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North Carolina's alternative programs for disruptive youth: Analysis and recommendations

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NORTH CAROLINA'S ALTERNATIVE PROGRAMS FOR DISRUPTIVE YOUTH: ANALYSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

by

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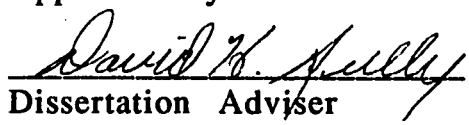

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This study examined the existing alternative programs for disruptive youth in the public schools in North Carolina.

The study was based upon information gathered from the literature on alternative education for disruptive youth and examination of data on identified programs in District 6 gathered through the use of a mailed questionnaire and supplemented by personal telephone calls.

The issue of disruptive students has effected every school system in North Carolina to some extent. Disruptive students can cause a fiscal loss in terms of special programs, repairs, and loss of instructional time.

Students in middle school through high school have been served on a full or part time basis by alternative education programs in all of North Carolina's District 6 schools. In-school suspension presently appears to be the most common program used by the systems studied although the data indicated it was not effective. There was a narrow spectrum of alternative programs in existence in District 6.

North Carolina needs to develop a system of diagnostic and support services to deal with disruptive youth. Individual learning programs need to be based on accurate diagnosis. A variety of positive alternative programs need to be developed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Discipline in the classroom is one of the most critical problems American public education has faced. The public perceives a growing lack of discipline in schools as one of the primary factors contributing to public education's loss of credibility (Falk, 1964, p. 49). Although problems related to discipline in the schools have received widespread attention at the national, state, and local levels, many citizens are not knowledgeable about the nature, extent, and severity of the problem and school efforts to deal with disruptive behavior (McPharland, 1975, p.11).

In the past, school discipline was maintained by teachers; the mere mention of being sent to the principal's office was enough to restrain most students (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1977, p.14). Although contemporary teacher training has placed additional emphasis on ways to maintain discipline in the classroom, little training in dealing with violent and disruptive behavior has been provided to teachers and administrators. As a result, teachers have tended to deal with such problems by ejecting disruptive students from the classrooms and referring them to administrators. Administrators, in turn, have on occasion called upon law enforcement personnel, who generally lack training in dealing

with student disruption and violence (Kingston, 1977, p.82).

Contrary to popular belief, violence and disruptions in the schools are not limited to urban or inner city settings; and children from low income homes are not the exclusive offenders. Violence and disruption cut across class, race, and community differences (National Committee for Citizens in Education, 1975).

There is disagreement about the causes of and the long term solutions to school violence and disruption. However, all affected parties agree that schools are experiencing inadequate funding. There is an estimated annual loss of more than $600,000,000 resulting from disruption and violence in public schools. This figure represents approximately $13.00 per child enrolled in public school which is not available for constructive efforts (National Committee for Citizens in Education, 1975, pp.6-7).

Traditional patterns of schooling have not provided adequate answers to the crisis in discipline faced by American public schools. A nationwide growth of alternative school programs for disruptive students had already begun as a result of the discipline crisis, when, in 1975, the United States Supreme Court decision in Goss v. Lopez struck a blow to the concept of in loco parentis. In Goss, the court held that, "When a state provides education for its children, that education cannot be taken away for disciplinary reasons, even temporarily, without due process of the law" (Children's Defense Fund, 1975, p. 84). It is almost a truism to say that excluding a student from school has been the most common public response to disruptive behavior. Such exclusion has, by no means, been limited

to short term suspensions of high school students; it has often taken the form of expulsion from school (i.e., long term, often permanent, exclusion). Even elementary school children have sometimes been involved. Goss v. Lopez encouraged many schools to re-evaluate policies and practices related to suspension of students from school and stimulated greater efforts toward developing educational alternatives to exclusion which might help to treat underlying problems.

Recently developed alternative programs have directed attention toward a specific population, those alienated from the schools. These pupils were prone to suspension or expulsion from school. School had become an unhappy place where they experienced frustration and inadequacy. Negative self concepts had grown to the point that these pupils often became behavior problems or withdrawn into themselves. Either response pattern resulted in pupils psychologically dropping out of school, thereby continuing and accelerating underachievement, absenteeism and failure. Failure to cope effectively in interactions in school eventually resulted in referral for misbehavior, suspension from school, and even expulsion for some particular action (Kentucky Legislative Research Commission, 1975, p.6).

The origin of such alienation has appeared to be related to particular behavioral characteristics common to this portion of the student population. Pupils prone to suspension or expulsion from school have tended to possess one or more of the following characteristics:

1. Academic skill development is below ability.
2. Motivation, drive, and direction are lacking.
3. A poor self-image exists.
4. A stressful family situation has had detrimental effects on the pupil.
5. Hostility is expressed towards authority and adults.
6. Absenteeism and tardiness are frequent.
7. Economic needs are creating anxieties.
8. Involvement in supervised school and community activities is limited.
9. A pattern of behavioral problems is established.
10. Goals are seldom long range, planned goals.
11. Difficulty is experienced with community agencies and the law.
12. Inability to cope with or to function properly within traditional school settings is apparent.
13. Personally satisfying experiences with other students or teachers are frequently missing. (Kentucky Legislative Research Commission, 1975, pp.6-7).

Significance/Purpose of the Study

The following considerations provide a rationale for the study of alternative school programs. Although educators in America have been experiencing increased pressure to educate every child and to do it longer and better than ever before in the nation's history, the crime rate for youth has continued to rise disturbingly. Juvenile delinquency has thrived in areas where youth unemployment is

high. School response to these disruptive conditions usually has been suspension or expulsion of the students involved. The pupil labeled "suspended" or "expelled" as the result of such action has been handicapped in securing or holding future employment, because after the suspension or expulsion has become record, the label has extended beyond the educational realm. Lack of supervision or responsibilities during suspensions have not encouraged growth in positive behavior or productive learning (Kentucky Legislative Research Commission, 1975). Alternatives to this nonproductive educational treatment are clearly required and, indeed, have been mandated by some state legislatures. The Florida statutes indicate:

> The Legislature finds and declares that the maintenance of a healthy learning environment is essential to the educational process and the general welfare of the school population. The Legislature further finds that traditional school programs which do not meet certain students' individual needs and interests may encourage these students to become disruptive or disinterested in school. Therefore, it is the intent of this act that educational alternative programs be established throughout the state, which programs will assist students in preparing for their roles in the community; reduce the incidence of disruptive behavior and truancy in the public schools; reduce the number of students referred to special services or agencies; and, generally, offer alternatives to conventional education which will meet the needs and interests of these students now poorly served by the public school system. It is further the intent of the Legislature that

such alternatives be positive rather than punitive and emphasize each student's abilities in order to ensure the full realization of the potential of such student (Official Florida Statutes 1978, Chapters 1-380, pp.213-214).

Financial and economic considerations of the suspended or expelled student have also contributed to the rationale for the study of alternative school programs resulting from students being suspended or expelled. Absenteeism and truancy have been factors frequently listed as causes of student suspensions or expulsions, as well as contributing factors in juvenile crime. Schools have been hard pressed to obtain adequate funding; loss of funds from lowered attendance figures resulting from absenteeism and expulsion have added to these economic pressures. An additional financial consideration has been the cost of vandalism, delinquency, and crime. Preventive programs have traditionally been more productive and economical than crime detection, incarceration, and rehabilitation programs (Neill, 1975, p.32). Considering these issues, there is ample rationale for a study to identify preventive and remedial programs for youth whose alienation from school has resulted in suspension and/or expulsion.

Research Questions

In order to address the purpose of this study the following research questions will be investigated.

1. Has local legislation been enacted to establish alternative programs for disruptive youth?
2. What state and/or local funding has been made available for

operation of these alternative programs?

3. What special training, state and/or local, is required or provided for those responsible for the daily operation of the alternative program?
4. To what extent is use being made of the existing exceptional childrens programs in the design, implementation, and evaluation of programs for disruptive youth?
5. What are the legislative or school system defined characteristics of these disruptive youth?
6. What support or follow-up is provided for youth who are transferred from or phased out of the alternative program back to the regular school environment?
7. What program types are rated most effective in achieving program goals?

Definition of Terms

Alternative Education: A widely held definition, that of the National Alternative Schools programs at the University of Massachusetts in Amherst, stated that an alternative school is "an educational program which provided learning experiences not available in the conventional school, and which is available by choice at no extra cost to every family within the community" (National Education Association, 1974, p.2). At a different position on the philosophical continuum, many school districts have defined alternative education as a system of administrative options primarily intended to help improve school discipline. A few educators have restricted their interpretation even more severely, equating

alternative education solely with in-school suspension programs. For these districts and individuals, student-parent choice has not been a crucial factor, and entry requirements have typically been based on teacher and staff referral (Fantini, 1973, p.17).

Disorders: Disorders are noncriminal acts committed by individuals in violation of school rules. Such offenses often result in the classroom teacher or school administrator taking some form of action (reprimand, detention hall, or suspension), short of calling the police. The action taken is usually carried out entirely under the authority of the school itself (Rubel, 1977).

Disruption: Disruption, unlike disorder or crime, is defined exclusively as a group event. With or without outside influence, disruption is specifically characterized as an activity designed to accomplish a planned goal or establish a point of contention (Erickson, 1969, p. 10). To be considered a disruption, these goals or contentions must be judged "significantly to interrupt the education of other students" (Bailey, 1971, p.2).

Misbehavior: Misbehavior refers to any act judged unacceptable by the school administration. Such acts may range from talking out of turn in the classroom to riots and murder. The general term misbehavior can be separated into three specific types: disorders, disruptions, and crimes. Misbehavior may or may not involve violence. Truancy is an example of nonviolent misbehavior; assault represents violent misbehavior. Finally, misbehavior is an act which may result in administrative action (Rubel, 1977).

