably strong positive relationship between the scores on both assessments (.87, $p< .01$) (Ting, et al., 2002, p. 1012). The authors note a large variation in mean scores and standard deviations but explained these are possibly due to the fact that the TRSV had more than double the number of items on the IES.

Scores from teachers in high-violence schools were compared to scores from teachers in low-violence schools for criterion-related validity. A t-test was conducted to compare total group scores. The group mean scores were 70.56 for teachers in low-violence schools and 101.93for teachers in high-violence schools ($t = 9.69$, p < .0001) (Ting et al., 2002, p. 1014).

Another criterion used to test score results on the TRSV was the number of years teaching. Number of years teaching was categorized into four groups: 0 to 3.99 years (Group 1); 4 to 10.50 years (Group 2); 10.51 to 21.50 years (Group 3); and 21.51 years and up (Group 4). ANOVA with post hoc Tukey comparisons indicated the lowest mean score was 77.94 for Group 4 and was statistically different from that of Group 1. The mean scores for Groups 2 and 3 were 89.73 and 92.34. There was no statistically significant difference among any of the other groups' means (Ting, et al., 2002, p. 1016). Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the TRSV to examine its multidimensionality (subscales), and to further establish construct validity.

Part 3. School Characteristics

Part three of the survey consisted of 22 questions that measured school characteristics. Four multiple choice, dichotomous, and fill in the blank questions were designed by the researcher to determine type of school (elementary, middle or high; urban, suburban, or rural; and student population size). One dichotomous question (yes or no) determined gang presence at the school and the remaining 18 questions related to security measures (presence and responsibilities of law enforcement and school practices and programs). These items were taken from the US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2005-2006 School Survey on Crime and Safety.

The School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS) was the main source of data on crime and safety in the schools for the U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). The SSOCS was administered to about 3,000 public elementary and secondary schools nationally. The SSOCS was used to examine data on

school issues such as the frequency of school crime and violence, disciplinary actions, and school practices related to the prevention and reduction of crime.

Responses were measured on a dichotomous scale, with yes or no responses. For each item, a yes response was scored as a 1 and a no response was scored as a 0. The score range is 0 to 18, where higher scores were associated with greater security measures (including law enforcement and school practices and programs).

Reliability

The reliability of the SSOCS was not reported.

Validity

In this study, exploratory factor analysis of the 18-item security measures scale was conducted to determine the dimensionality and to establish construct validity. Criterion-related validity was established by comparing teachers that have and have not experienced gangs or a gang presence and used an independent *t*-test.

Part 4. Intention to Leave the Teaching Profession

Part four consisted of three items from the measure of intention to leave developed by Weisberg (1994) in his study measuring workers' burnout and intention to leave. These three items were used to calculate overall intention to leave: 1) I have considered leaving teaching; 2) I think that if I were choosing my career again, I would choose teaching; and 3) I think in the near future I will leave teaching. The second statement was presented reverse coded. Each item was scored on a 5-point rating scale where 1 = Very Little, 2 = Little, 3 = Average, 4 = Much, and 5 = Very Much. The score range was 3 to 15, where higher scores were associated with a greater intention to leave the teaching profession.

Reliability

To test the reliability, Cronbach alpha-coefficient was calculated for intention to leave. The results indicated a reliability of 89 percent (Weisberg, 1994, Procedures section, para. 1). In this study, coefficient alpha was reported for the Intention to Leave scale by Weisberg (1994).

Validity

The dependent variable, intention to leave, "was regressed three times on the three alternate burnout measures (overall, mean score, and three burnout factors), while age and tenure were included as control variables, to assess the coefficients' level of significance and the explained variance" (Weisberg, 1994, Procedures sections, para. 1). Each model was found to be significant.

In this study, exploratory factor analysis of the 3-item intention to leave scale was conducted to determine its dimensionality and to further establish construct validity.

Procedures: Ethical Considerations and Data Collection Methods

The following section describes the ethical considerations that were taken to account for the protection of all participants. In addition, each step in the data collection process of this study is discussed in sequence.

1   Obtaining permission to use the instruments in this study was the first required action before the researcher obtained IRB approval and collected any data. The researcher contacted the following authors: 1) Ting, Sanders, & Smith for use of the *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale*; (See Appendix B for approval) and 2) Jacob Weisberg for use of the *Intention to Leave Scale* and received approval to use their respective survey instruments (See Appendix C for approval).

The US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics did not need to be contacted for permission to use a portion of the 2005-2006 School Survey on Crime and Safety as this was public use data. (See Appendix D).

2. The online survey site included information concerning voluntary consent, and included purpose of the research, instructions for completion of the survey, and any possible risks and benefits related to the participant's anonymity. (See Appendix I). The survey link and survey was encrypted with SSL encryption, provided by the website (Appendix H - all contractual and privacy information with Survey Monkey) and was not accessible until the study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB).

3. After the successful proposal defense, approval for the study was obtained from the Institution Review Board at Lynn University. Data collection was only begun once approval was received from Lynn's Institutional Review Board. The required forms and the research protocol was submitted to the Lynn University Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (IRB) for review and approval;

   a. IRB Form 1 – Application and Research Protocol for Review of Research Involving Human Subjects in a New Project IRB (IRB Form 1 included a request for waiver of documentation of signed consent).

   b. IRB Form 2 – Request for Exemption

   c. The online authorization for informed consent (Appendix X) and a request to waive documentation of the signature.

d. An invitation containing the link to the survey web site was sent to the Assistant Superintendent of all 100 of the largest public school elementary, middle, and high school districts in the United States identified by the National Center for Education Statistics (2001) via US Postal Service (See Appendix E).

e. An email invitation which contained the link to the survey web site was sent to all the public elementary, middle, and high school teachers who were personally known to the researcher and requested their participation in the study as well as requested identification of other participants who were willing to become part of the study (See Appendix F).

f. The online survey.

g. At the author's request, non-identifiable raw data was sent to Dr. Laura Ting, University of Maryland, Baltimore, which enabled her to continue psychometric studies of the Teacher Reactions to School Violence Scale (TRSV).

4 The link to the web site contained the authorization for informed consent and purpose, procedure, possible risks, possible benefits, and assurance of anonymity, instructions, and the survey instrument. If participants agreed to participate they clicked the "I agree" button, they were directed to the online survey. The online survey only became available after "I agree" was selected.

5 Participation in the study was voluntary and there were no personal identifiers of participants. The researcher did not know who completed the survey. The

respondents submitted the survey by clicking the "submit" button after completing the survey.

6   The data collection process was conducted for three months after IRB approval.

7   The start date followed the date the study was approved by the IRB.

8   The researcher submitted a Report of Termination of the Project to the Lynn University IRB (Form X).

9   Data analysis was performed as described in the data analysis section using SPSS 17.0. Data was stored electronically in a personal computer with security (requiring a password and identification).

10 The online survey data was destroyed after five years.

This study was ethical for the following reasons:

1   Proper permission was obtained from the instrument developers.

2   An IRB application form was submitted.

3   An approval from the Lynn University IRB ensured compliance with the necessary procedures associated with protecting human subjects.

4   Eligible participants were informed and received an explanation of the purpose of the study.

5   Survey responses were anonymous and collected data was stored on a password protected computer.

6   All data was destroyed after five years.

Methods of Data Analysis

Data collected from returned online surveys was analyzed with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 17, and answered research questions, tested hypotheses, and provided psychometric assessments of the reliability and validity of scales. Exploratory data analysis, exploratory factor analysis, internal consistency reliability, descriptive statistics, independent *t*-tests, and one-way ANOVA's, coefficient alphas as estimates of stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analysis, and multiple mediated regression were used to analyze data. The following steps were utilized prior to analyzing the data:

1 Data Coding – Collected data had a predetermined coding assigned to each variable in this study.

2 Exploratory Data Analysis – Descriptive statistics were examined to verify the parameters used in this study. Variables that did not meet statistical assumptions were identified. Tables were used to display the data for better understanding. When one or more assumptions were broken, transforming variables were considered.

3 Exploratory Factor Analysis – was used to identify the underlying factors of each scale.

4 Internal Consistency Reliability was estimated using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Coefficient alphas .70 and greater identified satisfactory reliability.

5 Independent *t*-tests were used to compare the differences of means in two groups.

6 ANOVAs with post hoc comparisons and independent *t*-tests were used to compare the differences of means in three or more groups.

7   Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis (forward method) was used to explain a set of independent and attribute variables and the dependent, demographic variables.

8   Mediated Multiple Regression (MMR) was used to explain the mediating effects security measures had on teachers' reaction to school violence and their intention to leave the teaching profession.

Research Questions

Research question 1 was analyzed by descriptive statistics such as measures of frequency distributions, measures of central tendency, and variability and reported the teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures), reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) which affected intention to leave the teaching profession.

Research question 2 was an exploratory (comparative) research design used to identify different reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession according to teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience). Independent t-tests for two group comparisons and ANOVA tests followed by post hoc comparisons where there are significant differences among three or more group comparisons were used to determine if there were differences according to teacher characteristics.

Research question 3 was an exploratory (comparative) research question designed to identify differences in reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students,

avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession according to school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures). Independent t-tests for two group comparisons and ANOVA tests followed by post hoc comparisons where there are significant differences among variables were used.

Research Hypothesis Testing

Multiple regression analysis using hierarchical (forward) method was used to test Hypothesis 1 and determined whether or not there was a significant explanatory (correlational) relationship among teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession, the dependent variable.

Notation used to test regression models of this hypothesis was:

Where Y = Intention to leave the teaching profession (dependent variable)

$Y = b_0 + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + b_3 X_3 + b_4 X_4 + b_5 X_5 + b_6 X_6 + e_1$

b_0 = constant

b = unstandardized coefficient

e_1 = error

Reactions to Violence

$\quad$ X_1 = Intrusion

$\quad$ X_2 = Safety with Students

$\quad$ X_3 = Avoidance

$\quad$ X_4 = Trust

$\quad$ X_5 = Environmental Safety

$\quad$ X_6 = Relief

Multiple regression analysis using the hierarchical (forward) method was used to test Hypothesis 2 and determined the order of importance among teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (level, area, enrollment size, and gang presence), reaction to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession (dependent variable).

Notation to test regression models of this hypothesis was:

Where Y = Intention to leave the teaching profession (dependent variable)

$$Y=b_0+b_1X_1+b_2X_2+b_3X_3+b_4X_4+b_5X_5+b_6X_6+b_7X_7+b_8X_8+b_9X_9+b_{10}X_{10}+b_{11}X_{11}+b_{12}X_{12}+b_{13}X_{13}+b_{14}X_{14}+b_{15}X_{15}+b_{16}X_{16}+b_{17}X_{17}+b_{18}X_{18}+b_{19}X_{19}+b_{20}X_{20}+e_1$$

b_0=constant

e_1=error

Reactions to Violence

X_1=Intrusion

X_2=Safety with Students

X_3=Avoidance

X_4=Trust

X_5=Environmental Safety

X_6=Relief

Teacher Characteristics

X_7=Age

X_8=Gender

X_9=Race

X_{10}=Ethnicity

X_{11}=Marital Status

X_{12}=Years experience

X_{13}=Years at current school

X_{14}=Direct or Indirect Victim

X_{15}=Amount of gang contact

School Characteristics

X_{16}=Level

X_{17}=Area

X_{18}=Enrollment size

X_{19}=Gang presence

X_{20}=Security measures

Y= Intention to Leave

Mediated multiple regression (MMR) analysis was used to test Hypothesis 3 and determined if school security measures mediated (explanatory) the relationship between teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession (dependent).

$Y=b_0+b_1X_1+b_2X_2+b_3X_3+b_4X_4+b_5X_5+b_6X_6+e$

$Y=a + b_1X + b_2Z + e$

Reactions to Violence

X_1=Intrusion

X_2=Safety with Students

X_3=Avoidance

X_4=Trust

X_5=Environmental Safety

X_6=Relief

Z = Security Measures (Mediating Variable)

Y = Intention to Leave

Step 1. Conducted a regression analysis with X predicting Y (path c). $Y = a + bX + e$.

$Y = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4 + b_5X_5 + b_6X_6 + e$

Reactions to Violence

X_1=Intrusion

X_2=Safety with Students

X_3=Avoidance

X_4=Trust

X_5=Environmental Safety

X_6=Relief

b_0 = constant

e = error

Y = Intention to Leave

Step 2. Conducted a regression analysis with X predicting Z to test for path a. $Z = a + bX + e$.

$Z = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4 + b_5X_5 + b_6X_6 + e$

Reactions to Violence

X_1=Intrusion

X_2=Safety with Students

X_3=Avoidance

X_4=Trust

X_5=Environmental Safety

X_6=Relief

b = constant

e = error

Z = Security Measures (Mediating Variable)

Y = Intention to Leave

Step 3. Conducted a regression analysis with Z predicting Y to test the significance of path

b. $Y = a + bZ + e.$ $Y = b_0 + b_1 Z + e.$

Step 4. Conducted a regression analysis with X and Z predicting Y. $Y = a + b_1 X + b_2 Z + e.$ In this latter step, mediation was supported if the partial direct effect for path c was nonsignificantly different from zero and path b was significantly greater than zero. If c was nonsignificantly different from zero, results were consistent with a *full* mediational model. If path b was significant after controlling for the direct effect of X (path c), but path c was still significant, this model was consistent with *partial* mediation.

$Y = b_0 + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + b_3 X_3 + b_4 X_4 + b_5 X_5 + b_6 X_6 + b_7 Z + b_8 X_1 Z + b_9 X_2 Z + b_{10} X_3 Z + b_{11} X_4 Z +$

$b_{12} X_5 Z + b_{13} X_6 Z + e$

Reactions to Violence

X_1=Intrusion

X_2=Safety with Students

X_3=Avoidance

X_4=Trust

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X_5=Environmental Safety

X_6=Relief

b = constant

e = error

Z = Security Measures (Mediating Variable)

Y = Intention to Leave

Psychometric Analysis

Internal Consistency Reliability

In this study, estimates of internal consistency reliability were conducted using coefficient alphas and were reported for the total TRSV and its six subscales as well as the intention to leave scale.

Construct Validity

In this study, exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the TRSV to examine its multidimensionality (subscales), and to further establish construct validity. In addition, exploratory factor analysis of the 18-item security measures scale was conducted to determine the dimensionality and to establish construct validity. Criterion-related validity was established by comparing teachers that have and have not experienced gangs or a gang presence, and total score on this scale using an independent *t*-test. Exploratory factor analysis of the 3-item intention to leave scale was conducted to determine its dimensionality.

Evaluation of Research Methods

The research methods used in this study were evaluated for the strengths and weaknesses in internal validity and external validity of the study. Strengths and weaknesses were as follows:

Internal Validity

Internal Validity Strengths

1 The survey included a quantitative, non-experimental, exploratory (causal-comparative), and an explanatory (correlation) research design and used multiple regression in the analysis (explanatory).

2 The quantitative research design had higher internal validity than would a qualitative research design.

3 The study utilized valid and reliable research instruments to measure the variables for teachers' reactions to violence, intention to leave, school characteristics, and teacher characteristics..

4 A sufficient sample size existed to complete the data analysis.

5 Rigorous data analysis was used and contributed to the internal validity of the study.

6 Statistical procedures were appropriate to answer research questions.

Internal Validity Weaknesses

1 The use of a new research instrument for security measures was a threat to internal validity.

2 The non-experimental design was a threat to internal validity. Experimental designs have higher internal validity than non-experimental designs.

3   The use of an electronic survey device may have produced a smaller response rate than other methods.

External Validity

External Validity Strengths

1   Data collection in a natural setting strengthened external validity (ecological validity).

2   Including the total accessible population increased the external validity and the generalizability of the findings (population validity).

External Validity Weaknesses

1   Self-selected sample bias in the final data producing sample was a threat to external validity.

2   The study was limited to the United States.

Chapter III described the research methods that answered research questions and tested hypotheses regarding the relationship among teacher characteristics, school characteristics, reactions to school violence, and intention to leave the teaching profession. The chapter also described the research design, population and sampling, instrumentation, data collection procedures and also included ethical considerations, and methods of data analysis used to answer research questions and test hypothesis. Lastly, the chapter evaluated the research methods in this study. Chapter IV presents the findings of this study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Chapter IV presents the results of the study about teachers' reactions to gangs and school violence and the mediating effects security measures have on teacher intentions to leave teaching. The data collected from the online survey entitled Gangs, School Violence, Security Measures, and Teacher Intention to Leave were analyzed using the Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 17.0. The reliability and validity of the subscales and total scales of the measures used in this study were examined and reported. To answer the research questions and conduct hypotheses testing, the researcher conducted exploratory data analysis, exploratory factor analysis, internal consistency reliability, descriptive statistics, independent t-tests, and one-way ANOVA's, coefficient alphas as estimates of stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analysis, and multiple mediated regression.

Final Data-Producing Sample

An email was sent to the superintendents of the 100 largest school districts in the United States requesting permission for the researcher to send an email invitation to participate to the district's principals, requesting the principals to forward the invitation to teachers. A total of 22 districts responded. Two districts approved the request without any further documentation. Fifteen districts denied the request and five districts requested additional documentation. The requested documentation was sent to the five districts with two approving the study. A total of four of the 100 largest school districts in the United States approved the survey. The online survey was open from October 1, 2008, until

December 31, 2008. A total of 332 responses were obtained with 297 (89.5%) of those being complete.

Of the participants 76% were female and 24% male and 87% were White while 5% were Black or African American, 6% Asian, and 3% Hawaiian or Pacific Islander. "Age" was grouped into three categories with the majority of the respondents in the under 35 category (40%) followed by 50+ (30%), and 35 to 49 (29%). Ninety-six percent responded they were "not Hispanic or Latino". These findings closely resemble the target population. Fifty-four percent had no experience with gangs while 46% have had some experience with gangs. There was no target population data available for experience with gangs. A comparative analysis of the sample with the target population is presented in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1

Comparative Analysis of the Sample with the Target Population

Teacher Characteristics	Target 100 Largest School Districts	Sample 100 Largest School Districts	Percentage Differences (+,-)
Gender	N= 627,436	N=297	
Male	25%	24%	-1%
Female	75%	76%	+1%
Age	N=627,436	N=297	
Under 35	29%	40%	+11%
35 to 49	42%	29%	-11%
50+	29%	30%	+1%
Race	N=627,436	N=297	
White	83%	87%	+4%
Black or African American	8%	5%	-3%
Asian	1%	6%	+5%
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	< 1%	3%	+2%
Ethnicity	N=627,436	N=297	
Hispanic or Latino	6%	4%	-2%
Not Hispanic or Latino	94%	96%	+2%
Years Teaching	N=627,436	N=297	
3 or less	17%	19%	+2%
4 to 9	24%	27%	+3%
10 to 18	24%	26%	+2%
Over 19	36%	28%	-12%

+ Sample is over represented. – Sample is under represented.

Reliability and Validity of the Measurement Scales

The survey was comprised of four parts including three different scales. The *Teachers' Reactions to School Violence Scale (TRSV)* measured teachers' perceptions of intrusion, perceived safety with students, avoidance of students/situations, trust of students, environmental safety, and feelings of relief. The second scale, *Security*, measured the amount of security on the school campus. The third scale, *Intention to Leave,* measured teachers' intention to leave the teaching profession. Reliability and validity analysis were

conducted before answering the research questions and testing the hypotheses to ensure the adequacy of their psychometric qualities.

Exploratory Factor Analysis and Coefficient Alpha Analysis of
Part 2: Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale

Part two is the *Ting, Sanders, & Smith (2002)* Teachers' Reactions to School Violence Scale (TRSV) which consisted of 35 questions answered by a five-point frequency rating scale with response options of: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Not Often, 3 = Occasionally, 4 = Often, and 5 = Very Often. Teachers' psychological reactions to school violence is a multidimensional construct. This scale consisted of six components with high scores indicating more of the construct or more overall disturbance: (1) Intrusion, measured by 16 items (1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10,11,13,16,17,19,20, 21,30,32,33 with a score range of 16 to 80); (2) Perceived Safety with Students, measured by 5 items (4,9,14,18,34 with a score range of 5 to 25); (3) Avoidance of Students/Situations, measured by 4 items (8,15,24,28 with a score range of 4 to 20); (4) Trust of Students, measured by 3 items (29, 31, 35 with a score range of 3 to 15); (5) Environmental Safety, measured by 4 items (2, 23, 26, 27 with a score range of 4 to 20); and (6) Feelings of Relief, measured by 3 items (12, 22, 25 with a score range of 3 to 15).

Before factor analysis was conducted on the *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* scale, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was conducted resulting in an outcome of .926. Outcomes with values over .9 are considered superb and indicate that factor analysis is appropriate. Additionally, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was conducted resulting in a significance value of .000, which is highly significant, indicating again, that factor analysis on the scale is appropriate (Field, 2005). To further establish construct

validity of the *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* scale, principal components analysis with varimax rotation was conducted. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the 35- item *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* scale. Six factors, intrusion, perceived safety with students, avoidance of students/situations, trust of students, and environmental safety were expected to emerge from the analysis. Items with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were used to extract factors.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) resulted in eight factors being extracted. The eigenvalue totals range from 1.001 to 12.263 and the total variance explained was 64.043%. The factor loadings were as follows: factor 1 consisted of 34 items with factor loadings ranging from -.719 to .763; factor 2 consisted of 19 items with factor loadings ranging from .308 to .465; factor 3 consisted of four items with factor loadings ranging from-.324 to .609; factor 4 consisted of five items with factor loadings ranging from .343 to .498; factor 5 consisted of one item with a factor loading of .600; factor 6 consisted of three items with factor loadings ranging from -.395 to .447; factor 7 consisted of 5 items with factor loadings ranging from -.301 to .359; and factor 8 consisted of no factor loadings greater than .3. Table 4-2 shows the initial factor item loadings for *Part 2: Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale* before extraction.

