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Alternative to zero-tolerance policies and out-of-school suspensions: A multitiered centered perspective

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ABSTRACT

Although zero-tolerance policies were created to foster safe school environments for student engagement and performance, the implementation of these policies has inadvertently resulted in the exclusion of millions of students through suspension and expulsion. Students of color, African-Americans in particular, disproportionately experience these exclusionary practices. This article examines the disproportionate negative effects of school discipline under the era of zero-tolerance policies. We first examine school discipline in a historical context. Second, we introduce and describe critical race theory and its relevance for understanding racialized school discipline. We conclude with implications for social workers to engage schools, African-American students, and their families, and advocate for school policies to create safe and equitable school environments that promote learning, in a culturally and racially responsive manner.

KEYWORDS

African-American youth; school discipline; zero-tolerance policies; critical race theory; school social work; culturally relevant practice

Introduction

Zero-tolerance policies originated from U.S. federal drug enforcement in the 1980s and was motivated by the idea of eliminating drug activities with harsh penalties. In the early 1990s, the idea was widely adopted by schools, not limited to its initial intent to prevent the possession of drugs and weapons. In contrast, zero-tolerance policies have been used to more broadly punish any infraction of school rules—even minor ones (Skiba & Noam, 2001). Although zero-tolerance policies were created to ensure safe and conducive school environments for teacher and student productivity, in practice, these policies have led to the exclusion of millions of students through suspension and or expulsion practices (Morgan, Salomon, Plotkin, & Cohen, 2014; Skiba & Noam, 2001). The high rate of school shootings and violence in the 1990s led to the 1994 federal Gun-Free Schools Act to ensure a conducive learning environment and affirm an intolerance to school violence (Klein, 2016). Despite its good intentions, the implementation of the act in schools has led to the suspension and expulsion of millions of students (Koon, 2013), depriving them the right to education (Klein, 2016).
There is no evidence of effectiveness with respect to school safety. However, zero-tolerance policies have become predictors of negative outcomes, such as school disengagement, high dropout rates, higher retention, criminal justice involvement, substance use, and trauma (Skiba & Noam, 2001; Teasley & Miller, 2011). Today, students of color, especially African-Americans, experience the negative and unintended consequences of zero-tolerance policies at a disproportionate rate (Morgan et al., 2014; Quintana, 2012). The U.S. Office of Civil Rights reports that 5% of White students were suspended while 16% of Black students were suspended during the 2011–2012 academic year (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). In this same time frame, Black students made up 16% of enrollment and were suspended and expelled at 3 times the rate of their White counterparts, who comprised 51% of enrollment (U.S. Department of Education, 2014).

By the 2013–2014 academic year, Black K–12 students were 3.8 times more likely to receive one or more out-of-school suspensions compared to their White peers (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Although provisions in the 2001 No Child Left Behind Act aimed to decrease the number of students suspended, the suspension rate increased 9% from 2002 to 2011—a trend that may have been influenced by zero-tolerance policies (Daly, Buchanan, Dasch, Eichen, & Lenhart, 2010). Meanwhile, the school total rate of violence committed for the percentage of students ages 12 to 18 dropped approximately 1% from 2002 to 2011 (U.S. Department of Education, 2013).

However, suspensions have increased for subjective and nonviolent infractions such as “disobedience” (Advancement Project, 2005, p. 23; Cregor & Hewitt, 2011), which in turn may place students at greater risk for school dropout (Dupper, Theriot, & Craun, 2009), substance use, violence and sexual involvement (Farchi et al., 1994), and increased risk for later incarceration (Skiba & Noam, 2001). Thus, the punitive overreach of zero-tolerance policies has had a rippling effect on the academic achievement of young people, transforming educational institutions from doorways of opportunities into gateways to the criminal justice system (Morgan et al., 2014).