Violence: Violence, either physical or mental, is implicit in the

three categories of misbehavior; that is, disorder, disruption, and crime. Violence in the disorder category may range from the relatively mild trauma of a student talking back to the teacher to the more serious trauma felt by an entire social studies class when a youngster destroys all the maps and is suspended (Rubel, 1977).

Chapter II consists of a review of literature on alternative education as it pertains to disruptive youth. The issue of disruptive students has affected every school system to some extent. This has resulted in losses of present fiscal resources in terms of special programs, repairs, security and lost instructional time. Chapter III contains a description of the study population, instrumentation used, procedures and data analysis. The data obtained in Chapter III is analyzed in Chapter IV. This chapter draws conclusions from the data relating to specific program needs. The final chapter summarizes the findings and makes specific recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This review will examine literature related to school discipline, school disorders, student disorders, student suspension and expulsion, juvenile delinquency, student disruption, and alternative programs.

Corporal Punishment

In the early years of American Education, the birch rod dominated the classroom (Falk, 1941, p.26). American colonists, coming from a land where flogging was a time honored means of punishment and perceiving man as evil, carried on the tradition. Not only were colonial children whipped by authoritarian schoolmasters; they were tormented from the pulpit by the threat of eternal damnation for their misbehavior. "This repressive attitude toward life," Falk wrote, "this insistence on conformity to a moral and ethical code based on purely religious sanction, was naturally reflected in colonial schools and in the discipline of the children" (Falk, 1941, p. 42). Through the later use of the McDuffy Eclectic Reader, school children were taught to respect the moral virtues of individual enterprise and to avoid the excess of self-indulgence (De Lesseps, 1976).

Whipping posts gradually disappeared, but the tradition of punishing children with the rod has remained throughout the 19th and well into the 20th century. The prevailing view has been that students were inferior and innately evil and should be obedient. Even Horace Mann, who crusaded against excessive corporal punishment during the 1830s, did not approve of abolishing it altogether. As late as 1899, Boston recorded 11,768 cases of physical punishment in boys' grammar schools whose enrollments totaled 16,198 pupils (De Lesseps, 1976, p. 590).

Social change in the early decades of the 20th century modified this authoritarian atmosphere. The teacher was still the "boss," but more emphasis was placed on cultivating student self discipline rather than on rigid conformity to rules of conduct. New guidelines on student discipline were expressed by the Progressive Education Movement, which supported the following view: "The conduct of the pupil should be governed by himself according to the social needs of his community, rather than by arbitrary laws. Full opportunity for initiative and self-expression should be provided" (De Lesseps, 1976, p. 591).

A rise in juvenile delinquency in the decade following World War II revived public support for corporal punishment. A study by James (1963) indicated that it was still a factor in the schools and reported that it was still practiced in areas even where regulations forbade it. James found a strong trend in public opinion away from the permissive and toward the authoritarian point of view in discipline of pupils in the public schools. This was due, he wrote, to

concern over the ever mounting unruliness and disorder in the schools.

A legal victory for corporal punishment came about 1975. The United States Supreme Court refused on October 20, 1975, to review -- and thus to let stand -- a lower court ruling that corporal punishment in the public schools was not a violation of the constitutional rights of parents. The three judge federal court had ruled that the student must be given a fair warning and that corporal punishment should be used only as a last resort. Nevertheless, the National Education Association (NEA), the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), and the American Psychological Association all opposed corporal punishment in the public schools. Few people consider it the answer to the discipline and crime problems of schools (McClung, 1975).

There has been consensus among those who have studied the issues that corporal punishment was neither necessary or effective (National Education Association Report of the Task Force on Corporal Punishment, 1972, p. 15). Even if corporal punishment were effective in modifying behavior, it is a form of violence which is antiethical to the educational process and to the human dignity of both student and educators. Piaget's research on the development of reasoning processes in children suggested that, before a certain point in development, children were unable to understand fully why they were being punished. Corporal punishment used on young children has resulted in defensiveness in the child, frustrating rather than facilitating education (McClung, 1975).

The Council of Representatives of the American Psychological Association voted to oppose the use of corporal punishment in schools, juvenile facilities, or child care institutions, stating: "The use of corporal punishment by adults having authority over children is likely to train the children to use physical violence to control behavior rather than rational persuasion, education, and intelligent forms of both positive and negative reinforcement" (McClung, 1975, p. 60). Put more simply, the National Education Association's Task Force on Corporal Punishment found: "Physical punishment teaches, in short, that might makes right: school authorities can hit a student because the student has hit someone" (Report of the Task Force on Corporal Punishment, 1972, p. 17). Far too many students have already been taught, either at school or elsewhere, that might makes right. The Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency reported approximately 70,000 serious physical assaults on teachers each year; literally hundreds of thousands of assaults on fellow students, including more than 100 students murdered in 1973 in only 757 school districts surveyed and confiscation of 250 weapons in one urban school district in a year (Bayh, 1975).

In 1985 the National PTA convention adopted a resolution opposing corporal punishment in schools. The Center for the Study of Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in the Schools, at Temple University, pointed to mush improved discipline, even with the most difficult student bodies, in schools that used positive methods of punishment (Ball, 1989, p. 16). It may be a most astounding revelation for some, but corporal punishment of students does not

work, does not in fact, achieve its stated goal of the establishment and preservation of discipline in the classroom to create an environment for learning (Keeshan, 1988, p. 8).

There are many research studies concerned with aspects of juvenile delinquency and with what schools should do to teach students more effectively. Research efforts of national or state scope focusing on disruptive youth in secondary schools, however, are not extensive, either because of the complexity of the variables involved or because of limited interest in a microscopic view of disruptive student behavior and alternatives to deal with the problem.

Student Pushout

In 1973, the Robert F. Kennedy Memorial and the Southern Regional Council published an extensive study on pushouts, students forced from the education system by its practices. This major study focused on the Southeast and pointed out the racial imbalance that has often characterized suspension and expulsion. Its findings showed that as desegregation became court mandated in the 1960s and integrated schools became more of a reality, de facto discrimination and classroom segregation persisted through the use of such techniques as ability tracking and disproportionate suspensions and expulsions of black students (Robert F. Kennedy Memorial, 1973).

Limitations in the Kennedy study, with respect to student misbehavior and alternative schools for disruptive youth, stemmed from a combination of regionalization and focus. Choosing the Southeast because of its extensive "pluralistic education" and

targeting only "victims of racial discrimination or arbitrary actions of school authorities," the Kennedy study examined at the school's response to a racial group, rather than at student misbehavior itself (Robert F. Kennedy Memorial, 1973, pp. 9-10).

Student Disruption

It is increasingly apparent that American secondary schools are experiencing disruptive behavior on the part of students, and educational personnel in secondary school settings have a need to know more about the phenomenon if they are to find effective ways to work with disruptive students.

Disruptive student behavior, as defined by Bailey (1970), is any event that significantly interrupts the education of students. Examples of disruptive behavior that Bailey cited were: student boycotts, walkouts, or strikes; property damage including arson and vandalism; rioting and fighting; physical confrontation between students and staff; picketing and unauthorized parading; presence on campus of unruly, unauthorized, and non-school persons.

Studies focusing on disruptive behavior are reasonably plentiful. From the earliest papers, that sounded almost as if the writers were musing aloud about the possibility that disruptions might become political at the high school level (Hagstrom, 1969) through definitive work on collective violence in schools (Vestermark, 1971), the most significant aspects of high school disruption have been studied.

The high frequency of disruptive student behavior in American secondary schools was supported by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, which as early as 1969 found that 59%

of the high schools and 56% of the junior high schools has experienced some form of protest. Westin (1969) reported that 348 high schools in 38 states had undergone some form of disruption between November 1968 and February 1969 and that, in addition, 239 schools had suffered serious episodes. The United States House Subcommittee on General Education (1969) also found that 18% of the schools responding to its survey had experienced serious protest. Major issues that resulted in protest activities were disciplinary rules, dress codes, school services and facilities, and curriculum policy.

Erickson (1969) introduced the concept that contemporary disruptive unrest represented student actions entirely different from mere violations of school disciplinary codes noted in the past. Current disruptions shared three characteristics that held them apart from simple violations of discipline: disruptions involved groups; the student activity undertaken was calculated to disrupt the functioning of the school; and the groups utilized techniques of collective protest (Erickson, 1969, p. 10).

One of the earliest studies actually designed to analyze the nature and scope of student activism and conflict was Havighurst's A Profile of the Large City High School (1970). Havighurst found that student activism resulting in conflict had the greatest likelihood of developing in schools where students generally were in low socioeconomic status and where most of the students were black. Student-to-student confrontation was highest in racially mixed schools and dropped off as the school enrollments were increasingly

either black or white. High status schools, either black or white, appeared to resort to calling for police assistance less frequently than other schools. Havighurst's study was notable because its analysis of the relationship between a school's racial mixture and the amount of student conflict was historically early.

Another study of school disruptions, (Bailey, 1971) gathered information on disruptions in 19 cities across the United States. The main findings from the Bailey study were:

1. School size was more important than city size; larger schools had more problems.
2. Disruption was positively related to integration. Schools that were all black or almost all white were less likely to be disrupted.
3. Integrated schools with high percentage of black staff were less likely to be disrupted than schools with low percentage of black staff.
4. Average daily attendance and disruptions were inversely related.
5. Principals with the least experience in the position reported greater black enrollments, endorsed more active responses to disruption in contrast to "riding it out", reported greater concern for positive prevention training programs, and were most hesitant to project the blame for disruption onto external nonschool factors (Bailey, 1971, pp. 10-12).

