

LAW-RELATED EDUCATION AS A DELINQUENCY PREVENTION STRATEGY:  
A THREE-YEAR EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT OF LRE ON STUDENTS

Revised and Updated By

Grant Johnson and Robert Hunter  
Center for Action Research  
Boulder, Colorado  
October 1985

This report is adapted from Law-Related Education Evaluation Project Final Report, Phase II, Year 3, submitted by the Social Science Education Consortium and Center for Action Research to the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention on June 6, 1984.

NCJRS

DEC 2 1985

ACQUISITIONS

The work reported herein was supported by grant no. 79-JN-AX-0036 awarded by the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice. Points of view or opinions stated do not necessarily represent the official position or policy of the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention or the U.S. Department of Justice.

19991

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Our thanks to staff of the Center for Law and Justice, University of Washington, for generously sharing information they compiled on earlier evaluations of law-related education. We also thank Deborah Wysinger and Pamela Swain of the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention for calling our attention to portions of the original report that produced either boredom or confusion. In addition, the constructive comments of three outside reviewers commissioned by NIJJDP provided extremely valuable guidance. Other members of the evaluation team who contributed to the original report include Richard Adamek, James Davis, James Giese, Fran Haley, Judith Little, and Mary Jane Turner.

U.S. Department of Justice  
National Institute of Justice

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the National Institute of Justice.

Permission to reproduce this ~~copyrighted~~ material has been granted by

Public Domain/NIJ/OJJDP  
US Department of Justice

to the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS)

Further reproduction outside of the NCJRS system requires permission of the ~~copyright~~ owner.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	iv
<hr/>	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
Scope of the Research	2
Prior Evaluations of LRE	4
Theoretical Foundation of the Study	7
Overview of the Impact Findings	13
Organization of This Report	15
2. METHODS [for assessing:]	17
Impact of LRE on Students	17
Quality of Classroom Implementation of LRE	22
LRE Training Received by Teachers and Administrators	24
Institutionalization	25
3. FINDINGS	26
Impact of LRE on Students	26
Summary of Findings from 1981 and 1982 (Incl. Followup)	27
Findings From 1983	29
Summary of Impact Findings	46
Quality of Implementation	47
Quality of Implementation in 1981	48
Quality of Implementation in 1982	51
Quality of Implementation in 1983	53
Relationship Between Impact on Students & Quality of Impl.	57
Ranking of Classes in the 1981 Study	57
Comparison Between 1982 and 1983 Classes	58
Comparison Between Highly Rated and Other Classes in 1983	60
Teacher Training and Teaching Experience	63
Overview	63
Effects of Teacher Training and Teaching Experience	64
Training for Resource People & Other Sources of Assistance	78
Summary	80
Institutionalization	81
Year Three Indicators of Institutionalization Efforts	82
Institutionalization of LRE at the Local Level	84
4. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVED IMPLEMENTATION OF LRE AS A DELINQUENCY PREVENTION STRATEGY	90
Adequate Preparation and Use of Outside Resource Persons	91
Quality and Quantity of Instruction	94

Judicious Selection and Presentation of Illustrative Material and Management of Controversy	97
Active Participation and Student Interaction	99
Involvement of Building Administrators	101
Professional Peer Support for Teachers	102
REFERENCES	104

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Educators and judges liked law-related education (LRE) before much was known about its effects on delinquency. Responding to national surveys in 1980 and 1981, most chief state school officers, state social studies specialists, elementary and secondary school principals, social studies teachers, and juvenile and family court judges reported that they favored making LRE required instruction in secondary schools. A large minority of the same groups favored LRE for elementary students as well.\* Little research evidence about its effects was available. By 1981, four or five studies had credited LRE with producing one or a few attitudinal changes among students, and as many more had confirmed that teaching students about the law increased their knowledge of it.

The first systematic evaluation of the impact of LRE on students' law-abiding behavior and its known correlates began in 1981. Supported by the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (NIJJDP), that research continued through 1983. The research design drew from a body of tested theories of delinquency. Besides assessing effects of the LRE course, the study evaluated situational factors associated with those effects and examined the part played by teacher training and classroom practices in the outcomes obtained. The LRE programs included in the study were supported by grants from NIJJDP to five national projects:

---

\*The surveys polled total populations of chief state school officers and state social studies specialists, and national probability samples of elementary and secondary school principals, members of the National Council for the Social Studies, and juvenile and family court judges. A total of 2,311 persons responded. In both 1980 and 1981, a majority of respondents in each category indicated that they favored some forms of LRE as a requirement in secondary schools.

the American Bar Association's Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship (ABA), the Constitutional Rights Foundation (CRF), Law in a Free Society (LFS), the National Institute for Citizen Education in the Law (NICEL, formerly the National Street Law Institute), and the Phi Alpha Delta Public Service Center (PAD). This is a summary of findings from that evaluation.

To obtain data on both outcomes and the process of implementing LRE, the evaluators administered pre- and post-questionnaires to some 1,600 LRE students and 900 comparison subjects (in the same schools as the LRE students); observed classrooms, training workshops, conferences, and meetings; and interviewed educational administrators, teachers, trainers, and resource persons who participated in LRE instruction. The classes and programs studied were located in California, Colorado, Illinois, Michigan, Missouri, and North Carolina.

#### Impact of LRE on Students

In the main LRE impact study, the evaluators obtained data from 61 LRE classes and 44 comparison classes in 32 schools. (An additional eight LRE classes in four schools were part of a substudy of teacher training.) The comparison classes typically were American history or government at the high school level and civics at the junior high level. In elementary schools, comparison students received conventional social studies during the period that experimental students received LRE. The classes studied were taught in spring of 1981, fall of 1982, and fall of 1983.

At one school in 1982 and 1983 (having a total of 12 LRE classes), scientific random assignment was used to place ninth-graders in either LRE or regular civics classes; the research at that school followed a true

experimental design. In the closest approximation to such a design that the evaluators were able to negotiate elsewhere, the project called for the selection of experimental and control classes of comparable age, sex, ethnic, and academic level characteristics at each site. The students in each class were, however, assigned by the usual student placement process --resulting in a quasi-experimental design at those sites. Under both designs, the analytic procedure used to evaluate the impact of LRE on students controlled for initial differences between experimental and control subjects on the variables measured.

The number of impact variables measured through student questionnaire responses ranged from 23 in 1981 to 42 in 1983. In selecting variables to measure, factors known to be related to law-abiding or delinquent behavior received first priority. Many of the variables chosen, however, also pertain directly to schooling and are of interest on purely educational grounds. The measures used include attitudes toward school and teachers, homework habits, perceived fairness of grades and discipline, classroom interaction, attentiveness in class, and gains in knowledge. Other dimensions measured pertain to good citizenship, another concern of educators. Among those dimensions are behavior (self-reported delinquency), attitudes toward deviance and personal violence, student perceptions of police and judges, and peer relationships.

The study showed that LRE can improve students' attitudes, perceptions, and behavior --but that these favorable outcomes do not follow automatically from adopting an LRE textbook and offering a course by that name. Some classes have been far more effective than others in achieving delinquency prevention objectives. (Besides evaluating outcomes, the study identified several characteristics that have distinguished more successful classes

from less successful ones.)

The proportion of evaluated classes producing significant favorable effects on the variables measured increased over the course of the study. The ten LRE classes included in the 1981 study were an intentional mix of those nominated by national project staff as having high and low prospects for success (judging from factors such as the amount of specialized training received by teachers and the apparent level of administrative support for the course). Both the impact findings obtained that year and reports of classroom observers confirm a wide variation among the LRE classes. The apparent net effect on the 23 outcome dimensions measured was favorable for 4 LRE classes, unfavorable for 4, and undiscernible for the remaining 2. The principal value of the findings was formative: indications of what made some classes successful and others not successful were the basis for advice on how to improve future LRE classes.

The 30 LRE classes in the 1982 study included three for which a true experimental design was possible. The basis for placing students either in one of those classes or in a conventional ninth-grade civics class was scientific random assignment. Among the 36 impact variables measured that year, 18 statistically significant experimental-control differences favored the LRE students; none favored the control subjects. Eight out of nine additional differences which did not reach statistical significance also favored LRE students over the controls. The outcomes included reductions in frequency of committing six categories of delinquent acts (out of the ten categories measured), as well as factors known from previous research to be related to law-abiding behavior.

A followup study of experimental and control subjects from the same classes showed that the former LRE students had maintained an advantage

over the former civics students 16 months later (when subjects had just finished their 10th-grade school year). For the experimental group, relative reductions in delinquent behavior were still evident for four of the six forms of delinquency. For three of the four types of behavior, the LRE students' advantage over the controls had increased with time. There was no outcome at followup which favored control subjects over the former LRE students.

For the 27 LRE classes in the 1982 study to which students were not randomly assigned, the outcomes obtained were generally favorable --but less dramatic. Predictably, equivalence between experimental and comparison subjects at the start of the semester was uneven across the variables measured. Controlling for pretest (time-1) differences between groups at those sites reduced the number of end-of-semester differences attributable to effects of the course taken. Of the 197 significant differences which were attributable to the course, 148 favored LRE students over comparison subjects.

As in 1981, there was substantial variation in the number and magnitude of outcomes from one class to another --but for most 1982 LRE classes at every school level, favorable outcomes outnumbered unfavorable ones. This was true of 9 of the 11 high school classes studied that year, 13 of the 15 junior high classes (including the 3 to which students were randomly assigned), and 3 of the 4 elementary school classes.

Twenty-one LRE classes were in the 1983 impact study: 5 taught in high schools, 12 in junior highs, and 4 in elementary schools. The evaluators were able to use a true experimental design in nine of the junior high classes. Before the start of the semester, an evaluation staff person applied a table of random numbers to the entire roster of ninth-graders

at the school in which those classes were located, The numbers determined the assignment of each student to one of three courses: LRE taught by Instructor A (five sections), LRE taught by Instructor B (four sections), or traditional civics without LRE (two sections). Students assigned to traditional civics were the control group.

Out of the 42 variables measured in 1983, there were 18 statistically significant outcomes favoring LRE students in classes taught by Instructor A and 24 such outcomes for those in Instructor B's classes. In addition, there were another nine favorable outcomes (five for Instructor A and four for Instructor B) which did not reach statistical significance. There was no outcome, significant or not, which favored control students.