Table 4-2

Initial Factor Item Loadings for Part 2: 35- Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale Before Extraction

Item # Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale [a]	Loadings for Factor 1	Loadings for Factor 2	Loadings for Factor 3	Loadings for Factor 4	Loadings for Factor 5	Loadings for Factor 6	Loadings for Factor 7	Loadings for Factor 8
Int7	.763	.184			-.220	.187		.153
Int16	.754	.404	-.161	-.107		-.165		-.122
Int11	.753	.319	-.127		-.152			
Int29	.749	.378	-.149	-.219				-.117
Int6	.746	.129			-.210	.154		
Int12	.745	.308	-.172	-.149	-.151			.107
Int31	.740				.225	.170		.219
Int3	.726				-.161	.187	.233	
Int10	.723	.224			-.189	.234		.145
Enviro35	-.719	.368	.132					
Int18	.698				.218	.136	.128	.193
Int21	.653	.331	-.126	-.252	.104			-.173
Int15	.645	.398		-.110		-.214	-.170	-.167
Relief25	.632		.165	.116	.157	-.119	.289	
Enviro26	-.628	.383	.153					-.144
Int20	.610		.123		.264	.133	.358	
Int32	.564	.338	.189		.112	-.184	-.301	-.135
Trust30	-.562	.340			.215	.246	.173	-.162
Int5	.549		.466					-.184
Trust28	-.531	.405	-.229.		.154		-.169	.124
Relief22	.509			.498	-.122		.111	-.283
Enviro23	-.509	.355		-.150		-.276	-.129	
Int1	.496		.186		-.257		-.145	.268
Trust34	-.481	.389		.200	-.134	.384	-.314	
Enviro2	-.474	.436	.241		-.141	-.281	.113	.288
Safe9	-.465	.393	.277		-.151		.330	.298
Avoid24	.464	.121	-.193	.429	.172	.-.114		.246
Safe17	-.387	.375	.172	-.128	.165		.144	-.148
Safe13	-.447	.465	.162		-.113	.125	.359	
Avoid14	.442		.609		.203		-.251	
Avoid8	.439		.479	.343	-.221	.106	-.153	
Relief19	.425			.474		-.395	.200	-.219
Safe4		.321	-.324	.454	.141	-.172		.236
Avoid27	.455		.185		.600	.132	-.113	.264
Safe33	-.430	.387	-.185	.177		.447		-.235

[a]Note. Int=Intrusion, Safe=Perceived Safety With Students, Avoid=Avoidance of Students/Situations,

Trust=Trust of Students, Enviro=Environmental Safety, Relief = Feelings of Relief

To reduce the number of factors in the analysis and to evaluate the factor loadings in terms of theory and comprehensibility, the researcher extracted six factors (Garson, 2008). The six factors extracted for the factor analysis accounted for 58.186% of the total variance explained. Eigenvalues ranged from 1.615 to 7.045. For the factor loadings, a cutoff of 0.4 was established (Garson, 2008). The factor loadings and names of the factors are: factor 1 (intrusion) which consisted of 13 items, ranged from .430 to .837 and included only intrusion items; factor 2 (environmental safety/safety with students) which consisted of 11 items, ranged from -.447 to .735 and included 3 intrusion items, 4 environmental safety items, 3 safety with students items, and 1 trust item; factor 3 (trust) which consisted of 4 items, ranged from .440 to .738 and included 3 trust items and 1 safety with students item; factor 4 (avoidance/intrusion) which consisted of 4 items, ranged from .417 to .731 and included 2 avoidance and 2 intrusion items; factor 5 (avoidance/intrusion) which consisted of 3 items, ranged from .474 to .739 and included 2 avoidance and 1 intrusion items; and factor 6 (relief) which consisted of 4 items, ranged from .512 to .645 and included 2 relief items, 1 avoidance item, and 1 safety with students item.

Five items had loadings of .4 or higher on more than one factor but were analyzed as part of the factor for which it corresponded based on theory. Intrusion #3 loaded on factor 1 (intrusion) and factor 2 (environmental safety and safety with students) but was analyzed as part of factor 1 (intrusion). Intrusion #31 loaded on factor 1 (intrusion) and factor 2 (environmental safety and safety with students) but was analyzed as part of factor 1 (intrusion). Intrusion #18 loaded on factor 1 (intrusion) and factor 2 (environmental safety and safety with students) but was analyzed as part of factor 1 (intrusion). Avoidance

#14 loaded on factor 4 (avoidance/intrusion) and factor 5 (avoidance/intrusion) but was analyzed as part of factor 4 (avoidance/intrusion). Trust #28 loaded on factor 2 (environmental safety and safety with students) and factor 3 (trust) but was analyzed as part of factor 3 (trust). Intrusion #20 loaded on factor 5 (relief) but was analyzed as part of factor 1 (intrusion). Safe #4 loaded on factor 6 (relief) but was analyzed as part of factor 3 (trust).

Subsequent to this analysis, one intrusion item, Int1 which loaded on Factor 4 (avoidance), one avoidance item, Avoid24, which loaded on factor 6 (relief), and one relief item (Relief25) which did not load on any factors, were not considered in further analysis due to the fact that they did not fit the theoretical construct of the factor loadings. This resulted in a 32-item scale comprised of 14 intrusion items, 7 safety items, 4 avoidance items, 5 trust items, and 2 relief items. Table 4-3 shows the factor item loadings for *Part 2: 32-Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale* after a six factor extraction.

Table 4-3

Factor Item Loadings for Part 2: 32- Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale

After Factor Extraction

Item # and Part 2: Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale[a]	Loadings for Factor 1 Intrusion (Int)	Loadings for Factor 2 Safety/Enviro	Loadings for Factor 3 Trust	Loadings for Factor 4 Avoid/Int	Loadings for Factor 5 Int/Avoid	Loadings for Factor 6 Relief
Int16	.840		-.142		.162	.199
Int29	.837	-.115	-.146		.211	
Int12	.813	-.172	-.137	.120		
Int11	.803	-.167	-.115	.194		
Int15	.742		-.146		.171	.234
Int21	.737	-.116	-.106		.226	
Int10	.684	-.294		.358		
Int7	.676	-.281		.390		
Int6	.642	-.314	-.107	.356		
Int3	.570	-.390		.358		
Int32	.532		-.175	.148	.406	.233
Int31	.505	-.458		.173	.360	
Enviro2		.757			-.124	
Safe9	-.129	.636	.196		-.125	
Enviro35	-.345	.625	.389		-.135	
Enviro23	-.132	.623		-.279		
Enviro26	-.277	.615	.329			
Safe13		.552	\.375		-.121	-.218
Safe17		.470	.276	-.116	.156	-.103
Int18	.459	-.468		.121	.323	
Safe33	-.108	.150	.746			
Trust34	-.149	.264	.677		-.156	
Trust30	-.245	.343	.560	-.161		
Trust28	-.131	.339	.530	-.384		.163
Avoid8	.170			.734	.174	.160
Int5	.285		-.188	.539	.333	
Avoid27	.242	-.210			.705	
Avoid14	.115		-.183	.442	.643	
Int20	.375	-.348		.172	.408	
Relief19	.202	-.162	-.180	.196		.665
Safe4		.133	.447	-.249	-.108	.523
Relief22	.264	-.339		.411		.487

[a] Note. Int=Intrusion, Safe=Perceived Safety With Students, Avoid=Avoidance of Students/Situations,

Trust=Trust of Students, Enviro=Environmental Safety, Relief = Feelings of Relief

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For the 35-item, *Part 2: Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale*, the internal

consistency reliability was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. For the total scale the

overall Cronbach's Alpha reported was .762. The scale had an internal consistency above

the recommended cutoff point of 0.7 (Field, 2005). By eliminating item Enviro23, the

alpha would increase to .784. Item Enviro23 was retained, however, because it measures

the same construct and does not increase the total scale alpha significantly (Garson, 2008).

Based on exploratory factor analysis, there was a total of 32 items for the *Teachers'*

Reaction to School Violence scale. The coefficient alpha for the 32-item scale was .727.

The scale had an internal consistency above the recommended cutoff point of 0.7 (Field,

2005). Deleting item Enviro23 would increase the alpha of the total 32-item scale

slightly to .749. Item Enviro23 was retained, however, because it measures the same

construct and does not increase the total scale alpha significantly (Garson, 2008). Table 4-

4 shows the corrected item-total correlation and Cronbach's alpha if item deleted for the

total scale.

Table 4-4

Corrected Item-total Correlations and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for Part 2: 32-Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale (Total Scale Coefficient Alpha= .727)

Item	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Enviro2	-.058	.739
Int3	.474	.706
Safe4	-.008	.733
Int5	.368	.712
Int6	.504	.706
Int7	.545	.703
Avoid8	.352	.713
Safe9	-.055	.738
Int10	.576	.702
Int11	.617	.700
Int12	.581	.700
Safe13	-.007	.737
Avoid14	.304	.717
Int15	.576	.702
Int16	.656	.698
Safe17	-.064	.741
Int18	.355	.714
Relief19	.258	.722
Int20	.360	.715
Int21	.547	.708
Relief22	.300	.717
Enviro23	-.122	.749
Enviro26	-.156	.743
Avoid27	.318	.717
Trust28	-.096	.739
Int29	.624	.703
Trust30	-.110	.740
Int31	.465	.710
Int32	.517	.705
Safe33	-.093	.740
Trust34	-.063	.736
Enviro35	-.233	.743

Based on exploratory factor analysis, factor 4 and factor 5 measured the same theoretical construct and as such item Avoid #27 was combined under factor 4

(avoidance/intrusion) and Int #20 was included with factor 1 (intrusion) thus dropping

factor 5. In addition, safety with students and environmental safety both loaded under

factor 2 (safety/enviro). Therefore, based on exploratory factor analysis, five subscales of

the *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* scale emerged: a 14 item *Intrusion* subscale (a

= .941), a seven item *Safety* subscale (a = .818), a five item *Trust* subscale (a = .745), a

four item *Avoidance* subscale (a = .676), and a two item *Relief* subscale (a = .539). The

item-total correlation for all five subscales was reported above the .3 cut-off, which

indicates that all items could be retained for the subscales (Garson, 2008). The coefficient

alphas and the corrected item total correlations for the revised 32-item *Teachers' Reaction*

to School Violence subscales is reported in Table 4-5.

Table 4-5

Coefficient Alphas and Corrected Item-total Correlations for Revised Part 2: 32- Item

Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale (Total Scale Coefficient Alpha = .727)

Item	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Intrusion 14 Items **(score range 14-70)** **Coefficient a = .941**		
Int3	.710	.937
Int6	.731	.936
Int7	.755	.935
Int10	.750	.936
Int11	.788	.934
Int12	.795	.934
Int15	.675	.938
Int16	.799	.934
Int18	.645	.939
Int20	.542	.941
Int21	.685	.938
Int29	.801	.935
Int31	.678	.938
Int32	.574	.940

Table 4-5 Continued

Item	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Safety 7 Items **(score range 7-35)** **Coefficient *a* = .818**		
Safe9	.570	.792
Safe13	.560	.794
Enviro2	.615	.785
Safe17	.434	.817
Enviro23	.511	.809
Enviro26	.618	.785
Enviro35	.700	.778
Trust 5 Items **(score range 5-25)** **Coefficient *a* = .745**		
Safe4	.386	.741
Trust28	.566	.678
Trust30	.514	.698
Safe33	.544	.688
Trust 34	.546	.689
Avoidance 4 Items **(score range 4-20)** **Coefficient *a* = .676**		
Int5	.496	.585
Avoid8	.454	.619
Avoid14	.556	.547
Avoid27	.350	.674
Relief 2 Items **(score range 2-10)** **Coefficient *a* = .539**		
Relief 19	.376	
Relief22	.376	
Total Scale 32 Items **(score range 32-160)** **Coefficient *a* = .727**		

Exploratory Factor Analysis and Coefficient Alpha Analysis of

Part 3: School Characteristics Security Measures Scale

Part three consisted of school characteristics items, one of which was the security measures scale comprised of 18 items from the National Center for Education Statistics 2005-2006 School Survey on Crime and Safety. These 18 items were used to calculate overall security measures. Each item is scored on a dichotomous scale where 0 = No and 1 = Yes. The score range was 0 to 18, where higher scores are associated with a greater amount of security measures.

Before factor analysis was conducted on the *Security Measures* scale, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was conducted which resulted in an outcome of .938. Outcomes with values over .9 are considered superb and indicate that factor analysis is appropriate. Additionally, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was conducted and resulted in a significance value of .000, which was highly significant, indicating again, that factor analysis on the scale was appropriate (Field, 2005).

To further establish construct validity of the *Security Measures* scale, principal components analysis with varimax rotation was conducted. Three factors, school procedures, law enforcement, and school equipment were expected to emerge from the analysis. Items with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were used to extract factors. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) resulted in two factors being extracted. The eigenvalue values ranged from 3.183 to 10.771 and the total variance explained was 77.526%. The factor loading was as follows: factor 1 consisted of 17 items with factor loadings ranging from .675 to .894 and factor 2 consisted of 13 items with factor loadings ranging from -.338 to .604, Table 4-6 shows the factor item loadings for *Part 3: Security Measures Scale.*

Table 4-6

Initial Factor Item Loadings for Part 3: 18 – Item Security Measures Scale

Item	Loadings for Factor 1	Loadings for Factor 2
Uniforms	.894	
CoordPolice	.869	-.310
Patrol	.858	-.306
TrainTeachers	.855	
SchDiscipline	.851	
Proactive	.849	
Firearm	.800	-.317
MentorStd	.784	
Teach	.777	-.316
LawEnforce	.771	.521
StunGun	.700	-.311
Chemical	.757	-.338
VisitSignIn	.746	.604
StdMetal	.733	.595
AccessGrou	.729	.584
VisitMetal	.725	.576
Cameras	.675	.553
AccessCont		.509

To evaluate the factor loadings in terms of theory and comprehensibility, the researcher extracted two factors (Garson, 2008). Eleven items loaded on factor 1 and seven items loaded on factor 2. All items were retained from the original 18-item *Security Measures Scale*. The two factors extracted for factor analysis accounted for 77.526% of the total variance that was explained. Eigenvalues ranged from 5.528 to 8.427. Factor loadings were evaluated in terms of theory (Garson, 2008). Table 4-7 shows the results of the *Factor Item Loadings for Part 3: 18- Item Intention to Leave Scale after Factor Extraction*.

Table 4-7

Factor Item Loadings for Part 3: 18 Item Security Measures Scale After Factor Extraction

Item	Loadings for Factor 1 Law Enforcement	Loadings for Factor 2 School
CoordPolice	.895	
Patrol	.883	
Uniforms	.868	
SchDiscipline	.864	
Proactive	.862	
TrainTeachers	.861	
Firearm	.842	
Teach	.822	
Chemical	.817	
StunGun	.813	
MentorStd	.802	
VisitSignIn		.917
StdMetal		.902
AccessGrou		.891
VisitMetal		.881
LawEnforce		.861
Cameras		.835
AccessCont		.581

Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the internal consistency reliability of *Part 3:18-Item Security Measures* scale. The reliability of the scale was adequate at $a = .932$. According to Garson (2008) for an adequate scale the alpha should be at least .70. The reliability of the scale would increase to .935 if AccessCont or Cameras were deleted. However, both were retained as they were measures of the construct (Garson, 2008). The corrected item-total correlation and Cronbach's alpha if item deleted are reported in Table 4-8.

Table 4-8

Coefficient Alphas and Corrected Item-total Correlations for Revised Part 3: 18- Item

Security Measures Scale (Total Scale Coefficient Alpha = .932)

Item	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
VisitSignIn	.328	.934
AccesCont	.218	.935
AccessGrou	.295	.934
StdMetal	.332	.934
VisitMetal	.326	.934
Cameras	.261	.935
LawEnforce	.428	.933
Uniforms	.857	.923
StunGun	.743	.926
Chemical	.735	.926
Firearm	.776	.925
Patrol	.834	.924
SchDiscipline	.813	.924
CoordPolice	.849	.923
Proactive	.819	.924
TrainTeachers	.823	.924
MentorStd	.749	.926
Teach	.749	.926
Total Scale 18 Items (score range 0-18) Coefficient *a* = .932		

Based on exploratory factor analysis, there were two subscales of the *Security Measures* scale: an 11 item *Law Enforcement* subscale (a = .969) and a 7 item *School* subscale (a = .866) which resulted in an 18 item scale. The alpha increased by eliminating Cameras (a = .867) for the *School* subscale. However, Cameras were retrained as it was a measure of the construct. The item-total correlation for both subscales was reported above the .3 cut-off, which indicates that all items could be retained for the subscales (Garson, 2008). The coefficient alphas and the corrected item total correlations for the revised 18 item *Security Measures* subscales is reported in Table 4-9.

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Table 4-9

Coefficient Alphas and Corrected Item-total Correlations for Part 3: 18-Item Security

Measures Subscales (Total Scale Coefficient Alpha = .932)

Item	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Law Enforcement		
11 Items		
(score range 0-11)		
Coefficient *a* = .969		
CoordPolice	.900	.964
Patrol	.888	.965
Uniforms	.896	.965
SchDiscipline	.869	.965
Proactive	.868	.965
TrainTeachers	.869	.965
Firearm	.832	.966
Teach	.806	.967
Chemical	.792	.968
StunGun	.797	.968
MentorStd	.798	.968
School 7 Items		
(score range 0-7)		
Coefficient *a* = .866		
VisitSignIn	.709	.845
StdMetal	.780	.827
AccessGrou	.593	.854
VisitMetal	.724	.835
LawEnforce	.692	.840
Cameras	.551	.867
AccessCont	.522	.862
Total Scale 18 Items		
(score range 0-18)		
Coefficient *a* = .932		

Exploratory Factor Analysis and Coefficient Alpha Analysis of

Part 4: Intention to Leave Scale

Part four consisted of three items from the measure of intention to leave developed by Weisberg (1994) in his study measuring workers' burnout and intention to leave. Three items were used to calculate overall intention to leave: 1) I have considered leaving teaching; 2) I think that if I were choosing my career again, I would choose teaching; and 3) I think in the near future I will leave teaching. The second statement was presented reverse coded. Each item is scored on a 5-point rating scale where 1 = Very Little, 2 = Little, 3 = Average, 4 = Much, and 5 = Very Much. The score range is 3 to 15, where higher scores are associated with a greater intention to leave the teaching profession.

Before factor analysis was conducted on the *Intention to Leave* scale, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was conducted resulting in an outcome of .747. Outcomes between 0.7 and 0.8 are considered good and indicate that factor analysis is appropriate. Additionally, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was conducted resulting in a significance value of .000, which is highly significant, indicating again, that factor analysis on the scale was appropriate (Field, 2005).

To further establish construct validity of the *Intention to Leave* scale, principal components analysis with varimax rotation was conducted. Three factors, Consider Leaving (CL), Choose Again (CA), and Will Leave (WL) were expected to emerge from the analysis. Items with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were used to extract factors. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) resulted in 1 factor being extracted. The eigenvalue total for the one factor was 2.982 and the total variance explained was 99.38%. Factor 1

consisted of all three items with factor loadings ranging from .994 to .998. Table 4-10 shows the factor item loadings for *Part 4: Intention to Leave Scale.*

Table 4-10

Initial Factor Item Loadings for Part 4: 3 – Item Intention to Leave Scale

Item	Loadings for Factor 1
Consider Leave (CL)	.998
Choose Again (CA)	.994
Will Leave (WL)	.998

To evaluate the factor loadings in terms of theory and comprehensibility, the researcher extracted two factors (Garson, 2008). Two leave items loaded on factor 1 and Choose Again loaded on factor 2. All items were retained from the original 3-item *Intention to Leave Scale.* The two factors extracted for factor analysis accounted for 100% of the total variance that was explained. Eigenvalues ranged from 1.417 to 1.583. Factor loadings were evaluated in terms of theory (Garson, 2008). Table 4-11 shows the results of the *Factor Item Loadings for Part 4: 3- Item Intention to Leave Scale After Factor Extraction.*

Table 4-11

Factor Item Loadings for Part 4: 3- Item Intention to Leave Scale After Factor Extraction

Item	Loadings for Factor 1 Leave	Loadings for Factor 2 Choose Again
Consider Leave (CL)	.763	.646
Choose Again (CA)	.646	.763
Will Leave (WL)	.763	.646

Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the internal consistency reliability of *Part 4: 3- item Intention to Leave* scale. The reliability of the scale was adequate at $a = .787$. According to Garson (2008) for an adequate scale the alpha should be at least .70. The

reliability of the scale would increase to .805 by deleting item Choose Again. However, Choose Again was retained because it was a measure of the construct (Garson, 2008). The corrected item-total correlation and Cronbach's alpha if item deleted are reported in Table 4-12.