New York, the first city to experience many of the problems that later beset large urban areas throughout the country, was the first

community to prepare a district wide analysis of the safety within its public schools. Commissioned by the New York Board of Education, (1972) the study developed the following findings:

1. Flexible and relevant curriculum was crucial, since oversized and over crowded schools which offer irrelevant courses to disinterested students inevitably discouraged students.
2. More personalized school environments were desirable, and these were to be achieved through smaller school units and greater student involvement with all phases of decision making relating to issues affecting the quality of the school life of the youths themselves.
3. The involvement of the entire school, as well as the outside community, in the development and maintenance of a school safety program was essential.
4. To concentrate on the prevention of crisis, rather than always on responding to crisis, represented correct step toward solving problems rather than just covering them up (New York City Board of Education, 1972, pp. 2-4).

Disorders

Disorders were the least studied aspect of disruptive behavior, probably because they included a wide variety of offenses that were difficult to catalog. The following reports dealt with student disorders. Teacher Opinion on Pupil Behavior in 1955-56, conducted by the Research Division of the National Education Association, was an analysis undertaken because the misbehavior of children and youth appeared to be one of the most critical social problems;

newspaper accounts of juvenile gangsterism, stealing, armed assault, and even murder were seen with growing concern (National Education Association, 1956, p. 52). The findings of this study were extensive. Among the conclusions were:

1. Most public school teachers said that the situation in their school neighborhoods and communities was not nearly as bad as the impression presented by the mass media of communications.
2. Almost all teachers described their pupils as either exceptionally well behaved or reasonably well-behaved.
3. As classroom teachers became older and gained more experience, they tended to have less trouble with pupils; however, after having taught 25 to 30 years, the trouble of the typical classroom teacher began to increase once again (Rubel, 1977, pp. 60-61).

A research study by Hagstrom and Gardner (1969) focused on student disorders. It concentrated not on the pervasiveness of disorders but on the identification of the characteristics of eleventh grade youth most likely to "openly challenge the authority of the school" (Hagstrom and Gardner, 1969, p. 18). The findings were that more boys than girls exhibited this rebellious behavior. Further, findings indicated that boys showing this behavior were especially likely to be those who did not expect to attend college. Going one step further, this research found that boys and girls from high socioeconomic status families who did not expect to attend college were more likely to be rebellious than other students. It should be

noted that this study used a suburban Wisconsin student population in its research. Differences between the goals and objectives of urban and suburban youth populations made it difficult to generalize the findings to students in the major urban areas of the United States. For suburban schools with pupil behavior problems, however, the study can be quite useful. Such districts have used the information about the characteristics of disorderly pupils to assist in planning overall crime reduction programs.

Student Misbehavior

The National School Public Relations Association (NSPRA) produced several valuable reports on student misbehavior covering the years of 1969 to 1975. These reports were High School Student Unrest (Gudridge, 1969); Vandalism and Violence: Innovative Strategies Reduce Cost to Schools (Wells, 1971); Discipline Crisis in Schools: The Problem, Causes and Search for Solutions (Jones, 1973); and Violence and Vandalism: Current Trends in School Policies and Programs (Neill, 1975). These studies documented the crisis in discipline faced by the public schools in the United States.

The United States Congress also wrote several reports on the subject of student misbehavior. When riots in secondary schools became an issue, the House Subcommittee on General Education (Pucinski, 1970) conducted a survey regarding the nature and scope of the problem. The Senate, in 1970, conducted a survey of 155 urban school districts on the topic of school violence and disruptions between 1964 and 1968. In 1975, the Senate's Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency conducted a similar survey (Bayh, 1975).

Congress was concerned with raising public awareness of the nature and extent of changes in pupils in public schools.

The "Lou Harris Poll" in Life magazine (May, 1969) was the first public opinion survey focusing on misbehavior problems in schools. In the "Harris Polls," discipline referred to minor classroom misbehavior.

In early Gallup Polls, from 1969 through 1975, discipline still referred to minor classroom misbehaviors but shifted toward crime and violence by 1975. The Gallup Polls on Attitudes Toward Education from 1969 through 1980 have shown that discipline was the issue of greatest concern to the public. Only in 1971 did discipline fail to be ranked at the top of the Poll.

The Eleventh Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools (1979) reported the highest percentage yet recorded of parents of public school students who cited discipline as the number one problem in the schools. Disruptive behavior was a major aspect of this problem.

A number of studies by various researchers have touched upon the nature of discipline in the public schools. A study by Kings-Stoop and Meir (1978) listed fighting; lack of respect for selves, other students, and teachers; and destruction of school materials, and profanity among the 10 most critical discipline problems identified by teachers.

In a 1970 study by Driscoll, student teachers identified failure to follow directions, noise in the halls, whispering, talking in class, and chewing gum among the most frequent types of disruptive behavior.

Being under the influence of narcotics, stealing, starting fires, and bomb threats were also listed among the most serious offenses.

Feldhusen, Benning, and Thurston (1972) indicated that such behavior has a negative relationship to academic achievement. They found that boys prone to delinquency achieved less in mathematics than the non-deliquency prone boys. Delinquency prone youth ranked much lower in their graduating classes than their counterparts. Miller (1974) reported that the average juvenile delinquent had an intelligence quotient (I.Q.) of 95 and was 2 to 4 years below his potential by the time he had been in the public schools for 7 years.

An earlier investigation by Cummins (1964), studied the effective and cognitive characteristics of disruptive students and non-disruptive students. Effective characteristics did not differ in disruptive and non-disruptive students. He concluded that disruptive and non-disruptive students were essentially similar in their affective and cognitive characteristics.

Investigations of factors contributing to disruptive behavior included that of Kaga (1972). He pointed out in his study of adolescence behavior that 12 year olds were presented by Western society with local phenomena surrounding schools, drugs, sexuality, authority, and family generated uncertainty that the child had to resolve.

Redl (1975) reported that disruptive behavior resulted in suspension and expulsion which, in turn, created hostility and resulted in more disruptive behavior. However, he suggested that

only when a child and his environment were so badly matched that continuation would present the possibility of life-long scars should a child be removed from his learning environment.

The National Institute of Education (NIE) conducted a study in 1977 to determine the frequency and seriousness of crime in elementary and secondary schools in the United States. The study, Violent Schools--Safe Schools, was divided into three phases. In Phase I, principals of 4,000 randomly selected schools were asked, through a mail survey, to report the incidence of illegal or disruptive activities in their schools. In Phase II, field representatives conducted on-site surveys of a representative sample of 642 junior and senior high schools. Principals, teachers, and students were interviewed. A more intensive study of 10 schools which had been identified as having a history of crime and violence but had shown a dramatic improvement in a short time was conducted in Phase III. Some of the most important findings of the study were:

1. Risk of violence to teenagers was greater in school than elsewhere.
2. The larger the community, the greater was the proportion of schools having serious problems.
3. Higher levels of school crime were reported in secondary schools than in elementary schools.
4. The proportion of teachers attacked by students was smaller in rural areas than in large cities.
5. In secondary schools, personal violence and vandalism were more prevalent than in elementary schools; on the other

hand, the incidence of property offenses was about the same. Personal violence, however, was most pronounced in junior high.

6. The classroom was the safest place for students in school; high risk of violence existed during the between-class rushes in hallways and on stairs.
7. Taking all factors into consideration, there was no apparent relationship between a school's racial/ethnic composition and the risk of violence.
8. More violence and vandalism were experienced in larger schools and in schools with larger classes.
9. Student feelings of frustration erupted in violence if students did not feel that their courses were relevant and that they had some control over school events.
10. Students who were most likely to display violent behavior were those who gave up on school.
11. A key factor in reducing violence seemed to be a consistent system for running a school where students knew rules were firmly and fairly enforced.
12. A central conclusion was that the principal's role appeared to be a critical factor in that the principal's leadership and initiation of a structure of order seemed to differentiate safe schools from unsafe ones.
13. The principal's ability to initiate a structure of order in the school was equally important to his/her personal style of

leadership, especially as it related to fair, firm, and most of all, consistent action on his/her part.

Other studies have touched on the perception of discipline problems by school personnel. In a study of how students' misbehavior was perceived by teachers in the Michigan Public Schools, Teitelbaum (1970) reported that teachers perceived that the most serious and frequent disruption involved students' relationships with other students, followed by violation of school authority. Mendell (1968) reported on the differences in perceptions of disruptive behavior among secondary school teachers, counselors, and deans. He found that deans chose more severe punishment for disruptive students than did secondary teachers and counselors. The older the teacher, the more severe were the disciplinary measures taken against the student. Male educators chose harsher penalties than female educators. Both male and female educators chose more severe punishment for male students than for female students.

Some studies have dealt with ways to deal with the problem of disruptive behavior. Wodarski (1970) investigated the extent to which behavior modification techniques, based on Skinner's operant theory, were successful in helping to improve non-studying disruptive behaviors in ghetto schools. He found that the introduction of behavior modification techniques resulted in higher rates of studying behavior and lower rates of non-studying and disruptive behaviors.

Socio-economic Class and Disruption

In Coleman's famous 1966 study, Equality of Educational Opportunity, it was found that all schools were very similar in the way they affected achievement when the socio-economic background of the students was taken into consideration. He observed socio-economic factors had great importance in predicting academic achievement. Furthermore, he reported that the family economic level had the highest relationship to achievement for all minority groups. Minority students also were more affected by the quality of the school which they attended.

The average white student's achievement seems to be less affected by the strength or weakness of his school's facilities, curriculums, and teachers than is the average minority pupil's. To put it another way, the achievement of minority pupils depends more on the schools they attend than does the achievement of majority pupils (Coleman, 1966, p. 22).