The overall results for all LRE classes in the 1983 study were more favorable than in the preceding years. Although varying in degree, the outcomes obtained in 19 of the 21 classes were either predominantly or entirely favorable. For the five high school classes, significant favorable outcomes on the average outnumbered unfavorable ones by a ratio of more than seven to one. As described above, nine of the 12 junior high classes showed dramatic, uniformly favorable effects. In two of the remaining three junior high classes, favorable outcomes exceeded unfavorable ones; in the third, favorable effects just equaled chance expectations and were exceeded slightly by unfavorable effects. The same is true of one elementary LRE class. In the other three elementary classes, the significant outcomes uniformly favored the LRE students.

Based on the classes in this study, some of the variables measured appear far more amenable than others to effects from LRE. Thirty of the 42 possible outcomes in 1983 showed favorable effects in 4 or more LRE classes out of 21. Only one unfavorable outcome occurred this often. Table A

TABLE A: EFFECTS OF LRE OBTAINED MORE OFTEN THAN EXPECTED BY CHANCE  
RANKED FROM MOST TO LEAST FREQUENT (30 OUT OF 42 ITEMS)

Outcome Measured	ALL LRE CLASSES (5 HS - 12 JHS + 4 Elem)		RANGE IN SIZE OF EFFECT (in control group standard deviation units)
	% Having Favorable Effect	% Having Unfavorable Effect	
Factual knowledge of the law and legal processes.	100%	0%	.4-1.7
Perception that the rules in this class have applied the same to everybody.*	94%	0%	.3-.8
When other students speak in this class, they have something worthwhile to say.	90%	0%	.4-1.2
Grade students would give their teacher for this course.	86%	5%	.5-1.2
"Clockwatching" in this class.*	82%	0	.8-1.5
Students' rating of this course relative to others (better, same, worse).	81%	0%	.5-1.2
Encouragement from the teacher in this class of special projects by students	81%	10%	.2-.7
Students rating of this course as being really helpful.	76%	5%	.3-1.1
Perceived opportunities for demonstrating competence to teachers.	71%	0%	.3-.9
Perception that the teacher in this class grades fairly.*	71%	0%	.3-.9
Really liking some teachers and believing they care about you as a person.*	71%	5%	.3-.5
The other students in this class pay attention when you are talking.	71%	5%	.4-1.0
Minor fraud (avoid paying for food, movies, shows).	62%	5%	.2-.6
Amount of time spent doing homework.*	59%	0%	.2-.6
Go out with a group planning to fight or break the law.	57%	0%	.2-.2
School rule infractions (cheat on tests, skip school, and two more).	57%	5%	.3-.4
Frequency of telling parents about something useful learned in a class.	56%	5%	.3-.7
Timely completion of assignments and coming to class prepared to participate.*	55%	0%	.3-.5
Belief that you are treated fairly in school with respect to rules, grades.	52%	0%	.5-1.0
Favorable attitudes toward police.	52%	10%	.2-.7
Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in this class.*	47%	0%	.3-.4
Drinking alcohol.	45%	0%	.2-.3
Favorable attitudes toward personal violence.	45%	19%	.2-.4
Students in this class willing to help one another with questions, course work.	38%	0%	.4-.6
Support offered by teachers to build your interest and help you.	35%	0%	.4-.7
Vandalism (damage or destroy school or public property).	35%	5%	.2-.3
Praise received at home for something done in school.	29%	0%	.2-.5
Belief that judges try to be fair and just.	29%	0%	.3-.7
Rationalizations that delinquent behavior is acceptable sometimes.	19%	0%	.4-.4
Your parents would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	19%	0%	.2-.2

\*Measured only at high school and junior high levels (17 classes).

shows in descending order the percentage of LRE classes yielding favorable and unfavorable outcomes on each variable. The table also displays the estimated range of effect sizes for each outcome (computed in control group standard deviation units). As shown in this report, the classes that received high ratings from observers on their quality of implementation are usually the same classes that produced favorable effects on students. Accordingly, the figures in the table should not be regarded as probabilities that any future LRE class will have an impact on particular dimensions. All the LRE classes studied conveyed knowledge about the law, but the ones that succeeded in terms of delinquency prevention are those which combined practices conducive to quality instruction of any subject (e.g., checking for understanding) with practices recommended specifically for LRE (e.g., adept handling of debate around controversial legal issues).

#### Quality of Implementation

Through structured observations, the evaluators learned what actually occurred in the classes studied. In their periodic visits, trained staff completed minute-by-minute logs during class and interviewed teachers before and after class. The evaluators subsequently flagged and rated key practices and events shown in the logs. Observers' records tell about the process that produced the quantitative outcomes reported above. Over the course of the study, that information was the basis for feedback to trainers and others on ways to improve LRE classes in each successive year. Seven of the ten LRE classes in the 1981 study were observed. In 1982 and 1983, all experimental and control classes were observed.

Based on observers' reports in 1981, each class received a rating from "1" (lowest) to "5" (highest) on its prospects for (a) building positive attitudes toward the law, (b) increasing attachments to the school, and

(c) altering peer relationships favorably. The maximum composite rating possible was 15 (3 x 5). The actual ratings for the observed classes ranged from 6 to 14, with three classes rated higher than "10" and four rated lower. Although less detailed than in subsequent years, the 1981 observation ratings proved to be extremely accurate predictors of the same classes' success in producing favorable outcomes for students.

A revised observation format used in 1982 and 1983 captured greater detail on elements that most strongly differentiated successful from unsuccessful classes in the 1981 study. That format yielded ratings of observed classes along nine dimensions --two pertaining to quality of curriculum treatment, three to quality of instruction, and four to quality of interaction in the classroom. Classes received ratings of "high," "moderate," or "low" on each dimension.

Of the 30 LRE classes in the 1982 study, about 40 percent were rated high on the dimensions pertaining to curriculum treatment. High ratings went to about one-fourth of the classes for instructional quality and to about one-third for quality of interaction. Applying the same criteria, the evaluators rated the 21 LRE classes studied in 1983 more highly than those in the previous year. The percentages of classes rated high in the three general categories were about 60 (curriculum treatment), 40 (instruction), and 40 (interaction). On each of the nine subdimensions of those categories, the percentage of highly rated classes in 1983 exceeded that in 1982.

Evident contributors to that improvement were (a) a second round of formative feedback provided by the evaluators to trainers, (b) greater emphasis on strong support by building administrators as a criterion for including classes in the study, and (c) more prevalent use of outside

persons as coteachers.

The LRE classes studied each year displayed considerable variation in both rated quality of implementation and impact on students. Evidence from the study indicates that the two are related; i.e., the capability of LRE to improve citizenship and behavior is highly dependent on the way in which the course is implemented. Three types of analysis support this conclusion:

1. Before learning results of the numerical analysis of the impact data in 1981, the head of the observation team ranked the seven observed classes from highest to lowest in terms of their quality of implementation. The highest rated classes were those judged from observers' records to have the strongest prospects for producing favorable effects on students' behavior. Without knowing the observation ratings, the person analyzing impact data used actual outcome findings to rank the same seven classes from most to least successful in affecting students' behavior favorably. Even though the analyses from the two data sources proceeded independently of each other, the observation and outcome rankings correspond for six of the seven classes --with the four highest being identically ranked.

2. All nine of the classroom dimensions rated by observers and 33 of the student impact variables measured in 1983 corresponded to those in 1982, permitting comparison of both quality of implementation and impact on students between the two years' classes. As already reported, classes in 1983 as a group received higher ratings from observers on every dimension than did classes in 1982. Likewise, the proportion of LRE classes producing favorable outcomes for students was higher in 1983 than in 1982 for 20 of the 33 outcomes and at least double that in 1982 for 17 of those 20. For only two outcomes did the 1982 classes outperform the 1983 classes. In

short, observed improvement in quality of implementation of LRE classes was accompanied by measured improvement in their impact on students.

3. Enough 1983 LRE classes received high ratings from observers to yield moderately sized subsets of classes judged to be superior on each of the three broad components of quality of implementation --quality of curriculum treatment, 13 highly rated classes; quality of instruction, 9 highly rated classes; and quality of interaction, 8 highly rated classes. For the 30 variables that all LRE classes combined had affected more frequently than expected by chance (see Table A), the performance of each highly rated subset of classes was compared with the performance of the remaining (lower rated) classes. All three subsets receiving superior observer ratings outperformed the remaining classes. The most striking differences in impact pertain to quality of instruction. Every class judged superior in that regard produced favorable effects on 22 of the 30 variables, and the performance of those classes surpassed that of lower rated classes on 28 of the 30 variables. With respect to quality of curriculum treatment and quality of interaction, the favorable impact on students in the highest rated classes surpassed that of other classes for 25 out of 30 outcomes and 22 out of 30 outcomes, respectively.

#### Teacher Training and Teaching Experience

The principal vehicle to improve quality of implementation has been training of the teachers who implement LRE curricula. Most of the training conducted in 1982 and 1983 not only covered particular LRE text materials, but provided instruction in carrying out the recommendations that have come from this research and other sources and included an explanation of the theoretical basis for expecting LRE to improve citizenship.

In 1981, some untrained and inexperienced teachers participated in the

impact study. Those teachers' classes received relatively low ratings from observers and demonstrated less favorable impact on students than classes taught by trained teachers. Teachers in all three years of the study rated the specialized training they had received as "very useful" in helping them carry out several recommended classroom practices. In addition, classes taught by teachers with prior LRE teaching experience tended to outperform those taught by inexperienced teachers.

Although the general proposition that teacher training and teaching experience are important had not been challenged, a substudy was carried out in 1983 to identify differences in measured outcomes attributable to those factors. At each of four junior high schools, pre- and posttests were completed by students in two LRE classes--one taught by a veteran LRE teacher who had participated in multiple training sessions and the other taught by a teacher with less training and experience. The design and analysis were identical to those used in the main impact study, except that here one LRE class was compared with another LRE class (rather than with a non-LRE class).

The substudy yielded a total of 47 instances of significant differences in outcomes between the two teachers' classes within a school. Thirty-seven of those differences (79 percent) favored the classes of the teachers with more experience and/or training. The most notable differences in outcomes pertained to peer relations, students' belief in the fairness of social rules, and students' ratings of their LRE courses and teachers.

The evidence supported a position taken by national project staff from the outset, namely, that proper implementation of LRE requires specialized training. As described below, evidence from the entire study also points to several topics which that training should cover.