Table 4-12

Coefficient Alphas and Corrected Item-total Correlations for Revised Part 4: 3- Item Intention to Leave Scale (Total Scale Coefficient Alpha = .787)

Item	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Consider Leave (CL)	.683	.652
Choose Again (CA)	.544	.805
Will Leave (WL)	.662	.675
Total Scale 3 Items (score range 3-15) Coefficient *a* = .787		

The scales used in this study were modified to reflect the best possible psychometric qualities for the study. Next, the researcher answered the research questions and tested the hypotheses.

Research Question 1

What are the K-12 teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (level, area, enrollment, gang presence, and security measures), and reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) which affect intention to leave the teaching profession?

Teacher Demographic Profile Characteristics

The frequency distribution and measures of central tendency (mean) of teachers' age, gender, race, ethnicity, marital status, number of years teaching, number of years in current school and gang experience are shown in Table 4-10. Participants included 75 (24%) males and 244 (77%) females; the majority were white 272 (87%), were not Hispanic or Latino (96%), and 190 (60%) were married. The majority of the teachers responding reported having had no gang experience (54%), while 46% reported having some gang experience. The majority of the teachers reported being under age 35 (40%), having 19+ years of teaching experience (28%), and having taught three or less years in their current school (59%).

Table 4-13

Teacher Demographic and Work Profile Characteristics

Demographic Profile Variables		Frequency	Valid Percent	Mean
Gender				
Male		75	23.5	
Female		222	76.5	
	Total	297	100.0	
Race				
White		256	86.9	
Black or African American		14	4.5	
Asian		19	6.1	
Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander		8	2.6	
	Total	297	100.0	

Table 4-13 Continued

Demographic Profile Variables		Frequency	Valid Percent	Mean
Ethnicity				
Hispanic or Latino		13	4.4	
Not Hispanic or Latino		284	95.6	
	Total	297	100.0	
Marital Status				
Single, Never Married		84	26.3	
Married		168	59.6	
Divorced or Separated		43	13.5	
Widow or Widower		2	0.6	
	Total	297	100.0	
Age				38.55
Under 35		117	40.4	
35 to 49		90	29.2	
50+		90	30.4	
	Total	297	100.0	
Gang Experience				
None		151	54.2	
Moderate/Indirect		92	28.8	
Extensive/Direct		54	16.9	
	Total	297	100.0	
Years Teaching				13.26
3 or less		55	18.9	
4 to 9		82	27.4	
10 to 18		79	26.1	
19+		81	27.7	
	Total	297	100.0	
Years at Current School				7.06
3 or less		180	58.6	
4 to 10		60	19.7	
11 to 15		23	8.8	
16 to 20		16	6.0	
21 to 25		10	3.8	
Over 25		8	3.1	
	Total	297	100	

School Characteristics

The frequency distribution of school characteristics: school level, area, enrollment, and gang presence are shown in Table 4-14. The majority of respondents were from high

school (51%), in a suburban area (46%), had an enrollment of 501 to 1000 students (28%), and had no gang presence (63%).

Table 4-14

School Characteristics

School Characteristics Variables		Frequency	Valid Percent
School Level			
Elementary		77	26
Middle		68	23
High		152	51
	Total	297	100
Area			
Urban		92	31.5
Suburban		138	45.5
Rural		67	22.9
	Total	297	100
Enrollment			
0 to 500		60	20.3
501 to 1000		78	27.6
1001 to 1500		64	19.2
1501 to 2000		22	7.3
2001 to 2500		56	19.2
2501 to 3000		16	5.9
3001 to 3500		1	.3
	Total	297	100
Gang Presence			
No		188	63.1
Yes		109	36.9
	Total	297	100

School Security Measures

The frequency distribution for the *18-Item Security Measures* scale is presented in Table 4-15. The majority of the schools had law enforcement on campus (68%) that coordinated with outside police agencies (61%), patrolled the campus (59%), wore uniforms (65%), helped with school discipline (57%), and carried a firearm (49%), stun

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gun (43%), or chemical spray (43%). These officers also mentored students (43%) and

helped train teachers (31%). Security on the majority of campuses also included visitor

sign in (89%), controlled access to the building (67%), and cameras (59%).

Table 4-15

School Security Measures

Security Measures Variables		Frequency	Valid Percent
Visitors Sign In			
Yes		291	88.6
No		2	0.6
No Response		36	10.8
	Total	332	100
Access to Buildings Controlled			
Yes		202	60.8
No		91	27.4
No Response		39	11.8
	Total	332	100.0
Access to Grounds Controlled			
Yes		142	42.8
No		151	45.5
No Response		39	11.7
	Total	332	100
Student Metal Detectors			
Yes		3	0.9
No		286	86.1
No Response		43	13.0
	Total	332	100.0
Visitor Metal Detectors			
Yes		2	0.6
No		285	85.8
No Response		45	13.6
	Total	332	100
Cameras			
Yes		196	59.0
No		86	25.9
No Response		50	15.1
	Total	332	100

Table 4-15 Continued

Security Measures Variables		Frequency	Valid Percent
Law Enforcement			
Yes		224	67.5
No		65	19.6
No Response		43	13.0
	Total	332	100
Uniforms			
Yes		217	65.4
No		19	5.7
No Response		96	28.9
	Total	332	100
Stun Gun			
Yes		135	40.7
No		54	16.3
No Response		143	43.1
	Total	332	100
Chemical Spray			
Yes		144	43.4
No		38	11.4
No Response		150	45.2
	Total	332	100
Firearm			
Yes		161	48.5
No		38	11.4
No Response		133	40.
	Total	332	100
Patrol			
Yes		197	59.3
No		21	6.3
No Response		114	34.3
	Total	332	100
Assist with Discipline			
Yes		189	56.9
No		32	9.6
No Response		111	33.4
	Total	332	100
Coordinate with Police			
Yes		202	60.8
No		18	5.
No Response		112	33.7
	Total	332	100

Table 4-15 Continued

Security Measures Variables		Frequency	Valid Percent
Proactive			
Yes		188	56.6
No		27	8.1
No Response		117	35.2
	Total	332	100
Train Teachers			
Yes		102	30.7
No		117	35.2
No Response		113	34.0
	Total	332	100
Mentor Students			
Yes		144	43.4
No		52	15.7
No Response		136	41.0
	Total	332	100
Teach			
Yes		43	13.0
No		148	44.6
No Response		141	42.5
	Total	332	100

Teachers' Reactions to School Violence

The mean scale and average item scores for the revised 32-*Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* scale that resulted from exploratory factor analysis is presented in Table 4-16. The scale is a 32-item multidimensional, 5-point semantic differential scale, with anchors of very often (5) and not at all (1). All items are given points that corresponded to the agreement or disagreement of the statement. The scale consisted of 14 Intrusion (INT) items with a score range of 14-70, seven Safety (Safe) items with a score range of 7-35, five Trust (Trust) items with a score range of 5-25, four Avoidance (Avoid) items with a score range of 4-20, and two Relief (Relief) items with a score range of 2-10. The lowest average *Intrusion* item score was item #21, "I have dreams about the incident" at 1.26.

The highest average *Intrusion* item score was 1.70 for item #6, "I can't stop thinking of what violent acts students are capable". The lowest average *Safety* item score was item #23, "There is enough security at my school" at 3.69. The highest average *Safety* item score was item #35, "I feel safe when I come to school" at 4.52. The lowest average *Trust* item score was item #8, "I trust my students" at 3.96. The highest average *Trust* item score was item #30, "I feel safe when I am alone with a group of students" at 4.35. The lowest average *Avoidance* item score was item #24, "I let students have their way to avoid disagreements" at 1.50. The highest average *Avoidance* item score was item #8, "I weigh the risks before confronting a student" at 2.62. Average item scores for the *32-Item Teachers' Reactions to School Violence* scale ranged from 1.26 to 4.52.

Table 4-16

Mean Scale and Average Item Scores for the 32-Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale

32 Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale	N	1 Not at all Disagree	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very Often	Average Item Score
Int3 I found myself waiting for another school violent episode	299	59%	24%	12%	3%	2%	1.67
Int6 I can't stop thinking of what violent acts students are capable	297	53%	30%	14%	3%	1%	1.70
Int10 I think about school violence even when I do not want to	296	68%	20%	9%	1%	2%	1.48
Int11 I have visual images of the incident in my mind	293	66%	21%	10%	1%	1%	1.50
Int7 I think about school violence when I am at home	298	58%	26%	13%	2%	1%	1.62

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Table 4-16 Continued

32 Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale	N	1 Not at all Disagree	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very Often	Average Item Score
Int12 I wish I could stop thinking about the incident	296	76%	12%	7%	3%	2%	1.43
Int15 I have had trouble sleeping after witnessing school violence	298	70%	20%	6%	4%	1%	1.47
Int16 I could not stop thinking about what happened	294	69%	20%	9%	2%	1%	1.46
Int18 I do not feel safe at school	297	69%	20%	7%	2%	2%	1.49
In20 I dread going to school	298	73%	16%	10%	1%	1%	1.42
Int21 I have dreams about the incident	295	82%	13%	2%	1%	1%	1.26
Int29 The incident was constantly on my mind	293	75%	18%	4%	2%	0.7%	1.35
Int31 I worry a lot about my personal safety while in school	298	67%	23%	8%	0.7%	2%	1.47
Int32 I avoid activities that might remind me of a violent school episode	296	73%	19%	4%	2%	2%	1.43
Intrusion Total Score							20.75
Safe2 I work in a safe school	297	3%	2%	11%	28%	56%	4.30
Safe9 I can keep myself safe in school	297	3%	12%	11%	28%	57%	4.34
Safe13 I feel safe when I am disciplining students	297	4%	2%	14%	36%	44%	4.14
Safe17 I feel like the students will not hurt me	296	5%	4%	12%	33%	46%	4.09

Table 4-16 Continued

32 Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale	N	1 Not at all Disagree	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very Often	Average Item Score
Safe23 There is enough security in my school	296	8%	11%	19%	29%	33%	3.69
Safe26 I feel safe when I am in the school	294	2%	2%	11%	27%	59%	4.38
Safe35 I feel safe when I come to school	298	1%	1%	8%	25%	65%	4.52
Safety Total Score							29.46
Trust4 I feel that I know my students well	299	.3%	1%	17%	42%	40%	4.19
Trust28 I trust my students	296	1%	3%	23%	43%	30%	3.96
Trust30 I feel safe when I am alone with a group of students	297	3%	2%	9%	31%	55%	4.35
Trust33 I feel that I am capable of being in control of a situation when a student is angry	298	3%	5%	13%	39%	40%	4.07
Trust34 I feel that I am in control of my class	296	1%	2%	6%	31%	60%	4.48
Trust Total Score							21.05
Avoid5 I found myself wanting to avoid the incident	295	41%	26%	20%	10%	3%	2.08
Avoid8 I weigh the risks before confronting a student	297	21%	26%	29%	17%	7%	2.62
Avoid14 I avoid confrontations with students	298	33%	36%	24%	5%	3%	2.08
Avoid27 I let students have their way to avoid disagreements	298	63%	28%	6%	2%	1%	1.50
Avoidance Total Score							8.28

Table 4-16 Continued

32 Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale	N	1 Not at all Disagree	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very Often	Average Item Score
Relief 19 I am relieved each day when nothing occurs in the classroom	294	49%	12%	15%	8%	16%	2.29
Relief 22 I worry about students' safety	297	28%	22%	31%	11%	8%	2.49
Relief Total Score							4.78

The lowest average item mean score was 1.48 for the *Intrusion* subscale. The highest average item mean score was 4.21 for the *Safety* and *Trust* subscales. The average for the total scale was 2.64. The subscale mean scores were: *Intrusion 20.75* (score range 14-705), *Safety* 29.46 (score range 7-35), *Trust* 21.05 (score range 5-25), *Avoidance* 8.28 (score range 4-20), and *Relief* 4.78 (score range 2-10). The total scale mean score was 84.32 (score range 32-160). The average item mean, subscale, and total scale scores for the *32-item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale* are presented in Table 4-17.

Table 4-17

Average Item Mean, Subscale, and Total Scale Scores for the 32-Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale

32-Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence	Average Item Mean	Subscale and Total Scale Mean Score
Intrusion Subscale (14 Items, Score Range 14-70)	1.48	20.75
Safety Subscale (7 Items, Score Range 7-35)	4.21	29.46
Trust Subscale (5 items, Score Range 5-25)	4.21	21.05
Avoidance Subscale (4 items, Score Range 4-20)	2.07	8.28

Table 4-17 Continued

32-Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence	Average Item Mean	Subscale and Total Scale Mean Score
Relief Subscale (2 items, Score Range 2-10)	2.39	4.78
Total 32-item Scale (Score Range 32-160)	2.64	84.32

Intention to Leave

The frequency distribution for the 3-*Item Intention To Leave* scale is presented in Table 4-18. The scale consisted of three questions: 1) I have considered leaving teaching, 2) I think that if I were choosing my career again, I would choose teaching, and 3) I think in the near future I will leave teaching.

Table 4-18

Intention to Leave

Intention to Leave		Frequency	Valid Percent
Consider Leaving			
Very Little		160	53.9
Little		53	17.8
Average		42	14.1
Much		23	7.7
Very Much		19	6.4
	Total	297	100
Choose Teaching Again			
Very Little		32	10.7
Little		22	7.4
Average		56	18.8
Much		58	19.5
Very Much		129	43.6
	Total	297	100
Will Leave			
Very Little		155	52.3
Little		49	16.4
Average		51	17.1
Much		24	8.1
Very Much		18	6.0
	Total	297	100

Research Question 2

Are there differences in teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief), and intention to leave the teaching profession according to teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience)?

Independent t-tests were performed to test for differences in reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) and intention to leave according to teacher characteristics (gender and ethnicity). On average, female participants had a greater intention to leave (M= 6.12, SE= .207) than male participants (M= 5.27, SE = .310). This difference was significant t(297) = -2.284, p < .05. Hispanic or Latino participants also had a greater intention to leave (M = 7.17, SE = 1.021) than non-Hispanic or Latino participants (M = 5.83, SE = .181). However, this difference was not significant t(297) = 1.510, p > .05.

Female (M = 23.07, SE = .609) and Non-Hispanic or Latino participants (M = 22.85, SE = .556) experienced greater feelings of intrusion than male (M = 21.56, SE = .94) and Hispanic or Latino participants (M = 21.75, SE = 1.883). This difference was not significant for either gender (t(297) = -1.243, p = .229) or ethnicity (t(297) = -.413, p= .378). There was no significant difference between male and female (t(297) = 1.872, p = .785), non-Hispanic or Latino and Hispanic or Latino participants (t(297) = -.583, p = .463) and feelings of safety. On average, male (M = 30.46, SE = .540) and non-Hispanic or Latino participants (M = 29.51, SE = .297) experienced greater feelings of safety than female (M = 29.23, SE = .328) and Hispanic or Latino participants (M = 28.67, SE = 1.712).

Female (M=6.27, SE=.145) and Hispanic or Latino (M=6.33,SE=.555) participants experienced more avoidance tendencies than male (M=5.94, SE=.269) and non-Hispanic or

Latino participants (M=6.23, SE=.136). This difference was not significant for gender or

ethnicity. On average, male (M = 21.17, SE = .347) and non-Hispanic or Latino (M =

21.09, SE = .187) participants experienced a greater level of trust than female (M = 21.03,

SE = .205) and Hispanic or Latino participants (M = 20.17, SE = .991). This difference

was not significant for gender t(297) = .333, p > .05 or ethnicity t(297) = -1.019, p > .05.

Female (M=4.86, SE=.154) and Hispanic or Latino participants (M=4.92, SE=.583)

experienced greater feelings of relief than male (M=4.59, SE=.259) and non-Hispanic or

Latino participants (M= 4.80, SE=.143). Neither the gender difference, t(297) = -.875, p >

.05, nor the ethnicity difference, t(297) = .164, p > .05, were significant. The results for

the t-test comparisons of gender and ethnicity for intention to leave, intrusion, safety,

avoidance, trust, and relief are presented in Table 4-19.

Table 4-19

Comparisons of Gender and Ethnicity for Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance,

Trust, and Relief: Independent t-test

Variable and Group	N	Mean	Diff	*t*-value	*p*-value
Intention to Leave			137.73	-2.284	.021*
Male	71	5.27			
Female	226	6.12			
Intention to Leave			278	1.510	.158
Hispanic or Latino	21	7.17			
Not Hispanic or Latino	276	5.83			
Intrusion			296	-1.243	.229
Male	71	21.56			
Female	226	23.07			
Intrusion			278	-.413	.151
Hispanic or Latino	21	21.75			
Not Hispanic or Latino	276	22.85			
Safety		30.46	296	1.872	.785
Male	71	29.23			
Female	226				

Table 4-19 Continued

Variable and Group	N	Mean	Diff	*t*-value	*p*-value
Safety			278	-.583	.463
Hispanic or Latino	21	28.67			
Not Hispanic or Latino	276	29.51			
Avoidance			295	-1.073	.648
Male	71	5.94			
Female	226	6.27			
Avoidance			277	.155	.539
Hispanic or Latino	21	6.33			
Not Hispanic or Latino	276	6.23			
Trust			296	.333	.324
Male	71	21.17			
Female	226	21.03			
Trust			278	-1.019	.956
Hispanic or Latino	21	20.17			
Not Hispanic or Latino	276	21.09			
Relief			294	-.875	.304
Male	71	4.59			
Female	226	4.86			
Relief			276	.164	.378
Hispanic or Latino	21	4.92			
Not Hispanic or Latino	276	4.80			

*$p \leq .05$

On average, participants who reported having gang experience also reported a greater intention to leave the teaching profession (M = 6.31, SE = .268) than those with no gang experience (M = 5.58, SE = .228). In addition, those participants who reported having gang experience also experienced grater feelings of intrusion (M = 25.83, SE = .868) than those having no gang experience (M = 20.05, SE = .522); greater avoidance (M = 6.71, SE = .189) than those having no gang experience (M = 5.75, SE = .166); and greater feelings of relief (M = 5.26, SE = .187) than those having no gang experience (M = 4.40, SE = 1.81); as well as lower feelings of safety (M = 28.50, SE = .430) than those

having no gang experience (M = 30.39, SE = .361) and lower feelings of trust (M = 20.36, SE = .281) than those with no gang experience (M = 21.66, SE = .213). There was a trend in trust (p = .072). The results for the t-test comparisons of gang experience and no gang experience for intention to leave, intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief are presented in Table 4 - 20.

Table 4-20

Comparisons of Gang Experience and No Gang Experience for Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief: Independent t-test

Variable and Group	N	Mean	Diff	*t*-value	*p*-value
Intention to Leave			296	-2.069	.159
Gang Experience	136	6.31			
No Gang Experience	161	5.58			
Intrusion			296	-5.711	.000**
Gang Experience	136	25.83			
No Gang Experience	161	20.05			
Avoidance			295	-3.799	.687
Gang Experience	136	6.71			
No Gang Experience	161	5.75			
Relief			294	-3.283	.573
Gang Experience	136	5.26			
No Gang Experience	161	4.40			
Safety			296	3.390	.417
Gang Experience	136	28.50			
No Gang Experience	161	30.39			
Trust			296	3.726	.072
Gang Experience	136	20.36			
No Gang Experience	161	21.66			

*$p<.05$. **$p<.01$.

To test for significant differences in intention to leave the teaching profession, intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief according to teacher characteristics (race, age, marital status, years teaching, and years at current school), ANOVA were used. Tukey's test was used as post hoc comparisons when significant *F* values resulted for ANOVA

analyses. A Type 1 error is also known as a false positive and "occurs when we believe there is a genuine effect in our population" (p.748) when there is really none. Tukey's test compares the largest mean with the smallest mean and does so until no significant difference is found.

Race. For comparison, race was recoded into four race groups, White, Black or African American, Asian, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, so that post hoc tests could be performed. There were no statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) in intention to leave ($p = .166$), intrusion ($p = .381$), safety ($p = .633$), avoidance ($p = .634$), trust ($p = .510$), or relief ($p = .986$) according to race. However, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated ($p = .044$); therefore, the Brown-Forsythe and Welch are reported. Both Brown-Forsythe ($p = .149$) and Welch ($p = .189$) show no significant effect in intrusion for race groups. The results of ANOVA according to race are shown in Table 4-21.

Table 4-21

Comparisons in Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief

According to Race: ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons

Variable and Race Group	N	Mean	F	*p*-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intention to Leave			1.707	.166	
White	258	5.91			
Black or African American	14	7.17			
Asian	19	4.88			
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	6	4.67			
Intrusion			1.027	.381	
White	258	23.02			
Black or African American	14	20.00			
Asian	19	20.35			
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	6	20.17			

Table 4-21 Continued

Variable and Race Group	N	Mean	F	p-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Safety			.574	.633	
White	258	29.44			
Black or African American	14	31.33			
Asian	19	29.53			
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	6	29.50			
Avoidance			.572	.634	
White	258	6.24			
Black or African American	14	5.92			
Asian	19	5.59			
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	6	5.83			
Trust			.772	.510	
White	258	21.00			
Black or African American	14	2.67			
Asian	19	21.94			
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	6	20.33			
Relief			.049	.986	
White	258	4.80			
Black or African American	14	4.83			
Asian	19	4.59			
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	6	4.83			

Age. Age was recoded into three age groups so that post hoc tests could be performed. There were no statistically significant differences in intention to leave (p= .101), intrusion (p = .143), safety (p = .513), avoidance (p = .937), or relief (p = .217) according to age. There was a trend for trust (p = .059). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated (p = .012); therefore, the Brown-Forsythe is reported indicating no significant effect in intrusion for age groups (p = .099). The results of ANOVA according to age are shown in Table 4-22.

