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## The Influence of Teacher Parenting Style on Exclusionary Discipline Practices in Urban School Settings

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# **THE INFLUENCE OF TEACHER PARENTING STYLE ON EXCLUSIONARY DISCIPLINE PRACTICES IN URBAN SCHOOL SETTINGS**

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Louisiana State University and  
Agricultural and Mechanical College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
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in

The Department of Psychology

by  
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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS** – in order of their appearance

1. ODR – Office Discipline Referral
2. OCR – Office for Civil Rights
3. FRL – Free or Reduced Lunch
4. SES – Socioeconomic Status
5. IDEIA – Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act

## **ABSTRACT**

The overrepresentation of racial/ethnic minority students in suspensions, expulsions, and office discipline referrals has been a primary focus of research in racial equity in education. Excessive use of exclusionary discipline practices has been tied to decreases in academic achievement, school dropout, and an increased risk for juvenile justice system involvement. To date, much of the research on the exclusionary discipline gap has focused more on establishing that the problem exists than on factors that may be contributing to this phenomenon. What has been examined usually focuses on non-malleable variables, such as student demographic factors and school characteristics, while teacher variables have been much less studied. This study aimed to extend the literature on variables relating to the use of exclusionary discipline in schools by examining the probable influence of a teacher variable not yet studied: teachers' disciplinary style in the home. This study hoped to identify teacher variables that can be intervened with to reduce exclusionary discipline use with minority students.

*Keywords:* exclusionary discipline, ethnic match, parenting style, parenting practice

## INTRODUCTION

Exclusionary discipline refers to any school penalization that removes or excludes a student from his or her typical educational setting (Children's Defense Fund, 1975). Some of the most common exclusionary discipline practices include suspensions, expulsions, and office discipline referrals (ODRs). Excessive use of these practices has been shown to decrease academic achievement, distance students from their teachers and peers, and harm school climate (Cook et al., 2018). Additionally, these practices have been associated with adverse life outcomes, including school disengagement, dropout, and an increased risk for juvenile justice system involvement (Baker et al., 2001; Skiba, Arredondo, & Williams, 2014; Novak, 2018; Cook et al., 2018). Despite the considerable attention to this matter, the use of exclusionary discipline continues to be high. The U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights (OCR), reported that out of the 49 million students who were enrolled in school during the 2011-2012 school year, 3.5 million received an out of school suspension, 1.55 million received multiple out of school suspensions, and 130,000 were expelled; moreover, racial/ethnic minority students were disproportionately represented in each category (OCR, 2014).

Public education has come under increasing scrutiny, as educational research has consistently revealed significant discipline gaps between White students and students of color. Specifically, the overrepresentation of racial/ethnic minority students—particularly Black males—in suspensions, expulsions, and ODRs has been a chief focus of research on racial justice in education (Gregory, Huang, Anyon, Greer, & Downing, 2018; Cook et al., 2018). A sizeable body of research shows that Black males receive suspensions and ODRs at rates two to three times higher than their White peers (OCR, 2014; Gregory et al., 2016; Cook et al., 2018; Gregory et al., 2018). Unfortunately, to date, the research establishing the presence of an

exclusionary discipline gap is much more expansive than the research on factors that may be contributing to this phenomenon. What has been examined typically focuses on student demographic factors (e.g., student socioeconomic status, race/ethnicity, or disability status; Sullivan, Norman, & Klingbeil, 2014) or school demographic characteristics such as, the percentage of students eligible for free or reduced lunch (FRL; Christle, Jolivette, & Nelson, 2005), the overall level of school academic achievement (Christle et al., 2005), and average school staff experience (Arcia, 2007). None of these variables can straightforwardly or swiftly be remedied.

Teacher variables have been much less studied; however, in recent years, teachers' implicit racial biases have been gaining increasing attention in the research literature (Bradshaw, Mitchell, O'Brennan, & Leaf, 2010; Staats, Capatosto, Wright, & Contractor, 2016). This literature reveals that educators discipline students differently, and Black, Latinx, and Native American students are vulnerable to harsher punishment in relation to White, and to a lesser extent, Asian students (Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002; Bradshaw et al., 2010; Staats et al., 2016). It is clear from the research that how teachers interact with students in the classroom has the most significant impact on student outcomes (Gershenson, Holt, & Papageorge, 2016). However, so far, research on the exclusionary discipline gap has given little attention to teacher-specific (or classroom-level) contributors. This is surprising given that there is a significant body of related research on teachers use of classroom management strategies showing teacher self-efficacy, stress, and burnout, as well as their expectations of students of color all influence the behavioral management procedures they use in their classrooms (e.g., Woodfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990; Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2013; Kleinsasser, 2014; O'Brennan, Pas, & Bradshaw, 2017; Iancu, Rusu, Maroiu, Pacurar, & Maricutoiu, 2017). Therefore, this

research study hopes to extend the current literature on variables that relate to the use of exclusionary discipline in schools by examining the probable influence of teacher variables, including one new cultural variable not yet studied (i.e., teachers' disciplinary style in the home).



## **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

### **School Characteristics Associated with Exclusionary Discipline**

School characteristics have been associated with students' risk of problem behaviors and the use of exclusionary discipline (Sullivan et al., 2014). The main purpose of school discipline is to maintain order and provide safety by punishing students who break the rules and interrupt learning. The hope is that by setting an example of the punished students, other students will be discouraged from breaking school rules, and the disciplined students will reconsider committing an infraction in the future (Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010). However, this punitive approach does not often result in the changes in student behavior schools desire (Christle, Nelson, & Jolivet, 2004; Girvan et al., 2017). Additionally, schools' reliance on exclusion from the classroom as the primary disciplinary strategy often has a disproportionate impact on students of color. School characteristics related to exclusionary discipline, particularly suspensions, include the percentage of students eligible for free or reduced lunch (Christle, Jolivet, & Nelson, 2005), the level of school academic achievement (Christle et al., 2005), and staff experience (Arcia, 2007). More information about the research identifying these variables is overviewed below.

Christle et al. (2005) studied the relationship between youth problem behaviors (i.e., delinquency) and three school characteristics: academic failure, suspension, and dropout at the elementary, middle, and high school levels. They compared schools that were high performing with schools that were low performing with respect to the three characteristics. The results of their research indicated that school factors, such as the higher percentage of students enrolled in the FRL program and lower retention rate, were associated with schools reporting low academic achievement, high suspension rates, and high dropout rates across all three school levels (elementary, middle and high school). Arcia (2007) analyzed suspension data over three years to

explain between-school variability in the percentages of Black students suspended in high schools at a large urban school district. Results of her study indicated that suspension rates could partly be explained by the average years of experience of the school's instructional staff; where schools whose teacher average years of experience was low had higher rates of suspensions. Finally, Noltemeyer and Mcloughlin (2010), investigated the relationship between exclusionary discipline and school typology (i.e., urban, rural, suburban school settings) and found that urban, very-high-poverty schools utilized exclusionary discipline practices most frequently, whereas rural districts with small populations and low poverty utilized exclusionary discipline practices the least.

In contrast to the previous studies, one study found that school variables, such as average teacher experience and the percentage of students enrolled in the FRL program, may not predict suspensions (e.g., Sullivan et al., 2014). However, they emphasized the importance of not discounting school characteristics in suspension risk and expressed the need to look at other features of the educational environment. As one example, administrator perceptions and policies related to discipline may help better understand school factors contributing to disparate discipline outcomes. Taken together, thus far, the body of research suggests that certain school characteristics are related to students' receipt of exclusionary discipline, especially their likelihood of suspension.

## **Student Level Factors Associated with Exclusionary Discipline**

There are various student demographic variables linked with exclusionary discipline practices. Research suggests male students are up to two times as likely as female students to face disciplinary action (Noltemeyer et al., 2010; OCR, 2014; Whitford & Levine-Donnerstein, 2014; Gregory et al., 2016; Cook et al., 2018; Gregory et al., 2018). Student socioeconomic status (SES) is another factor that has been consistently associated with exclusionary discipline. The literature has shown that students who are eligible to receive free or reduced lunch are more likely to be recipients of exclusionary discipline than are their higher SES peers (Noltemeyer et al., 2010; Gregory et al., 2010). Additionally, student grade-level is related to discipline use. Raffaele Mendez and Knoff (2003), found that across all ethnicities, suspension rates increased significantly from elementary to middle school. Arcia (2007) found a similar pattern of increased suspension rates between middle and elementary school across all student racial/ethnic groups.

Student disability status is also associated with the likelihood of receiving exclusionary discipline. Students with disabilities experience exclusionary discipline at disproportionate rates in comparison with their non-disabled peers (New York Civil Liberties Union [NYCLU], 2013; Sullivan, Van Norman, & Klingbeil, 2014). Sullivan et al. (2014) estimated national suspension rates for students with disabilities above 15%, with rates for students classified as emotionally disturbed at about 44%. In an urban setting, such as New York City, it has been found that Black students with disabilities serve 14% of overall suspensions yet represent only 6% of the total public-school enrollment (NYCLU, 2013). This unequal rate of suspensions between students with disabilities and those without occurs despite having legislation requiring states to endorse

policies preventing this from occurring (Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act [IDEIA], 2004; Sullivan et al., 2014).