## Recommendations for Making LRE an Effective Delinquency Prevention Strategy

The features that have distinguished more effective LRE classes from the rest are the subject of this section. The general recommendation is for training of teachers, building administrators, and resource persons designed to assure that those features become prominent parts of future LRE programs. The recommended features fall into six categories. At least two of them could improve many courses, not just LRE; many of the rest appear to be more critical for LRE than for other subjects. When combined with LRE content, all the recommended features--including those that simply constitute good teaching--have been identified as contributing to favorable impact on the behavioral and behavior-related variables measured in this study.

The LRE classes evaluated from 1981 to 1983 were uneven both in quality and in the number and magnitude of favorable outcomes obtained. Twenty of the 61 classes in the main study were dramatically superior to the others in terms of their favorable outcomes. Those 20 include 6 high school classes, 13 junior high classes, and 1 elementary class. Two come from from the 1981 study, 6 from 1982, and 12 from 1983. They represent schools in California, Colorado, Michigan, and North Carolina. Besides producing extremely favorable student outcomes, the 20 classes as a group are exemplary of the recommendations that follow.

1. *Adequate preparation and use of outside resource persons.* In every year of the study, the most effective LRE classes were the ones that made most frequent use of outside resource persons. In addition, correlational analysis between practices and outcomes has shown appropriate use of visitors in LRE classrooms to be more strongly associated with increased student attachment to teacher and school and with shifts from delinquent to nondelinquent peer associations than any other classroom practice or event.

2. *Quality and quantity of instruction: checking for student understanding, stating learning objectives, and providing a sufficient quantity of instruction and depth and density appropriate to the material covered.* These are practices associated with good teaching in general. The reason for including them here is that they appear to contribute not only to the achievement of purely educational objectives, but (at least in the LRE classes studied) to improvements in students' behavior and their attitudes toward teachers and school. Eighteen of the 20 classes that produced superior outcomes received high ratings from observers on opportunities given students to demonstrate a command of one topic before moving on to the next. In sharp contrast to most classes in the study, explicit statements of learning objectives for the day occurred regularly in 17 of the 20 outstanding classes. All 20 classes received high observer ratings on sequencing and pacing of material and the amount of time spent on given topics (depth and density).

3. *Judicious selection and presentation of illustrative material and management of controversy.* One way to keep students' attention is to shock them with accounts of abuses perpetrated in the name of the law. One way to make students feel good is to reinforce their anti-establishment preconceptions. In the few observed classes that produced predominantly unfavorable effects on students' attitudes and behavior, the weight of illustrative material presented depicted laws as unfair, police as brutal, judges as whimsical, and justice as too costly for poor people to obtain. Student debates of controversial legal issues were as likely to reach a conclusion that the system was unfair as a conclusion that it was fair. Although teachers of the most effective classes were not unrelenting defenders of the status quo, discussion and debate around important issues

usually left students persuaded that existing laws and judicial procedures were mostly necessary and just. When contrary conclusions occurred, students learned that the judicial system has built-in safeguards and provisions for self-correction. The recommendation is for both teachers and outside resource persons to present a well balanced view which depicts the system neither as incredibly infallible nor as nightmarish.

4. *Active participation and student interaction.* Mock trials and other opportunities for group work built into LRE text materials typically generate student enthusiasm and improve their interaction in the classroom. One recommendation is to use a moderate portion of instructional time for exercises of this nature, without taking undue time away from other activities capable of producing a broader range of outcomes. A second recommendation is to escalate the potential behavior-related effects of group work by adding elements shown by other research to have lasting effects on friendship choices. Those elements are a deliberate mix in abilities of students who form groups, task interdependence (work that can be completed only through contributions of all group members), and reward interdependence (e.g., letting group performance affect members' grades).

5. *Involvement of building administrators.* In all schools housing the most effective LRE classes, in-building administrative support has at least included providing classroom resources, facilitating field trips, and dealing with concerns voiced by other teachers or members of the community. At two of the schools (containing 14 outstanding LRE classes), support from building administrators also included direct instructional leadership--classroom observation and feedback to the teachers, help in developing course materials, and intense work in arranging for outside

resource people. In schools lacking even minimal administrative support for LRE, principals or their assistants have undermined the effectiveness of those classes in at least two ways: by reacting negatively to "commotion" ensuing from students' enthusiasm and by loading the LRE course with disproportionate numbers of known troublemakers (as confirmed by pretest questionnaire responses). The recommendation is for strong and informed support from building administrators; one way this has been achieved is by training them alongside their teachers.

6. *Professional peer support for teachers.* Teachers called upon to be innovative are likely to require more support than others from peers, preferably persons teaching LRE in the same building or district. Teachers of 15 of the top 20 LRE classes had colleagues teaching that subject in the same building. The teacher of two more of those classes had worked closely with a fellow LRE teacher in the same building the year before. The teacher of two other classes producing superior outcomes was in one of the two schools with exceptionally high administrator involvement and worked with a police sergeant who served as coinstructor throughout the semester. The teacher of the 20th class received no special support within her building, but maintained regular contact with the district social studies supervisor--who was highly knowledgeable and enthusiastic about LRE.

Outcomes obtained in the three-year study show what is possible when LRE approximates a set of specified standards, as well as what can occur when those standards are not met. Law-related content by itself does not improve student attitudes, build good citizenship, or reduce delinquency; but it is a convenient and effective hook upon which to hang a set of features that have the power to achieve those important objectives.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

From 1979 to 1984, five nationally organized projects received funding from the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (NIJJDP) to develop and demonstrate effective methods of implementing law-related education (LRE).<sup>\*</sup> The principal interest of NIJJDP in LRE is in its utility as a delinquency prevention strategy; i.e., the potential of LRE to affect delinquent behavior and factors associated with delinquency. Reflecting that interest is the research reported here, primarily a study of the impact on students of LRE classes taught from 1981 to 1983.

The participating projects are the American Bar Association's Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship (ABA), the Constitutional Rights Foundation (CRF), Law in a Free Society (LFS), the National Institute for Citizen Education in the Law (NICEL, formerly the National Street Law Institute), and the Phi Alpha Delta Public Service Center (PAD). Program evaluation--the subject of this report--was conducted jointly by the Social Science Education Consortium and the Center for Action Research, both of Boulder, Colorado.

Three of the participating organizations (LFS, CRF, and NICEL) are termed "curriculum projects." Each has a characteristic curriculum package, conducts training of teachers, and is involved in promoting implementation of LRE at the state, district, and school levels. The

---

<sup>\*</sup>The emphasis of the NIJJDP program shifted in 1984 from development and demonstration to training and dissemination, using the projects' work to date as a foundation.

two remaining organizations (ABA and PAD) have performed support, coordination, and dissemination functions. Both ABA and PAD have developed and published material needed by practitioners; recruited outside resource persons from the judiciary and the legal profession; conducted sessions bringing educators and noneducators together; and worked to bring an accurate understanding of LRE to those whose lives are spent enacting, interpreting, or enforcing the law.

### Scope of the Research

LRE is a program of instruction to build students' conceptual and practical understanding of the law and legal processes. But the findings reported here do not apply to every course fitting that broad definition. The courses evaluated used materials intended to provide a foundation for improved citizenship skills, ability to work within the legal system to settle civil grievances and deal with criminal problems, reasoned understanding of the basis for rules, and favorable attitudes toward law enforcement and the justice system. All LRE classes in the study used curricula developed by CRF, LFS, or NICEL. The preferred methods for presenting those curricula were strategies conducive to:

- Active involvement of all students, including those who ordinarily may have difficulty becoming engaged in classroom work.
- Avenues for students to demonstrate competence beyond those offered through traditional testing.
- Favorable settings for nonthreatening interaction among students and between students and police, attorneys, and other justice-related personnel.

The objectives of the courses studied included *improvement of students' behavior and attitudes*, as well as their knowledge. The

courses offered a coherent sequence of law-related topics, usually lasting an entire semester. Frequently integrated into that sequence were mock trials, use of legal and law enforcement professionals in the classroom, visits to courtrooms, participation in a student court, law-related small group exercises, police ridealongs, and home security audits. The findings do not apply, however, to any of those activities or events in isolation or as piecemeal additions to an otherwise conventional social studies course.

The concerns of the evaluators were the following:

- The impact of LRE on students.
- The quality of implementation of LRE with respect to classroom practices and support received by teachers.
- The training provided by the curriculum projects.
- Support services performed by all five national projects.
- Factors associated with institutionalization of LRE at local and state levels.

To obtain data pertaining to those concerns, the evaluators administered pre- and post-questionnaires to some 1,600 LRE students and 900 comparison subjects (in the same schools as the LRE students); observed classrooms, training workshops, conferences, and meetings; and interviewed educational administrators, teachers, trainers, resource persons, and national project staff.

The evaluation activities included frequent formative feedback to the national projects for the purpose of improving their programs. Direct evaluation of classes occurred in spring of 1981, fall of 1982, and fall of 1983. The classes and programs studied were located in California, Colorado, Illinois, Michigan, Missouri, and North Carolina.

### Prior Evaluations of LRE

A search of published literature and unpublished reports turned up seven previous studies which assessed one or more outcomes of some form of LRE and used comparison groups. All seven studies included measures of law-related knowledge; six of the seven assessed at least one attitudinal variable. None of the studies included any measure or indicator of behavior. In six studies, the comparison groups consisted of students who did not take an LRE course or, in one instance, those who did not receive a booklet about the law. Comparison subjects in the remaining study were students who received LRE from untrained teachers. Also found was a study of attitudinal and demographic correlates of existing levels of law-related knowledge (from whatever source obtained) among high school students. Findings from those eight studies are the subject of this section.

### Knowledge Gain

All seven studies that assessed outcomes of exposure to LRE found significant gains in law-related knowledge. In one study (Hoffman and German, 1973), the exposure consisted of a booklet entitled *Youth and the Law*, prepared by the North Carolina Attorney General's office. Seventh and eighth-graders who received the booklet became more knowledgeable about North Carolina law than those who did not receive it. In the remaining studies, exposure was in the form of an LRE course. In one of them (Denton and Kracht, 1976), students taught LRE by trained teachers were compared with those taught by untrained teachers. The former group learned significantly more than the latter. The rest of the studies

compared students who took LRE with those who did not. Law-related knowledge gains favoring the LRE students were reported by every researcher who used this design (Donovan, 1975; Fraser and Smith, 1980; Jacobson and Palonsky, 1981; Kavanaugh and Gallagher, 1980; Nelson, 1979).