The overrepresentation of African-American students in school discipline policies that deprive them learning opportunities are relevant for social work intervention at multiple levels given social work’s stance on social justice and human rights for all persons, with particular focus on those who are highly vulnerable (Gasker & Fisher, 2014; Ife, 2012; National Association of Social Workers [NASW], 2008). Although previous studies have raised the role of racism and race in unpacking racial disproportionality in school discipline (Carter, Skiba, Arredondo, & Pollock, 2016; Monroe, 2005), fewer have utilized a critical race perspective to expand on the connection between Black students and their disproportionate representation on discipline practices, particularly in social work. We seek to fill this gap in the social work literature through a critical race theoretical lens. We first examine school
discipline in a historical context. Second, we introduce and describe critical race theory and its relevance for understanding racialized school discipline. We conclude with implications for social workers to engage schools, African-American students, and their families, and advocate for school policies to create safe and equitable school environments that promote learning in a culturally and racially responsive manner.

**Historical context of school discipline in the United States**

The historical context of school discipline in the United States is rooted within the early British concept *in loco parentis*, meaning “in place of parent” (Skiba, Eckes, & Brown, 2009). This concept established a precedence that allowed some parental rights and privileges to nonparental caregivers. It established the basis for school authorities to discipline students. The purpose of school discipline was to ensure the safety of those within the school and create a conducive learning environment. Efforts to respond to or manage students’ undesirable behaviors include, but are not limited to, suspension, expulsion, and corporal punishment for breaching the code of conduct (Cameron, 2006). In the 1960s, corporal punishment was the common intervention schools employed to discipline students (Skiba et al., 2009). However, because of the physical nature and the purposeful infliction of pain associated with corporal punishment, it was found to violate human rights principles and, therefore, untenable (Skiba et al., 2009). Suspensions and expulsions became common discipline practices to manage student behavior dating back to the 1970s (Noguera, 2003; Skiba et al., 2011). Discipline practices later became a racialized concept when White educators and academic gatekeepers used discipline as a means to deny students of color from education; a post–Brown v. Board of Education resistance to integration (Edelman, Beck, & Smith, 1975).

*Brown v. Board of Education* ushered in both integration and hyper-control of Black and Brown children within U.S. education systems (Edelman et al., 1975; Skiba et al., 2011). It was the early Children’s Defense Fund report of 1975 with concerns regarding the more than one million students suspended or expelled during the 1972–1973 academic year that found that Black students were disproportionately suspended (Edelman et al., 1975). According to Noguera (2003), schools play three primary functions that shape the lives of children: (a) They sort children for placement in society, thereby determining who governs and who is governed; (b) they socialize children in social and moral norms that necessitate civic engagement; and (c) they serve as surrogate institutions for the care and movement of children in the society. Consistent with the British concept of *in loco parentis*, the third function of school outlined by Noguera (2003) implies a social contract between children and teachers where children must
submit themselves to teachers’ authority (Noguera, 2003). However, for African-Americans, the authority given to teachers to discipline students has become a tool to limit educational opportunities at a higher rate than that for non-Black students (Noguera, 2003). Since schools mirror the racialized U.S. society, African-American children have been the target of discipline and control (Anderson, 1988; Monroe, 2005). History indicates that Black intellectual abilities, skills, posture, versatility, athletic abilities, resistance, strength, and prowess have often threatened Whites (Battalora, 2013). To deal with this threat, laws through structures and institutions were employed to subordinate Black people (Battalora, 2013; Bell, 1976; Crenshaw, 1995). The contention by some scholars suggests that school discipline may be one way Blacks are controlled in response to the threat of fear (Battalora, 2013; Wacquant, 2001).

Although Black children’s exclusionary experiences in the school date back to the era before zero-tolerance policies, zero tolerance has exacerbated the trend (Carter, Fine, & Russell, 2014; Noguera, 2003; Togut, 2011). We therefore contend that while addressing zero-tolerance policies is critical, retributive discipline beliefs and racialized assumptions about student behavior must be addressed in tandem with zero-tolerance discipline practices. Although discrimination is no longer de jure, racism and its negative effects on Black children have not been done away with; rather, they have adapted and evolved over time with persistent negative impact on African-Americans and their children (Alexander, 2010; Diamond, 2006). Thus, the overrepresentation of Black children in discipline referrals for nonviolent and non-drug-related infractions under zero-tolerance policies potentially indicates a long history of racism in U.S. schools. Various leaders and advocates have called for an end to the use of zero-tolerance policies (Spiller & Porter, 2014). However, without any legislation to mandate this, zero-tolerance policies still remain a threat to a just school discipline. In the section that follows, we introduce and discuss critical race theory (CRT) to support our claim and to argue the need for social workers to critically assess and understand the role of racism and race in order to intervene effectively. Critical race theory asserts the need to revisit history to understand racialized legacies and the ways they continue to manifest and influence current-day racial disparities. This assertion by CRT appears consistent with social workers’ use of genograms to assess generational and intergenerational patterns among clients.