Student race/ethnicity also predicts exclusionary discipline rates. The over-representation of Black students as recipients of exclusionary discipline has been well documented in the literature. The first study to investigate national data on school discipline showed that Black students were two to three times more likely to be suspended than White, non-Latinx students across all grade levels (Children's Defense Fund, 1975). Notably, this statistic seems to have persisted in research conducted approximately 40 years later (OCR, 2014; Gregory et al., 2016; Cook et al., 2018; Gregory et al., 2018). A developing body of research has also documented similar concerns among Latinx and Native American students. The literature is showing that Black, Latinx, and Native American students are more likely to face more severe punishment in schools when compared to White peers (Gregory et. al, 2010; Skiba, Horner, Chung, Rausch, May, &Tobin, 2011; Whitford et al., 2014; Gastic, 2017). Whitford & Levine-Donnerstein (2014) found that Native American students are almost two times as likely to obtain an ODR than White and Latinx students, nearly two and a half more likely to obtain an ODR than Asian students, but half as likely to obtain an ODR than Black students. Raffaele-Mendez and Knoff (2003) found that Latinx students were more likely than White students to be suspended but less likely than Black students. Finally, two national studies of racial/ethnic disproportionality in suspension and expulsion rates reported that the highest rates were found among Black (38%) and Native American (35%) students, followed by Latinx (20%) and White (15%) students (Hoffman & Llagas, 2003; Hoffman, Llagas, & Snyder, 2003). Given this data, empirical work has attempted to explain what causes this discipline gap. Some researchers argue the difference in the disciplinary rates of students of color and White students are a result of behavioral

differences. These studies suggest that higher rates of aggressive behavior by male students of color can be attributed to misinterpreted social cues, which lead to higher rates of involvement in exclusionary discipline (Gorman-Smith & Tolan, 1998; Monroe, 2005). However, other more recent studies have demonstrated that the discipline gap does not appear to be explained by higher rates of problem behavior (Curran, 2016). Recent research on exclusionary discipline indicates that racial differences in student behaviors do not contribute to discipline disproportionality (Girvan, Gion, McIntosh, & Smolkowski, 2017) and despite its repeated use, exclusionary discipline is not effective at decreasing the behavior problems it is supposed to address (Christle et al., 2004; Girvan et al., 2017).

### **Teacher Level Factors Associated with Exclusionary Discipline**

**Classroom management skills.** Improvement of classroom management skills has been found to be one of the most prominent areas that teachers request further training in (Skiba, Ormiston, Martinez, & Cummings, 2016). Although there is minimal research that examines the direct association between teacher variables and exclusionary discipline, preliminary data supports that teachers' use of systematic and proactive classroom behavior management strategies may lower rates of ODRs. For example, Gregory et al. (2016) conducted a randomized control trial examining the effects of a two-year coaching program to help improve their classroom management strategies. Results from their study indicated that teachers who participated in the coaching program had no significant differences in discipline referrals between their Black students and non-Black students. In contrast, teachers in the control group continued to display racial disciplinary disparities. Martinez, McMahon, Coker, & Keys (2016) examined the relationship between teacher practice and student outcomes and found that teachers

with better classroom management had students with fewer high-risk behaviors, which frequently result in exclusionary discipline (e.g., fighting, use of illicit drugs).

**Teacher well-being.** Research on teacher self-efficacy, stress, and burnout highlight possible concerns about how teacher well-being influences student behavioral and academic outcomes. The literature suggests that when teachers experience high levels of stress and burnout or low efficacy, the quality of their teaching suffers, and a corresponding decline is observed in their relationship with students and students' classroom outcomes (Kleinsasser, 2014). Self-efficacy, which is an individual's judgement of his or her capability to achieve a certain level of performance (Pas, Bradshaw, Hershfeldt, & Leaf, 2010), has been shown to influence teacher behavior, affect goal setting as well as the ability for teachers to persist in challenging tasks (Pas et al., 2010). Teachers who are low in efficacy may refer students for disciplinary services outside of the classroom and there is evidence that teachers with low self-efficacy are more likely to use punitive or reactive discipline strategies as a means of behavior management (Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990; Kleinsasser, 2014). Teacher burnout is highly correlated with teacher stress and is defined as "a psychological condition comprised of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment" (Pas et al., 2010, p. 14). Teachers who experience burnout have been shown to be emotionally unavailable to their students and often develop negative attitudes toward the workplace, as well as students and parents (Pas et al., 2010). Moreover, teachers experiencing burnout believe they can no longer shape students' learning (Iancu et al., 2017). Similar to findings in the teacher efficacy research, the literature suggests that teacher burnout may result in an increase of perceived student behavioral problems, which in turn could lead to greater use of exclusionary discipline referrals (O'Brennan et al., 2017).

Educational literature also suggests that the relationship between exclusionary discipline and teacher burnout may be complicated. For instance, it has been proposed that some teachers with low efficacy and high burnout may seek to avoid scrutiny from school administrators who may require consultation services when teachers excessively refer students for ODRs and suspensions. As a result, these teachers may use exclusionary discipline at a decreased rate (Iancu et al., 2017). In contrast, other researchers have argued that the decrease in suspension and ODR referrals amongst some teachers with high burnout and low self-efficacy may be a byproduct of decreased engagement in teaching and meeting the needs of students (Pas et al., 2010). While research shows that difficulty with proactive classroom management, burnout, stress, and teaching efficacy likely contribute to the use of reactive discipline practices, these factors have seldom been investigated in relation to teachers' use of exclusionary discipline specifically. Although, research has shown that teacher well-being indicators are associated with teachers' implementation of several proven classroom procedures (e.g., Jennings et al., 2017; Long et al., 2016).

**Racial bias.** A teacher variable that has been considerably investigated as a potential contributor to the disproportionate use of exclusionary discipline is implicit racial bias (Bradshaw et al., 2010; Staats et al., 2016). Implicit bias is defined as the "attitudes and stereotypes that we carry around with us unconsciously" (Staats, 2014, p.70) and can even be in conflict with a person's stated beliefs and values (Staats, 2014). These implicit biases (or associations) tend to influence our actions, perceptions, and decisions and operate as subtle automatic responses to people and situations. While it is possible that implicit biases may not lead to explicit biased decisions in schools, research has shown that it can underlie discriminatory behaviors, mainly when these biases are unexamined (Staats, 2014; Carter, Skiba,

Arrendondo, & Pollock, 2017). For instance, school discipline research suggests that White and ethnic minority students may receive different treatment in terms of teacher reactions to misbehavior (Bradshaw et al., 2010; Carter et al., 2017).

Many infractions for which students of color are disproportionately disciplined have a subjective component requiring more teacher judgment (e.g., disrespectful as opposed to vandalism; Skiba et al., 2002; Skiba et al., 2011; NYCLU, 2013; Staats, 2014). Girvan et al., (2016) examined ODRs from 1,824 schools serving over 1 million students and found that discipline disproportionality can be largely attributed to racial disparities for subjectively defined behaviors, which accounted for 68% of the total variance. This study suggests that implicit biases and not different rates of problem behavior of ethnic minorities compared to White students are one of the largest contributors to discipline disproportionality. Bradshaw et al. (2010) showed that after controlling for teacher-reported disruptive behavior, Black students still received more ODRs than White students. Given the unconscious nature of implicit bias, research on the construct has shown that it is not easily amenable to change, and simply making teachers accountable for unbiased decisions without providing supports is ineffective in reducing discipline disproportionality (Carter et al., 2017).

Numerous suggestions have been raised to explain why discipline disparity is detrimental to minority students and much attention has been given to a long-standing demographic pattern: the racial mismatch between a predominantly White teaching force working with a majority non-White student population (Townsend, 2000; Bates & Glick, 2013; Berchini, 2015; Strauss, 2015). This pattern also seems to be acute in urban school districts (Arcia, 2007; Noltemeyer et al., 2010; Cherng & Halpin, 2016). Studies have shown that teachers' perceptions of students' academic merit vary by students' racial/ethnic background (Jussim & Eccles, 1992; Jussim,



Eccles, & Madon, 1996; Jussim & Harber, 2005; Irizarry, 2015). Moreover, these perceptions are related to students' academic and social outcomes (Ferguson, 2003; Bates et al., 2013; Irizarry, 2015).