#### Attitudinal Improvement

Donovan (1975) found that LRE students had more desire to become involved in government than those who did not take the course. Hoffman and German (1973) reported that students who received the LRE booklet became more positive than comparison subjects in their attitudes toward police and the law, but less supportive of constitutional rights. Jacobson and Palonsky (1981) reported changes in the desired direction in fifth and sixth grade LRE students' attitudes toward the law, legal processes, crime, criminals, and punishment. Nelson (1979) found no direct LRE program effects on high school students' attitudes. Fraser and Smith (1980) measured five attitudinal dimensions in their study of tenth-grade LRE students in Australia and found improvement in only one, "influenceability of the law."\*

#### Relationship between Knowledge and Attitudes

Carroll, et al. (1980), assessed relationships between existing levels of law-related knowledge (obtained from any source, not necessarily

---

\*In a study conducted subsequent to the evaluation reported here, Van DeCar (1984) found that junior and senior high school students who received LRE were more likely than control subjects to (1) hold authority accountable to standards of responsible conduct, (2) stress positive rater than prohibitive functions of the legal system, and (3) have active conceptions of citizen participation and their own roles within the legal system.

an LRE course) and several attitudinal variables among students in four Arizona high schools. Without speculating on sequential or causal direction, the researchers reported a significant negative correlation between law-related knowledge and authoritarianism and significant positive correlations between law-related knowledge and both legal-social responsibility and educational expectations.

Among the other studies described in this section, exposure to LRE produced knowledge gains more consistently than attitudinal changes. In one study which showed significant improvement by LRE students in both knowledge and attitudes, the researchers (Jacobson and Palonsky, 1981) nevertheless found virtually no association between knowledge of legal concepts and positive attitudes among LRE students. They concluded that the students who learned the most about the law were not necessarily those who developed more favorable attitudes toward the law.

The present evaluation goes beyond previous research by (1) including measures of behavior (self-reported delinquency) and (2) assessing a large array of attitudinal and social variables organized around a body of tested contemporary delinquency theory (as detailed in the next section of this report). Comparable measures to assess behavioral, attitudinal, and other outcomes of LRE were used in the many diverse classrooms evaluated in the present study. In addition, records from on-site observers provide documentation of what actually occurred in those classrooms.

### Theoretical Foundation of the Study

During the year preceding the start of the impact evaluation, 180 interviews were conducted with LRE teachers, school administrators, and other professionals already involved in LRE. Most were optimistic about the possibility that LRE could improve students' attitudes and behavior. Respondents offered a variety of reasons for holding that view; many of those reasons took the form of presumed causes of delinquency that LRE seemed capable of affecting. LRE was seen as helpful in overcoming potential delinquents' ignorance of the law, their inadequate awareness of the consequences of delinquent acts, and their inability to make reasoned decisions pertaining to right and wrong behavior. Although plausible, the relevance of these factors to delinquency was largely untested. The interviews, as well as discussions with national project staff, also suggested a number of ways in which LRE was likely to affect theory-based variables whose causal relationship with behavior had already been demonstrated by earlier research. These variables became the basis for most of the outcome measures used in the present study.

Social control, strain, and labeling theories contain a number of factors established by previous research as causally related to law-abiding behavior. Key elements among these are commitment, attachment, involvement, belief in the necessity and fairness of rules, positive labeling, equality of opportunity, and association with nondelinquent peers. A program capable of enhancing some of these factors has the potential to reduce delinquency. Although many aspects of a student's

school experience may have that capability, reports obtained from educators and national project staff before the impact study began suggested that LRE was more likely than conventional curricula to produce favorable effects.

According to social control theory (Hirschi, 1969), most people stay out of trouble most of the time because they are bonded to society's norms through their affiliations at home, school, workplace, and church. As long as at least one of these ties remains strong and rewarding, an individual has a compelling incentive to engage in socially approved behavior. For most young persons, the chief sources of support for proper conduct are home and school. Those who see little reason to value either of those affiliations are likely to turn to likeminded peers for approval. Among peers who share a sense of alienation from home and school, some of the bonding that usually occurs is to norms that reward violations of rules. The path for achieving satisfaction and a sense of legitimacy in the adult-dominated spheres of family and school is consistent proper conduct, while that of the youth-dominated sphere of peer relationships often includes delinquent behavior.

Refining earlier work of Nye (1958) and others, Hirschi described four control processes through which conformity is maintained. The first is *commitment*, which rests on an individual's perception that something worthwhile results from maintaining good standing in a legitimate position (e.g., that of student) and that the loss of such standing would carry costs outweighing any benefits from rule-breaking. The interviews

with experienced LRE teachers and school administrators who had adopted the program indicated a prevalent belief among the respondents that their students valued LRE more highly than most other courses. Based on their experience, the educators credited LRE with providing content perceived by students as unquestionably relevant and useful, generating especially rewarding interaction in class, and offering students who had difficulty mastering other subjects opportunities to participate successfully. Among factors a student might consider in assessing the worth of school, LRE was seen by respondents as a definite plus.

A second control process is *attachment* to other people. To violate a norm is to violate the wishes and expectations of others; a low level of attachment to people who expect law-abiding behavior makes violations more likely. One plausible link between LRE and this factor was the prospect that teachers who convey material that students see as useful and who model the principles of fairness they are teaching about would be more promising candidates for student attachment than those who do not. A second link was the practice encouraged by the national projects of bringing outside resource people from the justice system into LRE classrooms--allowing personal contact between students and police, lawyers, and judges. Turning these stereotypic symbols of authority into real people in the eyes of students could at least provide a foundation for attachment to them.

A third control process is *involvement*, which refers to a person's ongoing allocation of time and energy to certain conventional activities. The activities associated with law-abiding behavior are productive ones

(like homework) and do not include recreation and passive entertainment. Reports from educators that LRE made students enthusiastic participants in a useful learning experience were consistent with an expectation that the students would devote more time and energy to at least this aspect of their school work.

The fourth control process is *belief* that rules governing behavior are both necessary and fair enough to merit being obeyed consistently. Affecting this element are the individual's views of the degree of fairness and equity in the justice system and--at least among youth--level of respect for the police. In a study of youth in northern California, Hirschi (1969) found lack of respect for the police to be associated both with lack of respect for the law and with delinquent behavior, *even among youth who had never had contact with the police*. The finding of a relationship between negative attitudes towards the police and delinquent behavior was not surprising; it had been found repeatedly in prior research. However, while some researchers have taken this finding to indicate that delinquents are more likely to have had unpleasant encounters with police, Hirschi's evidence indicates that lack of respect can occur independently of such contacts and be affected by the image projected by representatives of law enforcement and, presumably, of the broader justice system.

Reports from practitioners and examination of test materials and teachers' guides indicated that many LRE lessons convey the necessity for rules, e.g., by dramatizing the difficulty of living for even a short time without them. The LRE curriculum materials represented in

this study also describe the basis for procedures and principles involved in the administration of justice. To counter the disproportionate news coverage received by apparent miscarriages of justice, an LRE course lets students learn about the fairness that usually prevails in the system. In addition, many LRE courses provide occasions for nonthreatening personal contact between students and law enforcement and justice practitioners. Considering these characteristics of the course, the prospect that LRE could heighten students' belief in the moral validity of rules and their enforcement appeared reasonable.

According to strain theory (Merton, 1938; Cloward and Ohlin, 1960), our society tends to hold out the same goals to everyone as desirable. However, legitimate avenues for achieving those goals are not open equally to all. The combination of similarity of goals and inequality of access to legitimate means makes it impossible for some people to obey the rules and still achieve their goals. Consequently, some turn to illegitimate, perhaps delinquent, means. Others may reject both the goals and the means and retreat socially by using alcohol and/or drugs. The principal preventive measure implied by this theory is creation of *greater equality of opportunity*. For some students, failure in school becomes self-perpetuating; in many subjects, unlearned material from a previous year can make demonstrating competence and participating actively in a current class more difficult. Mastering the practical content of LRE relies relatively little on previous academic learning, and recommended LRE teaching strategies are designed in part to engage all students and offer them opportunities to excel. LRE appeared a

promising vehicle for breaking the pattern of diminished opportunity experienced by some students.

According to labeling theory (Becker, 1963), attaching negative or derogatory descriptions to persons affects their situations and behavior. Although advocates of this perspective commonly assume that the most damaging labels are those conferred by the justice system, evidence published in the past 14 years challenges this assumption (Foster, Dinitz, and Reckless, 1972; Fisher, 1972; Gove, 1980). Evidence obtained by Chastain (1977)\* supports the conclusion that the most serious consequences occur when negative labels are introduced into a setting that has ongoing salience to the person labeled and in such a way that opportunities in that setting are restricted. Some persons, by virtue of race, class, or previous academic rating, may be particularly susceptible to such labeling in schools. When trouble is expected and productivity is not, the opportunities for bonding to conventional activities and actors are diminished and the probability of delinquent behavior is increased. The reverse is true when *positive labels* are attached to students and opportunities are not restricted. Many of the educators interviewed prior to the impact study mentioned being surprised by the way that students they had regarded as less than promising "opened up" and performed in an LRE class. After their exposure to students in an LRE classroom, some resource persons also reported viewing

---

\*Chastain (1977) found that negative self-perceptions were determined far more by isolation in school than by judicial processing; among delinquent youth, negative judicial labels had little effect on self-perceptions when responses in school continued to be favorable.

and reacting to young persons more favorably than they had previously. Measures of labeling variables appeared worth including as possible outcomes of LRE.

According to the theoretical perspective outlined here, favorable change in the six dimensions described (the four control processes, along with opportunity and labeling) should increase the probability of association with nondelinquent (rather than delinquent) peers and in turn reduce the likelihood of delinquent behavior. If LRE could affect those six dimensions favorably, by this logic it could have secondary impact on peer relationships. In addition, some of the recommended components of LRE feature cooperative tasks (such as mock trials) that are eminently suited to strategies already demonstrated to be capable of affecting friendship choices directly; those strategies are task and reward interdependence and deliberate mixing of abilities in the formation of working groups (Slavin, 1980). Accordingly, measures of peer relationships were included in the catalog of possible outcomes in the LRE impact evaluation.

A diagram of the theoretical variables just described appears in Chapter 2.