Another study supportive of the belief that socio-economic factors played a part in disruptive behavior was done by Hindelang in 1971. He identified age and sex as variables in studying the versatility of delinquent behavior, i.e., whether children engaging in delinquent behavior tended to perform a wide variety of acts or whether they confined themselves to a very narrow range of disruptive acts. He found that females tended to engage in a wider variety of delinquent acts than males and that males tended to engage in street-gang related delinquencies with greater frequency than females.

McParland and McDill of the Center for Social Organization of Schools, John Hopkins University, pointed out that "a student's success and status in school have a unique relationship with the probability of serious offenses, over and above what is accounted for by family background and academic ability" (McParland and McDill, 1975, p. 10).

Lufler (1978) reported on the results of a two-year study conducted by the Center for Public Representation in Madison, Wisconsin. He reported that teachers felt that discipline problems were an extension of out-of-school problems. The study also found that most disruptive students came from single parent homes, from low socio-economic status homes, and from families that moved frequently. Data analysis revealed that disruptive students tended to receive lower grades and were less involved in school activities.

In the 1972 study Toward Equal Educational Opportunity, conducted by the United States Senate Select Committee on Equal Educational Opportunity, it was observed that economically advantaged children and children from deprived homes begin their education at different starting lines:

> A child's socio-economic status, his parents educational level and occupational status, the extent to which he and his family are the victim of racial discrimination and all the other elements of his home environment determine in large measure his performance in school and his success or failure in life (United States Senate, 1972, p. 5).

Pearl wrote in 1965 that:

> There appears to be a general consensus that low income youth, when contrasted with more affluent counterparts, are characterized by the following: a poorer self-image, a greater sense of powerlessness, a more fatalistic attitude toward life, a lack of future orientation, and a greater potential for impulsive "acting out" (Pearl, 1965, p. 89).

A study by Morgan (1955), comparing the social background of parents with their attitudes on matters of high school discipline, punishment methods, and positive concepts of discipline, indicated that there seemed to be few differences in attitudes by social background, except in the categories of occupation, family income, and education. The greatest number of differences occurred in the application of methods of punishment for specific offences. The least number of differences occurred in connection with the positive concepts of discipline. The variety of punishments endorsed seemed to increase directly with the amount of education and the amount of family income. Among occupational groups, business and professional parents were most tolerant toward today's youth and least inclined toward severe measures (Morgan, 1955, p. 756).

Sexton (1961) found that the failure rate among elementary school children whose families earned $3,000 or less per year was six times greater than the failure rate among those families earning $9,000 per year. This difference could not be attributed adequately to mere chance. Some students falling into the lowest income-level families manifested serious behavior problems--failing in elementary school studies and engaging in disruptive behavior--

although no problem children were found among the families in the highest income bracket.

Erickson (1973) considered the importance of socio-economic status in his carefully worded article, Group Violation, Socio-economic Status, and Official Delinquency. The author made a point of stressing that almost all delinquent acts involved lower class children and were predominantly a group event. The article, outlining the study conducted to test his hypothesis, showed that violations of the law by lower class boys were more frequent than violation by higher and middle class boys.

Erickson also suggested that there was evidence that lower socio-economic children tended to accrue more arrest and conviction records than their higher socio-economic status counterparts. Erickson found 11% greater proportional share of arrest for all offenses for low socio-economic status children as compared with 9% less than proportional share for middle-class status children. Higher socio-economic children accounted for less than 2% or arrests.

Self-concept and Disruption

Brookover, in a 1967 study, Self-concept of Ability and School Achievement III, Relationship of Self-concept to Achievement in High School, concluded that the influence of self-concept on achievement was possibly greater than the effects of mental ability. In previous studies in 1964 and 1965, he and others had found that a student's overall ability self-concept was positively related to his achievement in school.

Cook (1970) reported that black, low socio-economic, disadvantaged students had significantly lower self-concepts than those of their white counterparts. A study by Branch (1974) reported that disruptive students in middle schools had lower self-concepts than those of non-disruptive students in the same school environment.

Miller (1958), in an article about the etiology of delinquency, suggested that adolescent members of street corner groups in lower class communities committed delinquent acts in an attempt to adhere to the forms of behavior and standards of value of their community. He further stated that "many lower class individuals felt that their lives were subject to a set of forces over which they had relatively little control" (Miller, 1958, p. 11). Therefore, when they were faced with alternatives of accomplishing similar objectives, the non-law-abiding avenue offered greater and faster return for a smaller investment of energy.

The typical high school is no less hostile to the emerging number of gay students. Dominated by a teen culture of marked intolerance for differences and strong homophobia, school is a place where "fag" and "queer" are everyday insults, where many older teens are vocal in their willingness to use violence against anyone suspected of being gay (Stover, 1992, p. 30). This hostility leaves gay youths frightened and uncertain about their own worth. Their esteem plummets.

Disruption and Ethnicity

Walberg (1974) reported that blacks had higher rates of offenses such as driving without a license, skipping school, and beating and threatening others. He also observed that there was an ethnic bias in the recording and disposition of juvenile cases.

Studying group disorder in the public schools, Ritterband and Silberstein (1973) concluded that the presence of black teachers slightly inhibited the occurrences of non-political disorders. Williams and Gold (1972) noted that white girls were no more or less frequently or seriously delinquent than black girls. White boys were found to be no more or less frequently delinquent than black boys. These investigators supported previously observed differences in reporting, pointing out that whether a policeman chose to ignore or not to ignore delinquent behavior might be contingent on such factors as the juvenile's sex, race, and social status.

Yanofsky and Young (1992) found that the White Plains, New York has approached the disruption and ethnicity issue head on. In 1989 they began a program to balance the parents' unrestricted right to select schools for their children and the district's commitment to maintain a comparable racial/ethnic mix in all its schools. They discovered that parental choice would not inversely effect racial balance and that students going to a school of their choice reduced incidents of violence (Yanofsky and Young, 1992, p. 478-9).

Sex Differences in Disruptive Behavior

Touliatos and Lindholm (1976) indicated that being a female student in regular classes was a predictor of good behavior. Being a

male student in a high-social class home in regular classes was a predictor of not having personality disorders. In contrast, being in regular classes in the higher grades and coming from a lower socio-economic-status home was a predictor of disruptive behavior.

Howard (1978), in a study of factors related to school vandalism concluded that the middle school or junior high student was the age group within which most vandals were found. Vandalism appeared to be almost exclusively a male activity, and there was a high correlation between delinquent students and educational deficiency. Howard's study further indicated that many parents associated school discipline with the school principal.

Poorman, Donnerstein, and Donnerstein (1976) pointed out that males tended to engage in, as well as provoke, higher levels of aggressive behavior than females. Results of this study indicated that aggression between females was relatively stable over age. In contrast, aggression between males increased significantly with age. They suggested that this increase was the result of the kinds of behavior rewarded by peers and parents.

Willis and Reeves (1976) investigated the touch interactions between junior high school students and concluded that females were observed to use fist and other aggressive touches, something that had not been observed in an earlier study. They perceived the increased aggressive touch to be a reflection of the increased aggression among young females that had been reported in recent years. Incidence of disruptive behavior appeared to be influenced by changing social patterns.

Disruption and School Location and Size

Size and enrollment of schools have been associated with discipline problems, violence, and vandalism. Kingston and Gentry (1977) noted that students in larger schools found it difficult to identify with their schools and seldom participated in school activities. This condition was identified as a possible cause of disciplinary problems.

The 1974 Teacher Opinion Poll of the National Education Association (NEA) found that 5.4% of the sampled urban secondary school personnel reported that they had experienced on-the-job physical assaults, although only 2% of the rural and suburban personnel surveyed had had similar experiences.

Kelly, in a 1976 study, suggested that observed physical conflict between students would increase as relative school population density increased. He further stated:

> The presence of such...student populations and a variety of recent professional and public observations concerning school violence, absenteeism, and the decline of achievement standards suggests that some correspondence between these factors may indeed exist...The current literature indicates that student conflict and corollary suspensions are far more prevalent in large urban secondary schools than in suburban or rural schools...In its report on causes of student conflict in California's schools, the California State Department of Education cited school overcrowding as a major casual factor; in schools where overcrowding is severe, the students reported it

> was tiring to go to classes which are too large, to stand in lines to eat in the cafeteria or use the restrooms and to line up to get a locker. The attendant noise and fatigue provide a climate for unrest (Kelly, 1978, pp. 152 & 156).

Debuzna (1974) also reported that the rate of vandalism increased as the number of students enrolled in the school increased. Studies of the Teachers Task Force conducted in 1974 further supported findings of negative results of overcrowding. As school overcrowding increased, academic achievement decreased. Davis (1972) also concluded that students in medium to large schools (2,000-4,000) achieved lower grades than in small high schools (1,000-1,500).

Disruption and the School Principal

Much research has been conducted on leadership, as represented by the school administrators, and its effect on disruption. Goldman (1961) indicated that teachers in schools with high rates of vandalism described their principal as weak and casual; their counterparts in schools with lower rates of vandalism characterized the principal as strong and democratic. In integrated schools, the failure to diagnose problems with accuracy appeared to originate in the inability of school administrators to view themselves in a new perspective (Love, 1977). They could not understand why policies and teaching methodologies, effective in the past, no longer worked; and they refused to change because of an ideological barrier made up of such concepts of differences as:

1. differences in their minds that translate into deficits for minority students
2. holding of low expectations for the academic performance of minority children
3. using of inappropriate materials
4. poor interpersonal relationships between teachers and minority students
5. biased counseling practices of teachers and principals, as well as counselors
6. failure to relate to minority students as individuals
7. bias in the administration of discipline (Love, 1977, p. 48).