Research has focused on whether students perform better when they are taught by a teacher of their own race/ethnicity (Egalite, Kisida, & Winters, 2015; Bradshaw et al., 2010). Egalite et al. (2015) used data from the Florida Department of Education to estimate achievement changes associated with students who had teachers of a different race/ethnicity. They found positive effects when Black and White students were assigned to race-congruent teachers in both reading and math as well as significant effects for Asian/Pacific Island students in math. Moreover, studies have found that race/ethnic matching between students and teachers is also linked to other academic and social outcomes, such as higher teacher expectations (Gershenson et al., 2016). Bates & Glick (2013) found that children received different evaluations of problem behaviors from teachers depending on the racial/ethnic match of the teachers and students. Their results indicated that Black children received worse assessments of externalizing behaviors when they had a White teacher than when they had a Black teacher. Researchers have argued that student-teacher race matching effects may be partly explained by students having more positive perceptions of race-congruent teachers. Prior work has found that teachers of color are distinctively positioned to improve the performance of students of color by serving as role models, mentors, advocates, or cultural translators (King, 1993; Ladson-Billings, 1992). A hypothesis generating in the literature is that there is a relationship between racial/ethnic match and cultural congruence. That is, teachers who have a racial/ethnic match with their students may be more culturally congruent with them, and therefore, be less biased in

their evaluation of student behavior and respond to problematic behavior with strategies other than exclusionary discipline.

### **Current Limitations of Research**

As previously stated, exclusionary discipline research has mostly focused on establishing that a problem of over- and disproportional use exists. To date, there is a dearth of research attempting to understand factors contributing to this phenomenon, especially factors that are readily targeted. Instead, most studies have focused on revealing associated school and student demographic characteristics, or on highlighting the relationship between teacher implicit racial bias and exclusionary discipline of students of color. Few studies have looked at teacher variables associated with the use of exclusionary discipline, despite the fact that these variables can be intervened with and are likely to have a significant impact on students' classroom experiences and outcomes. Thus, this study hopes to address some of these limitations by recognizing that teachers are cultural beings who may have cultural or home influences that are impacting their use of exclusionary discipline in the classroom. If this is shown to be true, this home influence is another factor contributing to their use of exclusionary discipline that can be intervened with. Therefore, below a new, unexamined variable (teachers' parenting at home) is explored as research and theory related to this variable suggest a probable influence on teachers' discipline in the classroom. Teachers' parenting at home may not only impact their classroom disciplinary practice directly but also may present as a barrier to teachers adopting and sustaining proven classroom behavior management strategies. For instance, Long et al. (2016) found in a statewide study that the most common barrier to teachers' implementation of intervention strategies selected for their classrooms was intervention compatibility. In fact, issues regarding

intervention compatibility with the teacher or his/her classroom represented 21% of those recorded.

Many teachers are also parents. Thus, it makes sense that teachers' discipline practices at school would be informed by their parenting beliefs and practices at home. Parenting principles, values, and goals have been shown to vary depending on cultural contexts (Gershoff & Grogan-Kaylor, 2016; Prevoo & Tamis-LeMonda, 2017). Parenting values, which are the qualities a parent considers important to childcare, are engrained in cultural beliefs about what is important and help define the goals that parents aspire to in their parenting practice (Prevoo et al., 2017). Diana Baumrind (1966), identified three widely used typologies of parenting styles: authoritative, permissive, and authoritarian. These parenting styles vary along two dimensions of demandingness and responsiveness (Baumrind, 1991). Parents who are both responsive and demanding prescribe to the authoritative parenting style and are characterized as supportive, warm, reasonable, and encouraging of child autonomy. Permissive parenting is responsive but not demanding. These parents are characterized as indulgent, lenient, and using minimal punishment. Finally, parents characterized as authoritarian are demanding but not responsive and exhibit strict rules, expect blind obedience, and show high levels of restriction (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1991). With respect to these parenting styles, authoritative parenting has been consistently associated with a wide range of positive outcomes for children and adolescents including better academic performance as well as cooperation between adults and peers (Baumrind, 1991; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Smetana, 1995; Prevoo et al., 2017).

The parenting literature supports that the authoritative style of parenting is most beneficial to successfully socialize children into the dominant culture of the United States (Baumrind, 1991; Brady-Smith, Brooks-Gunn, Tamis-LeMonda, Fuligni, Chazan-Cohen, &

Fine, 2013). However, research focused on ethnic cultural groups who are not White and predominately middle-class, shows the influence of authoritativeness and other styles of parenting vary depending on the social environment in which the family is embedded. Some research looking at the differences in parenting styles across ethnicities show that majority parents are more likely than minority parents to use authoritative disciplinary strategies, such as time-out. In contrast, high stress and low SES, more commonly experienced by minority parents, have been linked with parent use of authoritarian discipline (Emmen, Malda, Mesman, Van Ijzendoorn, Prevoo, & Yeniad, 2013; Prevoo et al., 2017). For example, Nomaguchi and House (2013) examined racial/ethnic differences in maternal parenting stress and found that overall, Black, Latinx, and Asian mothers report more parenting stress than White mothers. Additionally, they found an association with more authoritarian parenting values because of structural disadvantages like lower family income and more single-mother households, particularly for Black mothers (Nomaguchi & House, 2013). Other research, however, suggests that the parenting style selected among both Black and White mothers who experience high levels of stress and low levels of SES is not the authoritarian style as would be expected (Middlemiss, 2003). The literature shows authoritative parenting has positive academic and behavioral outcomes among White children and adolescents than ethnic minority children and adolescents (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Darling et al., 1993). In relation, authoritarian parenting has been associated with fearful, timid behavior among European-American children and associated with assertiveness among African American children, particularly girls (Baumrind, 1972). Authoritarian parenting has also been associated with increased school success among Chinese children (Chao, 1994). It is unclear from the literature

on parenting styles, whether the varying cultural and societal factors that may influence a parent's decision at any given time, are taken into account.

Darling and Steinberg (1993) provide a contextual model of parenting where the variability in outcomes between different ethnic groups may be explained. Specifically, they argue that it is possible for minority and majority parents to hold the same parenting style or values and have similar goals for appropriate socialization but have different methods by which they help their children attain these goals. This contextual model claims parenting style is distinct from parenting practice and can provide an overarching framework in examining the relationship between style and practice and student outcomes. Research looking at the interaction between families and schools have examined the influence of parenting styles (e.g. Baumrind's typologies) and specific parenting practices (e.g. monitoring of school activities, attending parent-teacher conferences, corporal punishment) on student academic and social outcomes (Steingberg et al., 1991; Chao, 1994; Prevoo et al., 2017). However, the literature often uses these two labels interchangeably. Darling and Steinberg (1993) suggest that distinguishing between these two labels is important to understand the socialization process better (Spera, 2005).

Research conducted using Baumrind's parent style typologies has found a positive relationship between authoritative parenting styles and student outcomes, specifically, student achievement (Baumrind, 1967; Prevoo et al., 2017). Children of authoritative parents tend to exhibit more prosocial behaviors and higher achievement than children of non-authoritative parents. Researchers suggest that authoritative parents provide a high level of emotional security, which in turn provides their children with a sense of comfort and independence that helps them succeed in school (Clark, 1993; Prevoo et al., 2017). Additionally, authoritative

parents provide children with explanations for their actions, which gives the child an understanding of their parents' values, morals, and goals, arming them with the tools needed to succeed in school (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1972; Prevoo et al., 2017). Research, including families from diverse ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds, however, is not consistent with these findings and shows differences in the relationship between authoritative parenting and student outcomes. Several studies have found that authoritarian and not authoritative parenting is associated with better academic achievement for Asian, Black, and Latinx children (Steingberg et al., 1992; Chao, 1994; Scott-Jones, 1995; Spera, 2005; Prevoo et al., 2017).

A major way parents may socialize their children is by communicating their goals for them in addition to the aspirations they want their children to fulfill, and the values they would like their children to internalize (Spera, 2005). Parents may set particular goals and hold certain aspirations for their children, like having positive relationships with adults and peers, graduating high school, and attending college. Additionally, parents may want their children to adopt particular values and beliefs, such as respect and the importance of education. Studies have looked at the extent to which parental aspirations, goals, and values for their children's educational achievement vary by race/ethnicity. Researchers have found minority parents place great value on education, are concerned with educational matters, and have educational aspirations for their children equally to majority parents (Wentzel, 1998; De La Rosa & Maw, 1990). Despite this, minority students have higher drop-out rates from high school and lower levels of educational attainment than White students (De La Rosa et al., 1990; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2017). These findings raise an important question as to whether minority students are given equal opportunities in the classroom to realize their goals. Moreover, this research may be extended to the exclusionary discipline literature in that it is possible

students may perform better when taught by culturally congruent teachers. Specifically, teachers who have parenting styles and goals similar to what the child or adolescent is accustomed to may engage in teaching behaviors students are more responsive to; thus, minimizing the use or need for exclusionary discipline.