**Zero-tolerance practice from a critical race theory lens**

Critical race theory (CRT) is an analytic tool that asserts that racism is a pervasive feature of the American society and contributes to inequality in education (Bell, 1976, 1995). Originally developed in legal scholarship (Bell, 1976, 1995; Delgado & Stefancic, 2001), CRT emerged in the field of
education by Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995). CRT posits that race is socially constructed and therefore challenges ahistorical and race-neutral interpretations of racial disparities (Bell, 1995; Bondi, 2012; Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Ladson-Billings (1998) argued that the aim of critical race theory in education is to disrupt and interrupt the cycle of inequality that disadvantages Black students. To this end, she argues that CRT in education will serve as a tool for deconstruction, reconstruction, and construction. That is, deconstruction of oppressive structures and discourses that devalue Black children’s potential, reconstruction of human agency, and the construction of equitable and socially just educational practices (Ladson-Billings, 1998).

Many educators note that they do not see color in their practice and interactions with students in and out of the classroom (Milner, 2012). However, by practicing under color-blind notions and ideologies, educators consciously or unconsciously construct and enact practices that perpetuate racism (Johnson, Boyden, & Pittz, 2001), which can influence discipline practices. In the same way, without a critical perspective, social workers are likely to reinforce racism even as they attempt to reduce racially disproportional suspensions. Social workers thus need a critical lens to understand overt and covert forms of racial undercurrents in school discipline practices (NASW, 2007). Alexander (2010) argues that the only difference between today and the Jim Crow era is the language and symbols of communication, but not the existence of structural racism. From her insights in the criminal justice system, she asserts that

*in the era of colorblindness, it is no longer permissible to use race explicitly as justification for discrimination, exclusion and social contempt. So we don’t. Rather than rely on race, we use our criminal justice system to label people of color criminals, and then engage in all the practices we supposedly left behind. (p. 8)*

The same may be said of the education system in America today. In this post-Brown era, it is not permissible to rely on race to deny or restrict Black students’ access to education. However, the school’s practices and cultural and organizational structure may function to label Black children and restrict their access to educational opportunities and resources (Ahram, Fergus, & Noguera, 2011; Erevelles, 2000; Tomlin, Mocombe, & Wright, 2013). As Alexander (2010) states, “Today it is perfectly legal to discriminate against criminals in nearly all the way it was once legal to discriminate against African Americans” (p. 8). Similarly, in education, once Black children appear threatening or violate codes of conduct under zero-tolerance policies, it is justifiable to suspend, expel, or easily refer them to the criminal justice system. We contend that schools have a mandate to provide a nurturing school climate that is consistent with young people’s development and human capital potential. However, the exclusionary discipline practices disproportionately experienced by Black
students deprive these students the right to education and fair treatment (Klein, 2016). The deprivation contributes to the subordination of a protected racial group who appears to be normatively at increased risk within our school systems (Lipman, 1998).

A review of promising alternatives to addressing school discipline (e.g., School Wide Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports, Social Emotional Learning and Restorative Justice) suggests that without carefully and intentionally addressing racism, even these widely touted practices are less likely to achieve justice in school discipline for Black children (Koon, 2013). Thus, disrupting discipline disproportionality requires a critical assessment and understanding of the historical foundations (e.g., racial segregation and residual impacts of slavery) that undergird racial disparities today. For social work to contribute to equitable discipline practices, the profession needs to advocate for schoolwide interventions that incorporate CRT for a transformative school context in ways that allow adults and peers to develop culturally sensitive and culturally specific knowledge about themselves and others (Lee & Greene, 2003) to help reframe the negative view of Black students. This can allow for one’s racially and ethnically diverse lived experiences to be viewed as strength versus threat to society.