#### Overview of the Impact Findings

A total of 69 LRE classes and 44 comparison classes in 36 schools were in the three-year study. In successive years, both the quality of the courses evaluated and the quality of the research improved. The number of variables assessed through student questionnaire responses

ranged from 23 in 1981 to 42 in 1983. In the selection of variables to measure, factors known to be related to law-abiding or delinquent behavior received first priority. Many of these dimensions pertain directly to schooling and are of interest on purely educational grounds. The set of measures chosen includes attitudes toward school and teachers, homework habits, perceived fairness of grades and discipline, classroom interaction, attentiveness in class, and gains in knowledge. In addition, the measures of behavior, attitudes toward deviance and personal violence, perceptions of police and judges, and peer relationships are relevant to good citizenship, another concern of educators.

With respect to delinquency, the general summation of findings remained the same for each year of the study. When properly implemented, LRE can serve as a deterrent to delinquent behavior. Better courses and better research make this perennial conclusion more defensible today than it was after the first year of the study, and the features that constitute "proper implementation" now can be specified more precisely.\* To say that "LRE reduces delinquency" seriously misstates a conclusion of the study. Today as in 1981, very diverse courses and events bear the name "LRE." Even classes having identical course descriptions may differ drastically in practice. A belief that everything called LRE will have a uniform effect on students' behavior or perceptions is unreasonable. From the standpoint of delinquency prevention, some LRE classes in the study clearly demonstrated significant favorable impact.

---

\*Chapter 4 of this report describes those features.

Less powerfully (due to less stringent design), the research also identified both ineffective LRE classes and harmful ones.

Despite their diversity, the classes studied produced a few outcomes with striking regularity. In virtually all LRE classes (even the few judged "harmful"), students' factual knowledge of the law and legal processes increased significantly. The vast majority of LRE classes received superior ratings from students (relative to comparison classes) as being "really helpful" and "better than most other courses taken." In addition, the grades that students would give their teachers were much higher in nearly all LRE classes than in comparison classes. In sum, LRE in many forms is likely to appeal to students and increase their factual knowledge. There is less latitude, however, when course objectives include improving student attitudes, perceptions, and behavior.

#### Organization of This Report

Chapter 2 describes the methods used to assess the impact of LRE on students, as well as three other dimensions: quality of classroom implementation of LRE, nature of training received by practitioners, and progress toward institutionalization. Included are the numbers and distribution of experimental and control subjects by school level in each year of the study, an explanation of impact data analysis procedures, and an account of practices and events rated by classroom observers.

Chapter 3 reports findings on (a) the impact of LRE on students, (b) the quality of implementation of the program--including variations

by year and among classes and an illustration of formative feedback given to the national projects, (c) the relationship between impact on students and quality of implementation, (d) teacher training and teaching experience and the influence of these elements on student impact, and (e) processes required for institutionalization of appropriate LRE instruction.

Chapter 4 presents a series of recommendations for improved implementation of LRE. It describes six categories of features that distinguished the more effective LRE classes in the study from the less effective ones.

## 2. METHODS

The main purpose of the evaluation was to document both the process and outcomes of implementing LRE. In addition, the evaluators were responsible for providing formative feedback to trainers and other national project staff to help them improve their LRE programs over the course of the study. To accomplish these tasks, the evaluation team collected and analyzed information on (1) the impact of LRE on students, (2) the quality of classroom implementation of LRE, (3) the nature and effects of specialized training received by teachers and school administrators, and (4) factors associated with growth and permanence (institutionalization) of state and local LRE programs. This chapter describes the methods used for collection and analysis of data in each of those four categories.

### Impact of Law-Related Education on Students

Evaluation of the impact of LRE on students occurred in spring of 1981, fall of 1982, and fall of 1983. Students in LRE and comparison classes completed questionnaires at the start and end of those semesters. The classes used for comparison always were located in the same schools as the LRE classes. The comparison classes typically were American history or government at the high school level and civics at the junior high level. Comparison students in elementary school received conventional social studies during the time that the experimental students received LRE.

At one school in 1982 and 1983 (having a total of 12 LRE classes), scientific random assignment was used to place ninth-grade students in

either LRE or regular civics classes; at that school, the researchers used a true experimental design. In the closest approximation to such a design that the evaluators were able to negotiate elsewhere, the project called for the selection of experimental and comparison classes of comparable age, sex, ethnic, and academic level characteristics in each site. The students in each class were, however, assigned by the usual student placement process--resulting in a quasi-experimental design at those sites.

A total of 2,267 students completed both pre- and post-questionnaires during the three years of the study. Table 1 shows the distribution of experimental and comparison subjects by school level.

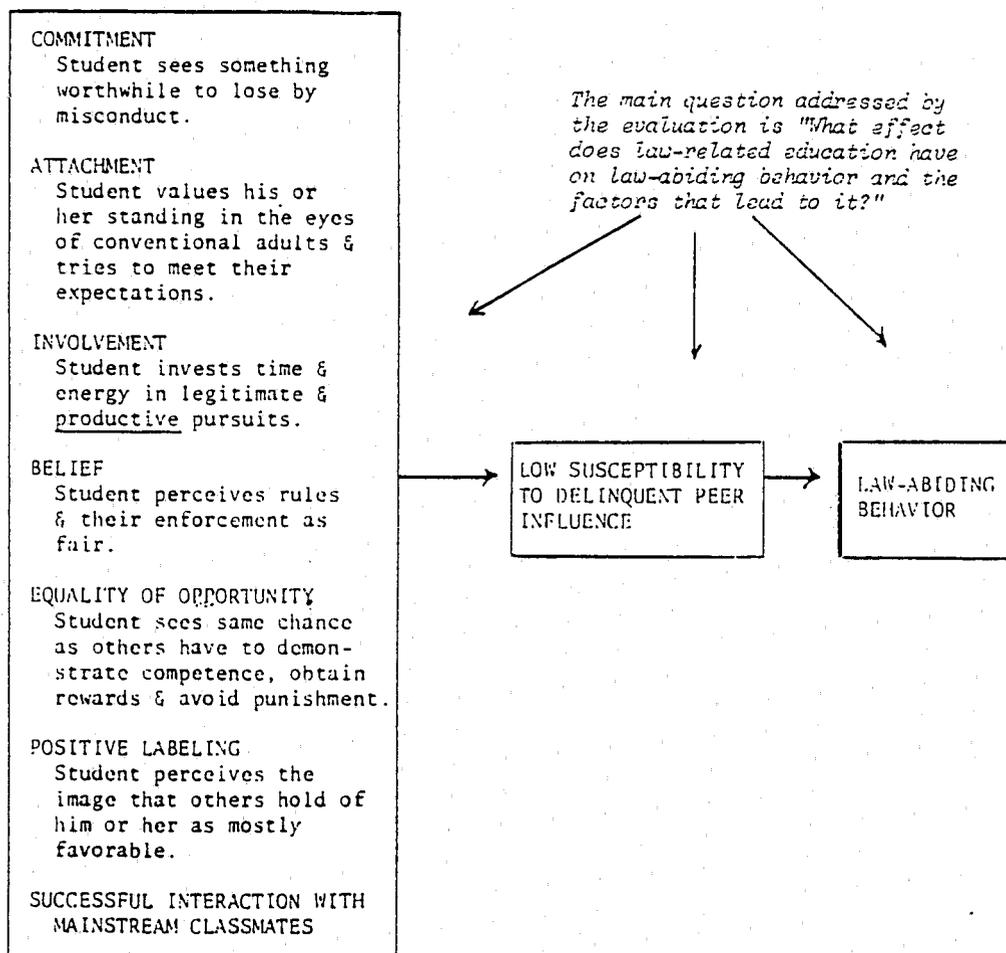
Table 1: Number of Schools, Classes, & Students in the Main LRE Impact Study\*

	1981		1982		1983		Total	
	LRE	Compa- rison	LRE	Compa- rison	LRE	Compa- rison	LRE	Compa- rison
<b>HIGH SCHOOL</b>								
# of Schools	6		6		2		14	
# of Classes	10	8	11	8	5	5	26	21
# of Students	184	172	247	145	122	90	553	405
<b>JUNIOR HIGH</b>								
# of Schools	0		9		3		12	
# of Classes			15	11	12	5	27	16
# of Students			318	195	327	142	645	337
<b>ELEMENTARY</b>								
# of Schools	0		3		3		6	
# of Classes			4	3	4	4	8	7
# of Students			87	64	98	78	185	142
<b>TOTAL</b>								
# of Schools	6		18		8		32	
# of Classes	10	8	30	22	21	14	61	44
# of Students	184	172	652	402	547	310	1383	884

\*The figures in the table do not include eight LRE classes in four junior high schools which were subjects of a 1983 substudy of the effects of teacher training/experience on student impact (described later in this chapter). A total of 228 LRE students participated in the substudy.

Grounds for expecting LRE to reduce delinquent behavior come from social control, opportunity, and labeling theories. These theories contain a number of elements established by previous research as casually related to law-abiding behavior; the elements were defined in Chapter 1 of this report and appear in the diagram in Figure 1. Most of the outcome measures used in the student impact questionnaires are operationalizations of the elements in the diagram. The greater the degree to which the elements in

Figure 1: Basis in Delinquency Theory For the Measures Used to Evaluate the Impact of Law-Related Education



*The variables shown come from social control (bonding) theory, opportunity theory, and labeling theory. Their associations with nondelinquent behavior have been established by previous research.*

the lefthand column of the diagram are present, the less a young person's need to obtain personal rewards from delinquent peers and the less the likelihood that delinquent behavior will ensue.

In addition to scales derived from delinquency theory, the student impact questionnaires included:

A test of knowledge about the law and principles underlying the legal system, varied to suit the particular curriculum in use at each school.

A series of 21 self-report items to assess the frequency with which a subject had committed each of 11 types of offense during the preceding semester.\*

Items allowing students to rate their course and teacher.

---

\*Self-reported delinquency was selected as the most appropriate measure of behavior for this study. The number of offenses reflected in official records constitutes only a small fraction of that obtained through offender self-reports, making the latter a more sensitive measure of behavior. The validity and reliability of self-reports of delinquency (and their suitability for different types of research) have been the subjects of many major studies during the past 20 years. Researchers have compared self-reports of delinquent behavior with official police and court records, have employed undercover informants or "tails" to observe subjects' behavior before self-reports are obtained, have administered polygraph tests, and have compared self-reports with reports obtained from victims. This wealth of research has demonstrated that self-reports are sufficiently valid and reliable to be suitable by themselves to measure delinquent behavior in field studies. A summary of such studies and conclusions appears in Hindelang, et al. (1981); a critical review of methodological issues surrounding self-reports and other types of behavioral measures appears in Huizinga and Elliott (1984).