### **The Present Study**

This study aimed to advance the literature on the exclusionary discipline gap by understanding this phenomenon not only from an implicit racial bias perspective but also from a cultural perspective and a teacher well-being perspective. Therefore, this study hoped to identify teacher variables that can be intervened on towards advancing research to reduce exclusionary discipline use with minority students. Research has hypothesized that when teachers have a racial/ethnic match with their students, they may also possess more cultural congruence. This cultural congruence might result in the use of alternatives to exclusionary discipline in response to problematic behaviors. The parenting literature supports that parenting practices vary across cultures because cultures differ regarding which practices they believe will promote certain values and goals (Darling et al., 1993; Gershoff et al., 2016; Prevoo et al., 2017). Research also suggests a parents' culture influences and shapes parenting practices such as what is deemed to be appropriate disciplinary practices (Gershoff, 2002; Lansford et al., 2005; Bornstein, 2012). Although teachers are also cultural beings whose cultural backgrounds may influence their expectations of behavior and what they deem to be appropriate disciplinary practices, little is known about how an educator's cultural background may sway his or her disciplinary decisions. This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a relationship between racial/ethnic match and exclusionary discipline amongst teachers working in predominantly minority urban settings?

- If a relationship exists between racial/ethnic match and exclusionary discipline, is the relationship mediated by teacher parenting style/practice at home or the parenting style teachers experienced as children?
2. What teacher variables are most strongly associated with their use of exclusionary discipline?

It is hypothesized that classrooms where there is a racial/ethnic match among the teachers and students there will be lower rates of exclusionary discipline than in classrooms that do not have a match. If this is the case, then a possible explanation for the lesser use of exclusionary discipline is the cultural congruence between teacher and students, as measured by teacher parenting style/practice. That is, teachers who are culturally congruent to students will have a similar parenting style/practice to what the student is accustomed to, which may result in fewer behavioral problems and decreased need for exclusionary discipline. There are no specific hypotheses regarding what teacher variable will be most strongly associated with exclusionary discipline use.



## **METHOD**

### **Participants and Setting**

Sixty-five in-service teachers from a low-income, high needs public middle school (grades six through eight) in East Baton Rouge Parish participated in this study. During spring 2019, at a professional development day, teachers completed study measures online via a secure survey software: Qualtrics. To be included in the study, the setting needed to have a majority Black student population. This school eligibility criteria standardized the school and classroom context for the study and kept the focus of the research on a school setting shown to have the highest rates of exclusionary discipline. Additionally, this school gathered information on who delivered the exclusionary discipline to students, which ensured that accurate teacher level exclusionary discipline data was captured. Finally, both parent and non-parent teachers were included in this study. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics on the demographic characteristics of the sample. Most of the sample had either a master's or bachelor's degree and one to five years of teaching experience. The majority of teachers reported having 20 or more hours of classroom management training. Further, the sample was mostly non-Latinx White and female. Table 2 presents descriptive statistics and demographic characteristics of the participating school, including the percentage of students eligible for FRL, the racial/ethnic student composition, and the size of the school. The student body was primarily composed of male students who identified as Black or African America, and the majority of students were eligible to receive FRL.

Table 1. Percentages of demographic variables as reported by teachers (N=65)

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>n</b>
<b>Age (years)</b>		64
18-24	7	
25-34	25	
35-44	32	
45-54	23	
55-64	8	
Older than 64	5	
<b>Gender</b>		65
Male	20	
Female	80	
<b>Grade taught</b>		65
6th	35	
7th	34	
8th	31	
<b>Teaching experience (years)</b>		65
1-5	26	
6-10	17	
11-20	33	
20+	24	
<b>Teacher ethnicity</b>		64
White	57	
Black or African American	35	
Asian or Asian American	3	
Multi-racial/ethnic	3	
<b>Level of education</b>		65
Some college but no degree	2	
Master's/Specialist	49	
Bachelor's degree	48	
Doctorate/Professional degree	1	
<b>Classroom management training</b>		65
20+ hours	49	
10-19 hours	29	
1-9 hours	19	
0 hours	3	

Table 2. School demographic characteristics (N=835)

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Student ethnicity</b>	
Black or African American	60
White	24
Latinx	13
Asian or Asian American	3
<b>Gender</b>	
Female	46
Male	54
<b>Students eligible to receive FRL</b>	68

## Procedure

Before participants were recruited, the Institutional Review Board at Louisiana State University reviewed and approved the study methods and procedures. Recruitment began during the spring 2019 semester and continued until the beginning of the 2019 fall semester. Sixteen school administrators were individually contacted; additionally, official requests to conduct research were sent to the East Baton Rouge Parish School System (EBRPSS) and the New York City Department of Education (NYCDOE). There was no response received from either the EBRPSS or the NYCDOE despite multiple follow-up attempts. The response rate of the schools the researchers reached out to was 44% (replies were received from 7 out of 16 school administrators). The response rate was calculated by dividing the number of replies by the total number of schools reached out to and multiplying by 100. Five school administrators (71%) said no to research at their school. Two school administrators (29%) said yes to conducting research; however, one school did not gather teacher level exclusionary discipline data and was not used in the study. The other school that replied yes met the inclusion criteria and was eligible for this study.

Administrative consent was obtained, which allowed the researchers to recruit teachers at the school. During a professional development day, Chrome Books were distributed as well as an anonymous link to study measures via Qualtrics to 70 teachers. Sixty-five teachers (93%) consented to participate. Teachers who participated received permission from the school principal to dress casually every Friday for the remainder of the school year. Teachers were also entered into a raffle for an opportunity to earn a gift card after returning questionnaires. All teachers received the same four questionnaires. So as not to exclude non-parent teachers, all teachers were asked to rate the parenting style they experienced growing up. Teachers who were parents/legal guardians/caregivers of a child (or children) who were at least three years old or older were also asked to rate their own parenting style.

## **Measures**

**Demographic Questionnaire.** The demographic questionnaire (Appendix A) included questions about age, sex, racial/ethnic identity, social economic status, level of education, number of years teaching, current grade level teaching, amount of training in classroom management, classroom information, and parenthood. Basic student information was also gathered from school records, including the average number of students per class, percentage of students eligible to receive free or reduced, percentage of male students, percentage of students with a disability, and racial/ethnic composition of students in the school. The demographic questionnaire also collected teacher identifying information including their full name and the name of the school in which they teach to ensure de-identified student exclusionary discipline data could be linked to the appropriate teacher.

**Exclusionary Discipline.** ODRs are generally standardized forms used to document incidents and removal of students from the classroom environment (Smolkowski, Girvan,

McIntosh, Nese, Horner, 2016). ODRs are widely used by schools to track student disciplinary problems, as well as judge the sufficiency of schoolwide behavior support programming. Students most typically receive ODRs from teachers as a result of rule infractions. Yet, a criticism of ODRs is that they are susceptible to teachers' subjective appraisal of behavioral events (Bradshaw et al., 2010). From school records, researchers requested the number and type of infractions teachers assigned during the 2018-2019 school year that resulted in ODRs. To gain the most accurate data on teachers' delivery of exclusionary discipline in their classrooms, researchers also asked teachers to self-report the average number of times they sent students out of their classroom (either as an official ODR or to a colleague's room) because of behavior both in a typical week and the past month. Exclusionary discipline was the primary outcome variable for this study.

**Racial/Ethnic Match.** Ethnic match was computed through teacher self-report. Consistent with research (Bates et al., 2013), the variable for a racial/ethnic match between students and teacher was dummy coded: if there was a match, then the variable is coded as 1, if race/ethnicity was incongruent, then the variable was coded as 0. Teachers who identified as multi-racial/ethnic were not considered a match. Racial/ethnic match between the teacher and students was a primary predictor for this study.

**Parenting Style/Practice.** The Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001) is a widely applied measure of Baumrind's (1966) typologies of parenting styles that has been used in cross-cultural research. The shortened version (32-item) of the original 62-item self-assessment questionnaire for parents of preschool and school aged children was used (Appendix B). The response format of the PSDQ is a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1(*never*) through 5 (*always*). This questionnaire assesses both

parenting styles and their underlying subdimensions (e.g. warmth/involvement, corporal punishment, lack of follow-through; Olivari, Tagliabue, & Confalonieri, 2013). The 32-item PSDQ includes 15 authoritative items and contains dimensions of warmth and support (5 items; e.g., “I am responsive to my child’s feelings and needs”), reasoning/induction (5 items; e.g., “I emphasize the reasons for rules”), and democratic participation (5 items; e.g., “I allow my child to give input into family rules”). The authoritarian typology contains 12 items including dimensions of verbal hostility (4 items; e.g., “I explode in anger toward my child”), physical coercion (4 items; e.g., “I slap my child when the child misbehaves”), and nonreasoning and punitive strategies (4 items; e.g., “I use threats as punishment with little or no justification”). Lastly, the permissive typology contains 5 items in the indulgent dimension (e.g., “I give into my child when the child causes a commotion about something”). Scores for the three primary scales are obtained by calculating the mean of all items in each typology. This measure was also adapted to assess how each teacher was parented. Adequate validity has been demonstrated by significant predictions of child behavior from the authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting styles for both the original and the shortened versions (Olivari et.al, 2013; Robinson et al., 2001; Querido, Warner, & Eyberg, 2002). The internal consistency reliabilities for the authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive subscales of the 32-item PSDQ have been shown in previous research to be acceptable, reported as 0.86, 0.82, and 0.64 respectively. In the current study the internal consistency reliabilities were found to be 0.94 for the authoritative, 0.88 for the authoritarian, and 0.50 for the permissive subscales respectively. Teacher parenting style or practice was a primary predictor for this study.