Love also cited evidence to look for in order to ascertain if the above patterns existed in a particular school. Illustrations of biased administration of discipline were:

1. to assume when there were behavior problems that minority students started it or knew something about it
2. to punish a student who is not involved in disruptive behavior for not telling all he knows
3. to ignore white student's misbehavior while disciplining minority students for any rule infraction
4. to use white cultural norms and values in the administration of discipline
5. to maintain a rate of suspension and expulsion for white students in contrast to a high rate for their minority counterparts, with a longer period of suspension for the latter

6. to demonstrate a higher rate of disciplinary action for minority pupils as a result of subjective decisions by teachers and administrators (Love, 1977, p. 49).

Shuttleworth and Evans (1974) stressed that "the principal must always keep foremost in his mind that he is the principal of all the students regardless of race, color, or creed" (p. 50). To illustrate what can happen if the principal failed to follow this principle, they pointed out that in one high school of about 2,000 students, 80% white and 20% black:

> Several white teachers sent far more black students than white students to the principal's office for disciplinary reasons. When the black students felt that the white principal was defending what they considered "racism" they began to polarize, using the slogan: "We's better start sticking together!" Polarization first among those blacks who had been sent to the office, and rapidly spread to include almost all other black students. No race riot broke out, but the hostility was strong and rumors of rioting lasted for weeks (Love, 1977, p. 50).

In implementing a group therapy program to help disruptive students, Webster (1974) stressed the importance of obtaining the support of the school principal for this type of intervention to be accepted by the school in general and to achieve its effectiveness and success.

The principals' role in the traditional school has primarily been enforcing the rules, regulations, mandates, procedures, and program guidelines imposed on the school. Such demands have left little time

or energy for leadership. In contrast, the principal of an alternative program is an educational leader who coordinates and facilitates the activities of the schools' collaborative decision-making bodies (Levin and Hopfenberg, 1991, p. 12).

Alternative Education

The growth of the alternative school movement during the late 1960's and early 1970's provided one approach dealing with disruptive students. Witnesses before the United States Senate Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency in 1975 recommended alternative public schools as a solution to violence and vandalism (Bayh, 1975). During the period between 1974 and 1981, the development of optional alternative schools emerged as a major trend in public education in the United States. Fantini has called it the "only major movement now occurring in public education" (Smith, 1976, p. 7).

Before 1969, there were fewer than 25 alternative public schools of all types in operation in the United States, and they were largely overlooked by the educational media. In 1977, there were over 5,000 optional public schools which deviated from the traditional pattern in operation in the United States and they enrolled between 1,000,000 and 2,000,000 students. Most large school systems have one or more alternative schools; many small systems have them, also (Smith, 1976, p.6).

Since the 1970 White House Conference on Children recommended "immediate massive funding for the development of alternative optional forms of public education" (Smith, 1976, p. 6),

more than a dozen other reports on education have recommended alternative public schools. The National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education urged: "Each district should provide a broad range of alternative schools and programs so that every student will have meaningful options available" (Smith, 1976, p. 6).

Owen Kiernan, Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, has written, "In a society as diverse and complex as ours, no institution can effectively serve all people...The fact that we continue to have almost one million high school dropouts each year gives credence to the fact that the standard offerings simply do not meet the needs of all students" (Changing Schools, 1976, No. 18, p. 8). The development of alternative school programs for disruptive youth represents a special type of school designed to deal with student discipline problems. It is, nevertheless, only one of many kinds of alternative schools developed to meet student needs in various areas.

Most educational organizations, school districts, and individuals adopted a definition of alternative education that conformed to their particular educational philosophy. One widely held definition is that of the National Alternative Schools Program at the University of Massachusetts in Amherst, which defined an alternative school as "an educational program which provides learning experiences not available in the conventional school, and which is available by choice at no extra cost to every family within the community" (National Education Association, 1974, p. 2). By including parent choice in its definition, this federally funded organization seemed to support the

concept of public education options based on voluntary participation. Disciplinary, referral-based programs would not be included under this definition, nor would programs that selectively admit specific categories of students.

Many educational associations and individuals have restricted their research of alternatives to those that conformed to this or a similar definition. Each of the alternative programs included in a 1978 Rand Corporation report to the National Institute of Education meet the following criteria:

1. It is a full-time educational program.
2. It is available to students on a voluntary basis.
3. It is in some way distinctive from the district's standard educational program (Bass, 1978, p.1).

Widely known advocates of public educational options, including Mario Fantini and Vernon Smith, and a number of the nation's larger school districts have adopted similar definitions. The California school districts--San Diego, Berkeley, and Los Angeles--and those of Cincinnati, Ohio; Minneapolis, Minnesota; Houston, Texas; Grand Rapids, Michigan; and Eugene, Oregon have developed extensive programs of options, some of which began in the early 1970s as federally funded projects. All of these school districts have formulated alternative program standards that included the element of choice. Most insisted on this feature and required it of all alternative programs developed within their jurisdiction (Florida Department of Education, 1980).

The following guidelines, included in the San Diego County, California, school system's definition of alternative education, exemplify this attitude:

> The key factor in determining whether a program is an alternative is whether or not there is a choice--for at least the student and parent, and often for the teacher. Sometimes the word option is used synonymously with choice. Unless the choice or option element is available, a program cannot truly be considered an alternative. (p. 23)

A school or program which is the most "progressive," most "open," and most innovative is not necessarily an alternative. The element of choice must prevail. Even though a school program is highly successful or highly innovative, it does not qualify as an alternative so long as students are forced into the program by reason of geography, transportation procedures, exterior testing programs, or professional judgement substituted for student and/or parent judgement. Adding classes to the regular day curriculum or immediately after school or prior to school in the morning can be considered an alternative program only when the student elects such classes or programs in lieu of other classes or programs heretofore offered (1977-78 National Directory of Public Alternative Schools, p. 189).

Cincinnati's extensive offering of programs illustrated one community's application of the concept. For the 1978 school year, the Cincinnati Board of Educations Alternative Program Manual outlined a system alternatives that included:

1. A school for the creative and performing arts (4-6)
2. A fundamental academy (K-8)
3. A math and science academy (4-6)
4. An academy for physical education (4-6)
5. A military academy (9-12)
6. Montessori schools (K-5)
7. Elementary college preparatory programs (4-6)
8. Multiage, nongraded magnet programs (K-6)
9. Bilingual programs (K-6)
10. A citywide learning community (9-12)
11. A junior high college readiness program (7-9)
12. An individual guided education program (K-6, 7-8)
13. An individual progress and social impact program (K-3)

(pp. 7-10)

At a different positions on the philosophical spectrum, many school districts have defined alternative education as a system of administrative options primarily intended to help school discipline. A few educators have restricted their interpretations even more narrowly, equating alternative education solely with in-school suspension programs. For these districts and individuals, student-parent choice was not a crucial factor; entry requirements were typically based on teacher or staff referral (Florida Department of Education, 1980).

In an effort to encompass a broader range of programs, some educational researchers and writers have defined an alternative simply as one that (1) extended beyond half a day and (2) varied

from the traditional program in some identifiable way. Obviously, this all embracing definition allowed almost any new program to qualify as an alternative. Yet, within this expansive framework, three basic types of alternatives--both voluntary and referral based--have emerged:

1. Short-term programs. These programs, whether implemented as classes of one hour a day or several hours for several days or weeks, were designed to return the student to the regular school setting as soon as possible. This category included in-school suspensions, time-out rooms, crisis intervention centers, counseling and peer group sessions, school survival programs, and classes offering academic assistance.

2. Open entry/exit programs. These programs were designed to assist students over a longer, undetermined period and may last several weeks, a school year, or even years. The intention, however, was to eventually return the student to the traditional classroom. Within this grouping were single in-school programs, schools-within-schools, Health and Rehabilitative Service programs, and some separate alternative schools.

3. Long-range or permanent programs. These typically provided students and their parents with options to the traditional curriculum or studies. Examples were learning centers or magnet schools; fundamental schools; multi-cultural and bilingual schools; store-front schools; schools-without-walls; interagency programs; and work experience, apprenticeship, or internship programs. Most were

voluntary, although a few might also be referral-based (Florida Department of Education, 1980, pp. 7-8).

Although the purposes, techniques, and curricula of these programs have varied, most provided smaller classes and offered a larger variety of learning situations than traditional programs. Many long-term and permanent programs also have made use of community resources, stressed experimental and individualized learning, used time more flexibly, and promoted effective as well as cognitive outcome. The purpose of these programs often included the development of positive social skills and the creation of a more personal learning atmosphere. For disruptive or disinterested youths, these alternatives provided programmed instruction in the basic skills, comprehensive counseling, and student activities designed to recognize individuality and encourage responsibility. At the same time, many programs sought to analyze negative behavior patterns and to heighten student awareness of the possible consequences of such behavior.

Freedom of choice offered school systems opportunities to develop an array of local programs. Within the legislative dictates, district educators might design and implement the types of programs and policies which they believed would most benefit participating students and their families in the local environment.

Characteristics of Successful Alternative Programs

During the past 15 years, educational research focusing on alternative education has been growing. Although researchers have not yet been able to assess the precise effects of every program

feature on student attitudes and learning, they have found evidence that suggested that certain approaches, techniques, and emphases--in combination--could help increase school attendance, improve attitudes and social relationships, and decrease violence and disruption (Hawkins and Wall, 1979).

Raywid (1988) developed a set of characteristics that are requisites of success for an alternative school. These are:

1. They must be small enough to permit personalization of the school experience.
2. An alternative must have broad aims, making its concern the full development of each youngster; character and intellect, personal and socila development, as well as academic achievement. It is concerned with the person, not just with the person's academic accomplishments.
3. An alternative school must provide its' teachers with enough freedom from standard rules and procedures to enable them to frame and carry out their own vision of schooling. This means that the school must be freer of external controls than are most, and that this power, thus shifted to the school, be diffused among classroom teachers rather than concentrated totally in the principal's office (Raywid, 1988, p. 27-8).