An additional drawback to using official records in this study is the possibility suggested by some that LRE may teach students how to avoid getting caught, even if their level of delinquent behavior stays the same; had official records been used, skill in avoiding apprehension would have been an alternative explanation for any apparent reduction in delinquent behavior.

In the present study, students received written and verbal assurance of the confidentiality of their responses. The assurance included the information that if a researcher divulged their answers to the teacher or anyone else, the researcher was subject to a \$10,000 fine (under U.S. Department of Justice regulations).

In analyzing longitudinal data from the questionnaires in 1981, residual gain analysis was used to control for the effect of time-1 (pretest) scale scores and behavior frequencies on changes during the semesters studied. To assess differences between an LRE and a control class, mean residual gains for all students in the respective classes were compared; t-tests were applied to determine which differences of means were statistically significant. In 1982 and 1983, multiple regression analysis was used to control for the effects of pretest scores. In the analysis, the posttest score or frequency was treated as the dependent variable, with pretest score specified as the first independent variable to enter the analysis. Only then did the LRE/non-LRE variable enter the equation. As a consequence, the analysis showed how much additional effect LRE had, over and above the effect of pretest score. Outcomes favoring LRE signify a net improvement relative to comparison subjects on particular dimensions. In the case of delinquent behavior, a favorable outcome would indicate that LRE students displayed either a greater decrease or a smaller increase than comparison subjects in their frequency of committing certain offenses.

At the site with a true experimental design, the evaluators conducted a 16-month followup study of students who participated in the 1982 research. Students who had received LRE during the first half of ninth grade and those in the control group at the same school that year completed an additional questionnaire at the end of their first year of high school. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the degree to which the effects of LRE shown at time-2 still were in evidence 16 months later.

### Quality of Classroom Implementation of Law-Related Education

Information on what actually occurred in LRE classrooms was obtained through structured observations. Trained evaluation staff visited seven of the ten LRE classes in the 1981 study from two to four times each. In 1982 and 1983, each LRE class was observed five or six times and each comparison class twice. The observation procedure followed in every year of the study included completion of a minute-by-minute log during a class, interviews with the teacher before and after the class, and subsequent flagging and rating of key practices and events shown in the log.

At the time the study began, national LRE curriculum developers had prepared pointers for effective use of their materials, and the evaluators had reviewed literature on effective teaching and the body of delinquency theory described elsewhere in this report. This prior work was the basis for selecting what to highlight and rate in the 1981 classroom observations. The elements selected were grouped to yield indications of the prospects that an LRE class would (a) build positive attitudes toward the law, (b) increase attachments to the school, and (c) favorably alter peer relationships.

The observation format used in 1982 and 1983 gave greater attention to those elements that most strongly differentiated successful from unsuccessful classes (in terms of delinquency prevention) in the 1981 study. An illustrative list of favorable and unfavorable classroom practices from the 1982-1983 format appears in Figure 2. The list permitted ratings of observed classes along nine dimensions--two pertaining to quality of curriculum treatment, three to quality of instruction, and four to quality of interaction.

Figure 2:  
SOME FAVORABLE (+) AND UNFAVORABLE (-) PRACTICES RECORDED IN CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

QUALITY OF CURRICULUM TREATMENT

Depth and Density

- + Students learn concepts, terminology, and procedures before a mock trial, guest resource person, or other high-interest event.
- + Teacher insists on conveying all facts of a case before allowing arguments or opinion.
- + Time spent on a topic is proportionate to its importance and complexity. Illustrative examples occur only to the extent needed for adequate understanding.
- + Students are on task shortly after a period begins and remain on task for the bulk of the period.
- High-interest activities occur without sufficient foundation to maximize learning from those activities.
- Teacher or students start expressing opinions before the objective facts are heard.
- Either student interest or the teacher's level of comfort or expertise with a topic appear to dictate the amount of time spent on it, regardless of its importance. Examples are too few or too many.
- Digressions, housekeeping, joking, or excessive drill take substantial time from the lesson.

Selection and Balance

- + Teacher acknowledges flaws in law enforcement and judicial practices and permits examples and discussion of them, but also points out remedies and safeguards built into the system and depicts miscarriages of justice as exceptional.
- + Before debating an issue, students receive instruction in listening to one another and basing their arguments on the merits of a case rather than personalities. As debate occurs, students receive corrective feedback.
- Teacher encourages or permits a depiction of the justice system as either flawless or rampant with unfairness. Discussion of a controversial issue related to fairness is allowed to stop without reaching closure.
- Student debate resembles a name-calling contest or screaming match as much as reasoned argument and is allowed to continue without corrective feedback.

QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION

Stated Objectives

- + Teacher has learning objectives written on the board at the start of class and tells students the purpose of the day's lesson.
- The lesson begins with no more than directions about what students are to do and students are left to figure out for themselves the purpose.

Checking for Understanding/Practice

- + Teacher either polls the whole class or calls on a cross-section of students (not just those with hands raised) to assure their understanding of one block of material before moving on to the next.
- Teacher relies on perfunctory checks ("any questions?") or takes answers only from students who volunteer or raise their hands.

Direction-Giving

- + Teacher gives directions that produce minimal confusion or further questions before students perform a task; directions immediately precede an activity and are given one at a time.
- Teacher gives multiple directions at once and must repeat some of them as an activity progresses. Some students wind up off task because they do not know what they are supposed to do.

QUALITY OF INTERACTION

Active Participation

- + Teacher promotes moderate to high student participation with talk by nearly all students; a handful of students do not dominate classroom discussion.
- A substantial proportion of students remain passive. Teacher relies excessively on lecture or does nothing to engage reticent students in talk.

Suitable Group Work

- + Groups are used for tasks that are best accomplished through joint effort, are deliberately composed of a heterogeneous mix of students, and can result in group rewards.
- Groups do little more than "discuss and report," are composed out of convenience (e.g., students who already sit together), and provide little opportunity for mutual help or reward.

Reactive Management

- + The need for disciplinary action is infrequent; the duration and intensity of such action, when taken, do not exceed the minimum necessary to stop the problem.
- Disciplinary actions either do not occur when needed or constitute "overkill," resulting in substantial time off task.

Opportunities for Bonding

- + Students know clearly what they must do to demonstrate competence and are made to feel comfortable trying.
- + Teacher delivers material that students can perceive as useful beyond the classroom, relating topics to current events or students' own experiences.
- Uncertain expectations or perceived risk of embarrassment make students' attempts to demonstrate competence unnecessarily difficult.
- Teacher simply follows the text and emphasizes rote learning over application of the information conveyed.

In each year of the study, analysis of observational data proceeded independently from the impact analysis. Neither the persons who assigned qualitative ratings to classes nor those who computed outcomes from the numerical questionnaire responses were privy to the others' data until after both analyses were complete. In 1981, the head of the observation team used observers' records to rate each of the seven classes on a scale from one to five on its prospects for having three kinds of desired effects. The same person then ranked the classes from highest to lowest in terms of their composite ratings on the three dimensions. In 1982 and 1983, a committee reviewed all observers' records and applied uniform criteria to rate each class "high," "moderate," or "low" on nine dimensions.

#### LRE Training Received by Teachers and Administrators

In all three years of the study, evaluators observed training sessions conducted by national project staff, administered pre- and post-questionnaires to trainees, and interviewed trainers before and after the sessions. Followup interviews near the end of each semester were used to obtain teachers' retrospective assessments of the training they had received three to five months earlier. The evaluators combined this information with each year's classroom observation findings as the basis for formative feedback to projects; by the end of each year, national project staff had received recommendations for improving their next round of training.

In 1983, the evaluators conducted a substudy to assess the effects of differential exposure to training and level of prior LRE teaching experience. At each of four junior high schools, pre- and post-questionnaires were completed by students in two LRE classes--one taught by a veteran teacher

who had participated in multiple training sessions and the other taught by a teacher with less training and experience. The design and analysis were identical to those used in the main impact study (as described in the first section of this chapter), except that in this substudy one LRE class was compared with another LRE class (instead of with a non-LRE class). A total of 228 students participated in the substudy.

### Institutionalization

To assess progress toward institutionalization of LRE at state and local levels, the evaluators interviewed educational administrators and collected a variety of documents from sites and the national projects. Collected were reports to OJJDP, letters and memoranda, conference agendas, state plans, and published articles related to LRE. In review and analysis of this material, the primary concern was to identify (1) processes by which institutionalization occurs, (2) impact of LRE programs on the educational and justice systems, (3) the processes that affect those systems with respect to receptivity to change, and (4) the use of professional publications and meetings to promote awareness of LRE.

### 3. FINDINGS

In every year of the study, students in LRE and comparison classes completed pre- and post-questionnaires at the start and end of semesters; all classes used for comparison were located in the same schools as the LRE classes. Evaluators combined student impact testing with interviews and direct observations involving a broad range of participants. Members of the evaluation team interviewed teachers, school administrators, community resource people, and others who had participated in the classroom. They observed in experimental and comparison classrooms, in training sessions, and in district seminars.

The first section of this chapter reports on the impact of LRE on students, based on quantitative analysis of their questionnaire responses. The second section uses classroom observers' records to give an account of quality of implementation of the program in the various schools studied. The third section describes the relationship between impact on students and quality of implementation. The topic of the fourth section is teacher training and teaching experience of those who participated in the study. It includes findings from a substudy designed to assess the contribution that teacher training and experience make to impact of LRE on students. The fifth section provides an account of factors associated with institutionalization (or permanence) of LRE.

#### Impact of Law-Related Education on Students

As described in Chapter 2, the measures used to assess impact of LRE on students in each year of the study included scales derived from

tested delinquency theory, a test of knowledge about the law and the justice system, a series of self-report items pertaining to the frequency with which a subject had committed each of 11 types of offense, and items allowing students to rate their course and teacher. Outcomes attributed to LRE represent differences between LRE and comparison students' posttest scores in a given school, *controlling for differences in pretest scores.*

#### Summary of Findings from 1981 and 1982 (Including 16-Month Followup)

The ten LRE classes included in the 1981 study were an intentional mix of those nominated by national project staff as having high and low prospects for success. (Two of the criteria for nomination were the amount of training received by teachers and the apparent level of administrative support for the course.) Both the impact findings and reports of classroom observers attested to wide variation in what was implemented as LRE. Despite relatively uniform knowledge gains across classes, overall results with respect to student attitudes and behavior were a mix of good and bad news. The apparent net effect on the 23 outcome dimensions measured that year was favorable for 4 LRE classes, unfavorable for 4, and undiscernible for the remaining 2. As reported later in this chapter, the principal value of the findings was formative. Indications of what made some classes successful and others not successful were the basis for advice on how to improve future LRE classes.