**Alternative to zero-tolerance practices: A model by tiers**

Globally, there is a growing demand for social work interventions in today’s schools (Allen-Meares & Montgomery, 2014). To respond to issues of equity within American public schools, social workers need to engage in antiracist and multicultural practices with educators and students. We recommend an evidence-based tiered model (Kelly et al., 2015) to enhance social work practice in schools. This includes (a) culturally sensitive practices that acknowledge race as a social construction with lived reality, (b) family-community-school partnerships to support students; and (c) a multisystemic intervention (see Table 1). Ultimately, this model aims at increasing cultural sensitivity, reducing implicit racial bias among teachers, students, and school personnel. Second, the model encourages collaborative efforts to ensure ecological contexts that support and foster students’ engagement in academics and prevent punitive disciplinary practices. This model prioritizes the use of in-school suspensions and detention over suspensions and expulsions. Yet, it accounts for the need to utilize suspensions in extreme cases such as violence and drug use/possession by providing alternatives to suspension options.

**Tier 1**

According to the model, Tier 1 interventions target the school as an organization with the aim of increasing protective factors that foster positive
Table 1. Prevention and Intervention by Tiers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tier</th>
<th>Prevention Level</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Involved Personnel</th>
<th>Prevention and Intervention Strategies</th>
<th>Evaluation of Strategies</th>
<th>Evidence-Based Practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tier 1</td>
<td>Primary prevention</td>
<td>Misunderstanding, miscommunication, and cultural mismatch.</td>
<td>Build supportive school climates that are racially and culturally sensitive</td>
<td>Teachers, students, school social workers</td>
<td>Programs that increase the cultural competence and race literacy of teachers and school personnel and increase students’ connection with and to school</td>
<td>Obtain students’ perceptions of being heard, supported by teachers and peers</td>
<td>Supportive school climates that are culturally relevant (Cholewa et al., 2012; Davis et al., 2014; Parsons, 2008; Sampson, 2013; Wallace &amp; Chhuon, 2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tier 2</td>
<td>Secondary prevention</td>
<td>Minor/subjective offenses (e.g., being late to class, not completing homework)</td>
<td>Resolve conflicts and reduce disruptive behaviors and prevent future offense; reduce teacher bias</td>
<td>Teachers, students, school social workers, parents, school counselors, school administrators</td>
<td>In-school suspension and detention (e.g., after-school suspensions, clean-up activities around school, reflective essay writing, conflict resolution skills)</td>
<td>Increased school attendance, students completing homework, high student engagement in classroom, reduced rate of disruptive behaviors</td>
<td>Equitable discipline practices (Coulson, 2012; Gregory et al., 2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tier 3</td>
<td>Tertiary prevention</td>
<td>Major offense (e.g., bullying, drinking, possession of firearms and drugs)</td>
<td>Reduce disruptive behaviors and prevent future offenses</td>
<td>Teachers, students, school social workers, parents, school counselors, school administrators, court, community personnel (e.g., leaders of religious organizations), youth specialties, and local nonprofit organizations</td>
<td>Suspension in a supervised setting, mentoring services, community services, restorative justice, counseling and academic assistance</td>
<td>Reduction in the use of drugs, develop civic engagement skills, restoration to regular classroom, reduced rate of violent and problematic behaviors, reduced episodes of mental health concerns</td>
<td>(Dawson, 1991; King, 2013; Sampson, 2013)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
behavior and academic engagement among students (Kelly et al., 2015). Tier 1 interventions are preventive in nature and are provided to every student (Kelly et al., 2015). School climates where African-American youth feel supported, experience a sense of belonging, and are provided opportunity for participation in both academic and extracurricular activities in a racially and culturally responsive manner are likely to foster student-to-school connections (Daly et al., 2010; Wright, 2009). Since racism and cultural mismatch in part drive the disproportionate application of zero-tolerance policies (Carter et al., 2016; Monroe, 2005), we recommend racially and culturally sensitive school practices that are developed through assessment and understanding of students’ unique needs. Students’ needs can be established through caring and genuine relationships (Cholewa, Amatea, West-Olatunji, & Wright, 2012; Davis, Chang, Andrzejewski, & Poirier, 2014). Scholars outline that Black children are often relational; thus, when they feel cared for, heard, and respected in a racially and culturally sensitive manner, they are more likely to develop trust, which promotes positive behaviors and engagement for achievement (Cholewa et al., 2012; Hale, 1982; Parsons, 2008; Wallace & Chhuon, 2014). Such culturally sensitive student-teacher relationships are noted to facilitate conflict prevention (Gregory, Clawson, Davis, & Gerewitz, 2014). This is a central strategy for reducing racially disproportional discipline, as many students are not culturally similar to their teachers and are often misunderstood both verbally and behaviorally (Gay, 2005). Social workers guided by the value of the importance of human relationships—such as interacting with teachers, students, and their families—can play a key role establishing culturally conscious and caring relationships (Darensbourg, Perez, & Blake, 2010; Sampson, 2013).