Table 4-22

Comparisons in Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief

According to Age: ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons

Variable and Age Group	N	Mean	F	p-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intention to Leave			2.316	.101	
Under 35	122	6.03			
35 to 49	86	5.33			
50 +	89	6.30			
Intrusion			1.959	.143	
Under 35	122	23.27			
35 to 49	86	22.88			
50 +	89	20.95			
Safety			.669	.513	
Under 35	122	29.13			
35 to 49	86	29.92			
50 +	89	29.62			
Avoidance			.065	.937	
Under 35	122	6.13			
35 to 49	86	6.06			
50 +	89	6.17			
Trust			2.854	.059	
Under 35	122	20.54			
35 to 49	86	21.37			
50 +	89	21.44			
Relief			1.937	.217	
Under 35	122	5.01			
35 to 49	86	4.67			
50 +	89	4.47			

Marital Status. Marital status was recoded into three groups, single, never married, married, and divorced, separated, widow or widower, so that post hoc tests could be performed. According to marital status, there were no statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) in intention to leave ($p = .503$), intrusion ($p = .315$), or safety ($p = .225$). However, there were statistically significant differences between groups in trust (p

= .020) and relief (p = .039) according to marital status. There was also a trend for avoidance (p = .085). Post hoc comparisons resulted in a difference between the single and married groups for trust (.052) and between the married and divorced, separated, widow or widower groups for relief (.050). The results of ANOVA according to marital status are shown in Table 4-23.

Table 4-23

Comparisons in Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief

According to Marital Status: ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons

Variable and Marital Status Group	N	Mean	F	p-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intention to Leave			.689	.503	
Single, Never Married	78	6.15			
Married	180	5.75			
Divorced, Separated, Widow or Widower	39	6.21			
Intrusion			1.158	.315	
Single, Never Married	78	21.96			
Married	180	22.63			
Divorced, Separated, Widow or Widower	39	24.59			
Safety			1.500	.225	
Single, Never Married	78	29.58			
Married	180	29.77			
Divorced, Separated, Widow or Widower	39	28.28			
Avoidance			2.486	.085	
Single, Never Married	78	5.82			
Married	180	6.22			
Divorced, Separated, Widow or Widower	39	6.77			
Trust			3.964	.020*	
Single, Never Married	78	20.51			
Married	180	21.46			
Divorced, Separated, Widow or Widower	39	20.36			
Single > Married				.052	

Table 4-23 Continued

Variable and Marital Status Group	N	Mean	F	*p*-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Relief			3.289	.039*	
Single, Never Married	78	5.01			
Married	180	5.54			
Divorced, Separated, Widow or Widower	39	5.49			
Married > Divorced, Separated, Widow or Widower					.050

*p<.05.

Years Teaching. Years teaching were recoded into four groups, 3 or less, 4 to 9,

10 to 18, and 19+, so that post hoc tests could be performed. According to years teaching,

there were no statistically significant differences in intention to leave (p= .514), intrusion

(p = .258), safety (p = .933), avoidance (p = .817), or relief (p = .119). However, there was

a statistically significant difference between groups in trust (p = .048). Post hoc

comparison showed a significant difference between the 3 or less group and the 19+ group

(.027). The results of ANOVA according to years teaching are shown in Table 4-24.

Table 4-24

Comparisons in Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief According to Years Teaching: ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons

Variable and Years Teaching Group	N	Mean	F	*p*-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intention to Leave			.765	.514	
3 or less	58	5.50			
4 to 9	83	6.27			
10 to 18	77	5.88			
19+	79	5.87			

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Table 4-24 Continued

Variable and Years Teaching Group	N	Mean	F	p-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intrusion			1.351	.258	
3 or less	58	22.93			
4 to 9	83	23.85			
10 to 18	77	22.95			
19+	79	21.10			
Safety			.144	.933	
3 or less	58	29.81			
4 to 9	83	29.33			
10 to 18	77	29.39			
19+	79	29.65			
Avoidance			.312	.817	
3 or less	58	6.21			
4 to 9	83	6.07			
10 to 18	77	6.11			
19+	79	6.38			
Trust			2.673	.048*	
3 or less	58	20.28			
4 to 9	83	20.99			
10 to 18	77	21.04			
19+	79	21.75			
3 or less > 19+					.027*
Relief			1.969	.119	
3 or less	58	5.28			
4 to 9	83	4.98			
10 to 18	77	4.63			
19+	79	4.41			

*$p<.05$.

Years at Current School. Years at current school was recoded into four groups, 3 or less, 4 to 9, 10 to 18, and 19+, so that post hoc tests could be performed. According to years at current school, there were no statistically significant differences in intention to leave (p= .661), intrusion (p = .335), safety (p = .458), avoidance (p = .406), trust (p = .506), or relief (p = .707). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated for safety (p = .019) and trust (p = .016); therefore, the Brown-Forsythe was reported indicating there was no significant effect in either safety (p = .482) or trust (p = .554)

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according to years at current school. Post hoc comparisons were not completed due to no statistically significant differences having been found. The results of ANOVA according to years at current school are shown in Table 4-25.

Table 4-25

Comparisons in Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief According to Years at Current School: ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons

Variable and Years At Current School	N	Mean	F	*p*-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intention to Leave			.531	.661	
3 or less	122	5.80			
4 to 9	100	6.03			
10 to 18	50	6.26			
19+	25	5.44			
Intrusion			1.134	.335	
3 or less	122	23.07			
4 to 9	100	23.11			
10 to 18	50	22.50			
19+	25	19.64			
Safety			.868	.458	
3 or less	122	29.30			
4 to 9	100	29.80			
10 to 18	50	30.10			
19+	25	28.40			
Avoidance			.974	.406	
3 or less	122	6.20			
4 to 9	100	6.16			
10 to 18	50	6.48			
19+	25	5.56			
Trust			.780	.506	
3 or less	122	20.79			
4 to 9	100	21.16			
10 to 18	50	21.48			
19+	25	21.40			
Relief			.465	.707	
3 or less	120	4.94			
4 to 9	100	4.81			
10 to 18	50	4.50			
19+	25	4.68			

Research Question 3

Are there differences in teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief), and intention to leave the teaching profession according to school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures)?

Independent t-tests were performed to test for differences in reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession according to the school characteristic, gang presence. On average, participants who reported a gang presence on campus had a higher intention to leave teaching (M = 6.33, SE = .299) than those who reported no gang presence on campus (M = 5.68, SE = .214). This difference was not significant t(297) = -1.803, p >.05.

Participants who reported a gang presence on campus also had higher feelings of intrusion (M =26.45, SE = 1.024) than those who reported no gang presence on campus (M=20.52, SE = .492). This difference was significant. While participants who reported a gang presence on campus also reported greater avoidance (M = 6.77, SE = .286) and greater feelings of relief (M = 5.61, SE = .162) than those who reported no gang presence on campus, neither difference was significant.

Participants who reported no gang presence on campus had a greater feeling of safety (M = 30.62, SE = .307) and trust (M = 21.70, SE = .326) than participants who reported a gang presence on campus. The difference for both safety and trust were significant. The results for the t-test comparisons of gang presence and no gang presence for intention to leave, intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief are presented in Table 4 - 26.

Table 4-26

Comparisons of Gang Presence and No Gang Presence for Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief: Independent t-test

Variable and Group	N	Mean	Diff	t-value	p-value
Intention to Leave			296	-1.803	.342
Gang Presence	110	6.33			
No Gang Presence	187	5.68			
Intrusion			160.20	-5.229	.000**
Gang Presence	110	26.45			
No Gang Presence	187	20.52			
Safety			187.50	4.888	.005**
Gang Presence	110	27.68			
No Gang Presence	187	30.60			
Avoidance			295	-3.530	.567
Gang Presence	110	6.77			
No Gang Presence	187	5.85			
Trust			184.15	4.579	.006**
Gang Presence	110	19.97			
No Gang Presence	187	21.70			
Relief			294	-4.919	.536
Gang Presence	110	5.61			
No Gang Presence	187	4.32			

$**p<.01$.

To test for significant differences in intention to leave the teaching profession and teachers' reaction to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) according to school characteristics (level, area, enrollment, and security), ANOVA were used. Tukey's test was used as post hoc comparisons when significant F values resulted for ANOVA analyses. This provided for comparison control for Type 1 errors by correcting the level of significance for each test (Field, 2005). A Type 1 error is also known as a false positive and "occurs when we believe there is a genuine effect in our population" (p. 748) when there is really non. Tukey's test compares the largest mean with the smallest mean and does so until no significant difference is found.

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School Level. The researcher recoded school level into three groups, elementary, middle and high, so that post hoc tests could be performed. Results showed there were no statistically significant differences in intention to leave (p= .215) or avoidance (.105). However, there were statistically significant differences in intrusion (p = .002), safety (p = .000), trust (p = .006) and relief (p = .011) according to school level.

The assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated for intrusion (p = .001), safety (p = .017), and trust (p = .012); therefore, the Brown-Forsythe was reported indicating a significant effect in intrusion (p = .003), safety (p = .000), and trust (p = .010). Post hoc comparison resulted in significant differences between middle and elementary for intrusion (.002), safety (.001), trust (.004) and relief (.015). In addition, significant differences were also present between middle and high for intrusion (.016), safety (.000), and relief (.027). The results of ANOVA according to school level are shown in Table 4-27.

Table 4-27

Comparisons in Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief

According to School Level: ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons

Variable and School Level	N	Mean	F	p-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intention to Leave			1.546	.215	
Elementary	77	6.04			
Middle	68	6.40			
High	152	5.64			
Intrusion			6.339	.002**	
Elementary	77	20.86			
Middle	68	25.88			
High	152	22.32			
Middle > Elementary					.002**
Middle> High					.016*

Table 4-27 Continued

Variable and School Level	N	Mean	F	p-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Safety					
Elementary			9.697	.000**	
Middle	77	30.30			
High	68	27.32			
Middle > Elementary	152	30.15			
Middle > High					.001**
					.000**
Avoidance			2.274	.105	
Elementary	77	5.75			
Middle	68	6.38			
High	152	6.37			
Trust			5.221	.006**	
Elementary	77	21.79			
Middle	68	20.18			
High	152	21.05			
Middle > Elementary					.004**
Relief			4.563	.011*	
Elementary	76	4.45			
Middle	67	5.51			
High	152	4.65			
Middle > Elementary					.015*
Middle > High					.027*

*p<.05. **p<.01.

Area. Area was recoded into three groups. There were no statistically significant differences in intention to leave (p= .380), intrusion (p = .345), safety (p = .391), avoidance (p = .154), trust (p = .300) or relief (p = .973) according to area. The results of ANOVA according to area are shown in Table 4-28.

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Table 4-28

Comparisons in Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief

According to Area: ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons

Variable and Area	N	Mean	F	p-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intention to Leave			.971	.380	
Urban	92	6.01			
Suburban	138	6.07			
Rural	67	5.46			
Intrusion			1.068	.345	
Urban	92	23.49			
Suburban	138	23.04			
Rural	67	21.46			
Safety			.842	.391	
Urban	92	29.52			
Suburban	138	29.17			
Rural	67	30.18			
Avoidance			1.886	.154	
Urban	92	6.49			
Suburban	138	6.22			
Rural	67	5.81			
Trust			1.209	.300	
Urban	92	20.77			
Suburban	138	20.98			
Rural	67	21.52			
Relief			.027	.973	
Urban	92	4.78			
Suburban	138	4.80			
Rural	66	4.86			

Enrollment. Enrollment was recoded into five groups. There were no statistically significant differences in intention to leave (p= .195), avoidance (p = .414), trust (p = .068), or relief (p = .606) according to enrollment. There were statistically significant differences in intrusion (p = .011) and safety (p = .012) according to school level. There was also a trend in trust (p = .068). However the assumption of homogeneity of variance

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was violated for both intrusion (p = .021) and safety (p = .015); therefore, the Brown-Forsythe was reported indicating a significant effect in both intrusion (p = .023) and safety (p = .016).

Post hoc comparison resulted in significant differences in intrusion between to 1001 to 1500 group and the 1501 to 2000 group (.040) as well as the 1501 to 2000 group and the over 2000 group (.022). Significant differences also resulted in safety between the 501 to 1000 group and the over 2000 group (.006). The results of ANOVA according to enrollment are shown in Table 4-29.

Table 4-29

Comparisons in Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief According to Enrollment: ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons

Variable and Enrollment	N	Mean	F	*p*-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intention to Leave			1.525	.195	
Under 500	63	5.67			
501 to 1000	79	6.30			
1001 to 1500	56	6.09			
1501 to 2000	21	6.57			
Over 2000	78	5.27			
Intrusion			3.303	.011*	
Under 500	63	23.24			
501 to 1000	79	23.86			
1001 to 1500	56	20.96			
1501 to 2000	21	27.38			
Over 2000	78	20.73			
1001 to 1500 > 1501 to 2000					.040*
1501 to 2000 > Over 2000					.022*
Safety			3.254	.012*	
Under 500	63	29.38			
501 to 1000	79	28.53			
1001 to 1500	56	29.73			
1501 to 2000	21	28.62			
Over 2000	78	31.16			
501 to 1000 > Over 2000					.006**

Table 4-29 Continued

Variable and Enrollment	N	Mean	F	*p*-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Avoidance			.988	.414	
Under 500	63	6.00			
501 to 1000	79	6.08			
1001 to 1500	56	5.91			
1501 to 2000	21	6.95			
Over 2000	78	6.26			
Trust			2.213	.068	
Under 500	63	21.52			
501 to 1000	79	20.76			
1001 to 1500	56	21.47			
1501 to 2000	21	19.62			
Over 2000	78	21.40			
Relief			.680	.606	
Under 500	63	4.88	.	.	
501 to 1000	79	4.96			
1001 to 1500	56	4.71			
1501 to 2000	21	4.90			
Over 2000	78	4.40			

*$p<.05$. **$p<.01$.

School Security. School security was recoded into three groups (minimal, moderate, extensive) so that post hoc tests could be performed. There were no statistically significant differences in intrusion (p = .498), trust (p = .208), and safety (p = .055) according to school security. There were statistically significant differences in intention to leave (p = .034), avoidance (p = .016), and relief (p = .026) according to school security. There was also a trend in safety (p =.055). Post hoc comparison resulted in a significant difference between moderate and extensive groups for intention to leave (.039), safety (.043), and relief (.021). In addition, post hoc comparison for avoidance resulted in significant differences in minimal to moderate (.020) and minimal to extensive (.049). The results of ANOVA according to enrollment are shown in Table 4-30.

Table 4-30

Comparisons in Intention to Leave, Intrusion, Safety, Avoidance, Trust, and Relief

According to School Security: ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparisons

Variable and School Security	N	Mean	F	*p*-value	Tukey Post Hoc Comparison
Intention to Leave			3.410	.034*	
Minimal	82	6.17			
Moderate	123	6.25			
Extensive	92	5.24			
Moderate > Extensive					.039*
Intrusion			.699	.498	
Minimal	82	21.73			
Moderate	123	22.98			
Extensive	92	23.22			
Safety			2.925	.055	
Minimal	82	29.59			
Moderate	123	28.81			
Extensive	92	30.42			
Moderate > Extensive					.043*
Avoidance			4.174	.016*	
Minimal	82	5.60			
Moderate	123	6.44			
Extensive	92	6.38			
Minimal > Moderate					.020*
Minimal > Extensive					.049*
Trust			1.580	.208	
Minimal	82	21.29			
Moderate	123	20.69			
Extensive	92	21.36			
Relief			3.695	.026*	
Minimal	82	4.70	.	.	
Moderate	123	5.19			
Extensive	92	4.35			
Moderate > Extensive					.021*

*p<.05.

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Hypothesis 1

H1: Teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) are significant explanatory variables of intention to leave the teaching profession.

To test Hypothesis 1, multiple regression analysis using hierarchical (forward) method was used to determine whether there is a significant explanatory (correlational) relationship among teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession. First, Pearson r correlation analyses were conducted. Three of five subscales had significant positive relationships with intention to leave the teaching profession in the following order from strongest to weakest: Intrusion ($r = .247$, $p = .000$), Avoidance ($r = .214$, $p = .000$), and Relief ($r = .132$, $p = .023$). Two subscales had significant negative relationships with intention to leave the teaching profession in the following order of importance from strongest to weakest: Safety ($r = -.277$, $p = .000$) and Trust ($r = -.269$, $p = .000$). The results of Perason r correlation is shown in Table 4-31.

Table 4-31

Pearson r Correlation Between Intention to Leave and the Five Subscales of the Revised Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale

Variable	Pearson r	p value
Subscales of TRSV		
Safety	-.277	.000**
Trust	-.269	.000**
Intrusion	.247	.000**
Avoidance	.214	.000**
Relief	.132	.023*

*$p<.05$. **$p<.01$.

Five significant explanatory variables (Safety, Trust, Intrusion, Avoidance, and Relief) were entered into a forward linear regression model based on the order of strongest

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to weakest Pearson r correlation until the model with the highest explanatory power (R^2) and adjusted R was produced. Collinearity statistics were examined. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), ranged from 1.000 to 1.562 and the tolerance ranged from .640 to 1.000. VIF is a predictor of strong liner relationships with other predictors and may be of a concern if greater than 10 while tolerance should be greater than .10 (Fields, 2005). Multicollinearity was not a problem.

Two different models were produced from the forward regression results. The analysis excluded Avoidance, Intrusion, and Relief. Each model had significant F values testing for the significance of R^2 which is the significance of the regression model as a whole. Model two with two explanatory variables (Safety and Trust) was selected as the best explanatory model to explain teacher intention to leave the teaching profession ($F = 13.015$, p = .000) having the highest R^2 value of .082 and an adjusted R^2 of .076. This means a range of 7.6% to 8.2% of the variation of the dependent variable can be explained by the explanatory variables in the model.

To analyze the individual predictors in Model 2, the t statistic, which is the ratio of the regression coefficient to its standard error (B/SE), was used and was significant for both the Safety subscale (t= -2.511, p = .013) and the Trust subscale (t = -2.047, p = .042). The order of relative importance of the predictor variables in explaining intention to leave the teaching profession according to the standardized Beta coefficients (β) were from least to most important: Trust (β= -.143) and Safety (β= -.176). According to the findings, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported in that Safety and Trust are significant explanatory

variables in explaining a range of 7.6% to 8.2% of the variation in intention to leave

teaching. The explanatory model found was:

Intention to leave = 12.179 (constant) + -.110 (Safety) + -.144 (Trust) + e

The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 4 – 32.

Table 4 – 32

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale

and Intention to Leave

Model		B	SE	β	t	p-value	F	R^2	Adjusted R^2
1	(Constant)	10.726	1.052		10.199	.000**			
	Safety Subscale	-.163	.035	-.262	-4.65	.000**	21.606	.069	.065
2	(Constant)	12.179	1.264		9.64	.000**			
	Safety Subscale	-.110	.044	-.176	-2.51	.013*			
	Trust Subscale	-.144	.070	-.143	-2.05	.042*	13.015	.082	.076

*p<.05. **p<.01.

Hypothesis 2

H2: Teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures), and reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) are significant explanatory variables of intention to leave the teaching profession.

To test Hypothesis 2, Eta (h), Pearson r correlations, and multiple regression analysis using hierarchical (forward) method were used to determine the order of importance among teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (level, area, enrollment size, and gang presence), teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession. In order to obtain a reliable regression model, a sample size of 10 to 15 cases of data per predictor is needed (Field, 2005). Therefore, race was recoded into white and other; years at current school into three or less, four to nine, and ten or more; and enrollment into under 500, 501 to 1000, 1001 to 1500, and over 1500.

In Research Hypothesis 2, explanatory categorical variables included: the demographic profiles of gender, race, ethnicity, marital status, and gang experience and the school characteristics of school level, area, and gang presence. Explanatory variables that were scaled included: teacher age, number of years teaching, and number of years at current school; the school characteristic of school enrollment; and the five subscales of the TRSV (Intrusion, Avoidance, Safety, Trust and Relief). For the correlational analysis, Eta (h) was used when the variables were categorical and Pearson r was used when the variables were scaled.

Eta (h) correlation analyses indicated that gender (p = .038) and gang experience (p = .039) were significantly correlated with intention to leave teaching. A trend was found

between gang presence (p = .072) and intention to leave teaching. All other variables had non-significant correlations with intention to leave teaching. The Eta correlations for categorical variables of teacher and school characteristics with intention to leave results are presented in Table 4 – 33.