Small School Size and Low Student-adult Ratio

Small school size and low student-adult ratios have become key elements in successful alternative school programs. Reduced enrollment and limited class size encouraged students to form closer

ties with their peers and teachers. In turn, these relationships often allowed students to develop a better awareness of individual personalities, needs, problems, talents, and abilities. A highly personalized setting could also help students, teachers, and administrators to identify with the program and what it was trying to achieve. Emphasizing the importance of these two elements, researchers Arnove and Strout (1978) concluded:

> Small scale schools with low student-adult ratios provide minimal, necessary conditions for more intimate interactions between teachers and learners. They are more conducive to a sense of community, where individual needs can be recognized and administered to more immediately. The individual attention provided in such settings may also contribute to bolstering the self-image of students who are neglected in the larger, more impersonal, conventional school. In the alternative setting each student counts as a unique person (p.5).

Research indicated that there were decreased incidents of violence and vandalism in smaller schools. By offering more personal attention and opportunities to participate, these programs helped students reduce feelings of frustration and alienation and permitted them to feel more ownership in the alternative school.

Individualized Instruction

Individualized instruction appears to be another major factor in shifting student attitudes from negative to positive. Alternative programs have commonly recognized the need to tailor materials and

pace to meet students' needs and to provide personalized reward systems. Such individualized instruction started at the students' individual level and allowed them to progress at their own rates. In doing so, it sought to increase the proportion of successful learning experiences and to raise student's self-confidence. In some individualized programs, failing grades were eliminated and students were asked to demonstrate mastery of specific learning tasks before they advanced to more difficult material. These programs might also include both academic and behavioral progress. Although such methods would not guarantee student success, they were potentially effective in helping a larger percentage of students to progress (Florida Department of Education, 1980, pp. 11-12).

Techniques Designed to Improve Self-concept

Research has identified low self-esteem as a predominant characteristic of dropouts, delinquents, and disruptive students. By attempting to provide successful learning situations in a controlled yet personalized and basically nonpunitive atmosphere, most successful alternative programs have sought to reverse negative attitudes and tendencies toward self-derogation. Studies have found that certain effective activities could positively influence students' approaches to social interactions, help reduce absenteeism, decrease rates of violence and vandalism, and improve student's overall attitudes toward school and adults. Consequently, many alternative educators have strongly supported effective activities that improved self-image, encouraged self-control, and promoted more positive social and academic attitudes.

Among the educational elements that have alleviated the problem of low self-concept were those already mentioned, small school size, low student-adult ratio, and individualized instruction; as well as behavior modification activities, opportunities to participate in decision-making, career and vocational experiences, and the presence of teachers who were caring and involved (Florida Department of Education, 1980).

In a 1978 study, Arnove and Strout concluded that students often showed dramatic improvement in more than one effective area. Their Indiana University study of more than 50 alternative school evaluations led to the following conclusions:

1. The self-concept of alternative school students appears to improve, especially for students who have not done well in conventional schools.
2. Students tend to be happier in alternative schools and have better attitudes about school.
3. Students seem to have an increased sense of control over their own destinies, feel more secure, and have a stronger self-identity.
4. More positive attitudes tend to be demonstrated in higher attendance rates and less vandalism in schools.
   (Arnove and Strout, 1978, p. 16).

It appears, then, that improving self-concepts could lead to positive change in students' attitudes toward school and their social environment. Research suggests that alternative programs that encouraged and promoted self respect were likely to benefit from

increased student participation and the gradual diminution of anti-social behavior.

Other indentifiable program components appear to have positive, though varying, effects on pupil progress and program success. Briefly, these elements were:

1. Parent involvement in planning and evaluation.
2. A strong community mandate for the type of program implemented.
3. A positive district attitude toward innovation.
4. Adequate funding.
5. Activity-based vocational and career experiences.
6. A clearly defined program plan that includes simple, understandable statement of philosophy, goals, objectives, and operation.
7. Carefully developed teacher selection practices.
8. Close communication and coordination with other social agencies.
9. An emphasis on academics and improving cognitive skills.
10. Voluntary participation by teachers and students (Florida Department of Education, 1980, pp 17-18).

The In-school Suspension Program

Students are assigned to a classroom or other suitable area within a school for a period of 1 to 10 days. The program is typically supervised by one staff person who supports the intent of the program and carries out administrative instructions for its functioning. It is designed to keep in school students who would

otherwise have received out-of-school suspension for disciplinary infractions.

The Time-out Room

The time-out room is a separate classroom or other facility within the school building, staffed by a counselor or classroom teacher, and available to students who need to regain control of their behavior. It is designed to help emotionally upset or disruptive students in need of temporary isolation and counseling.

The School-within-a-School

A semiautonomous, nontraditional, or specialized program housed within a traditional school or in a separate facility with strong administrative ties to the parent school. Students usually attend the program for a portion of the day and return to the regular school setting for electives and special courses. This program, like the others described earlier, is aimed at poorly motivated students, low achievers, and students who are unable to adjust to traditional structure and teaching methods. It is often used to eliminate the pressures and impersonalization created by a larger school setting.

According to Blyth (1991) an important guideline to successful alternative programs is school size. Small is beautiful. In his testimony given before the U.S. House Committee on Education and Labor Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education Hearing on Adult Literacy and Dropout Prevention, Blyth felt one appraoch is to "break down monolithic giants" (p. 34). This envision of a school-within-a-school would offer basic skills remediation easily adapted to evenings, weekends, and summer

months including individualized, self paced, competency-based, and computer-assisted learning (Blyth, 1991, p. 33-5).

The Separate Alternative School

The separate alternative school is a self-contained educational facility that uses a nontraditional structure or strategies to promote learning and social adjustment. It is aimed at students unable to function within the normal school setting. These may include potential dropouts; students who are of average or above intelligence but who are deficient in basic skills; low achievers; and chronic non-attenders. It has been used to reduce or eliminate academic failure; to improve social, career, and academic skills; or to prepare students for return to the regular school environment.

Summary

In summary, the literature supported the following conclusions:

1. The public believes that disruptive behavior is a major aspect of the discipline problems in school.
2. Many disruptive students come from single parent homes, low socio-economic status homes, and from families that move frequently.
3. A student's overall ability self-concept is related to his achievement in school.
4. No important differences exist between black and white disruptive students.
5. Male students demonstrate more agressive behavior than female students because of societal expectations.

6. The size and enrollment of the school has been associated with discipline problems, violence, and vandalism.
7. Schools with weak principals have poor discipline; schools with strong principals have good discipline.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The Study Population

The population consisted of 16 school systems of District 6 in the public schools of North Carolina. District 6 is located in the southwest area of the state. The largest system in this district had a 1991 student population of 74,472 while the smallest system had only 2,879 students. This sample included 10 county systems and 5 city systems with a total 1991 student population of 200,402. The system structure varied. There was only one K-9 schools in the sample population. The remainder of the sample consisted of two 7-8 grade schools, five 7-12 grade schools, nine K-8 grade schools, eighteen 10-12 grade schools, twenty-eight 6-8 grade schools, twenty-nine 7-9 grade schools, and thirty-two 9-12 grade schools. Of these 123 schools only eight had not received Southern Association Accrediation. These eight included two 7-12 grade schools, three 6-8 grade schools, one 10-12 grade school, and two 9-12 grade school.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire (Appendix) was designed to answer the research questions used to obtain and establish a data base.

A field test of the questionnaire was conducted using 3 associate and assistant superintendents from District 8. District 8 is located in the farmost western region of the state. Recommendations for change, clarity, and improvement were sought. This resulted in clarification of instructions and restructuring of questions 4 and 7.

Design/Procedure

Each of the 16 superintendents of the systems in District 6 were contacted by phone. A description of the study was given and the type of information to be gathered discussed. Each superintendent was questioned as to the need of this study. Each agreed the information gathered would be beneficial. They were asked to support the study and identify the person on their staff that was best qualified to answer the questionnaire. This individual could be the exceptional childrens' director, the in-school suspension director at the high school, or even a teacher with some knowledge base on alternative programs. Each agreed for their system to participate.

Each of these identified individuals was mailed a letter of explanation stating the purpose of the study and the permission of their superintendent to participate along with the questionnaire concerning alternative programs. Nine systems responded to the initial questionnaire. A follow-up letter to the seven non-respondents was mailed at the end of the second week. This resulted in receipt of four questionnaires. A phone call at the end of the third week was placed to the three non-respondents. Clarity was given and the importance of their participation emphasized resulting in receipt of the final three questionnaires.

Data Analysis

The original design for data analysis consisted of the data relating to question 2 being presented in table form and described according to amounts appropriated from state and local sources.

Data relating to research question 3 will be presented in table form, describing any local requirements. Descriptions of any training requirements will be presented and described.

Data relating to question 4 will be presented in tabular form. Inferences will be drawn from the data covering all of the exceptional childrens programs in the design, implementation, and evaluation of programs for disruptive youth.

Research question 5 will be analyzed using ANOVA. It will examine if a statistically significant difference exists among participants in alternative programs in the following areas

sex
age x
race

type
of
program

Research question 5 will show if there is a relationship among age groups and types of programs. It will also show if certain race groups are sent to alternative programs more often than others.

Data relating to research question 6 will be presented in tabular form. Inferences will be drawn concerning design, implementation, and evaluation of programs for disruptive youth.

Data from research question 7 will be analyzed using ANOVA to test if various program types are rated more effective in achieving specific program outcomes.

Information from the questionnaires did not return as anticipated. Adaptations in reporting and analyzing the data had to be made.