In 1982, the evaluators obtained quantitative data on 36 dimensions: 10 categories of delinquent behavior, 22 antecedents of law-abiding behavior derived from the factors shown in Figure 1, and 4 dimensions not derived from delinquency theory (law-related knowledge, grade students

would give their teacher, frequency of telling parents about something useful learned in school, and students' rating of their course relative to other courses). Measures of these dimensions were administered in 30 LRE classes and 22 comparison classes (in 8 of the 18 schools in the study, there were 2 LRE classes and one comparison class).

In three LRE classes and the three conventional civics classes used for comparison, experimental and control subjects had been randomly assigned--creating the first opportunity for a true experimental design. Among the 36 dimensions for which measures were obtained, there were statistically significant experimental-control differences (.05, one-tailed test) for 18. Outcomes on all 18 dimensions favored the LRE students over the civics students. In other words, the LRE students showed reductions in delinquency, improvements in factors associated with law-abiding behavior, and gains in the nontheoretical dimensions relative to control subjects. On nine additional dimensions, there were experimental-control differences which did not reach statistical significance; eight of those nine differences favored the LRE students over the civics students.

The outcomes favoring the LRE students included reductions in frequency of committing six categories of delinquent acts (out of the ten categories measured). Forty-six percent of the same experimental and control subjects (54 out of 118) were located 16 months later to participate in a followup study.\* At 16-month followup (when subjects had just finished

---

\*Random assignment had resulted in a strong match between experimental and control groups on the dimensions measured at the start of the study in 1982. To check on the original comparability of the diminished groups available for followup, t-tests were performed on their pretest measures--with the students who were no longer available excluded. The experimental and control subjects remaining in the study differed significantly on only

their 10th-grade school year), reductions in the former LRE students' delinquent behavior relative to that of control subjects were still evident for 4 of the 6 forms of delinquency. For three of the four types of behavior, the LRE students' advantage over the controls had increased with time. There was no outcome at followup which favored control subjects over the former LRE students.

For the remaining 27 LRE classes in 1982, both the significant differences between LRE students and comparison subjects and nonsignificant trends generally favor the LRE students. Lack of strong equivalence at some sites, however, leaves these latter findings less conclusive than those from the site where random assignment occurred. In the multiple regression procedure used, measured differences at time-2 that could be due either to LRE or to time-1 differences between experimental and comparison groups are always attributed to the latter. Where time-1 differences between the groups are substantial on a given measure, the prospects that LRE will demonstrate an effect (either favorable or unfavorable) are severely diminished.

#### Findings from 1983

In 1983, the evaluators obtained quantitative data on 42 dimensions: 11 categories of delinquent behavior, 26 antecedents of law-abiding behavior derived from the factors shown in Figure 1, and 5 dimensions not derived from delinquency theory. In the main study of impact on students, measures of these dimensions were administered to students in 21 LRE

---

one pretest measure ("agreement with rationalizations for deviance"). In short, attrition did not appear to compromise seriously the initial match between students assigned to LRE and those assigned to civics.

classes and 14 comparison classes. (Identical measures were administered in eight additional LRE classes in a substudy of the effects of teacher training and experience, as reported in a later section of this chapter.)

Findings Based on a True Experimental Design. In 1983, the evaluators were able to use a true experimental design to assess impact of the nine ninth-grade LRE classes taught at one junior high school. Findings yielded by this design are more defensible than the quasi-experimental findings obtained at other sites.

Before the start of the semester, an evaluation staff person applied a table of random numbers to the entire roster of ninth-graders at this school to determine the assignment of each student to one of the three courses: LRE taught by Instructor A (five sections), LRE taught by Instructor B (four sections), or traditional civics without LRE (two sections). Students assigned to traditional civics were the control group.

Random assignment between experimental (LRE) and control classes avoided a research weakness encountered in other schools in the national study, where either steering by counselors of certain students into LRE or (in the case of elective courses) self-selection could result in something other than a representative cross-section of students enrolling in LRE. Random assignment between the two experimental groups made it possible to assess the effects of any unplanned differences between the two LRE teachers' courses.

Of further benefit to the research was the way in which LRE was implemented at that school. For several years, the school has trained its teachers in innovative strategies and encouraged their use in the

classroom. The LRE and control teachers in this study all were skilled in techniques to promote high student involvement and interaction in the learning process, mastery learning, and student team learning. With general quality of instruction held constant across classes, differences in outcomes between experimental and control students would represent the unique impact of LRE as a subject over and above the impact of superior instructional techniques.

The principal distinguishing characteristics of LRE were the content covered, activities associated with that content, and use of outside resource persons (police officers) in the classroom. The activities included mock trials, police ridealongs, home security audits, and students' taking the roles of police and other professionals in the justice system.

Through negotiations with the chief of police, the school principal obtained commitment of eight officers to the LRE program for the entire semester. This made it possible for at least one officer to participate three days a week in each LRE class. Teachers and police officers received three days of joint training prior to the start of the semester. Subsequently, the officers were able to assist in instruction by developing lesson plans; presenting topics such as search and seizure, DUI, preventing sexual assault, and being a good witness; interacting with students and teachers around controversial issues; and providing firsthand knowledge related to textbook content.\*

---

\*For an account by the police of their participation in the program, see Seib, Lawrence (Chief of Police, Loveland, CO), and Capt. W. F. Schmoll (1985).

In Table 3, the columns headed "Instructor A: 5 (classes)" and "Instructor B: 4 (classes)" display the effects of LRE for the nine classes. For the 32 measures administered at the beginning and end of the semester (those not in italics), the figures shown in the table represent the additional effect of LRE, *over and above the effects of pretest scores*. For the ten measures administered only at the end of the semester (shown in italics), the figures are the differences between LRE and control group means. *Out of the total of 42 possible effects for each set of classes, there were 18 effects that were favorable and statistically significant at .05 for the classes taught by Instructor A and 24 for those taught by Instructor B*. This is ten times the number of favorable outcomes expected to occur by chance (42 effects out of 84, compared with 4.2--or 5 percent--expected to occur by chance). In addition, there were another nine favorable outcomes (five for Instructor A and four for Instructor B) with significance levels between .05 and .10. There was no dimension affected unfavorably in either instructor's classes.

In short, students who received LRE wound up better off than students who did not on most of the dimensions measured and worse off on none. Information contained in Table 3 permits estimation of the magnitude of LRE students' advantage over control subjects. The figures shown for behavior (32-42 in the table) are average effects per LRE student relative to controls on frequency of committing delinquent acts, controlling for differences between the groups at time-1. Multiplying those figures by the number of students in each set of classes gives an estimate of the total impact of the program on certain types of

delinquency. According to this computation, for example, the program resulted in 648 fewer school rule infractions at that school  $[(2.72 \times 133) + (2.70 \times 106)]$  and 107 fewer acts of vandalism  $[(0 \times 133) + (1.01 \times 106)]$ .

The remaining measures (1-31) do not translate into concrete acts, but their approximation to normally distributed variables permits an alternate estimate of magnitude. Dividing a given effect by the control group standard deviation (and referring to a table showing areas under a normal curve) is a way to identify the approximate standing relative to control subjects of an "average" LRE student. For 30 percent of the possible outcomes, this computation indicates that LRE students surpassed at least 70 percent of control subjects (effect of LRE = .52 or more standard deviation units). For another 28 percent of the possible outcomes, LRE students surpassed between 60 and 70 percent of control subjects (effect = .25 to .51 standard deviation units). There was no outcome in which control subjects surpassed LRE students.

For 10 of the 11 behavior categories and 25 of the 31 other outcomes, the effects for the 2 sets of classes (Instructor A and Instructor B) parallel each other. The single nonparallel behavioral effect is of particular interest. *Frequency of vandalism* (36) showed a significant reduction for classes taught by Instructor B, but no effect for classes taught by Instructor A. Evaluators' classroom observation records show that Instructor B had included two lessons on this topic. In one, students discussed the use of Halloween as a rationalization for damaging property; in the other, students came to recognize vandalism as an indication of disloyalty to their school.

Comparison of the 1983 findings with those obtained a year earlier at this school (also with a true experimental design) suggests a possible unintended consequence of police participation in the program. Although LRE students again displayed gains relative to those in control classes in *favorable attitudes toward police* (16), the *control* students at the end of the fall 1983 semester scored as high on this measure as the LRE students had scored in the pilot program (two sections) the year before. Since the bulk of ninth-graders were receiving LRE in 1983, word-of-mouth may have resulted in a spread of this favorable effect to students who did not have direct classroom experience with police officers. Also, the LRE classrooms were located close to the control classroom in the same school corridor; all ninth-grade students would have become accustomed to the regular presence of police for reasons that had nothing to do with trouble.

The numerous uniformly favorable outcomes of the LRE program at this junior high school surpass those obtained elsewhere. A superior research design increased the prospects for identifying effects (both favorable and unfavorable), but most of the difference in outcomes appear due to quality of implementation. Distinguishing this program from many less successful ones were the extensive use of outside resource persons, the activities used to engage students, the choice and way of presenting illustrative material, and strong administrative support. In sum, the evaluators' observation of training and classrooms, logs submitted by teachers, and discussion with the principal indicate that the features associated with favorable impact on the dimensions measured were present to an extraordinarily high degree at this school.