**Covariates.** In addition to the data gathered through the primary study measures, data on teachers’ burnout or stress and self-efficacy were also collected. These data were obtained based

on research that suggests these variables are common contributors to teacher performance in the classroom, including managing student behavior (Woolfolk et al., 1990; Pas et al., 2010; Kleinsasser, 2014; O'Brennan et al., 2017). Thus, these teacher variables may also be associated with their use of exclusionary discipline practices.

***Burnout and Stress.*** The teacher version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1997) was used to assess teacher burnout and stress (Appendix C). The MBI is a self-report scale that assesses how frequently teachers experience feelings of burnout and stress, which measures items on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). The MBI is comprised of 22 items, combining to form three subscales: Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Personal Accomplishment. This study used the Emotional Exhaustion subscale, consisting of 9 total items, as it is the most widely applied in the education research. The internal consistency reliability of the Emotional Exhaustion subscale has been shown to be .90. The internal consistency reliability for the present sample was 0.80. Example items include “I feel emotionally drained from my work” and “I feel I am working too hard on my job”.

***Self-efficacy.*** Teacher self-efficacy was measured using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The short version of the TSES (Appendix D) is comprised of 12 items, combining to form three subscales: Efficacy in Student Engagement, Efficacy in Instructional Strategies, and Efficacy in Classroom Management. Teachers answered questions on a 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*nothing*) to 9 (*a great deal*). Internal consistency reliability for the TSES has been shown to be 0.90. The TSES has been found to be significantly positively associated with other measures of teacher self-efficacy ( $r$  range = .18 to

.53) and significantly negatively associated with work alienation ( $r = -.31$ ). The internal consistency reliability for the present sample was 0.90.



## RESULTS

Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (IBM SPSS) 26. Before conducting primary analyses, descriptive statistics and preliminary analyses were conducted on demographic and study variables to ensure all assumptions for primary analyses were met. All data for each study measure were checked for missing values. Missing data ranged from one to four teachers per subscale (94% to 98% completion rate). Based on the percentage and pattern of missing data (Little's MCAR test:  $\chi^2(474, N = 65) = 414.38, p > 0.05$ ) a decision was made to delete cases pairwise. Deleting cases pairwise preserves the sample size of the study. Study variables were also examined for violations of the assumptions for the primary analyses, including normality, linearity, homoscedasticity/ homogeneity of variance and multicollinearity.

Table 3 presents descriptive statistics for all questionnaires. As shown in Table 3, the overall sample reported experiencing more authoritative parenting, followed by authoritarian and permissive. Teachers who are parents scored highest on authoritative parenting, followed by permissive then authoritarian. Table 4 presents the most common infractions reported by teachers in the 2018-2019 school year that resulted in an ODR. Students were issued an ODR most frequently because of dress code violations, followed by instigating or participating in fights, then willful disobedience and habitually tardy or absent.

### **Relationship between Ethnic Match and Exclusionary Discipline**

Researchers hypothesized that classrooms where there was a racial/ethnic match among the teachers and students would have lower rates of exclusionary discipline than in classrooms that did not have a match. Independent samples t-tests were conducted (Table 4) to explore whether teachers with a racial/ethnic match with students differ significantly in their mean levels

of exclusionary discipline use from teachers without a match. There was no significant difference in official (school recorded) ODRs for teachers with a match ( $M = 4.89$ ,  $SD = 5.81$ ) and without a match ( $M = 5.59$ ,  $SD = 4.52$ );  $t(46) = -0.46$ ,  $p = 0.421$ . There was also no significant difference in self-reported classroom removals in a typical week for teachers with a match ( $M = 1.43$ ,  $SD = 2.17$ ) and without a match ( $M = 2.34$ ,  $SD = 2.89$ );  $t(64) = -1.31$ ,  $p = 0.201$ . Lastly, there was a near significant difference for self-reported classroom removals in a month,  $t(64) = -1.61$ ,  $p = 0.056$ . Although the analyses did not reveal statistically significant results, the overall trend was as the researchers expected. The means in Table 4 show that teachers without a match reported more exclusionary discipline events in all categories than teachers with a match. Because self-reported classroom removals in a month was near significant, a mediation analysis as outlined by Baron and Kenny (2006) (see Figure 1) was conducted. There was no ground for a mediation however as racial/ethnic match did not predict parenting style.

### **Association of Teacher Variables with Exclusionary Discipline**

**Correlations.** Table 5 presents the results of the correlation analyses among exclusionary discipline events and teacher perceived parenting styles while growing up as well as teacher level covariates. There was a very strong positive relationship between teacher reported exclusionary discipline at one week and one month. However, there was no relationship between teacher self-reported exclusionary events and official ODRs (as recorded in the school records). There was also a medium positive relationship between perceived authoritarian parenting and teacher burnout and a medium positive relationship between perceived authoritative parenting and teacher sense of instructional efficacy. In other words, individuals who were raised with a more authoritarian parenting style endorsed higher levels of teacher

burnout and teachers who were raised with a more authoritative parenting style endorsed greater confidence in their delivery of instructional strategies. In addition, a significant positive association was found between teacher burnout and the reported number of times they removed a student from their classroom in the past month ( $r = .27$ ). Finally, several significant medium to large negative correlations were found between the various domains of teaching efficacy and teachers' reports of the number of times they removed students from their classrooms in the past week and month ( $r$  range =  $-.28$  to  $-.51$ ).

Correlation analyses were also conducted with the different dimensions of parenting styles (see Table 6). Results show that the dimension of warmth and support was positively correlated with teacher sense of efficacy in instructional strategies. The dimension of reasoning and induction was also positively correlated with teachers' sense of efficacy with student engagement and instructional strategies. The dimensions of verbal hostility and non-reasoning were positively correlated with teacher burnout.

**Regression.** A multiple regression was conducted to examine what teacher variables were most strongly associated with use of exclusionary discipline or made an independent contribution (i.e., teacher burnout or stress, teacher self-efficacy, racial/ethnic match, parenting style; Table 7). Conceptually relevant demographic variables were included in the regression model along with the primary predictors. The decision to include these variables was based on past research that demonstrates their repeated and significant relationship with exclusionary discipline. Variables included in the regression model as predictors were teaching experience, hours of classroom management training, percentage of male students, percentage of students with disabilities, and percentage of students receiving FRL along with study covariates (teacher burnout and teaching efficacy). Predictors were removed from the model if they were non-

significant (evaluated at the 0.1 alpha level) and not shown to be a confounder. The final multiple regression model was conducted using a forced entry method for all of the predictors being tested. Forced entry has all predictors forced into the regression model simultaneously, making no assumptions about the order in which they should be entered and is an appropriate method for theory testing (Field, 2013). The entire model was statistically significant with years of teaching experience and efficacy in the classroom significantly predicting exclusionary discipline in a month with 37% of variance explained  $F(11,49) = 2.618, p < 0.01$ .

Table 3. Means, internal consistencies and sample sizes for questionnaires (N=65)

Questionnaire or subscale	Scale (mean $\pm$ standard deviation)	$\alpha^d$	n
MBI Emotional Exhaustion <sup>a</sup>	37 $\pm$ 12.77	0.80	63
Efficacy in Student Engagement <sup>b</sup>	6 $\pm$ 1.48		64
Efficacy in Instructional Strategies <sup>b</sup>	7 $\pm$ 1.06		64
Efficacy in Classroom Management <sup>b</sup>	7 $\pm$ 1.48	0.90 <sup>b</sup>	64
PSDQ-Authoritative (all teachers) <sup>c</sup>	3.14 $\pm$ 0.9	0.94	63
PSDQ-Authoritarian (all teachers) <sup>c</sup>	2.48 $\pm$ 0.74	0.88	63
PSDQ-Permissive (all teachers) <sup>c</sup>	1.81 $\pm$ 0.51	0.50	62
PSDQ-Authoritative (parents) <sup>c</sup>	4.07 $\pm$ 0.68		34
PSDQ-Authoritarian (parents) <sup>c</sup>	1.90 $\pm$ 0.43		34
PSDQ-Permissive (parents) <sup>c</sup>	2.08 $\pm$ 0.57		34

*Note.* Scale means (sum of item score/total items per respondent) allowed for one missing item.