The data relating to research questions 1 and 2 are presented and described according to existing programs and amounts appropriated from state and local sources.

Data relating to research question 3 will describe any local requirements. Descriptions of any training requirements will be presented and described.

Data relating to question 4 will present any in-service programs and a description of these programs.

Research question 5 will analyze data relating to the exceptional children programs in the design, implementation, and evaluation of programs for disruptive youth.

Research question 6 will analyze follow-up programs for re-entry to the regular school environment.

Research question 7 asks if a relationship exists among age groups and types of programs. It also asks if members of a certain race are sent to alternative programs more often than others. Data relating will be presented in tabular form.

Data from research question 8 will analyze if various program types are rated more effective in achieving specific program outcomes. Data relating to question 8 will be presented in tabular form.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

This study was designed to look at and evaluate the existing alternative programs in District 6. It was designed to answer the following questions.

1. Has local legislation been enacted to establish alternative programs for disruptive youth?
2. What state and/or local funding has been made available for operation of these alternative programs?
3. What special training, state and/or local, is required or provided for those responsible for the daily operation of the alternative program?
4. To what extent is use being made of the existing exceptional childrens programs in design, implementation, and evaluation of programs for disruptive youth?
5. What are the legislative or school system defined characteristics of these disruptive youth?
6. What support or follow-up is provided for youth who are transferred from or phased out of the alternative program back to the regular school environment?
7. What program types are rated most effective in achieving program goals?

Table 2 indicates that there is strong attitudes towards the need for a school-within-a-school. This type of alternative program was rated highest in its effect on reducing suspensions and increasing Full time equivalent students. A separate alternative school, according to the data, would reduce drop-outs and increase academic performance. In-school suspension, time out rooms, counseling, and out-of-school suspension were rated least effective.

In-school suspension is currently the most used alternative even though it is rated ineffective. Time out and time out rooms along with counseling are commonly used alternatives to correcting behavior, reducing suspensions, and improving academic performance. The data indicates these are not effective. The data points to the need for investigation into the financial and feasible incorporation of either separate alternative schools or schools within a school if the desired results are to be obtained.

Research question One sought to find out how many programs exist for disruptive youth and how long these programs had been in effect. Ten systems reported that they have had some type of program for over five years including in-school suspension and/or counseling. Four other systems have had a program in operation for five years or less. No system reported that a program had been developed in the past year nor that a program did not exist. No system reported discontinuation of an existing program.

Research question Two asked if legislation has been enacted to establish alternative programs for disruptive youth. All sixteen systems reported that no specific legislation had been enacted to deal

specifically with disruptive youth. In-school suspension was operative in all systems but was designed as a deterrent to absenteeism.

Research question Three sought to find out what funding had been made available for operation of alternative programs. Funding designed specifically for programs for disruptive youth did not exist in fifteen of the systems. One system, the largest, operated two separate alternative schools. Funds for these alternative schools were budgeted from state and local sources. No specific legislation had been passed to assist in the funding of these programs. Specific appropriations from state and local funds were not made available to the researcher.

Research question Four asked for descriptions of prerequisites and in-service training for teachers who worked in the programs for disruptive youth. Except for the largest system, there are no in-service training sessions for teachers who work in programs for disruptive youth. All systems required a North Carolina teachers certificate. The largest system required teachers in the separate alternative schools to not only hold a North Carolina teaching certificate, but also to participate in an extensive in-service program. There were no legislative requirements specific to training for teaching disruptive youth beyond the North Carolina teaching certificate.

Research question Five sought to find the extent the systems Exceptional Childrens Program was being used in the design, implementation and evaluation of the alternative programs. All

sixteen systems reported that the exceptional childrens program was not used in the design, implementation and evaluation of the programs for disruptive youth. As most of the systems offered only in-school suspension and limited counseling activities, they were separate and apart from the exceptional childrens program.

The largest system uses the expertise in the exceptional childrens program for consultation and in-service activities. Although the youth being served in the alternative programs were not identified "exceptional children," the knowledge base of these teachers needed to be tapped. The staff in the exceptional childrens programs were utilized for such in-service activities as cooperative learning, hands-on activities, compacting, and identifying learning styles.

Research question Six asked what support and follow-up were provided for youth who were transferred from or placed out of the alternative program back to the regular school environment. Students in all systems who had been assigned to in-school suspension, placed in time-out, or received counseling were given no type of specific follow-up before returning to the regular school environment. The largest system conducted a program for all students that included individual and group activities dealing specifically with re-entry to the regular school environment.

Research question Seven sought to find the distribution by age, sex, and ethnic classification of those students served by a program for disruptive youth. Table 1 shows the percent of students served by programs for disruptive youth. All systems used in-school

suspension and counseling as a method of dealing with disruptive youth. Only the largest system addressed disruptive youth as a problem requiring a separate school. Information on race and sex were not made available to the researcher.

Table 1

Percent of Students Served by a Program for Disruptive Youth

	Grades 7-8	Grades 9-12
In-School Suspension	3.9	24.7
Out-of-School-Suspension	1.6	3.4
Time Out	48.6	0.3
Counseling	39.0	23.0
Separate Alternative School	----	0.5

Research question Eight sought information on the effectiveness of certain programs for disruptive youth. The questionnaire respondents were asked to evaluate programs that serve disruptive youth based on his/her knowledge of existing programs and available literature. The programs were rated on a scale of "0" to "10". A rating of "0" indicated this program would have no effect, where a "10" indicated the most effective. The ratings of all respondents were tabulated and the mode presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Program Effectiveness

	reduce suspensions	reduce expulsions	reduce drop outs	increase FTE	increased academic performance
in-school suspension	-	0	1	3	1
separate alternative school	7	0	9	6	8
school within a school	9	0	6	7	5
time out room	1	0	1	5	4
counseling	2	0	3	2	2
out of school suspension	6	0	1	0	1

Table 2 indicates that a school within a school would be most effective in reducing suspensions, although a separate alternative school would also be somewhat effective. The table shows that no program was rated as having any effect on expulsions. The drop out rate would be most effected by a separate alternative school. Full time equivalent students would increase through the use of either a separate alternative school or a school within a school. Increased academic performance would be accomplished through the establishment of a separate alternative school.

Table 2 provides data evaluating certain program effectiveness. The data indicates no program has an effect on the number of students expelled. The data indicates that a school within a school and a separate alternative school would be most effective in reducing suspensions. The data also indicated the most effective program to

reduce drop outs would be a separate alternative school. The respondents indicated that any type of school within a school or separate alternative school would increase academic performance.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Alternative education has been specifically designed to meet the needs of students who are disruptive or unsuccessful in the normal school environment. These programs include special learning centers within the classroom, in-school suspension programs, and other alternatives to suspension or expulsion as directed by the school board within each individual system. This study has examined the available data with the goal of providing a descriptive study of the alternative programs in existence in North Carolina specifically in District 6.

This study examined available research and literature on the emergence of the alternative school. The development and status of alternative school programs for disruptive youth in Educational District 6 of North Carolina were studied. The study sought to answer the following questions:

1. Has local legislation been enacted to establish alternative programs for disruptive youth?
2. What state and/or local funding has been made available for operation of these alternative programs?

3. What special training, state and/or local, is required or provided for those responsible for the daily operation of the alternative program?
4. To what extent is use being made of the existing exceptional childrens programs in the design, implementation, and evaluation of programs for disruptive youth?
5. What are the legislative or system defined characteristics of these disruptive youth?
6. What support of follow-up is provided for youth who are transferred from or phased out of the alternative program back to the regular school environment?
7. What program types are rated most effective in achieving program goals?

The study was based upon information gathered from the literature on alternative education for disruptive youth and examination of data gathered through the use of mailed questionnaires.

Findings

1. Has local legislation been enacted to establish alternative programs for disruptive youth? All districts studied have developed some type of alternative education program whose goal is to change behavior of disruptive students so they can be returned to the regular classroom. All districts studied have an in-school suspension program.

2. What state and/or local funding has been made available for operations of these alternative programs? Funding was provided for the salary of the in-school suspension director from state allocations.

3. What special training, state/or local, is required or provided for those responsible for the daily operation of the alternative program? The only requirement for the in-school suspension director was a valid North Carolina teaching certificate in any area. It was found that often this position was filled by someone who could meet the coaching needs of the facility without any thought given to the type of children that would be rotating through the program. No special training was given to this individual.

4. To what extent is use being made of the existing exceptional childrens programs in the design, implementation, and evaluation of programs for disruptive youth? The largest system uses the expertise of the exceptional childrens program for consultation and in-service activities. The remaining systems in Educational District 6 of North Carolina are not utilizing this program.

5. What are the legislative or system defined characteristics of these disruptive youth? No data on specific characteristics is being kept or was not made available.

6. What support of follow-up is provided for youth who are transferred from or phased out of the alternative program back to the regular school environment? In-school suspension is the program offered in a majority of the schools. Students are given no rehabilitation and very little counseling.

7. What program types are rated most effective in achieving goals? A school-within-a-school rated highest as being most effective. Larger systems rated a separate alternative school as most effective.

Summary

The availability of intensive group and individual counseling, including vocational decision-making and preparation, the application of behavior modification approaches to increase desirable academic and social behavior, and small class sizes are all desirable. The ultimate objective of the alternative school program is to return the student to the regular program as soon as possible.

The problem of disruptive behavior appears most severe at the junior high level. Because of compulsory attendance requirements, many junior high school students do not want to be in school but are required to remain in the school environment. This factor, combined with the emotional turmoil which students are undergoing as a result of adolescence and the change from the small intimate environment characteristic of elementary schools, provides a reasonable rationale for the predominance of the problem at this level.