Table 4-33

Eta Correlations for Categorical Variables of Teacher Characteristics and School Characteristics with Intention to Leave

Correlations with Intention to Leave	Eta (h)	Eta Squared (h^2)	F	p
Teacher Characteristics				
Gender	.120	.014	4.340	.038*
Race	.030	.001	.264	.608
Ethnicity	.090	.008	2.281	.132
Marital Status	.068	.005	.689	.503
Gang Experience	.119	.014	4.279	.039*
School Characteristics				
Level	.102	.010	1.546	.215
Area	.082	.007	.971	.380
Gang Presence	.104	.011	3.252	.072

*$p<.05$.

Significant or trend categorical variables resulting from Eta correlations with the *Intention to Leave Scale* were dummy coded with 1's and 0's in order to determine their association using Pearson *r*. For Hypothesis 2, correlations with the *Intention to Leave Scale* revealed a significant correlation with gender (p = .038) and gang experience (p = .039) and one trend Eta relationship with gang presence (p = .072). All three were dummy coded. For example, gender was transformed into two separate variables: male and female. Male was assigned a value of 1 when response was male and 0 otherwise. Female was assigned a value of 1 when response was female and 0 otherwise. In addition, gang experience was transformed into two separate variables: no and yes. No was assigned a value of 1 when response was no and 0 otherwise. Yes was assigned a value of 1 when response was yes and 0 otherwise. Gang presence was transformed into two separate

variables: yes and no. Yes was assigned a value of 1 when response was yes and 0 otherwise. No was assigned a value of 1 when response was no and 0 otherwise. Pearson r correlations were used to determine the relationships among intention to leave teaching and the dummy variables of male, female, no gang experience, gang experience, yes and no. Significant results of Pearson r correlations with *Intention to Leave Teaching* were: teacher characteristics of male (r = -.124, p = .033 inverse), female (r = .124, p = .033), no gang experience (r = -.131, p = .024 inverse), and gang experience (r = .131, p = .024). Gang presence (r = .107, p = .065) and no gang presence (r = -.107, p = .065 inverse) showed a trend. The results of the Pearson r correlations of the dummy coded variables are presented in Table 4-34.

Table 4-34

Pearson r Correlations of Dummy Coded Categorical Variables of Gender, Gang Experience, and Gang Presence

Dummy Coded Variables	Pearson r With Intention to Leave Teaching	p-Value
Teacher Characteristics		
Male	-.124	.033*
Female	.124	.033*
No Gang Experience	-.131	.024*
Gang Experience	.131	.024*
School Characteristic		
Gang Presence	.107	.065
No Gang Presence	-.107	.065

*$p<.05$.

Pearson r correlations were used to analyze the relationship among the scaled variables of demographic profiles (age, years teaching, years at current school), school characteristics (school enrollment), *Teacher Reaction to School Violence* subscales of Intrusion, Avoidance, Trust, Safety, and Relief. Three of nine predictors had significant

positive relationships with intention to leave the teaching profession in the following order from strongest to weakest: Intrusion (r= .247, p = .000), Avoidance (r = .214, p = .000), Relief (r=.132, p = .023). Three of nine predictors had significant negative relationships with intention to leave the teaching profession in the following order from strongest to weakest: Safety (r = -.277, p = .000), Trust (r = -.269, p = .000), and security measures (r = -.121, p = .037). The results of Perason r correlation is shown in Table 4-35.

Table 4-35

Pearson r Correlation Between Intention to Leave and Teacher Characteristics, School Characteristics, and the Five Subscales of the Revised Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale

Variable	Pearson *r*	*p* value
Subscales of TRSV		
Safety	-.277	.000**
Trust	-.269	.000**
Intrusion	.247	.000**
Avoidance	.214	.000**
Relief	.132	.023**
Security Measures	-.121	.037**
Enrollment	-.038	.517
Years at School	.028	.626
Age	.027	.647
Years Teaching	.015	.792

**$p<.01$.

Eight significant explanatory variables (Safety, Trust, Intrusion, Avoidance, Relief, gender, gang experience, and security measures) and one trend variable (gang presence) were entered into a forward linear regression model based on the order of strongest to weakest Pearson r correlation until the model with the highest explanatory power (R^2) and adjusted R was produced. Collinearity statistics were examined. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), ranged from 1.000 to 1.678 and the tolerance ranged from .596 to 1.000. VIF is a predictor of strong liner relationships with other predictors and may be of a

concern if greater than 10 while tolerance should be greater than .10 (Fields, 2005). Multicollinearity was not a problem.

Four different models were produced from the forward regression results. The analysis excluded Intrusion, gender, gang presence and gang experience. Each model had significant F values testing for the significance of R^2 which is the significance of the regression model as a whole. Model four with four explanatory variables (Safety, Trust, Avoidance, and Security) was selected as the best explanatory model to explain teacher intention to leave the teaching profession (F = 9.996, p = .000) having the highest R^2 value of .120 and an adjusted R^2 of .108. This means a range of 10.8% to 12% of the variation of the dependent variable can be explained by the explanatory variables in the model.

To analyze the individual predictors in Model 4, the t statistic, which is the ratio of the regression coefficient to its standard error (B/SE), was significant for the Avoidance subscale (t = 2.363, p = .019), security (t = 2.996, p = .022) and Safety subscale (t= -2.084, p = .038). The order of relative importance of the predictor variables in explaining intention to leave the teaching profession according to the standardized Beta coefficients (β) were from least to most important: Trust (β= -.127), Security (β= -.128), Avoidance

(β= .141), and Safety (β= -.146). According to the findings, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported in that trust, security, avoidance, and safety were explanatory variables and Intrusion, Relief, gender, and gang experience are not. The explanatory model found was:

Intention to leave = 11.085 (constant) + -.091 (Safety) + -.126 (Trust) +

.194 (Avoidance) + -.506 (Security) + e

The hierarchical multiple regression results are presented in Table 4 – 36.

Table 4-36

Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Teacher Reactions' to School Violence Subscales and Characteristics of Teachers and Schools

Model	*B*	*SE*	β	*T*	*p*-value	*F (p)*	R^2	Adjusted R^2
1 (Constant)	10.984	1.04		10.56	.000**			
Safety Subscale	-.172	.035	-.277	-4.94	.000**			
						24.431 (.000**)	.076	.073
2 (Constant)	12.513	1.24		10.13	.000**			
Safety	-.112	.044	-.180	-2.56	.011*			
Trust	-.157	.070	-.158	-2.26	.025*			
						14.927 (.000**)	.092	.086
3 (Constant)	10.520	1.579		6.66	.000**			
Safety	-.101	.044	-.162	-2.31	.022*			
Trust	-.126	.071	-.127	-1.77	.078			
Avoidance	.164	.082	.120	2.01	.045*			
						11.405 (.000**)	.105	.095
4 (Constant)	11.085	1.587		6.987	.000**			
Safety	-.091	.044	-.146	-2.08	.038*			
Trust	-.126	.070	-.127	-1.79	.074			
Avoidance	.194	.082	.141	2.36	.019*			
Security	-.506	.220	-.128	-2.30	.222			
						9.996 (.000**)	.120	.108

*p<.05. **p<.01.

Hypothesis 3

H3: School security measures mediate the relationship between teachers' reaction to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession.

Mediation, or an indirect effect, is said to occur when the causal effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable is transmitted by a mediator (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2006). For Hypothesis 3, there were five independent variables: Intrusion, Avoidance, Trust, Safety, and Relief. The moderator variable was security measures and the dependent variable was intention to leave teaching. To test Hypothesis 3, a moderated multiple regression analysis was used. To determine whether a mediator variable influenced the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable, a Sobel test was used.

As shown in Table 4-31, there were no significant differences between Intrusion (p = .498) and Trust (p = .208) and security measures. Therefore, Intrusion and Trust were not included in the regression model. The four-step test (Barron & Kenny, 1986) was used to test whether security measures on a school campus are a mediator of the relationship between teachers' reactions to school violence (Safety, Avoidance, and Relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession.

At step one, intention to leave was regressed onto Safety, Avoidance, and Relief.

Two different models were produced from the forward regression results. The analysis excluded Relief. Each model had significant F values testing for the significance of R^2 which is the significance of the regression model as a whole. Model two with two explanatory variables (Safety and Avoidance) was selected as the best explanatory model to explain teacher intention to leave the teaching profession (F = 13.707, p = .000) having the highest R^2 value of .086 and an adjusted R^2 of .080. This means a range of 8% to 8.6%

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of the variation of the dependent variable can be explained by the explanatory variables in the model.

To analyze the individual predictors in Model 2, the t statistic, which is the ratio of the regression coefficient to its standard error (B/SE), was used and was significant for both the Safety subscale (t= -3.790, p = .000) and the Avoidance subscale (t = 2.341, p = .020). The order of relative importance of the predictor variables in explaining intention to leave the teaching profession according to the standardized Beta coefficients (β) were from least to most important: Avoidance (β= .137) and Safety (β= -.222). The multiple regression results for step one are presented in Table 4 – 37.

Table 4 – 37

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Safety, Avoidance, and Relief and Intention to Leave

Model		B	SE	β	t	p-value	F	R^2	Adjusted R^2
1	(Constant)	10.726	1.052		10.199	.000**			
	Safety Subscale	-.163	.035	-.262	-4.65	.000**	21.606	.069	.065
2	(Constant)	8.825	1.323		6.67	.000**			
	Safety Subscale	-.138	.036	-.222	-3.79	.000**			
	Avoidance Subscale	.188	.080	.137	2.34	.020*	13.707	.086	.080

*$p<.05$. **$p<.01$.

At step two, security measures was used as the criterion variable and Safety, Avoidance, and Relief were used as the predictor variables. One model was produced from the forward regression results. The analysis excluded Safety and Relief. The

significant standardized coefficient (β) was .138 (p = .018). The multiple regression results

for step two are presented in Table 4 – 38.

Table 4 – 38

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Safety, Avoidance, and Relief and Security

Measures

Model	B	SE	β	t	p-value	F	R^2	Adjusted R^2
1 (Constant)	1.733	.132		13.09	.000**			
Avoidance Subscale	.048	.020	.138	2.34	.018*	5.689	.019	.016

*p<.05. **p<.01.

At step three, intention to leave the teaching profession was the criterion variable in

a regression equation and Safety, Avoidance, Relief, and security measures were used as

the predictor variables. As shown in Table 4 – 39, when security measures was also a

predictor of intention to leave the teaching profession, the unstandardized regression

coefficient (B) for the association between security measures and intention to leave the

teaching profession was -.496; the standardized coefficient (β)was -.126; the standard error

(SE) for this coefficient was .222 (p = .026). Therefore, Safety and Avoidance must be

controlled in establishing the effect of security measures on intention to leave the teaching

profession.

Table 4 – 39

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Safety, Avoidance, Relief, and Security Measures as Predictors of Intention to Leave

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p-value	F	R^2	Adjusted R^2
(Constant)	6.890	.495		13.91	.000**			
Safety Subscale	-.129	.036	-.207	-3.54	.000**			
Avoidance Subscale	.218	.081	.159	2.69	.007**			
Security Measures	-.496	.222	-.126	- 2.24	.026*	10.930	.101	.092

*p<.05. **p<.01.

At step four, a Sobel test was used to determine whether a mediator variable (security measures) influenced the independent variable (Safety) and the dependent variable (intention to leave the teaching profession). If the p value was less than .05, then inclusion of the mediator in the model indicated there was evidence of mediation. The value of the test statistic for the Sobel test between Safety, security measures, and intention to leave the teaching profession was 2.014 with an associated p-value .044. The fact that the associated p-value fell below the established alpha level of .05 indicated that the association between Safety and intention to leave the teaching profession was significant by the inclusion of security measures. Table 4 – 40 presents the results of the analysis of the Sobel test of the influence of the mediator variable of security measures between Safety and intention to leave the teaching profession.

Table 4 – 40

Summarized Moderated Regression Analysis for the Effect of the Mediator Security Measures Between Safety and Intention to Leave: Sobel Test

Variable	B_a	SE_a	B_b	SE_b	t	p
Safety Subscale	-.163	.035	-.496	.222	2.014	.044*

*$p<.05$.

The value of the test statistic for the Sobel test between Avoidance, security measures, and intention to leave the teaching profession was -1.62 with an associated p-value .11. The fact that the associated p-value did not fall below the established alpha level of .05 indicated that the association between Avoidance and intention to leave the teaching profession was not significant by the inclusion of security measures. Table 4 – 41 presents the results of the analysis of the Sobel test of the influence of the mediator variable of security measures between Avoidance and intention to leave the teaching profession.

Table 4 – 41

Summarized Moderated Regression Analysis for the Effect of the Mediator Security Measures Between Avoidance and Intention to Leave: Sobel Test

Variable	B_a	SE_a	B_b	SE_b	t	p
Avoidance Subscale	.188	.080	-.496	.222	-1.62	.11

From the regression results, it is clear that the relationship between Safety and intention to leave the teaching profession became significant by the inclusion of security measures as a mediating variable. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

This concludes the presentation of results. Chapter IV presented a description of the final data producing sample, psychometric analyses of the Teacher Reaction to School Violence Scale, the Intention to Leave Scale, and the Security Measures Scale and the results of answering the research questions and hypotheses testing. Chapter V presents the summary and interpretation of findings, limitations, conclusions, practical implications, and recommendations for future study.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The focus of this study was to examine K-12 teacher characteristics, school characteristics, and teachers' reactions to violence while also examining the possible mediating effects school security measures had on teacher intention to leave the teaching profession. Specifically, there were six purposes of this study. The first was to describe K-12 teacher characteristics, school characteristics, and teachers' reactions to school violence, which affect intention to leave the teaching profession. The next purpose was to explore the differences in reactions to school violence and intention to leave the teaching profession according to teacher characteristics. The third purpose was to explore the differences in reactions to school violence and intention to leave the teaching profession according to school characteristics. The fourth purpose was to explain the relationship between teachers' reactions to school violence and their intention to leave the teaching profession. The fifth purpose was to explain the relationship among teacher characteristics, school characteristics, reactions to school violence, and the intention to leave the teaching profession. The sixth purpose was to explain if school security measures mediate the relationship between teacher reactions to school violence and intention to leave the teaching profession.

The study used a quantitative, non-experimental, exploratory (comparative), and explanatory (correlational) online survey research design to examine the relationships among the variables. The study consisted of four parts: Part 1: *Teacher Characteristics*, Part 2: *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence*, Part 3: *School Characteristics*, and Part 4:

Intention to Leave. The survey instrument contained a total of 69 questions and was conducted electronically.

Three different scales were used in the study. *Part II: Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* measured teachers' perceptions of intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief utilizing the Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale developed by Ting, Sanders, and Smith (2002). *Part III: School Characteristics* measured the amount of security measures on a school's campus and utilized a scale adapted from the US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics 2005-2006 School Survey on Crime and Safety. *Part IV: Intention to Leave* measured teachers' intention to leave the teaching profession and utilized the Intention to Leave Scale developed by Jacob Weisberg (1994).

Prior to answering the research questions and testing hypotheses, reliability and validity analysis were conducted on each of the three scales. Based on the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), the scales were modified to enhance the psychometric qualities of the measures. Chapter V begins with the summary and interpretations of the findings followed by the practical implications, conclusions, limitations, and recommendations for future study.

Summary and Interpretations

Data Producing Sample

An email invitation was sent to the superintendents of the 100 largest school districts in the United States requesting permission for the researcher to send an email requesting the principals forward the invitation to participate in the online survey to their teachers. A total of 22 districts responded with two approving the request without any

further documentation, 15 denying the request, and five requesting additional documentation. The requested documentation was sent to the five districts with two approving the survey, one not responding further, and two approving the survey after the survey was closed. Therefore, a total of four of the 100 largest school districts in the United States approved the survey which was open from October 1, 2008, until December 31, 2008. A total of 332 responses were obtained with 297 (89.5%) of those being complete resulting in a teacher response rate of less than .05%.

Psychometric Evaluation of Measures

In this study, *Teachers' Reaction to School Violence* measured teachers' perceptions of intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief utilizing the Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale (TRSV) developed by Ting, Sanders, and Smith (2002). Thirty-five items assessed the six subscales in a self-report survey using a five-point frequency rating scale. Varimax rotation was used to construct validity of the TRSV.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) procedures were conducted on the 35 item TRSV which resulted in a *32-item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale Revised* (Cronbach alpha = .727) with five subscales (*Intrusion, a = .745; Safety, a = .818; Trust, a = .745; Avoidance, a = .676;* and *Relief, a = .539*). These results were consistent with Ting, et. al. (2002) which reported .95 for the total TRSV, .95 for Intrusion, .84 for Perceived Safety with Students, .82 for Environmental Safety, .77 for Avoidance of Students/Situations, .68 for Trust of Students, and .60 for Feelings of Relief (p. 1012). In this study, the *32-item TRSV Revised Scale* was used to answer research questions and in hypotheses testing using regression analysis.

School security was measured by an 18 item scale adapted from the National Center of Education Statistics 2005 – 2006 School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS). The reliability and validity of the SSOCS were not reported by the authors or found in the literature review. Exploratory factor analysis of the 18 items revealed two factors. Factor one (*Law Enforcement, a* = .969) consisted of 11 items and factor two (*School, a* = .866) consisted of seven factors. The reliability of the 18-item scale was adequate at *a* = .932. The 18-item scale was used to answer research questions and test hypotheses in this study.

Intention to leave was measured by three items from the measure of intention to leave developed by Weisberg (1994) in his study measuring workers' burnout and intention to leave. Exploratory factor analysis of the three items resulted in one factor. The reliability of the scale was adequate at a = .787 which is similar to that reported by Weisberg (1994) (a = .89). The three item scale was used to answer research questions and test hypotheses in this study. The psychometric analysis of the scales used in this study is presented in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1

Summary of Psychometric Evaluation of Measures Using EFA and Coefficient Alpha

Scale	Reliability *A*	Validity Construct Validity Exploratory Factor Analysis			Analysis
		Factors	Loadings	Variance Explained	
32 Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale (Total score range 32-160)	.727	5		58%	Minimally satisfactory reliability. Construct validity confirmed multidimensional scale. Subscales used in comparative and regression analysis.
Factor 1: Intrusion 14 Items (Score range 14-70)	.941		.542 to .801		
Factor 2: Safety 7 Items (Score range 7-35)	.818		.434 to .700		
Factor 3: Trust 5 Items (Score range 5-25)	.745		.386 to .566		
Factor 4: Avoidance 4 Items (Score range 4–20)	.676		.350 to .556		
Factor 5: Relief 2 items (Score range 2-10)	.539		.376		
18 Item School Security Measures Scale (Total score range 0-18)	.932	2	.581 to .917	78%	Adequate reliability. Construct validity confirmed multidimensional scale. Total scale used in comparative and regression analysis.
Factor 1: Law Enforcement 11 Items (Score range 0-11)	.969		.802 to .895		
Factor 2: School 7 Items (Score range 0-7)	.866		.581 to .917		
3 Item Intention to Leave Scale (Score range 3-15)	.787		.544 to .683	100%	Adequate reliability. Construct validity confirmed unidimensional scale Total scale used in comparative and regression analysis

Summary Analysis and Interpretations of Answers to Research Questions

Research Question 1 - Descriptive Analysis

Research question 1 analyzed the teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures), and reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) which affect intention to leave the teaching profession.

Descriptive analysis of teacher Demographics. The majority of the participants were married (59.6%), white (87%), females (76%). Ninety-six percent responded they were "not Hispanic or Latino". The majority of the respondents were in the under 35 category (40%) followed by 50+ (30%), and 35 to 49 (29%) and had no experience with gangs (54%). Years of teaching experience were fairly evenly distributed with 28% having 19+ years, 27% having 4 to 9 years, 26% having 10 to 18 years, and 19% having 3 or less years of teaching experience. However, the majority of teachers (59%) had only been teaching at their current school for three or less years.

This study closely resembled the target population for gender, age, race, ethnicity, and years teaching. There were no target statistics available for gang experience. The results of the comparative analysis of the sample with target population for teacher demographics are presented in Table 5-2.

Table 5-2

Comparative Analysis of the Sample with the Target Population

Teacher Characteristics	Target 100 Largest School Districts	Sample 100 Largest School Districts	Percentage Differences (+,-)
Gender	N= 627,436	N=297	
Male	25%	24%	-1%
Female	75%	76%	+1%
Age	N=627,436	N=297	
Under 35	29%	40%	+11%
35 to 49	42%	29%	-11%
50+	29%	30%	+1%
Race	N=627,436	N=297	
White	83%	87%	+4%
Black or African American	8%	5%	-3%
Asian	1%	6%	+5%
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	< 1%	3%	+2%
Ethnicity	N=627,436	N=297	
Hispanic or Latino	6%	4%	-2%
Not Hispanic or Latino	94%	96%	+2%
Years Teaching	N=627,436	N=297	
3 or less	17%	19%	+2%
4 to 9	24%	27%	+3%
10 to 18	24%	26%	+2%
Over 19	36%	28%	-12%

+ Sample is over represented. – Sample is under represented.

Descriptive analysis of school characteristics. The majority of the respondents were from high school (51%), in a suburban area (46%), and had an enrollment of 501 to 1000 students (28%). These results are not representative of the target population regarding level of school as the majority of schools in the 100 largest school districts in the United States are elementary (10,033) (U.S. Department of Education, 2005-2006, Table 5). These results are representative of the target population for average enrollment of 702 for the 100 largest school districts (U.S. Department of Education, 2005-2006, Table 5).