- Possible answers were one to seven, where for MBI Educators Survey 1= never, 2= a few times a year or less, 3= once a month or less, 4= a few times a month, 5= once a week, 6= a few times a week, 7= every day.
- Possible answers were one to nine, where for sense of efficacy 1-2= nothing, 3-4= very little, 5-6= some influence, 7-8= quite a bit, 9= a great deal.
- Possible answers were one to five, where 1= never, 2= once in a while, 3= about half the time, 4= very often, 5= always.
- Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was calculated for how teachers were parented.  $\alpha$  was based on standardized items. Because Cronbach's  $\alpha$  does not allow missing items the values are for the sample size for no missing items.

Table 4. Type of infraction resulting in an ODR

<b>Infraction</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Dress code violation	184	21
Instigates or participates in fights	167	19
Willful disobedience	100	11
Is habitually tardy and/or absent	100	11
Disturbance in classroom or campus	45	5
Treats an authority with disrespect	41	5
Leaves school or classroom w/o permission	28	3
Horse playing	21	2
Cellphone violation	21	2
Conduct or habits injurious to his/her associates	20	2
Uses profane and/or obscene language	19	2
Commits immoral or vicious practices	18	2
Skippping class or school	17	2
Failure to serve assigned consequence	17	2
Disturbs the school/habitually violates rules	15	2
Takes another's property or possessions without permission	12	1
Unauthorized use of technology	10	1
Habitual violations of school/class rules	7	1
Throws missiles liable to injure others	6	1
Commits any other serious offense	4	0
Bullying	4	0
Burglary	4	0
Uses/possesses tobacco and/or lighter	3	0
Cuts defaces injures school/vandalism	3	0
Uses/possesses controlled dangerous substances	2	0
Threatening students/faculty	2	0
Physical assault without serious bodily injury	2	0
Robbery	2	0
Group fight	2	0
Writes or draws obscene/profane language/pictures	1	0
Possesses weapons not federally prohibited	1	0
Treats student with disrespect	1	0
Inappropriate bodily contact	1	0
Possesses pocketknife with a blade length of less than 2.5 inches	1	0
Public indecency	1	0
False report	1	0

Table 5. Independent samples t-test comparing the mean levels of teacher racial/ethnic match on differential use of exclusionary discipline

	<b>Race/Ethnic Match</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean ± Standard Deviation</b>	<b>P value</b>
ODRs from School Records	Yes	19	4.89± 5.811	0.421
	No	27	5.59 ± 4.526	
Classroom Removals Typical Week	Yes	23	1.4348± 2.17059	0.201
	No	41	2.3415 ± 2.88626	
Classroom Removals Past Month	Yes	23	2.7826± 5.22195	0.056
	No	41	5.6098 ± 7.40904	

Table 6. Correlation matrix

<b>Variable</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
1. Removal in a Typical Week	–									
2. Removal in a Month	0.866**	–								
3. ODRs From School Records	0.173	0.179	–							
4. PSDQ-Authoritative (all)	0.16	0.068	0.084	–						
5. PSDQ-Authoritarian (all)	-0.037	-0.091	-0.1	-0.377**	–					
6. PSDQ-Permissive (all)	0.06	-0.085	-0.23	-0.014	0.205	–				
7. MBI Emotional Exhaustion Subscale	0.204	-0.273*	-0.24	-0.21	0.316*	0.179	–			
8. Efficacy-Student Engagement	-0.277*	-0.346**	-0.13	0.242	-0.064	0.03	-0.533**	–		
9. Efficacy-Instructional Strategies	-0.315*	-0.343**	-0.05	0.287*	-0.193	-0.124	-0.396**	0.623**	–	
10. Efficacy-Classroom Management	-0.423**	-0.514**	-0.04	0.131	-0.05	0.071	-0.572**	0.729**	-0.591**	–

*Note.* Correlation matrix of exclusionary discipline events, general view of perceived parenting style while growing up, and teacher level covariates based on responses to the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ), the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). Sample size for correlation ranges from 47 to 64. \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ . Effect size was interpreted using Cohen's  $r$  where  $r = 0.10$  for small effect sizes,  $r = 0.30$  for medium effect sizes and  $r = 0.50$  for large effects and  $r = 0.70$  for very large effects.

Table 7. Correlation matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Removal in a Typical Week	–													
2. Removal in a Month	0.866**	–												
3. ODRs From School Records	0.173	0.179	–											
4. MBI Emotional Exhaustion Subscale	0.204	-0.273*	-0.239	–										
5. Efficacy-Student Engagement	-0.277*	-0.346**	-0.131	0.242	–									
6. Efficacy-Instructional Strategies	-0.315*	-0.343**	-0.054	0.287*	0.623**	–								
7. Efficacy-Classroom Management	-0.423**	-0.514**	-0.039	0.131	0.729**	0.591**	–							
8. Warmth-Support (all)	0.051	0	0.132	0.270*	0.213	0.281*	0.163	–						
9. Reasoning-Induciton (all)	0.066	-0.01	0.111	0.315*	0.275*	0.289*	0.175	0.818**	–					
10. Democratic Participation (all)	0.312*	0.17	-0.047	0.002	0.175	0.201	0.023	0.643**	0.633**	–				
11. Coercion (all)	-0.077	-0.126	-0.059	0.124	0.079	-0.067	0.064	-0.217	-0.227	-0.237	–			
12. Verbal Hostility (all)	0.042	0.028	-0.108	0.328**	-0.099	-0.207	-0.108	-0.307*	-0.279*	-0.176	0.682**	–		
13. Non-Reasoning (all)	-0.062	-0.146	-0.089	0.376**	-0.166	-0.235	-0.097	-0.465**	-0.432**	-0.294*	0.527**	0.527**	–	
14. Indulgent (all)	0.06	-0.085	-0.225	0.179	0.03	-0.124	0.071	-0.103	-0.12	0.192	0.127	0.133	0.288*	–

*Note.* Correlation matrix of exclusionary discipline events, dimensions of perceived parenting style while growing up, and teacher level covariates based on responses to the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ), the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). Sample size for correlation ranges from 47 to 64. \* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\* $p < 0.01$ . Effect size was interpreted using Cohen's  $r$  where  $r = 0.10$  for small effect sizes,  $r = 0.30$  for medium effect sizes and  $r = 0.50$  for large effects and  $r = 0.70$  for very large effects.



Table 8. Regression Analysis

Outcome	Model Summary			Coefficients			
	$R^2$	df	$P$ value	$\beta$	B	standard error	$P$ value
<b>Removal in a month</b>	0.37	11	0.01				
Teaching Experience				-0.265	-0.177	0.083	0.039
Classroom Managemet							
Training				-0.47	-0.177	0.492	0.72
Percent of male students				0.005	0.001	0.037	0.635
Race/Ethnic Match				-0.059	-0.826	1.731	0.373
PSDQ-Authoritative (all)				0.117	0.872	0.97	0.437
PSDQ-Authoritatrian (all)				-0.111	-1	1.275	0.691
PSDQ-Permissive (all)				-0.05	-0.66	1.655	0.585
MBI Emotional Exhaustion				0.092	0.049	0.089	0.452
Efficacy- Student Engagement				0.146	0.664	0.877	0.589
Efficacy- Instructional Strategies				-0.09	-0.572	1.054	0.03
Efficacy- Classroom Management				-0.439	-1.995	0.89	0.969

*Note.* Regressions predicting exclusionary discipline in a month, based on general view of perceived parenting style while growing up, and teacher level covariates based on racial/ethnic match and responses to the Parenting Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ), the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES).

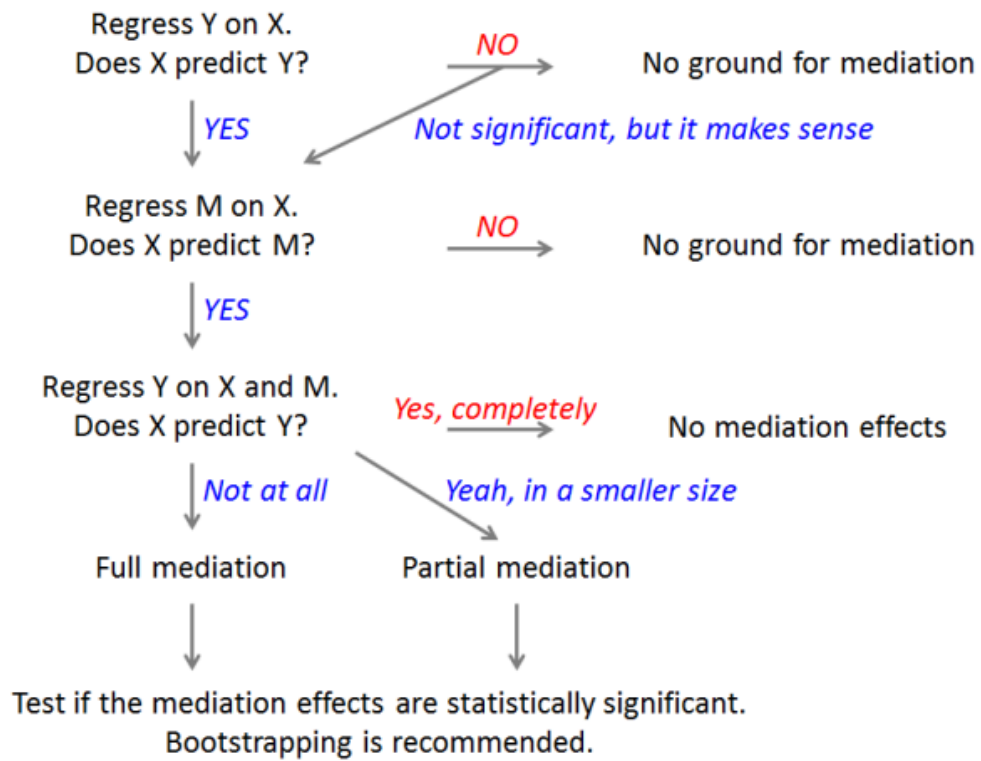


Figure 1. Flowchart for mediation analysis adapted from the University of Virginia Research Data Services and Sciences.