**Tier 2**

At Tier 2, interventions are secondary, and are directed toward students who are at risk of academic underperformance and engaging in disruptive behaviors (Kelly et al., 2015). Social workers can conduct assessment of students’ needs and use the data to inform decisions about the kind of intervention that may be needed, and at what level (micro, mezzo, or macro, or a combination of these systems). Students in need of intervention at Tier 2 may display early signs that can include unexcused absences, submitting incomplete homework, coming to school late, violating dress codes, and other minor or nonviolent infractions. Social workers can utilize genograms to investigate the underlying impetus for a student’s behavior. By using a genogram, the social worker can examine the influence that both the student’s family and school have on the student’s behavioral decision making (McCullough-Chavis & Waites, 2004). Genograms also allow social workers to make strengths-based assessments of student performance and behavior.
In so doing, students can recognize their strengths instead of internalizing the labels associated with their misbehavior or classroom conflict. Finally, a genogram can inform culturally relevant practices (McCullough-Chavis & Waites, 2004) that will strengthen teacher-student relationships. Together, social work interventions that are grounded in culturally relevant practices and use ecologically centered assessment tools will help to deter the use of behavioral referrals, detention, and suspensions.

In addition, if the social worker’s assessment reveals the need for micro-level interventions related to nonviolent-related behaviors, the social workers can advocate for restorative practices, in-school suspension, and detention. Unlike out-of-school suspensions and expulsions, these methods are less likely to exacerbate the academic and socio-emotional challenges students face. Instead, in-school suspension keeps students within schools and provides the opportunity for the completion of assigned work. Other non-exclusionary discipline can include behavior-based reflection essays and school-community service (Hopkins, Koss, & Bachar, 2004).

**Tier 3**

Tier 3 represents more serious problems that negatively impact academic and behavioral outcomes of students, and can undermine school safety. Intervention at this level is tertiary prevention and targets more extreme student behaviors that include violence and drug usage (Kelly et al., 2015).

We suggest an alternative to out-of-school suspension. To achieve this, we recommend a multisystem approach that leverages relationships with community organizations, families, and the individual children. Students identified as needing Tier 3 interventions will be engaged in rehabilitative resources to prevent future behavioral occurrences. This alternative to suspension gets students involved with volunteering their time at a community agency, and obtaining intensive counseling and academic assistance. Since suspended students are less likely to have adult supervision at home (Dawson, 1991), they are exposed to greater risks. Specifically, they are more likely to engage in substance abuse, become sexually active, fight, have weapons, become involved with crime, and face imprisonment (Farchi et al., 1994). However, out-of-school suspensions within a community agency provide a protected environment and positive experience for students, such as civic engagement. Students may gain important social, human, and cultural capital, and reduce the likelihood of reinforcing problematic behavior.

With the recent congressional allocation of funding for alternatives to suspension programs through the Community Service Program Initiative (Owen, Wettach, & Hoffman, 2015), more schools are now able to employ alternative-to-suspension initiatives. We recommend the engagement of a
community organization that specializes in children and youth development. In Pennsylvania, the onTRACK Program is noteworthy for its success in establishing positive relationships and reducing students’ negative behaviors (New Pittsburgh Courier Editorial Staff, 2013). The onTRACK Program is a school-centered program aimed at positive youth development in a nonprofit organization (King, 2013). The program focuses on building trust among high-risk youths (between 6 and 18 years old), their parents, and school staff and providing community resources. Its goal is to improve academic performance and school attendance, build strong healthy relationships between families and schools, and increase youth engagement in extracurricular and social activities (King, 2013). Similarly, research on seven community service-based alternatives to suspension programs in Arizona has found statistically significant reductions in student tardiness, absences, discipline referrals, and infractions (Bosworth, Ford, Anderson, & Paiz, 2006). Although further studies are needed, alternatives to suspension programs have promise to reduce punitive disciplinary methods that often place students at greater risk.