The majority of the respondents reported having no gang experience (63%). While, no statistics were available for the 100 largest school districts with regard to gang presence in schools, the Bureau of Justice Assistance (2005) found that all cities with populations greater than 250,000 reported a youth gang problem, 87% of cities with populations between 100,000 and 250,000 reported a youth gang problem and that these gangs threaten our schools. In addition, Bosch (1998) also found the gang problem has spilled over into schools. Parks (1995) and Goldstein and Kodluboy (1998) also reported that schools which once had no gang activity, have now seen an increase in gang behaviors.

Descriptive analysis of school security measures. The majority of the respondents reported their school had law enforcement on campus (68%). This is consistent with the Knox (2007) study which found approximately 67% of the respondents had a full-time school resource officer.

The majority of the respondents also reported that the law enforcement personnel on their campus coordinated with outside police agencies (61%), patrolled the campus (59%), wore uniforms (65%), helped with school discipline (57%), and carried a firearm (49%), stun gun (43%), or chemical spray (43%). These officers also mentored students (43%) and helped train teachers (31%). Security on the majority of campuses also included visitor sign in (89%) and controlled access to the building (67%). These results were consistent with the study by the U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences (2007) entitled School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS) 2003-04 which found 97% of schools required visitors to sign in and 75% controlled access to the campus. However, this study found 59% of the respondents reported the use of security cameras on campus versus only 19% in the SSOCS study.

Descriptive analysis of 32-Item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence scale.
The scale is a 32-item multidimensional, 5-point semantic differential scale, with anchors of very often (5) and not at all (1). The scale consists of 14 Intrusion (INT) items with a score range of 14-70, seven Safety (Safe) items with a score range of 7-35, five Trust (Trust) items with a score range of 5-25, four Avoidance (Avoid) items with a score range of 4-20, and two Relief (Relief) items with a score range of 2-10. The total score was 84.32 fell mid-ways between the total score rating for teachers in low-violence schools (70) and those in high-violence schools (102) in the Ting, et. al (2002) study.

The reported scores may indicate that teachers who responded to the survey felt low levels of intrusion and low to medium levels of avoidance. In addition, these teachers felt high levels of safety and trust of students and experienced a medium level of relief. Since violence on a school campus has an effect on teachers in the form of a reduced sense of safety and increased absenteeism as well as attrition (Smith & Smith, 2006), these results may indicate the respondents are less likely to leave the teaching profession. Also, the results suggest that the majority of the respondents were employed in low-violence schools.

Research Question 2 – Reactions to School Violence and Intention to Leave According to Teacher Characteristics

Research question 2 examined different teacher reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession according to teacher characteristics. Teacher characteristics included gender, ethnicity, gang experience, race, age, marital status, years teaching, and years at current school.

There were significant differences between female and male participants for intention to leave teaching with females having a greater intention to leave than males. In addition, there were differences between Hispanic or Latino participants and non-Hispanic or Latino participants with Hispanic or Latino participants having a greater intention to leave teaching. These results are consistent with Guarino, Santibanez, and Daley (2006) study which also found females to have higher attrition rates than males. However, the results are contrary to the Olivarez and Arnold (2006) study of special education teachers which found more females than males were retained.

Female and non-Hispanic or Latino participants experienced greater feelings of intrusion than male and Hispanic or Latino participants while female and Hispanic or Latino participants experienced lower feelings of safety than male and non-Hispanic or Latino participants. Female and Hispanic or Latino participants also experienced more avoidance tendencies, lower levels of trust, and greater feelings of relief than male non-Hispanic or Latino participants. These results are consistent with Lane and Meeker (2003) and Katz, et. al (2003) which found females are consistently more afraid than males and being a minority also has a direct impact on gang fear. In another study, Lane and Meeker (2003) also found "the magnitude of fear for women is greater than it is for men..." (Summary section, para.1).

On average, participants who reported having gang experience also reported a greater intention to leave the teaching profession than those with no gang experience. In addition, those participants who reported having gang experience also experienced grater feelings of intrusion, greater avoidance, and greater feelings of relief than those having no gang experience. Participants who reported having gang experience also had lower

feelings of safety and lower feelings of trust than those with no gang experience. These results are consistent with Katz, et al. (2003) which found that direct gang victimization significantly increased fear of crime and fear of gangs.

There were no studies which examined the effect gang experience had on intention to leave teaching. However, Loeb et. al (2005) found teachers are more likely to leave schools serving high proportions of low-achieving, low-income, and minority students. These characteristics are consistent with Howell's (1998) study which found youth gangs to be located in primarily lower-class or working-class changing communities. In addition, The National Youth Gang Survey (1996) found the majority of gang members are from minorities: Hispanic (46%), African American (34%), and Asian (6%).

There were no statistically significant differences in intention to leave, intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, or relief according to race, age, or years at current school. However, there were significant differences in trust and relief according to marital status and trust according to years teaching.

Research Question 3 – Teachers' Reactions to School Violence and Intention to Leave Teaching According to School Characteristics

On average, participants who reported a gang presence on campus had a higher intention to leave teaching than those who reported no gang presence on campus. These results were consistent with Smith and Smith's (2006) study which found that the increase in gang violence and gang activity on school campuses creates an environment of fear which in turn increases teacher stress, burnout, and attrition. Buck (2006) also found that high school teachers experience a great deal of violence in their work environment which may lead to professional burnout.

There was a significant difference among participants who reported a gang presence on campus than those who reported no gang presence on campus for intrusion, avoidance, feelings of safety and trust. There were no significant differences among participants who reported a gang presence on campus and those who reported no gang presence on campus for avoidance, and relief.

There were no statistically significant differences in intention to leave or avoidance based on school level. However, there were statistically significant differences in intrusion, safety, trust, and relief according to school level. There were no statistically significant differences in intention to leave, avoidance, trust, or relief according to area or enrollment. There were statistically significant differences in intrusion and safety according to area and enrollment. There were no statistically significant differences in intrusion, trust, and safety according to school security. There were statistically significant differences in intention to leave, avoidance, and relief according to school security.

There were no studies found which measured intention to leave, area, enrollment, school security, and school level and intrusion, avoidance, trust, relief, and safety. However, the U.S. Department of Education (2005-2006) found teacher attrition to be about the same for both elementary and secondary schools. In addition, the same study found the schools with less than 200 students had the highest attrition rate. Guarino, et al. (2006) found public schools with a large portion of low-income, minority students in urban school districts tended to have higher attrition rates.

Summary and Interpretation of the Results of Hypotheses Testing

Multiple regression analysis using hierarchical (forward) method was used to test Hypothesis 1 to determine whether there is a significant explanatory (correlational)

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relationship among teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession, the dependent variable and Hypothesis 2 to determine the order of importance among teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (level, area, enrollment size, and gang presence), reaction to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession (dependent variable). Mediated multiple regression (MMR) analysis was used to test Hypothesis 3 and to determine if school security measures mediates (explanatory) the relationship between teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety with students, avoidance, trust, environmental safety, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession (dependent).

Categorical variables were selected for entry into the regression analysis based on Eta analysis. Significant and trend variables were recoded as dummy variables. Pearson r correlations were performed first on the dummy coded variables and then on the scaled variables. They were entered into the regression from strongest to weakest Pearson r correlation to find the best explanatory model with the highest R^2.

Research Hypothesis 1: Teachers' Reactions to School Violence as Explanatory Variables of Intention to Leave Teaching

Hypothesis 1 tested the relationship among teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession. Teachers' reactions to school violence were measured by the modified 32-item Teachers' Reaction to School Violence Scale which consisted of five subscales – intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief. Three of the five subscales (Intrusion, Avoidance, and

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Relief) had significant positive relationships with intention to leave the teaching profession while two subscales (Safety and Trust) had significant negative relationships with intention to leave the teaching profession.

The results of the regression analysis partially supported Hypothesis 1 in that Safety and Trust emerged as predictor variables explaining 7.6% to 8.2% of the variation. Intrusion, Avoidance, and Relief did not emerge as significant predictor variables. This indicates that when teachers have greater feelings of safety and trust, they may be less likely to leave the teaching profession. However, there were no studies found which examined teachers' reactions to school violence and intention to leave teaching.

Research Hypothesis 2: Teacher Characteristics, School Characteristics, and Teachers'

Reactions to School Violence as Explanatory Variables of Intention to Leave the

Teaching Profession

Hypothesis 2 tested the relationship among teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (level, area, enrollment size, and gang presence), teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession. In Research Hypothesis 2, explanatory categorical variables included: the demographic profiles of gender, race, ethnicity, marital status, and gang experience and the school characteristics of school level area and gang presence. For Research Hypothesis 2, explanatory variables that were scaled included: teacher age, number of years teaching, and number of years at current school; the school characteristic of school enrollment; and the five subscales of the TRSV (Intrusion, Avoidance, Safety, Trust and Relief). For the correlational analysis, Eta (h)

was used when the variables were categorical and Pearson r was used when the variables were scaled.

Eta (h) correlation analyses indicated that gender and gang experience were significantly correlated with intention to leave teaching. All other variables had non-significant correlations with intention to leave teaching.

Significant or trend categorical variables resulting from Eta correlations with the *Intention to Leave Scale* were dummy coded with 1's and 0's in order to determine their association using Pearson r. For Hypothesis 2, correlations with the *Intention to Leave Scale* revealed a significant correlation with gender and gang experience and one trend Eta relationship with gang presence. Pearson r correlations were used to determine the relationships among Intention to Leave Teaching and the dummy variables of male, female, no gang experience, gang experience, yes and no. Significant results of Pearson r correlations with *Intention to Leave Teaching* were: teacher characteristics of gender and gang experience. Gang presence showed a trend.

Pearson r correlations were used to analyze the relationship among the scaled variables of demographic profiles (age, years teaching, years at current school), school characteristics (school enrollment), *Teacher Reaction to School Violence* subscales of Intrusion, Avoidance, Trust, Safety, and Relief. Three of nine predictors had significant positive relationships with intention to leave the teaching profession in the following order from strongest to weakest: Intrusion, Avoidance, and Relief. Three of nine predictors had significant negative relationships with intention to leave the teaching profession in the following order from strongest to weakest: Safety, Trust, and security measures.

Eight significant explanatory variables (Safety, Trust, Intrusion, Avoidance, Relief, gender, gang experience, and security measures) and one trend variable (gang presence) were entered into a forward linear regression model based on the order of strongest to weakest Pearson r correlation until the model with the highest explanatory power (R^2) and adjusted R was produced.

Four different models were produced from the forward regression results. The analysis excluded Intrusion, gender, gang presence and gang experience. Model four with four explanatory variables (Safety, Trust, Avoidance, and Security) was selected as the best explanatory model to explain teacher intention to leave the teaching profession with a range of 10.8% to 12% of the variation of the dependent variable explained by the explanatory variables in the model.

According to the findings, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported in that trust, security, avoidance, and safety were explanatory variables and Intrusion, Relief, gender, and gang experience are not. This may indicate that when teachers trust their students and feel safe in their presence, they are less likely to experience avoidance tendencies. In addition, security on a school's campus may lower teacher intention to leave teaching.

The findings were contrary to Weisberg's (1994) study of teachers that showed a relationship among age, tenure, and intentions to leave as this study did not find age and tenure to be explanatory variables of intention to leave.

Research Hypothesis 3: Security Measures as the Mediating Variable Between

Teachers' Reactions to School Violence and Intention to Leave the Teaching Profession

To test Hypothesis 3, a moderated multiple regression analysis was used. To determine whether a mediator variable influenced the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable, a Sobel test was used.

There were no significant differences between Intrusion, Trust, and security measures. Therefore, Intrusion and Trust were not included in the regression model. The four-step test (Barron & Kenny, 1986) was used to test whether security measures on a school campus are a mediator of the relationship between teachers' reactions to school violence (Safety, Avoidance, and Relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession.

Intention to leave was regressed onto Safety, Avoidance, and Relief. Model two with two explanatory variables (Safety and Avoidance) was selected as the best explanatory model to explain teacher intention to leave explaining 8% to 8.6% of the variation of the dependent variable with Safety emerging as the most important. Security measures were then used as the criterion variable and Safety, Avoidance, and Relief were used as the predictor variables. One model was produced from the forward regression results. The analysis excluded Safety and Relief. At step three, intention to leave was the criterion variable in a regression equation and Safety, Avoidance, Relief, and security measures were used as the predictor variables. Safety and Avoidance were controlled in establishing the effect of security measures on intention to leave.

Finally, a Sobel test was used to determine whether a mediator variable (security measures) influenced the independent variable (Safety) and the dependent variable (intention to leave). The results showed the associated p-value fell below the established

alpha level of .05 which indicated that the association between safety and intention to leave was significant when security measures were included. The value of the test statistic for the Sobel test between Avoidance, security measures, and intention to leave the teaching profession did not fall below the established alpha level of .05 which indicated that the association between Avoidance and intention to leave was not significant by the inclusion of security measures.

From the regression results, it is clear that the relationship between Safety and the intention to leave the teaching profession became significant by the inclusion of security measures as a mediating variable. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported. Table 5-3 presents a summary of the results of the research hypotheses testing, and the percent of variance explained by the model.

Table 5-3

Summary of Research Hypotheses and Results

Hypotheses	Results	Percent of Variance Explained (Adjusted R^2 – R^2)	Significant Explanatory Variables
H1: Teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) are significant explanatory variables of intention to leave the teaching profession	Partially Supported	7.6% to 8.2%	Safety Trust
H2: Teacher characteristics (demographic, work profile, and gang experience), school characteristics (type, gang presence, and security measures), and reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) are significant explanatory variables of intention to leave the teaching profession	Partially Supported	10.8% to 12%	Safety Trust Avoidance Security Measures
H3: School security measures mediate the relationship between teachers' reactions to school violence (intrusion, safety, avoidance, trust, and relief) and intention to leave the teaching profession	Partially Supported	8% to 8.6%	Safety

Conclusions

1. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported in that safety and trust emerged as explanatory variables of intention to leave the teaching profession. This may indicate that when teachers have greater feelings of safety and trust, they may be less likely to leave the teaching profession.

2. Hypothesis 2 was partially supported in that trust, security, avoidance, and safety were explanatory variables and Intrusion, Relief, gender, and gang experience are not. This may indicate that when teachers trust their students and feel safe in their presence, they are less likely to experience avoidance tendencies. In addition, security on a school's campus may lower teacher intention to leave teaching.

3. Hypothesis 3 was partially supported in that security measures on a school's campus mediate the relationship between teachers' feelings of safety and their intention to leave teaching. Therefore, security measures on a school campus may decrease teacher intention to leave teaching.

4. The majority of respondents reported their schools required visitors to sign in (88.6%), controlled access to the building (60.8%), had cameras (59%), and had law enforcement personnel on their campus (67.5%) who wore uniforms (65.4%), carried a stun gun (40.7%), chemical spray (43.45), or firearm (48.5%), patrolled the campus (59.3%), assisted with discipline (56.9%), coordinated with outside agencies (60.8%), were proactive (56.6%), and mentored students (43.4%).

5. The majority of the respondents felt low levels of intrusion, low to moderate levels of avoidance tendencies, moderate levels of relief, and high levels of safety and

trust. These findings may be due to the high level of security measures on respondents' campuses.

6. Females and Hispanic or Latino respondents had higher levels of feelings of avoidance and relief, and lower levels of safety and trust. This finding was consistent with Land and Meeker (2003) and Katz, et al. (2003) which found women are more afraid than men, ethnicity and disorder have the strongest impact on the fear of gangs while subcultural diversity has the strongest impact on the fear of crime, and being a minority and having a low-income increased a person's fear.

7. Females and non-Hispanic or Latino respondents experienced higher levels of intrusion. Females and Hispanic or Latinos had a higher intention to leave than males and non-Hispanic or Latino.

8. Respondents with gang experience had a higher intention to leave and higher feelings of intrusion, avoidance, and relief than those with no gang experience. In addition, respondents with gang experience had lower feelings of safety and trust than those with no gang experience.

9. Black or African Americans had the highest intention to leave followed by White, Asian, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander.

10. Respondents with four to nine years of teaching experience, those who reported a gang presence on their school's campus, and those in suburban middle schools reported the greatest intention to leave teaching than their counterparts.

Practical Implications

1. The study has practical implications for the recruitment and retention of teachers. Finding and keeping highly qualified teachers is an ongoing concern (Shen, 2001).

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2. Creating a safe school environment through school security measures may increase teacher retention by improving teacher's feelings of safety.

3. Female and Hispanic or Latino teachers may need to have additional support from peers, mentor teachers, and administration as these respondents had higher feelings of avoidance and relief and lower levels of safety and trust.

4. Respondents with gang experience and those reporting a gang presence on their campus had a greater intention to leave teaching than those with no gang experience and no gang presence on campus. Therefore, decreasing or eliminating gang activity on a school's campus may increase teacher retention.

5. Teachers need to have professional development in managing student behavior and in recognizing the signs of gang activity on school campuses.

Limitations

1. This was a non-experimental design, which is weaker than an experimental research design.

2. Only teachers from the 100 largest school districts in the United States were invited to participate which left out smaller school districts and private schools.

3. A sample size of 297 is not representative of all of the public elementary, middle, and high school teachers in the 100 largest school districts in the United States. In addition, the sample size and response rate were small. While 100 school districts were contacted to participate, only four districts approved the study.

4. A total of 332 responses were obtained; however, only 297 of those were complete and usable. During the 1999-2000 school year there were 627,436 teachers

teaching in the 100 Largest School Districts. This makes the response rate less than .05%.

5. The number of teachers who responded from each District is unknown. While four Districts approved the study, the number of teachers responding from each District may be unequal resulting in overrepresentation of a District.

6. The data-producing sample should not be generalized to all groups. The majority of the respondents were female (75%), white (83%), and not Hispanic or Latino (94%).

7. The majority of the respondents (54%) had no experience with gangs. Less than half of the respondents had any experience with gangs.

8. The teachers surveyed were only those who had Internet access and who agreed to participate in the survey.

9. The sample was self-selected and therefore, selection bias exists.

10. The Teachers' Reaction to School Violence scale developed by Ting, et. al (2002) has only been utilized to determine teachers' reactions to an incident of school violence and may not be generalizable across all variables.

Recommendations for Future Study

Future studies are recommended, based on the interpretations and conclusions from this study, as follows:

1. The results of this study are not generalizable across all groups as the response rate was small and the majority of the respondents were White, not Hispanic or Latino, and had no experience with gangs. Future studies should attempt to increase the response rate and diversity of the respondents, specifically the Hispanic and Latino

population as well as increasing the number of respondents who have had experience with gangs.

2. Conduct a study comparing teachers' reactions to school violence and their intention to leave teaching in large and small school districts as well as public and private school districts.

3. This study should be replicated with a larger sample size to strengthen both the internal and external validity of the study.

4. Future studies on the effect a gang presence on a campus has on school violence as well as the effect a gang presence on a campus has on teacher intention to leave should be conducted.

5. Future studies focusing on which elements of school security have the most positive effect on teacher's feelings of safety and teacher retention should be conducted.

6. Future studies focusing on the relationship between teachers' gang experience and intention to leave teaching should be conducted.

7. Future studies focusing on teachers' reaction to school violence and their intention to leave teaching should be conducted.

8. A research design, other than an online survey, to allow for more open-ended responses from the participants. This would capture an expanded view of motives for teachers' intention to leave teaching.

9. Further psychometric evaluation of all scales used in the study should be conducted to examine the dimensionality of the scales and to confirm reliability and validity.

The goal of this study was to contribute to the literature on teachers' reactions to gangs and school violence and the mediating effect security measures on a school's campus had on teacher intention to leave teaching. The findings of this study explained 7.6% to 12% of the variance in *Intention to Leave the Teaching Profession* and provided a contribution to the body of knowledge. To ensure that highly qualified teachers are going to be recruited and retained in a growing global economy, the effect gangs and school violence have on teachers and their intention to leave the teaching profession must be exhaustively researched. Chapter V discussed the summary and interpretation of findings, conclusions, practical implications, limitations, and recommendations for future study.

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Appendix A

Survey Instrument

Informed Consent

Lynn University, 3601 N. Military Trail, Boca Raton, FL, 33431

PROJECT TITLE: Teachers' Reactions to Gangs and School Violence and the Mediating Effect Security Measures Have on Teacher Intention to Leave Teaching
Project IRB Number: 2008-024 Lynn University 3601 N. Military Trail Boca Raton, Florida 33431

I, Suzanne King, am a doctoral student at Lynn University. I am studying Global Leadership, with a specialization in Educational Leadership. One of my degree requirements is to conduct a research study.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE PARTICIPANT:

You are being asked to participate in my research study. Please read this carefully. This form provides you with information about the study. The Principal Investigator (Suzanne King or her representative if applicable) will answer all of your questions. Ask questions about anything you don't understand before deciding whether or not to participate. You are free to ask questions at any time before, during, or after your participation in this study. Your participation is entirely voluntary and you can refuse to participate without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You acknowledge that you are at least 18 years of age, and that you do not have medical problems or language or educational barriers that precludes understanding of explanations contained in this authorization for voluntary consent.

PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY: The purpose of this study is to determine teachers' reactions to gangs and school violence and if security measures on a school's campus mediates the effects of a gang presence and school violence on teacher intention to leave teaching. There will be more than 1000 people invited to participate in this study. Those invited to participate will be public elementary, middle, or high school teachers who are employees of the 100 largest school districts in the United States as well as those personally known to the researcher.

PROCEDURES:
If you agree to participate after reading this consent form you may proceed to answer the survey questions available after you click "I agree". You will automatically be directed to a survey that contains four parts with a total of 69 questions. The survey should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. If you do not want to participate after reading this consent form, click "I do not agree" and you will automatically be exited from the survey.

After completion of the survey, you will be directed to a "Thank you" page at which time the survey is compete and you may exit the survey site. Please do not write any personal identifiers on the survey form such as your name and address. No identifying information will be recorded. All data will be SSL encrypted and stored on a password protected computer. All data will be destroyed after five years.

POSSIBLE RISKS OR DISCOMFORT: This study involves minimal risk. You may find that some of the questions are sensitive in nature. In addition, participation in this study requires a minimal amount of your time and effort.

POSSIBLE BENEFITS: There may be no direct benefit to you in participating in this research. But knowledge may be gained which may help to understand how teachers react to gangs and school violence and whether or not security measures on a school campus mediates teacher intention to leave teaching.

FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS: There is no financial compensation for your participation in this research. There are no costs to you as a result of your participation in this study.

ANONYMITY

Anonymity will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. The researcher will not identify you and data will be reported as "group" responses. Participation in this survey is voluntary and return of the completed survey will constitute your informed consent to participate. All information will be held in strict confidence and will not be disclosed unless required by law or regulation.

The results of this study may be published in a dissertation, scientific journals or presented at professional meetings. In addition, your individual privacy will be maintained in all publications or presentations resulting from this study.

All the data gathered during this study, which were previously described, will be kept strictly confidential by the researcher. Data will be stored in locked files and destroyed at the end of the research All data will be SSL encrypted and stored on a password protected computer. All information will be held in strict confidence and will not be disclosed unless required by law or regulation.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW: You are free to choose whether or not to participate in this study. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled if you choose not to participate.

CONTACTS FOR QUESTIONS/ACCESS TO CONSENT FORM: Any further questions you have about this study or your participation in it, either now or any time in the future, will be answered by Suzanne King (Principal Investigator) who may be reached at: (561) 756-4566 and Dr. William Leary, Ed.D, Ed.D, faculty advisor who may be reached at: (561) 237-7089. For any questions regarding your rights as a research subject, you may call Dr. Farazmand, Chair of the Lynn University Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, at (561) 237-7867. If any problems arise as a result of your participation in this study, please call the Principal Investigator (Suzanne King) and the faculty advisor (Dr. William Leary, Ed.D, Ed.D.) immediately.
A copy of this consent form will be given to you.

INVESTIGATOR'S AFFIDAVIT I hereby certify that a written explanation of the nature of the above project has been provided to the person participating in this project. A copy of the written documentation provided is attached hereto. By the person's consent to voluntary participate in this study, the person has represented that he/she is at least 18 years of age, and that he/she does not have a medical problem or language or educational barrier that precludes his/her understanding of my explanation. Therefore, I hereby certify that to the best of my knowledge the person participating in this project understands clearly the nature, demands, benefits, and risks involved in his/her participation.

  Suzanne King   Date of IRB Approval: 09/08/08   Expiration 09/08/09
Signature of Investigator

1. I have read the above consent form and

Yes, I agree to the above consent form.

No, I do not agree to the above consent form

2. Teacher Characteristics

Please select one response or fill in the blank that best describes yourself for each of the following questions.

1. What is your age (in years)

2. Gender

- Male

- Female

3. Race: Select the primary race you consider yourself to be.

- White

- Black or African American

- American Indian or Alaska Native

- Asian

- Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander

4. Ethnicity

- Hispanic or Latino

- Not Hispanic or Latino

5. Marital Status

- Single, Never Married

- Married

- Divorced or Separated

- Widow or Widower

6. Indicate the number of years you have been a teacher.

7. Indicate the number of years you have been employed at your current school.

8. Indicate which statement best describes your experience with gang crime:

- I have been a victim of gang crime at my school

- I have heard about a teacher or administrator at my school being a victim of gang crime

- I have had no experience with gang crime

9. Indicate which statement best describes your contact with a gang(s):

- None

- Minimal

- Moderate

- Extensive

3. Teachers' Reaction to School Violence

1. Rate your responses on the following scale:
Not at all; Rarely; Sometimes; Often; Very Often
The word "incident" refers to a situation of school violence.

	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
1. Unexpected loud noises at school frighten me.	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
2. I work in a safe school.	2. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
3. I found myself waiting for another school violent episode to happen again.	3. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
4. I feel that I know my students well.	4. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
5. I found myself wanting to avoid the incident.	5. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
6. I can't stop thinking of what violent acts students are capable.	6. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
7. I think about school violence when I am at home.	7. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
8. I weigh the risks before confronting a student.	8. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
9. I can keep myself safe in school.	9. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
10. I think about school violence even when I do not want to.	10.Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
11. I have visual images of the incident in my mind.	11. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
12. I wish I could stop thinking about the incident.	12. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
13. I feel safe when I am disciplining students.	13. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
14. I avoid confrontations with students.	14. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
15. I have had trouble sleeping after witnessing school violence.	15. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
16. I could not stop thinking about what	16. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very

	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often

happened.

17. I feel like the students will not hurt me.

| 17. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

18. I do not feel safe at school.

| 18. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

19. I am relieved each day when nothing occurs in the classroom.

| 19. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

20. I dread going to school.

| 20. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

21. I have dreams about the incident.

| 21. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

22. I worry about students' safety.

| 22. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

23. There is enough security in my school.

| 23. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

24. I have re-organized my classroom to increase safety for me.

| 24. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

25. I am relieved when the students leave the building.

| 25. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

26. I feel safe when I am in the school.

| 26. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

27. I let students have their way to avoid disagreements.

| 27. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

28. I trust my students.

| 28. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

29. The incident was constantly on my mind.

| 29. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

30. I feel safe when I am alone with a group of students.

| 30. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

31. I worry a lot about my personal safety while in school.

| 31. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

32. I avoid activities that might remind me of a violent school episode.

| 32. Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

33. I feel that I am capable of being in control of a situation

| 33.Not at all | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Often |

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	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
when a student is angry.					
34. I feel that I am in control of my class.	34. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
35. I feel safe when I come to school.	35. Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often

Note. From "The teachers' reactions to school violence scale: Psychometric properties and scale development" by L. Ting, S. Sanders & P. L. Smith, 2002, *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* *62(6)*, 1006-1019. Adopted with permission of the authors.

4. School Characteristics

Select one response or fill in the blank that best describes your school for each of the following questions.

1. In which level of school are you employed:

    Elementary

    Middle

    High

2. In what area is your school located:

    Urban

    Suburban

    Rural

3. What is your school's total enrollment:

_____

4. Is there a gang presence at your school?

    Yes

    No

5. For each of the following statements, select Yes, No, or NA

	Yes	No	N/A
1. Does your school require visitors to sign in.	Yes	No	N/A
2. Is access to your school controlled during the school day (e.g. locked doors).	2. Yes	No	N/A
3. Is access to school grounds controlled	3. Yes	No	N/A

	Yes	No	N/A
during the school day (e.g. locked gates).			
4. Does your school require students to pass through metal detectors each day.	4. Yes	No	N/A
5. Does your school require visitors to pass through metal detectors each day.	5. Yes	No	N/A
6. Does your school use one or more security cameras to monitor the school.	6. Yes	No	N/A
7. Does your school employ sworn law enforcement officers, security guards, or other security personnel.	7. Yes	No	N/A
8. Did any of the sworn law enforcement officers, security guards, or other security personnel at your school wear uniforms or other identifiable clothing.	8. Yes	No	N/A
9. Did any of the sworn law enforcement officers, security guards, or other security personnel at your school carry a stun gun.	9. Yes	No	N/A
10. Did any of the sworn law enforcement officers, security guards, or other security personnel at your school	10. Yes	No	N/A

	Yes	No	N/A
carry chemical aerosol sprays (e.g. Mace, pepper spray).			
11. Did any of the sworn law enforcement officers, security guards, or other security personnel at your school carry a firearm.	11. Yes	No	N/A
12. Did these sworn law enforcement officers, security guard, or security personnel participate in security enforcement and patrol.	12. Yes	No	N/A
13. Did these sworn law enforcement officers, security guard, or security personnel participate in maintaining school discipline.	13. Yes	No	N/A
14. Did these sworn law enforcement officers, security guard, or security personnel participate in coordinating with local police and emergency teams.	14. Yes	No	N/A
15. Did these sworn law enforcement officers, security guard, or security personnel participate in identifying problems in the school and proactively seek	15. Yes	No	N/A

	Yes	No	N/A
solutions to those problems.			
16. Did these sworn law enforcement officers, security guard, or security personnel participate in training teachers and staff in school safety or crime prevention.	16. Yes	No	N/A
17. Did these sworn law enforcement officers, security guard, or security personnel participate in mentoring students.	17. Yes	No	N/A
18. Did these sworn law enforcement officers, security guard, or security personnel participate in teaching a law-related course or training students.	18. Yes	No	N/A

Note. From "School Survey on Crime and Safety Principals Questionnaire," by US Department of Justice,

National Center for Education Statistics, 2007. Adopted with permission from the Director of El/Sec Sample

Survey Studies Program.

5. Intention to Leave

1. Select one answer for each of the following statements:

	Very little	Little	Average	Much	Very much
1. I have considered leaving teaching.	Very little	Little	Average	Much	Very much
2. I think that if I were choosing my career again, I would choose teaching.	Very little	Little	Average	Much	Very much

	Very little	Little	Average	Much	Very much
3. I think in the near future I will leave teaching.	Very little	Little	Average	Much	Very much
6. Thank You					

Note. From "Measuring workers' burnout and intention to leave," by J. Weisberg, 1994, *International Journal of Manpower, 15*(1), 4 – 14. Adopted with permission from the author.

Thank you for participating in this survey.

Appendix B

Permission to Use Teacher Reaction to School Violence (TRSV)

From: ███████████ ████████████████████
> Sent: Tue 1/15/2008 4:37 PM
> To: Suzanne King
> Subject: Re: TRSV

Susie
Yes, thank you. I did receive the letter. Good luck on your IRB process
and data collection. I hope it works for you and when the data is
collected, it would be nice to see if the TRSV 's psychometric properties
held with a new population.
Thanks
Laura

Good morning, Dr. Ting
I wanted to double check and make sure you received the letter you
requested showing that I agree to provide you with any non-identifiable
information you request after data collection for my study. I currently
have an application in with Lynn University's Institutional Review Board
and hope to open my study October, 2008.

Thank you again for allowing me to use the TRSV. I have adopted the
entire TRSV which is an important part of my survey.

Susie
>
> From: ███████████ ████████████████████
> Sent: Tue 1/15/2008 4:37 PM
> To: Suzanne King
> Subject: Re: TRSV

 Hi Suzanne
Here is the TRSV, if you need the exact citation for reference
purposes, let me know. I'm not sure what is going on with the University
in terms of permission. they are stating that someone at your university
has to sign for it, not you, or your advisor, but some official level
someone... so if you left/graduated, it is still understood the
permission is with Lynn University for a set time...at this time, I'm
just going to send you the scale. Please use it and cite it
appropriately, I know you need to move on, so just go ahead and use it.
It's turning into a legal thing with who developed it, when, was the
development grant funded...and I have no desire to charge you for it,
so...please give credit where it is due, but go ahead and use it.

 I would like to request and have you agree to provide us, the authors
with data on your subjects, NON-identifiable data, or course, but with
 demographic information (e.g. age, race, education,...type of school,
 years taught.... and their TSRV responses,) so we may continue to work
on developing psychometric information the scale. If you could print out
and sign a letter on university letterhead to that effect with your
advisor (with the above paragraph or something worded similarly), and
send it to me at the Dept of Social work at the address below, that would
be fine with me. If we publish psychometric data, we would be happy to
collaborate with you. If you have any questions, please feel free to
contact me.
 Thanks
 Laura Ting

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Appendix C

Permission to Use Intention to Leave Scale

Permission to use the ITQ scale
<u>Jacob Weisberg</u> █████████████

To: <u>Suzanne King</u>
Cc: ████████████

Ms. Suzanne King,
Just received your letter today.
No problem at all. From my point, feel free to use the scale.
Re the publisher - I have no idea if you need to have a permission - I don't think it is required.
You can try and find out.

I wish you all the best and a lot of success in your academic work and career.
If you need any further info or help -- let me know.

Best wishes,

Yaacov

Jacob (Yaacov) Weisberg, Ph. D.
Professor of Management
Graduate School of Business Administration
Bar-Ilan University, Ramat-Gan 52900, ISRAEL
Email: ████████████████
Office: Tel. ████████████*Fax -* ████████████
████████████████████████████

Subject: Re: Permission to Use Scale

Dear Ms. King,
Permission is granted to use the article requested below. Please credit the journal and Heldref Publications. Best of luck on your dissertation.

Kind regards,
Abigail
Abigail Glenn-Chase
Permissions Manager
Heldref Publications
A Division of the Helen Dwight Reid Educational Foundation
1319 18th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036

On Aug 14, 2008, at 5:56 AM, Suzanne King wrote:

My name is Suzanne King and I am a doctoral candidate in a PhD program at Lynn University in Boca Raton, Florida. My major is Global Leadership, with a specialization in Educational Leadership. My dissertation focuses on gangs, school violence, school security measures and teacher intention to leave the teaching profession.

This is a request for permission to use Jacob Weisberg's Intention to Leave Scale found in the article Measuring workers' burnout and intention to leave in The Journal of Psychology (1999) in my dissertation. I have received permission from Dr. Weisberg to use his scale in my work.

Upon completion, my dissertation will be published by ProQuest Information and learning, who may supply copies of the dissertation on demand and may make the dissertation accessible in electronic formats. If permission is granted, I will include any statement of authorization for use that you request or provide an APA note of permission. The copyright holder will be given full credit.

I would greatly appreciate your consent to my request. If you require any additional information, please do not hesitate to contact me. I can be reached at the email address of ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ or phone number of ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ My dissertation Chair is Dr. William Leary, who may be reached at the email address of ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ and phone number of ▮▮▮▮▮▮ .

Sincerely,

Suzanne King

Appendix D

Permission to Use School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS)

RE: School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS)
Chandler, Kathryn ███████████████████
To: ██████████ Suzanne King
Cc:

Dear Ms. King,

Your dissertation topic seems quite interesting, and I wish you luck on
the research. Please feel free to use any versions of the School Survey
on Crime and Safety (SSOCS) questionnaire in whole in or in part, as
written or adapted. The survey was created by/for the federal government
and is not copyrighted.

Regards,
Kathy Chandler
Kathryn A. Chandler
Director, El/Sec Sample Survey Studies Program
National Center for Education Statistics
U.S. Department of Education
1990 K Street, NW, Room 9017
Washington, DC 20006

██████████████
Fax: ██ ████████████
Email: ██ █████████████████

-----Original Message-----
From: Suzanne King [mailto:████████████████████
Sent: Sunday, December 02, 2007 1:15 PM
To: Chandler, Kathryn
Subject: School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS)

Dear Ms. Chandler:

My name is Suzanne King. I am a doctoral candidate in a PhD program at
Lynn University in Boca Raton, Florida. My major is Global Leadership,
with a specialization in Educational Leadership. My dissertation focuses
on gangs, school violence, school security measures and teacher intention
to leave the teaching profession and the topic is Teachers' Reactions to
Gangs and School Violence, Mediating Effects of Security Measures, and
Intention to Leave Teaching.

This is a request for permission to use and adapt the School Survey on
Crime and Safety (SSOCS) survey in my dissertation. Upon completion, my
dissertation will be published by ProQuest Information and learning, who
may supply copies of the dissertation on demand and may make the
dissertation accessible in electronic formats.

If permission is granted, I will include any statement of authorization

for use that you request or provide an APA note of permission. The
copyright holder will be given full credit.

I would greatly appreciate your consent to my request. If you require
any additional information, please do not hesitate to contact me. I can
be reached at the email address of ███████████████, or cell phone
number of ████████████. My dissertation Chair is Dr. William Leary,
who may be reached at the email address of ████████████ and phone
number of ████████████.

Sincerely,

Suzanne King

Appendix E

Letters to the 100 Largest School Districts

List of 100 Largest School Districts

September 15, 2008

New York City Public Schools
110 Livingston Street
Brooklyn NY 11201

To Whom It May Concern:

My name is Suzanne King and I am an Assistant Principal at Boca Raton High School in Florida. After spending 10 years as a teacher of exceptional student education, I am presently a Ph.D. candidate at Lynn University in Boca Raton, Florida. My major is Global Leadership, with a specialization in Educational Leadership.

As part of the degree requirements, I will be conducting an online survey with the goal of obtaining a nationwide survey of school teachers to determine if teacher's reactions to gangs and school violence increase their intention to leave the teaching profession and whether or not security measures on school campuses have a mediating effect on their intention to leave teaching. The survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete and has no questions which will identify teacher, school, school district, or State in which the school is located.

I am writing to you today to ask for your assistance. The knowledge and opinions of your employees regarding this topic make their input invaluable. Please allow me to forward the survey to your principals requesting they forward it to their teachers. I will be happy to send you a copy of the survey results when completed.

If you would like to view the survey, or forward the link personally, the survey link is:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=eY3Ts1MODhEInVvBjA4oKQ_3d_3d

I would greatly appreciate your consent to my request. I can be reached at the email address of ███████████████, or phone number of ███████████ My dissertation Chair is Dr. William Leary, Ed.D, Ed.D, former Superintendent of Boston Public Schools and Broward County (Ft. Lauderdale, Florida) Schools. Dr. Leary may be reached at the email address of ███████████████ and phone number of ███████████.

Sincerely,

Suzanne King
Ph.D. Candidate
Lynn University
3601 N. Military Trail
Boca Raton, FL 33431
███████████████

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September 15, 2008

New York City Public Schools
110 Livingston Street
Brooklyn NY 11201

To Whom It May Concern:

My name is Suzanne King and I am an Assistant Principal at Boca Raton High School in Florida. After spending 10 years as a teacher of exceptional student education, I am presently a Ph.D. candidate at Lynn University in Boca Raton, Florida. My major is Global Leadership, with a specialization in Educational Leadership.

As part of the degree requirements, I will be conducting an online survey with the goal of obtaining a nationwide survey of school teachers to determine if teacher's reactions to gangs and school violence increase their intention to leave the teaching profession and whether or not security measures on school campuses have a mediating effect on their intention to leave teaching. The survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete and has no questions which will identify teacher, school, school district, or State in which the school is located.

I am writing to you today to ask for your assistance as the knowledge and opinions of your employees regarding this topic make their input invaluable. I have received permission from your Superintendent to forward the link to the survey to you with the request that you forward the link to your teachers (see attached). *I will attach permission when received.* The link to the survey is:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=eY3Ts1MODhEInVvBjA4oKQ_3d_3d

I would greatly appreciate your consent to my request. If you need any additional information, I can be reached at the email address of █████████████, or phone number of ██████████. My dissertation Chair is Dr. William Leary, Ed.D, Ed.D, former Superintendent of Boston Public Schools and Broward County (Ft. Lauderdale, Florida) Schools. Dr. Leary may be reached at the email address of ██████████████ and phone number of ██████████.