## **DISCUSSION**

The current study attempted to understand exclusionary discipline not only from an implicit racial bias perspective (as measured by racial/ethnic match) but also from cultural and teacher well-being perspectives. The overarching aim of this research was to identify teacher variables that are more readily amenable to change towards reducing exclusionary discipline use with minority students. As hypothesized, teachers with a racial/ethnic match to their students had lower rates of exclusionary discipline than teachers without a match. This trend was true both for official ODRs and teacher self-reported use of exclusionary discipline. These results are consistent with the research literature, which suggests race-congruent teachers may be less biased in their evaluation of student behavior (Bates & Glick, 2013) and may respond to problematic behavior with strategies other than exclusionary discipline. The second hypothesis in this study sought to find what teacher variables are most strongly associated with the use of exclusionary discipline. As stated previously, teacher variables have seldom been investigated concerning teachers' use of exclusionary discipline specifically. This study found significant associations between teacher burnout and the reported number of times students were removed from the classroom in a month. There were also significant associations in teachers' sense of efficacy and exclusionary discipline practices in a week and a month. The literature suggests teachers with low efficacy and high burnout are more likely to use punitive discipline strategies as a means of behavior management. The results of this study support that high burnout and low efficacy are significantly associated with the use of exclusionary discipline.

### **Limitations and Implications**

This study is not without its limitations. First, the power analysis revealed that a sample of 109 teachers was needed to conduct analyses. A larger sample size would have resulted in a

more precise estimate of my primary outcome (Vetter, 2017). Results from the regression analysis in this study should be interpreted with caution. Green (1991) indicates that  $N = 50 + 8m$  (where  $N$  is the sample size needed, and  $m$  is the number of independent variables). Based on this rule of thumb, the sample size in this study was much too small to decrease random error. Second, it is evident that there is a systematic error in this study resulting from selection bias. The relationship between exclusionary discipline and ethnic match in this study may be fundamentally different for schools that did not want to participate in this study. Finally, using ODRs as the primary outcome variable in assessing exclusionary discipline was problematic as teacher self-reported removals from the classroom differed significantly from what is officially recorded in the school records. While it is likely that teacher self-report provided more accurate data than ODRs, teachers in this study reported exclusionary discipline events retroactively, and therefore, measurement error is probable. If teacher self-report is reliable, however, then parenting style may not mediate the relationship between ethnic match and use of exclusionary discipline as was expected. Improvement in how congruency was captured should also be considered. A better way to measure cultural congruence than at the racial/ethnic match level, which was done in this study, may be to gather parent reported data on the discipline style their child best responds to and compare it to what the teacher reports their discipline style is.

This study did not yield statistically significant results consistent with the study hypothesis, however, there are nonetheless important implications. First, researchers had a tough time finding school administrators in high poverty, high minority schools willing to share their ODR data. Anecdotally, this recruitment challenge seemed to relate to district and administrator concerns about "being exposed" for or criticized about their levels of ODRs. The fact that so many target schools were apprehensive about engaging in this research makes it difficult to

imagine how the disproportional use of exclusionary discipline can be readily addressed.

Second, the school that did agree to participate in this study was attempting to move towards more restorative approaches to school discipline and therefore had an interest in understanding other potential variables that could be intervened with. More specifically, the participating school was interested in learning about variables that might relate to teacher buy-in in issuing fewer exclusionary discipline referrals, especially for subjective infractions (e.g., willful disobedience). In considering those eligible schools that declined and the one school that agreed to participate, it seems clear that there may have been a selection bias (Vetter, 2017). Selection bias causes a misrepresentation of the study findings. Thus, it is unclear whether statistically significant results consistent with the study hypothesis would have been found with a less bias sample.

It is notable that teachers who had a racial/ethnic match with their students tended to issue exclusionary discipline at a lower rate than teachers who did not match, and this was true for all methods used to capture teachers' delivery of exclusionary discipline in the classroom. This trend has important practice implications; we know that in comparison to the number of students of color in the United States (U.S.), there is a lack of a racially and ethnically diverse teaching workforce. Nationally, about 83 percent of teachers identify as White, while only 17 percent identify as another race/ethnicity (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). In comparison, 45 percent of students in K-12 schools across the U.S. are from racial/ethnic minority backgrounds (National Center for Education, 2019). As stated previously, having teachers of color in the classroom has been shown to have affective and educational benefit, particularly to students of color. Findings in this study have also demonstrated that the use of exclusionary discipline is less in classrooms with teachers of color. However, there needs to be more

consideration than merely getting a more racially and ethnically diverse teaching workforce. More research into understanding why racial/ethnic match may matter is needed to find appropriate interventions to reduce the use of this form of discipline. Because previous research suggests that teachers' who have a racial/ethnic match with their students may be more culturally congruent, this study investigated parenting as a potential cultural variable to explain the differential use of exclusionary discipline. However, it may also be worth exploring other cultural variables as a potential explanation for the differences found in the use of exclusionary discipline.

On the day study measures were administered to teachers, many teachers asked the researchers whether they should report the "real" number of times students are removed from the classroom (i.e., sent to a colleague's room) or what is officially reported (i.e., ODRs in the school record). Many studies on exclusionary discipline, including this study, use data from office referrals as the primary outcome variable. However, this is highly problematic; data collected as part of this study suggest that ODRs from school records may not be accurate or reliable. Teachers in this study were reliable with their reporting, but they were not consistent with the school records. Nonetheless, ODRs are repeatedly used to capture exclusionary discipline in research. If ODRs continue to be used to capture this phenomenon, it will be essential to create a systemic process where assurance is more reliable. At the very least, research should use multiple ways of capturing exclusionary discipline to have more confidence in findings.

## **CONCLUSION**

Although the results of this study were inconsistent with the study hypotheses, the trends revealed add to the established research literature on exclusionary discipline practices. The barriers presented by schools unwilling to allow access to exclusionary discipline data and practices limit the ability to find teacher variables that can be intervened with. Additionally, consideration should be given to how the removal of students from the classroom is captured when conducting research on exclusionary discipline; as demonstrated by this study, teacher self-report of exclusion from class is not necessarily consistent with recorded ODRs. The results in this study should be interpreted with caution; however, and more research is needed on teacher variables resulting in the use of exclusionary discipline. This study is an important step forward in finding potential factors contributing to the use of exclusionary discipline that may be intervened with.

## APPENDIX A. DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Are you currently an in-service teacher working in an urbanized area (defined as a territory/region of 50,000 people or more)?

☐ Yes

☐ No (We thank you for your time spent taking this survey, there is no need to continue)

2. First Name

---

3. Last Name

---

4. What is your Age?

---

5. What is the name of the school you are currently teacher at?

---

6. What grade(s) do you teach? If you teach more than one grade, please select the grade you have the greatest proportion or number of students in (**Select one**).

- ☐ Kindergarten
- ☐ 1<sup>st</sup>
- ☐ 2<sup>nd</sup>
- ☐ 3<sup>rd</sup>
- ☐ 4<sup>th</sup>
- ☐ 5<sup>th</sup>
- ☐ 6<sup>th</sup>
- ☐ 7<sup>th</sup>
- ☐ 8<sup>th</sup>
- ☐ 9<sup>th</sup>
- ☐ 10<sup>th</sup>
- ☐ 11<sup>th</sup>
- ☐ 12<sup>th</sup>



7. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

---

8. Please indicate your gender

☐ Male

☐ Female

☐ Gender diverse/Genderqueer/Gender non-conforming

☐ Other/Decline to respond (please comment)

---

9. What is your race/ethnicity? (select one)

☐ White

☐ Black or African American

☐ Asian or Asian American

☐ American Indian or Alaska Native

☐ Latino(a) or Hispanic

☐ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

☐ Multi-racial/ethnic; feel free to specify

---

☐ Different identity; feel free to specify

---

10. Are you a parent/legal guardian/caregiver of a child (or children) who live with you for 50% or more of the time?

☐ Yes

☐ No

**If you responded yes to the question above**, please answer questions 10a-10f. **If you responded no**, please skip the following questions 10a-10f:

10a. How many children under the age of 18 live in your household?