Implications for social work

Besides working with African-American children and families, social workers also advocate for integrated schools that recognize and accept the racial and cultural identity of African-American children as active members of a multiracial society. Standard 11 of the NASW’s school social work standards (2012) details that “School social workers shall engage in advocacy that seeks to ensure that all students have equal access to education and services to enhance their academic progress” (p. 13). The standards also convey that school social workers should advocate against institutional racism and any form of discrimination that would impact students. Social workers can play this advocacy role by (a) working with schools and students to modify the school codes of conduct and disciplinary procedures and introduce alternatives that incorporate students’ input on student codes; (b) working with educators to design and implement culturally responsive teaching approaches that maintain students’ cultural and racial identity for the creation of an accepting and affirming environment (Kennedy, 1990); and (c) engaging in anti-bias education strategies in order to challenge racial disproportionality in discipline at the personal and institutional level.

Moreover, as noted in Daly and colleagues (2010), zero-tolerance policies have been linked with less school connectedness among minority youth, including African-Americans. Therefore, building an affirming school climate may help youth feel and experience positive and prosocial connections to peers, educators, and school personnel; sense of interest in school; perceived sense of belonging; and commitment to school—all of which are
linked to positive school outcomes and reduction in disciplinary-related measures (Daly et al., 2010). Social workers can help establish school climates for African-American students’ school connectedness by (a) offering professional development and support to educators to meet the diverse social, emotional, and cognitive needs of students (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2013) in ways that are racially/culturally sensitive and (b) creating a decision-making process that fosters open communication among families, students, the community, and schools. This can be achieved when social workers learn and understand the cultural frame of African-American children, and engage educators through professional development activities for educators to develop and apply cultural sensitivity skills in their instructional and pedagogical approaches in the classrooms (Sampson, 2013).

Furthermore, given that educational practices are informed by policies (Lipman, 1998), social workers can engage in legislative advocacy at local, state, and national levels to change school districts' punitive discipline practices, and promote educational policies regarding positive school climates that cater to all students irrespective of racial or cultural background. Social workers can lobby for legislative changes that mandate the teaching of race and ethnicity in school curriculum, thus advancing equity in the social, cultural, and educational experiences of all students (Cameron & Sheppard, 2006). As noted in Boykin (1984), it is possible that African-American children may register their dissatisfaction with the school curriculum and the classroom in ways that may be perceived as rude by educators, which in turn can lead to discipline referrals. Thus, social workers must continue to intervene at the macro and micro levels by advocating for policy changes and working to strengthen cultural understanding between students and their teachers through race-centered and strengths-based perspective.

**Conclusion**

While the implementation of zero-tolerance policies has inadvertently led to the exclusion of millions of students, it has had a disproportionately impact on students of color, particularly for subjective behaviors (Advancement Project, 2005, p. 23). To achieve a safe school environment for all children, it is important that the historically driven inequities in school discipline practices are understood. Thus, we recommend the use of critical race theory as an analytic tool as it is consistent with social work values, assessments, and interventions. Furthermore, through Tier 1 of our model, we argue that social workers should have a critical understanding of racism and race to interrupt racial bias in schools. Following the work of Allen-Meares, Hudgins, Engberg, and Lessnau (2005) and Diaz (2015), Tier 2 suggests that social workers and teachers can collaborate to support students who are at risk of suspension through the use of data gathered by a social work
assessment framework. Finally, at Tier 3, the multisystem approach suggests that social workers coordinate resources within schools, families, and communities. Ultimately, Tier 3 is designed to ameliorate risky behaviors while restoring student confidence, citizenship, and academic success. Social workers are therefore called upon to incorporate critical race theory and a multi-tiered system that allows them to play multiple roles such as advocate, broker, and counselor in their endeavors to support students, families, and the schools in which they work. These steps can work together to create school environments that are just, fair, and equitable for all children to thrive successfully.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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