Sincerely,

Suzanne King
Ph.D. Candidate
Lynn University
3601 N. Military Trail
Boca Raton, FL 33431
█████████████████

National Center for Education Statistics

Table A-1. Selected statistics for the 100 largest public elementary and secondary school districts in the United States and jurisdictions, by school district: School year 2004–05

Name of reporting district	City	State	County	Number of students[1]	Number of full-time-equivalent (FTE) teachers[2]
Reporting districts[5]	†	†	†	11,270,624	614,484
New York City Public Schools	Brooklyn	NY	Kings	986,967	—
Los Angeles Unified	Los Angeles	CA	Los Angeles	741,367	35,186
Puerto Rico Department of Education	San Juan	PR	San Juan	575,648	43,054
City of Chicago School District	Chicago	IL	Cook	426,812	25,260
Dade County School District	Miami	FL	Miami-Dade	368,933	20,086
Clark County School District	Las Vegas	NV	Clark	283,221	14,222
Broward County School District	Fort Lauderdale	FL	Broward	274,591	15,271
Houston Independent School District	Houston	TX	Harris	208,945	12,009
Hillsborough County School District	Tampa	FL	Hillsborough	189,469	11,975
Philadelphia City School District	Philadelphia	PA	Philadelphia	187,547	9,838
Hawaii Department of Education	Honolulu	HI	Honolulu	183,185	11,146
Palm Beach County School District	West Palm Beach	FL	Palm Beach	175,076	10,019
Orange County School District	Orlando	FL	Orange	173,331	10,183
Fairfax County Public Schools	Fairfax	VA	Fairfax	164,765	12,627
Dallas Independent School District	Dallas	TX	Dallas	158,027	10,225
Detroit City School District	Detroit	MI	Wayne	141,461	8,034
Montgomery County Public Schools	Rockville	MD	Montgomery	139,393	9,135
Prince George's County Public Schools	Upper Marlboro	MD	Prince George's	136,095	8,174
Gwinnett County School District	Lawrenceville	GA	Gwinnett	135,392	9,215
San Diego City Unified	San Diego	CA	San Diego	134,709	7,199
Duval County School District	Jacksonville	FL	Duval	129,486	7,345
Memphis City School District	Memphis	TN	Shelby	121,028	7,448
Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools	Charlotte	NC	Mecklenburg	118,765	7,890
Wake County Schools	Raleigh	NC	Wake	114,568	7,792
Pinellas County School District	Largo	FL	Pinellas	113,651	6,768
Baltimore County Public Schools	Baltimore	MD	Baltimore	107,701	7,368
Cobb County School District	Marietta	GA	Cobb	103,935	7,038
De Kalb County School District	Decatur	GA	De Kalb	99,986	6,620
Jefferson County	Louisville	KY	Jefferson	97,976	5,706
Long Beach Unified	Long Beach	CA	Los Angeles	96,319	4,430
Milwaukee School District	Milwaukee	WI	Milwaukee	93,654	5,859
Albuquerque Public Schools	Albuquerque	NM	Bernalillo	93,341	6,199
Baltimore City Public School System	Baltimore	MD	Baltimore City	88,401	5,351

District	City	State	County		
Jefferson County R-1	Golden	CO	Jefferson	4,641	86,868
Polk County School District	Bartow	FL	Polk	5,660	86,292
Fresno Unified	Fresno	CA	Fresno	3,924	80,760
Austin Independent School District	Austin	TX	Travis	5,544	79,950
Fort Worth Independent School District	Fort Worth	TX	Tarrant	4,804	79,769
Cypress-Fairbanks Independent School District	Houston	TX	Harris	5,128	79,314
Fulton County School District	Atlanta	GA	Fulton	5,350	75,891
Jordan School District	Sandy	UT	Salt Lake	3,013	75,548
Virginia Beach City Public Schools	Virginia Beach	VA	Virginia Beach City	5,626	75,515
Mesa Unified District	Mesa	AZ	Maricopa	3,761	75,471
Brevard County School District	Viera	FL	Brevard	4,468	74,824
Northside Independent School District	San Antonio	TX	Bexar	4,792	74,649
Anne Arundel County Public Schools	Annapolis	MD	Anne Arundel	4,603	73,991
Nashville-Davidson County School District	Nashville	TN	Davidson	4,839	72,807
Denver County 1	Denver	CO	Denver	4,045	72,410
Lee County School District	Fort Myers	FL	Lee	4,018	71,210
Granite School District	Salt Lake City	UT	Salt Lake	3,125	68,783
Guilford County Schools	Greensboro	NC	Guilford	4,537	68,220
Seminole County School District	Sanford	FL	Seminole	3,915	66,692
Prince William County Public Schools	Manassas	VA	Prince William	4,417	66,298
Volusia County School District	Deland	FL	Volusia	4,054	65,281
Greenville County School District	Greenville	SC	Greenville	4,023	65,265
Orleans Parish School Board	New Orleans	LA	Orleans	3,781	64,920
Cleveland City School District	Cleveland	OH	Cuyahoga	3,656	64,670
Mobile County School District	Mobile	AL	Mobile	4,228	63,987
Washoe County School District	Reno	NV	Washoe	3,496	63,322
El Paso Independent School District	El Paso	TX	El Paso	4,417	63,216
Fort Bend Independent School District	Sugar Land	TX	Fort Bend	3,715	62,853
District of Columbia Public Schools	Washington	DC	District of Columbia	4,743	62,306
Arlington Independent School District	Arlington	TX	Tarrant	3,965	62,267
Santa Ana Unified	Santa Ana	CA	Orange	2,551	61,693
Tucson Unified District	Tucson	AZ	Pima	3,117	61,204
Pasco County School District	Land O' Lakes	FL	Pasco	3,643	60,846
Columbus City School District	Columbus	OH	Franklin	3,669	60,668
San Bernardino City Unified	San Bernardino	CA	San Bernardino	2,731	59,105
Davis School District	Farmington	UT	Davis	2,681	58,953
Elk Grove Unified	Elk Grove	CA	Sacramento	2,769	58,670
Boston School District	Boston	MA	Suffolk	4,937	57,742
North East Independent School District	San Antonio	TX	Bexar	3,801	57,599
San Francisco Unified	San Francisco	CA	San Francisco	3,172	57,144
San Antonio Independent School District	San Antonio	TX	Bexar	3,517	56,639
Aldine Independent School District	Houston	TX	Harris	3,733	56,375

District	State	City	County		
Chesterfield County Public Schools	VA	Chesterfield	Chesterfield	56,242	3,922
Garland Independent School District	TX	Garland	Dallas	56,236	3,608
Knox County School District	TN	Knoxville	Knox	54,247	3,594
Cumberland County Schools	NC	Fayetteville	Cumberland	53,346	3,302
Alpine School District	UT	American Fork	Utah	52,920	2,168
Plano Independent School District	TX	Plano	Collin	52,406	3,761
Sacramento City Unified	CA	Sacramento	Sacramento	51,420	2,638
Clayton County	GA	Jonesboro	Clayton	51,405	3,361
Jefferson Parish School Board	LA	Harvey	Jefferson	51,403	3,405
Atlanta City School District	GA	Atlanta	Fulton	51,377	3,716
Capistrano Unified	CA	San Juan Capistrano	Orange	50,615	2,180
San Juan Unified	CA	Carmichael	Sacramento	50,089	2,328
Garden Grove Unified	CA	Garden Grove	Orange	50,030	2,102
Anchorage School District	AK	Anchorage	Anchorage	49,545	2,823
Oakland Unified	CA	Oakland	Alameda	49,214	2,654
Forsyth County Schools	NC	Winston Salem	Forsyth	48,785	3,363
Wichita	KS	Wichita	Sedgwick	48,737	3,103
Howard County Public Schools System	MD	Ellicott City	Howard	48,219	3,361
Cherry Creek 5	CO	Greenwood Village	Arapahoe	47,818	2,804
Portland School District 1J	OR	Portland	Multnomah	47,649	2,659
Osceola County School District	FL	Kissimmee	Osceola	47,446	2,485
Pasadena Independent School District	TX	Pasadena	Harris	47,440	3,014
Brownsville Independent School District	TX	Brownsville	Cameron	46,846	2,952
Seattle School District 1	WA	Seattle	King	46,746	2,585
Henrico County Public Schools	VA	Richmond	Henrico	46,711	3,321

— Not available.

† Not applicable.

[1] Count of students receiving educational services from the school district may differ somewhat from the counts in tables A-12 and A-16, which reflect the count of students from the schools ag district.

[2] Full-time equivalent (FTE) is the amount of time required to perform an assignment stated as a proportion of a full-time position. It is computed by dividing the amount of time employed by th required for a full-time position. FTE is not a head count; for example, 2 half-time employees represent 1 FTE.

[3] Includes high school diploma recipients as well as other high school completers (e.g., certificates of attendance), but not high school equivalencies (e.g., GEDs).

[4] Totals for number of schools may differ from published estimates since they exclude closed, inactive, and future schools.

[5] Totals do not include districts where data were not available.

NOTE: Data include all 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, four outlying areas (American Samoa, Guam, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, and the U.S. Virgin Indian Education, and the Department of Defense dependents schools (overseas and domestic).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2004–05, Version 1 Agency Universe Survey," 2004–05, Version 1c.

Appendix F

Email Invitation to Participants Known to Researcher

RE: Email Invitation to Respond to Survey

I am a Ph.D. candidate at Lynn University in Boca Raton, Florida. My major is Global Leadership, with a specialization in Educational Leadership. I will be conducting an online survey with the goal of obtaining a nationwide survey of school teachers to determine if teacher's reactions to gangs and school violence increase their intention to leave the teaching profession and whether or not security measures on school campuses have a mediating effect on their intention to leave teaching. The survey will take about 15 minutes to complete and is completely anonymous.

I am writing to you today to ask for your assistance. Your knowledge and opinions regarding this topic make your input invaluable. Please take a few minutes to respond to the survey and then forward this link to all the public elementary, middle, and high school teachers you know across the United States. The link is:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=eY3Ts1MODhEInVvBjA4oKQ_3d_3d

I would greatly appreciate your participation in this survey. If you require any additional information, I can be reached at the email address of ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮, or phone number of ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ My dissertation Chair is Dr. William Leary, Ed.D, Ed.D, former Superintendent of Boston Public Schools and Broward County (Ft. Lauderdale, Florida) Schools. Dr. Leary may be reached at the email address of ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ and phone number of ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮

Sincerely,

Suzanne King
Ph.D. Candidate
Lynn University
3601 N. Military Trail
Boca Raton, FL 33431
▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮

Appendix G

Survey Monkey Privacy Policy

Privacy Policy
Last Updated 5/2/2008

TRUSTe Privacy Program

SurveyMonkey.com is a licensee of the TRUSTe Privacy Program. TRUSTe is an independent, non-profit organization whose mission is to build user's trust and confidence in the Internet by promoting the use of fair information practices. This privacy statement covers the Web site http://www.surveymonkey.com. Because this Web site wants to demonstrate its commitment to your privacy, it has agreed to disclose its information practices and have its privacy practices reviewed for compliance by TRUSTe. If you have questions or concerns regarding this statement, you should first contact Chris Finley at support@surveymonkey.com. If you do not receive acknowledgement of your inquiry or your inquiry has not been satisfactorily addressed, you should contact TRUSTe at http://www.truste.org/consumers/watchdog_complaint.php TRUSTe will then serve as a liaison with us to resolve your concerns. SurveyMonkey.com complies with the EU Safe Harbor framework as set forth by the Department of Commerce regarding the collection, use, and retention of data from the European Union. This list can be found at: http://web.ita.doc.gov/safeharbor/SHList.nsf/WebPages/Oregon.

Information Collection

You may view some areas of our site for free and register for a free account. We collect information such as your name, address, email. We use this information to contact you about the services on our site in which you have expressed interest.

You have the option to provide demographic information (such as income level and gender) to us; we encourage you to submit this information so we can provide you a more personalized experience on our site.

If you purchase a product or service from us, we request certain personally identifiable information from you on our order form. You must provide contact information (such as name, email, and shipping address) and financial information (such as credit card number, expiration date).

We use this information for billing purposes and to fill your orders. If we have trouble processing an order, we will use this information to contact you.

When you register for SurveyMonkey.com, you will receive a short welcome email. If you opt to receive newsletters from us, you will receive a monthly email. As a paid subscriber, you will receive emails regarding your account status and billing.

We will not use the information collected from your surveys in any way, shape, or form. In addition, any other material you provide us (including images, email addresses, etc.) will be held in the strictest confidence.

In addition, we do not collect personally identifiable information about you except when you specifically provide this information on a voluntary basis. We will make every effort to ensure that whatever information you provide will be maintained in a secure environment.

Log Files

As is true of most Web sites, we gather certain information automatically and store it in log files. This information includes internet protocol (IP) addresses, browser type, internet service provider (ISP), referring/exit pages, operating system, date/time stamp, and clickstream data.

We use this information, which does not identify individual users, to analyze trends, to administer the site, to track users' movements around the site and to gather demographic information about our user base as a whole.

We do not link this automatically-collected data to personally identifiable information.

Cookies

"Cookies" are small text files a website can use to recognize repeat users. SurveyMonkey.com uses cookies to recognize visitors and more quickly provide personalized content or grant you unimpeded access to the website. With cookies enabled, you will not need to fill in password or contact information.

Information gathered through cookies also helps us measure use of our website. Cookie data allow us to track usage behavior and compile data that we can use to improve the site. This data will be used in aggregate form; no specific users will be tracked.

Generally, cookies work by assigning a unique number to the user that has no meaning outside of the Web site that he or she is visiting. You can easily turn off cookies. Most browsers have a feature that allows the user to refuse cookies or issues a warning when cookies are being sent. However, our site will not function properly without cookies. Enabling cookies ensures a smooth, efficient visit to our website.

We use a third-party tracking service that uses cookies to track non-personally identifiable information about visitors to our site in the aggregate to capture usage and volume statistics to help us improve our site. We have no access or control over these cookies.

This privacy statement covers the use of cookies by www.surveymonkey.com only and does not cover the use of cookies by any third party.

Information Use

SurveyMonkey.com reserves the right to perform statistical analyses of user behavior and characteristics. We do this in order to measure interest in and use of the various areas of the website.

SurveyMonkey.com collects IP addresses for system administration and record keeping. Your IP address is automatically assigned to your computer when you use the World Wide Web. Our servers record incoming IP addresses. The IP addresses are analyzed only in aggregate; no connection is made between you and your computer's IP address. By tracking IP addresses, we can determine which sites refer the most people to SurveyMonkey.com. (Think of an IP address like your zip code; it tells us in general terms where you're from.)

Communications from the Site

Service-related Announcements

We will send you strictly service-related announcements on rare occasions when it is necessary to do so. For instance, if our service is temporarily suspended for maintenance, we might send you an email.

Generally, you may not opt-out of these communications, which are not promotional in nature. If you do not wish to receive them, you have the option to deactivate your account.

Customer Service

Based upon the personally identifiable information you provide us, we will send you a welcoming email to verify your username and password. We will also communicate with you in response to your inquiries, to provide the services you request, and to manage your account. We will communicate with you by email or telephone, in accordance with your wishes.

Newsletters

If you wish to subscribe to our newsletter(s), we will use your name and email address to send the newsletter to you. Out of respect for your privacy, we provide you a way to unsubscribe. Please see the "Opting out" section.

Sending Emails on User's Behalf

We also send survey invitation emails on behalf of our customers. The customer's email list is stored on our system, but is not used by SurveyMonkey.com in any other way. The emails sent on our customer's behalf appear to come from the customer's email address.

Surveys or Contests

From time-to-time we may provide you the opportunity to participate in contests or surveys on our site. If you participate, we will request certain personally identifiable information from you. Participation in these surveys or contests is completely voluntary and you therefore have a choice whether or not to disclose this information. The requested information typically includes contact information (such as name and shipping address), and demographic information (such as zip code).

We use this information to notify contest winners and to monitor site traffic or personalize the site (in the case of anonymous information collected in surveys).

Testimonials

We post testimonials from time to time. We always receive permission to post prior to posting.

Sharing Information

Service Providers

We use other third parties to provide billing services on our site. When you purchase a service from us, we will share contact and credit card information as necessary for the third party to provide that service.

These third parties are prohibited from using your personally identifiable information for any other purpose including their own marketing purposes.

Opting Out

Upon request, SurveyMonkey.com will allow any user to opt out of our monthly newsletter. You can contact us through our Help Center or follow the unsubscribe instructions included in each promotional email sent to you including the newsletter.

For more information regarding opting out of any mailing from SurveyMonkey.com, please visit our Help Center.

Links to Other Sites

This Web site contains links to other sites that are not owned or controlled by SurveyMonkey.com. Please be aware that we, SurveyMonkey.com, are not responsible for the privacy practices of such other sites.

We encourage you to be aware when you leave our site and to read the privacy statements of each and every Web site that collects personally identifiable information.

This privacy statement applies only to information collected by this Web site.

Access to Personally Identifiable Information

If your personally identifiable information changes, or if you no longer desire our service, you may correct, update, delete or deactivate it by making the change on our My Account page or by emailing our Customer Support at support@surveymonkey.com or by contacting us by telephone or postal mail at the contact information listed below. We will respond to any request for access within 30 days.

Legal Disclaimer

We reserve the right to disclose your personally identifiable information as required by law and when we believe that disclosure is necessary to protect our rights and/or to comply with a judicial proceeding, court order, or legal process served on our Web site

General Security Policy

SurveyMonkey.com is aware of your privacy concerns and strives to collect only as much data as is required to make your SurveyMonkey experience as efficient and satisfying as possible, in the most unobtrusive manner as possible.

The security of your personal information is important to us. When you enter sensitive information (such as credit card number and/or social security number) on our registration or order forms, we encrypt that information using secure socket layer technology (SSL).

We follow generally accepted industry standards to protect the personal information submitted to us, both during transmission and once we receive it. No method of transmission over the Internet, or method of electronic storage, is 100% secure, however. Therefore, while we strive to use commercially acceptable means to protect your personal information, we cannot guarantee its absolute security.

If you have any questions about security on our Web site, you can send email us at support@surveymonkey.com

Changes in this Privacy Statement

If we decide to change our privacy policy, we will post those changes to this privacy statement, the home page, and other places we deem appropriate so that you are aware of what information we collect, how we use it, and under what circumstances, if any, we disclose it.

We reserve the right to modify this privacy statement at any time, so please review it frequently. If we make material changes to this policy, we will notify you here, by email, or by means of a prominent notice on our home page.

Contact Us

If you have any questions or suggestions regarding our privacy policy, please contact us at:

Online Support: http://www.surveymonkey.com/HelpCenter
Phone: 503-225-1202
Fax: 503-225-1200
Email: support@surveymonkey.com
Mailing Address: SurveyMonkey.com
815 NW 13th Ave. Suite D
Portland, OR 97209

Appendix H

Authorization For Voluntary Consent

Lynn University
THIS DOCUMENT SHALL ONLY BE USED TO PROVIDE AUTHORIZATION
FOR VOLUNTARY CONSENT

PROJECT TITLE: Teachers' Reactions to Gangs and School Violence and the Mediating Effect Security Measures Have on Teacher Intention to Leave Teaching **Project IRB Number: 2008-024 Lynn University 3601 N. Military Trail Boca Raton, Florida 33431**

I Suzanne King, am a doctoral student at Lynn University. I am studying Global Leadership, with a specialization in Educational Leadership. One of my degree requirements is to conduct a research study.

<u>DIRECTIONS FOR THE PARTICIPANT</u>:

You are being asked to participate in my research study. <u>Please read this carefully</u>. This form provides you with information about the study. The Principal Investigator (Suzanne King or her representative if applicable) will answer all of your questions. Ask questions about anything you don't understand before deciding whether or not to participate. You are free to ask questions at any time before, during, or after your participation in this study. Your participation is entirely voluntary and you can refuse to participate without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You acknowledge that you are at least 18 years of age, and that you do not have medical problems or language or educational barriers that precludes understanding of explanations contained in this authorization for voluntary consent.

PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY: The purpose of this study is to determine teachers' reactions to gangs and school violence and if security measures on a school's campus mediates the effects of a gang presence and school violence on teacher intention to leave teaching. There will be more than 1000 people invited to participate in this study. Those invited to participate will be public elementary, middle, or high school teachers who are employees of the 100 largest school districts in the United States as well as those personally known to the researcher.

PROCEDURES:
If you agree to participate after reading this consent form you may proceed to answer the survey questions available after you click "I agree". You will automatically be directed to a survey that contains four parts with a total of 69 questions. The survey should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. If you do not want to participate after reading this consent form, click "I do not agree" and you will automatically be exited from the survey.

After completion of the survey, you will be directed to a "Thank you" page at which time the survey is compete and you may exit the survey site. Please do not write any personal identifiers on the survey form such as your name and address. No identifying information will be recorded. All data will be SSL encrypted and stored on a password protected computer. All data will be destroyed after five years.

POSSIBLE RISKS OR DISCOMFORT: This study involves minimal risk. You may find that some of the questions are sensitive in nature. In addition, participation in this study requires a minimal amount of your time and effort.

POSSIBLE BENEFITS: There may be no direct benefit to you in participating in this research. But knowledge may be gained which may help to understand how teachers react to gangs and school violence and whether or not security measures on a school campus mediates teacher intention to leave teaching.

FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS: There is no financial compensation for your participation in this research. There are no costs to you as a result of your participation in this study.

ANONYMITY
Anonymity will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. The researcher will not identify you and data will be reported as "group" responses. Participation in this survey is voluntary and return of the completed survey will constitute your informed consent to participate. All information will be held in strict confidence and will not be disclosed unless required by law or regulation.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW: You are free to choose whether or not to participate in this study. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled if you choose not to participate.

CONTACTS FOR QUESTIONS/ACCESS TO CONSENT FORM: Any further questions you have about this study or your participation in it, either now or any time in the future, will be answered by Suzanne King (Principal Investigator) who may be reached at: █████████ and Dr. William Leary, Ed.D, Ed.D, faculty advisor who may be reached at: ████████. For any questions regarding your rights as a research subject, you may call Dr. Farideh Farazmand, Chair of the Lynn University Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, at ████ ██████. If any problems arise as a result of your participation in this study, please call the Principal Investigator (Suzanne King) and the faculty advisor (Dr. William Leary, Ed.D, Ed.D.) immediately. A copy of this consent form will be given to you.

INVESTIGATOR'S AFFIDAVIT I hereby certify that a written explanation of the nature of the above project has been provided to the person participating in this project. A copy of the written documentation provided is attached hereto. By the person's consent to voluntary participate in this study, the person has represented that he/she is at least 18 years of age, and that he/she does not have a medical problem or language or educational barrier that precludes his/her understanding of my explanation. Therefore, I hereby certify that to the best of my knowledge the person participating in this project understands clearly the nature, demands, benefits, and risks involved in his/her participation.

_Suzanne King_____ Date of IRB Approval: 09/08/08 Expiration 09/08/09
Signature of Investigator