---

10b. How many of these children are in preschool or are preschool-aged (Pre-K)?

---

10c. How many of these children are in lower elementary (K-3)?

---

10d. How many of these children are in upper elementary (4-5)?

---

10e. How many of these children are in middle school (6-8)?

---

10f. How many of these children are in high school (9-12)?

---

11. What is the highest level of education you have completed? If currently enrolled, highest level achieved/received. (select one)

- ☐ High School/GED
- ☐ Some college but no degree
- ☐ Associate's degree
- ☐ Bachelor's degree (e.g. B.A./B.S)
- ☐ Master's/ Specialist
- ☐ Doctorate/ Professional degree (e.g. Ph.D, J.D.)

12. What is your total household income?

- ☐ Less than \$25,000
- ☐ \$25,000 to \$34,999
- ☐ \$35,000 to \$49,999
- ☐ \$50,000 to \$74,999
- ☐ \$75,000 to \$99,999
- ☐ \$100,000 to \$149,999
- ☐ \$150,000 or more

13. Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in our society. At the top of the ladder are the people who are best off, those who have the most money, most education, and best jobs. At the bottom are the people who are the worst off, those who have the least money, least education, and worst jobs or no job. Select the number on the rung that best represents where you think you stand on the ladder.



☐ 1

☐ 2

☐ 3

☐ 4

☐ 5

☐ 6

☐ 7

☐ 8

☐ 9

☐ 10

14. Which region of the country do you live in?

- ☐ Midwest - IA, IL, IN, KS, MI, MN, MO, ND, NE, OH, SD, WI
- ☐ Northeast - CT, DC, DE, MA, MD, ME, NH, NJ, NY, PA, RI, VT
- ☐ Southeast - AL, AR, FL, GA, KY, LA, MS, NC, SC, TN, VA, WV
- ☐ Southwest - AZ, NM, OK, TX
- ☐ West - AK, CA, CO, HI, ID, MT, NV, OR, UT, WA, WY

15. What kind of area do you currently live (or reside) in?

- ☐ Urbanized Area (territory/region of 50,000 people or more)
- ☐ Urban Cluster (territory/region of at least 2,500 and less than 50,000 people)
- ☐ Rural (population, housing, and territory/region not included within an urbanized area or cluster; not densely populated)
- ☐ Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

16. How much training in classroom behavior management have you received (college coursework, professional training, or coaching)?

- ☐ 0 hours (no coursework, professional training, or coaching)
- ☐ 1-9 hours (e.g., a professional training and/or some coaching)
- ☐ 10-19 hours (e.g., some college course work and professional training/coaching *or* a couple of professional trainings)
- ☐ 20+ hours (e.g., a dedicated college course, multiple professional trainings)

17. What is the percentage of students eligible for free or reduced lunch at your school?

---

18. How many students are in your classroom (If you have more than one classroom, provide the average)?

---

19. What is the percentage of male students in your classroom (If you have more than one classroom, provide the average)?

---

20. The majority (>50%) of the students in your class are from which racial/ethnic background?

- ☐ White
- ☐ Black or African American
- ☐ Asian or Asian American
- ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native
- ☐ Latino(a) or Hispanic
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- ☐ Multi-racial/ethnic (no racial/ethnic group is in the majority; i.e. >50% of the class)
- ☐ Different identity; feel free to specify

---

21. In your estimation, what percentage of your class is from the racial/ethnic background you selected above? If you selected multi-racial/ethnic, do not supply a percentage, instead write in N/A as no single group reflects the majority.

---

22. What percentage of your students have a disability (one documented or recognized by the school; i.e., DSM diagnosis, a 504 plan, an IEP, and/or receive special education services)?

---

23. During a typical week at your school, how many times on average do you have to send a student out of your classroom or refer a student to the office (make an office discipline referral) because of his/her behavior?

*Note.* Each student that must be sent out of the classroom or have an office referral made represents a single event.

---

24. How many times have you had to send a student out of your classroom or refer a student to the office because of his/her behavior in the past month?

*Note.* Each time a student must be sent out of the classroom or have an office referral made represents a single event.

---

## APPENDIX B. PARENTING STYLES AND DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE (PSDQ)

### *How Teachers Were Parented*

The following survey is widely used to understand individuals' experiences of home discipline practices and might be helpful for us to understand if your experiences with home discipline are useful or informative for your experiences of discipline in the school. Below are several common parenting behaviors.

Please rate how often YOUR parent(s)/guardian(s) exhibited this behavior with you while growing up. **This information is confidential.** Thus, only non-identifiable summary information across groups of teachers is used for this project.

Please rate how often YOUR parent(s)/guardian(s) exhibited this behavior with you while growing up

	Never	Once in a While	About Half of the Time	Very Often	Always
My parents/guardians were responsive to my feelings and needs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My parents/guardians used physical punishment as a way of disciplining me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My parents/guardians took my desires into account before asking me to do something.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I asked why I had to conform, my parents/guardians stated: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



# APPENDIX C. MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY: EDUCATORS SURVEY

## MBI-Educators Survey

How often:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day

How Often 0-6	Statements:
1. _____	I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. _____	I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. _____	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. _____	I can easily understand how my students feel about things.
5. _____	I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects.
6. _____	Working with people all day is really a strain for me.
7. _____	I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.
8. _____	I feel burned out from my work.
9. _____	I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.
10. _____	I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.
11. _____	I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.
12. _____	I feel very energetic.
13. _____	I feel frustrated by my job.
14. _____	I feel I'm working too hard on my job.
15. _____	I don't really care what happens to some students.
16. _____	Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.
17. _____	I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.
18. _____	I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students.
19. _____	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.
20. _____	I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.
21. _____	In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.
22. _____	I feel students blame me for some of their problems.

(Administrative use only)

EE: \_\_\_\_\_ cat: \_\_\_\_\_ DP: \_\_\_\_\_ cat: \_\_\_\_\_ PA: \_\_\_\_\_ cat: \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX D. TEACHERS' SENSE OF EFFICACY SCALE: SHORT FORM

**Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale<sup>1</sup> (short form)**

Teacher Beliefs		How much can you do?										
<p style="font-size: small;">Directions: This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.</p>		Nothing	Very Little	Some Influence	Quite A Bit	A Great Deal						
1.	How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
2.	How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
3.	How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
4.	How much can you do to help your students value learning?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
5.	To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
6.	How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
7.	How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
8.	How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
9.	How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
10.	To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
11.	How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		
12.	How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)		

## APPENDIX E. IRB APPROVAL

### ACTION ON EXEMPTION APPROVAL REQUEST



TO: Jennifer Vasquez  
Psychology

FROM: Dennis Landin  
Chair, Institutional Review Board

DATE: March 13, 2019

RE: IRB# E11546

Institutional Review Board  
Dr. Dennis Landin, Chair  
130 David Boyd Hall  
Baton Rouge, LA 70803  
P: 225.578.8892  
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[irb@lsu.edu](mailto:irb@lsu.edu)  
[lsu.edu/research](http://lsu.edu/research)

TITLE: Teacher and Classroom Variables Contributing to School Disciplinary Practices

New Protocol/Modification/Continuation: New Protocol

Review Date: 3/11/2019

Approved X Disapproved \_\_\_\_\_

Approval Date: 3/13/2019 Approval Expiration Date: 3/12/2022

Exemption Category/Paragraph: 2c

Signed Consent Waived?: Yes for online; No for in person

Re-review frequency: (three years unless otherwise stated)

LSU Proposal Number (if applicable):

By: Dennis Landin, Chairman 

#### PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING –

Continuing approval is **CONDITIONAL** on:

1. Adherence to the approved protocol, familiarity with, and adherence to the ethical standards of the Belmont Report, and LSU's Assurance of Compliance with DHHS regulations for the protection of human subjects\*
2. Prior approval of a change in protocol, including revision of the consent documents or an increase in the number of subjects over that approved.
3. Obtaining renewed approval (or submittal of a termination report), prior to the approval expiration date, upon request by the IRB office (irrespective of when the project actually begins); notification of project termination.
4. Retention of documentation of informed consent and study records for at least 3 years after the study ends.
5. Continuing attention to the physical and psychological well-being and informed consent of the individual participants, including notification of new information that might affect consent.
6. A prompt report to the IRB of any adverse event affecting a participant potentially arising from the study.
7. Notification of the IRB of a serious compliance failure.
8. **SPECIAL NOTE: When emailing more than one recipient, make sure you use bcc. Approvals will automatically be closed by the IRB on the expiration date unless the PI requests a continuation.**

\* All investigators and support staff have access to copies of the Belmont Report, LSU's Assurance with DHHS, DHHS (45 CFR 46) and FDA regulations governing use of human subjects, and other relevant documents in print in this office or on our World Wide Web site at <http://www.lsu.edu/irb>

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## **VITA**

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