Administrators of alternative programs should be required to have training and experience as counselors, teachers, or administrators of alternative programs. However, teachers are not required to have any special training to teach in alternative programs. Teachers who express a desire to teach in the alternative program are considered for such placement; nevertheless, the system should employ only teachers with some experience or training in working with disruptive students. In-service training in working

with disruptive students is provided for those who are assigned to such programs. Disruptive students in regular classes should be identified by the classroom teacher and then referred to a screening committee which makes recommendations to the building principal regarding placement in alternative programs. The building principal would give final recommendation for placement.

Every child has his own best style of learning and students don't learn as well when that style is thwarted. Whatever the technique used to teach, or however the brain processes information, students learn best when their strengths are identified and their teachers and other adults build on those strengths. When you reinforce your students' strengths, rather than continually pointing out mistakes caused by their weaknesses, your give them confidence.

Expecting children to continually learn in ways that go against their natural inclinations can have serious consequences. This is especially true for at-risk students, who have little desire to deal with school at all. Some children, caught in a frustrating learning-style mismatch, escape through rebellion or illness; some through apathy or conformity. But such escape routes deny children access to their own potential.

How do we get to an alternative? There are certain characteristics which need to be recognized. An alternative school is one in which all affiliated, students and staff, are there by choice. It stands as an alternative to a regular school program. It is not a program one elects as a supplement to a regular program or a regular school day, not is it a training program one enters in lieu of

pursuing an education. It has its own distinctive mission which provides its special identity and sets it off from other schools. It is a separate administrative unit, either a separate school or a separate school-within-a-school or mini-school, with its own students and staff whose primary assignment is to the alternative.

There are also necessary conditions for success. Conditions must be small enough to permit personalization of the school experience. An alternative must have broad aims, making its concern the full development of each youngster, character and intellect, personal and social development, as well as academic development. It is concerned with the person, not just with the person's academic accomplishments. An alternative school must provide its teachers with enough freedom, rules and procedures to enable them to frame and carry out their own vision of schooling. This means that the school must be freer of external controls than are most schools, and that this power, thus shifted to the school, be diffused among classroom teachers rather than concentrated totally in the principal's office.

School and low class size are identified as key elements in successful alternative school programs. Reduced enrollment and limited class size encouraged students to form closer ties with their peers and their teachers. In turn, these relationships often encouraged students to develop a better awareness of individual personalities, needs, problems, talents, and abilities. A highly personalized setting also helped students, teachers, and administrators to identify with the program and its goal.

Method of instruction appeared to be another major factor in changing student attitudes toward schooling from negative to positive. Alternative programs commonly recognized the need to tailor material and pace of instruction to students' needs as well as to provide a personalized reward system. Individualized instruction started at the individual student's level and allowed the students to progress at their own rates. In doing so, it appeared to increase the proportion of successful learning experiences and to raise students' self-confidence. Some programs included learning contracts, token economics, or point systems that rewarded both academic and behavioral progress. Although such methods did not guarantee student success, they were potentially effective in helping a larger percentage of students to progress.

Research identifies low self-esteem as the dominant characteristic of dropouts, delinquents, and disruptive youth. By attempting to provide successful learning situations in a controlled, yet personalized and basically nonpunitive atmosphere, most successful alternative programs sought to reverse negative attitudes and tendencies toward self-derogation. The literature indicated that certain effective activities could positively influence students' approaches to social interactions, help reduce absenteeism, decrease rates of violence and vandalism, and improve students' overall attitudes toward school and adults. Consequently, many alternative educators have strongly supported effective activities that improved self-image, encouraged self-control, and promoted more positive social and academic attitudes.

Two of the most essential elements for successful alternative education programs were counseling and diagnostic services. Individual, group, and family counseling sessions, on a structured or unstructured bases, typically were designed to help students identify, analyze, and accept responsibility for their behavior. The use of peer group counseling seemed particularly effective in reducing violent conflicts among students and in promoting self-reliance and accountability for one's behavior. Informal peer group sessions have also been used to discuss issues and problems of importance to students and to provide opportunities for positive feedback and encouragement. The amount of time set aside for counseling and specific guidance approaches varies from program to program. Individual sessions might be formally scheduled or initiated on an impromptu basis by a student or counselor. Peer group sessions, while usually a formalized part of the school day or week, also evolved spontaneously from class activities or discussions. Many alternative program staffs view family contact and counseling as critical to a program's effectiveness.

A well developed system of diagnostic and support services was also important. In order to be effective, an individual learning program needed to be based on the accurate diagnosis of emotional and physical handicap. Most teachers and counselors tried to identify such impediments, along with health problems or skill deficiencies that could cause deviant or destructive behavior.

Teachers played a vital role in the development of viable alternative programs. Their commitment and ability to relate to

children, especially in programs designed primarily for disruptive or disinterested students, were essential to students and program success. Other frequently noted qualities were patience, determination, a high tolerance for problem behavior, flexibility, an interest in alternative instructional techniques, and a desire to help students work out matters that trouble them. The literature indicated that these human ingredients had more bearing on student attitudes and performance than any other educational component. Whatever a program's philosophical foundation might be, warm student-centered educators were essential to the positive, success-oriented atmosphere that most alternative programs tried to achieve.

A primary difference between alternative programs that succeeded and those that failed was the principal's leadership and flexibility. The person ultimately responsible for an alternative program must provide effective guidance without rigidity, remaining adaptable and pragmatic in an ever changing, essentially experimental environment. At the same time, this individual had to encourage the same flexibility in program staff and train others to assume leadership roles.

The administrator's management style did not appear to be as important as other leadership qualities, including personal commitment to program goals, fairness, consistency, and the ability to communicate. Although not precisely a leadership quality, administrative longevity was often an important, if not the pivotal, factor in program success. In most cases, a strong administrator who remained with the program from planning through implementation

was considered more likely to formulate and operationalize an effective, viable program than one who did not.

Recommendations

1. North Carolina's school districts should try to provide a variety of positive alternative programs to deal with disruptive students. In-school suspension presently appears to be the most common and in some cases, the only, program. In-school suspension programs for disruptive students need to be evaluated and modifications made. Many appear to be mere holding operations.
2. The Legislature should determine if there is a need to provide funds for more constructive and varied programs for disruptive students.
3. Administrators and teachers who work with disruptive students should receive specific preservice or inservice training in the operation and management of programs for disruptive students.
4. The expertise represented by the exceptional education departments of the school districts should be utilized. They should play a more active role in the screening and placement of students and the development and operation of alternative programs for disruptive students.
5. Students who are returned to the regular classroom after having been in an alternative program need more than just routine guidance services. A supportive follow up system should be developed.
6. All teacher education programs should include curriculum courses and clinical experience activities in an alternative education setting.

7. Criteria for evaluation of alternative education programs for disruptive students should be developed and validated.
8. Research on involvement of parents in the decision making aspects of the alternative program is needed.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study sought data on existing alternative programs and their effectiveness. From the data further research needs to be done in the following areas:

1. alternative programs that make a difference,
2. funding sources for alternative programs,
3. re-entry programs and their effectiveness,
4. characteristics of disruptive youth, and
5. the role of the exceptional childrens programs.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

District Level Survey of Alternative School Programs for Disruptive Youth

1. How long has your district had a program directed toward special help for disruptive students?

   ___ No program exists.
   ___ Developed in the past year.
   ___ Five years or less.
   ___ Over five years.

2. Has legislation been enacted to establish alternative programs for disruptive youth?

   ___ Yes. (Please attach copies of all legislation pertaining to alternative programs.)
   ___ No legislation has been enacted.

3. What funding has been made available for operation of these alternative programs?

   ___ State funding by legislation.
   ___ State funding no legislation.
   ___ Local funding.
   ___ No funding.
   ___ Other (Please specify) _____

4. Are there any prerequisites or in-service training required for teachers who work in the programs for disruptive youth? Please mark all boxes that apply.

Teachers/Directors	Legislative Requirements	System Requirements	Optional
Special Certification Requirements			
In-Service Training			
Other Preparation (Please Specify)			

5. To what extent is the district Exceptional Children's Program being used in the design, implementation, and evaluation of the alternative programs? Please mark all boxes that apply.

Exceptional Children's Program	Legislative Requirements	System Requirements	Optional
Design			
Implementation			
Evaluation			
Consultation			
Other (please specify)			
NOT involved			

6. What support or follow-up is provided for youth who are transferred from or phased out of the alternative program back to the regular school environment? Please mark all boxes that apply.

Re-entry to regular school environment	Legislative required	System required	Optional
Follow-up provided			
Support services			
In-program preparation for re-entry			
Other (please specify)			
NONE			

7. What percent of the students in the district are served by a program for disruptive youth?

	Special education classified students Age		Non-classified students Age		In-School Suspension	Time-Out Rooms	Counseling	School within a School	Separate Alternative School	Other (Please specify)
	12-15	16-18	12-15	16-18						
% White male										
% Black male										
% Hispanic male										
% Asian male										
% Indian male										
% White female										
% Black female										
%Hispanic female										
% Asian female										
% Indian female										
Other (Please specify)										

8. Please rate the following programs on their effectiveness using the listed criteria. Use a rating scale of 0 to 10. 0 = no effect on the criteria. 10 = most effect on the criteria.

Criteria	In-School Suspension	Separate Alternative School	School Within a School	Time-Out Rooms	Others (Please specify)
Reduction in suspensions					
Reduction in expulsions					
Reduction in drop-outs					
Increase in FTE* students					
Increase in academic performance					
Others					

*Full-Time Equivalent

9. Please mail copies of policies, practices, or programs which presently serve as a response to truancy, disruption, failure, and dropout prevention.

10. Is there any information on alternative programs you wish to share? Please include with your response.