What are the prospects for repeating the program just described elsewhere? This school is unusual, but not in ways that are impossible to replicate. What sets it apart most are not demographic characteristics, but eagerness of its personnel to experiment with innovative courses and teaching strategies and their willingness to tolerate scheduling inconvenience for the sake of research to assess accurately what works and what does not. Located about halfway between Denver and the northern Colorado border, it is one of three junior high schools in its district. Seventeen percent of its 880 students come from low income families (as gauged by eligibility for subsidized school lunches) and 11 percent are minority. (For comparison, percentages for all schools in the main impact study appear in Table 6). The prospects for replicating this program elsewhere depend less on demographic characteristics than on the feasibility of obtaining the seven conditions associated with institutionalization of LRE at the local level, as described in the final section of this chapter.\*

---

\*Subsequent to this study, the LRE program was replicated successfully in the remaining two junior high schools in the district. The principals of those schools had participated in planning sessions in summer of 1982; the decision to pilot LRE at Bill Reed Junior High School (the subject of the findings reported here) was made jointly by all three principals. Throughout 1982 and 1983, the principals of the nonparticipating schools were kept informed of refinements in the LRE curriculum; reactions to the course by students, parents, and others in the community (overwhelmingly favorable); and the evaluation findings. In spring of 1984, a decision was made to introduce LRE on an experimental basis in those two schools in the coming fall semester. One-third of the ninth-graders at each school were randomly assigned to LRE in fall 1984. The new LRE teachers and additional police officers received intensive training during the summer from those who had taught the course at the pilot school.

The district arranged for a stringent evaluation of the program's impact on students at the two newly participating schools. That evaluation (not part of the OJJDP study) used pre- and post-measures similar to those described in this report and a true experimental design. The favorable effects of the program in 1984 on delinquency and factors associated with law-abiding behavior surpassed those obtained at the pilot school in 1982 and 1983. During the 1985-86 school year, the plan is for every ninth-grade student in the district (at all three junior high schools) to receive LRE. (See Johnson, 1985.)

Findings from All Sites. Tables 2, 3, and 4 display outcomes for each teacher's class or set of classes at high school, junior high, and elementary levels, respectively. Although varying in number and magnitude, outcomes obtained in 19 of the 21 classes studied were either predominantly or entirely favorable.

For the five high school classes, significant favorable outcomes (those marked with an asterisk in Table 2) on the average exceeded the number expected to occur by chance by a ratio of nearly six-to-one and outnumbered unfavorable effects by more than seven-to-one. As reported in the preceding section, 9 of the 12 junior high classes had dramatic, uniformly favorable outcomes. In two of the remaining junior high classes (columns C and D in Table 3), favorable effects exceeded the number expected by chance and outnumbered unfavorable effects, but by a much smaller margin. In the remaining junior high class (column E in Table 3), favorable effects just equaled chance expectations and were exceeded slightly by unfavorable effects. The same is true of one elementary class (column D in Table 4). In the other three elementary classes (columns A, B, and C in Table 4), the significant effects were uniformly favorable and exceeded chance expectations by ratios of from four- to six-to-one.

Based on the classes in this study, some of the dimensions measured appear far more amenable than others to effects from LRE. Thirty of the 42 possible outcomes showed favorable effects (significant at .05 or .10) in 4 or more LRE classes out of 21. Only one outcome was affected unfavorably this often. Table 5 shows in descending order the percentage of classes having favorable and unfavorable effects on each dimension. That table also displays the estimated range of effect sizes for each

TABLE 2

## IMPACT OF LRE CLASSES ON HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, FALL 1983 (5 CLASSES)

Outcome Measured	Desired Effect	Effect of Law-Related Education (Instructor: Number of Classes)			Aggregate Mean	Std. Dev. (control)	Fav Eff	Zero Eff	Unfav Eff
		(A: 2 ) N= 43	(B: 1 ) N= 25	(C: 2 ) N= 54					
<b>EFFECTS OUTSIDE THE THEORETICAL MODEL</b>									
1. Factual knowledge of the law and legal processes.	+	+10.7*	+7.9*	+5.0*	66.5	13.0 (13.1)	5	0	0
2. Frequency of telling parents about something useful learned in a class.	+	0	+1.96*	+1.33*	5.64	2.99 (3.01)	3	2	0
3. Praise received at home for something done in school.	+	0	0	0	5.29	1.15 (1.23)	0	5	0
4. Grade students would give their teacher for this course.	+	+ .47*	+ .68*	+ .52*	5.36	.79 (.86)	5	0	0
5. Students' rating of this course relative to others (better, same, worse).	+	+ .51*	+ .91*	+ .85*	2.55	.65 (.69)	5	0	0
<b>THEORY-BASED CORRELATES OF BEHAVIOR COMMITMENT</b>									
6. Perceived opportunities for demonstrating competence to teachers.	+	0	0	+ .24	5.86	.69 (.77)	2	3	0
7. Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in school.	+	0	0	0	2.73	.41 (.40)	0	5	0
8. Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in this class.	+	+ .15*	0	0	2.48	.44 (.43)	2	3	0
9. Students' rating of this course as being really helpful.	+	+ .21	+ .67*	+ .61*	2.35	.61 (.61)	5	0	0
<b>ATTACHMENT</b>									
10. Really liking some teachers and believing they care about you as a person.	+	+ .38*	+ .23*	0	5.77	.66 (.71)	3	2	0
11. Support offered by teachers to build your interest and help you.	+	0	0	0	5.10	.72 (.74)	0	5	0
<b>INVOLVEMENT</b>									
12. Timely completion of assignments and coming to class prepared to participate.	+	0	0	0	5.66	.60 (.66)	0	5	0
13. Amount of time spent doing homework.	+	0	0	0	5.47	1.47 (1.63)	0	5	0
14. "Clockwatching" in this class.	-	-1.55*	-1.52*	-1.11*	5.00	1.20 (1.00)	5	0	0
15. Encouragement from the teacher in this class of special projects by students.	+	+ .56*	+ .50*	+ .69*	5.19	.95 (.95)	5	0	0
<b>BELIEF</b>									
16. Favorable attitudes toward police.	+	0	- .29*	0	2.85	.79 (.78)	0	4	1
17. Belief that judges try to be fair and just.	+	0	+ .43*	+ .26	5.80	.87 (.92)	3	2	0
18. Unfavorable attitudes toward deviance.	+	0	0	0	5.53	.55 (.60)	0	5	0
19. Favorable attitudes toward personal violence.	-	0	0	+ .25*	2.20	.72 (.69)	0	3	2
20. Rationalizations that delinquent behavior is acceptable sometimes.	-	0	0	0	2.04	.61 (.61)	0	5	0

\*Significant at .05 (one-tailed test). (All other figures are significant at .10)

x = Unfavorable effect.

Table 2 (cont.)

Outcome Measured	Desired Effect	Effect of Law-Related Education (Instructor: Number of Classes)			Aggregate Mean	Std. Dev. (control)	# of Fav Eff	Classes w/ Zero Eff	Unfav Eff
		(A: 2)	(B: 1)	(C: 2)					
		N= 43	N= 25	N= 54					
<u>EQUALITY</u>									
21. Belief that you are treated fairly in school with respect to rules, grades.	+	0	0	0	4.20	.59	0	5	0
22. Perception that the rules in this class have applied the same to everybody.	+	+.30*	+.52*	+.51*	4.33	.72 (.81)	5	0	0
23. Perception that the teacher in this class grades fairly.	+	0	+.68*	+.27	4.21	.84 (.89)	3	2	0
<u>LABELING</u>									
24. Your parents would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	0	0	2.05	.75 (.91)	0	5	0
25. Your teachers would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	0	-.26*	1.83	.77 (.85)	2	3	0
26. Your friends would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	0	+.22 <sub>x</sub>	2.07	.86 (.90)	0	3	2
<u>PEER RELATIONSHIPS</u>									
27. Delinquent peer influence.	-	+.21*	0	0	2.11	.67 (.66)	0	3	2
28. Exposure to delinquent peers.	-	0	0	0	1.86	.64 (.62)	0	5	0
29. Students in this class willing to help one another with questions, course work.	+	0	+.44*	+.46*	3.74	.85 (.95)	3	2	0
30. When other students speak in this class, they have something worthwhile to say.	+	+.71*	+.82*	+.88*	3.76	.86 (.91)	5	0	0
31. The other students in this class pay attention when you are talking.	+	0	+.76*	+.84*	3.74	.77 (.86)	3	2	0
<u>FREQUENCIES OF DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR</u>									
32. School rule infractions (cheat on tests, skip school, and two more).	-	0	0	0	6.12	3.45 (6.51)	0	5	0
33. Drinking alcohol.	-	0	0	0	4.09	4.04 (3.68)	0	5	0
34. Violence against other students (using knife, rock, or stick).	-	0	0	0	.21	1.14 (1.25)	0	5	0
35. Minor theft (steal less than \$50. joyride).	-	0	+.45*	0	.73	2.21 (2.11)	0	4	1
36. Vandalism (damage or destroy school or public property).	-	0	0	-.46*	.72	1.67 (1.82)	2	3	0
37. Go out with a group planning to fight or break the law.	-	.51	0	0	.78	2.06 (2.39)	2	3	0
38. Other status offenses (lie about age, run away).	-	0	0	0	1.80	2.73 (2.70)	0	5	0
39. Index offenses (strong-arm, break and enter, car theft, and two more).	-	-.34*	0	0	.38	1.79 (1.49)	2	3	0
40. Minor fraud (avoid paying for food, movies, shows).	-	.54	0	0	.80	1.77 (2.14)	2	3	0
41. Smoking marijuana.	-	0	0	0	1.83	3.38 (2.81)	0	5	0
42. Hard drug use.	-	0	0	0	.39	1.47 (1.50)	0	5	0

\*Significant at .05 (one-tailed test). (All other

x = Unfavorable effect.

TABLE 3

## IMPACT OF LRE ON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, FALL 1983 (12 CLASSES)

Outcome Measured	Desired Effect	Effect of Law-Related Education (Instructor: Number of Classes)					Aggregate Mean	Std. Dev. (control)	# of Classes w/		
		(A: 5) N=153	(B: 4) N=106	(C: 1) N= 58	(D: 1) N= 25	(E: 1) N= 25			Fav Eff	Zero Eff	Unfav Eff
<b>EFFECTS OUTSIDE THE THEORETICAL MODEL</b>											
1. Factual knowledge of the law and legal processes.	+	+13.5*	+11.3*	+14.3*	+12.5*	+18.9*	69.5 (15.6)	16.0	12	0	0
2. Frequency of telling parents about something useful learned in a class.	+	+ .86*	+1.48*	0	0	0	3.73 (3.34)	3.15	9	3	0
3. Praise received at home for something done in school.	+	0	+ .29	+ .34	0	0	3.67 (1.21)	1.12	5	7	0
4. Grade students would give their teacher for this course.	+	+ .96*	+1.00*	0	+ .39*	0	3.29 (.85)	.94	10	2	0
5. Students' rating of this course relative to others (better, same, worse).	+	+ .49*	+ .53*	0	0	0	2.24 (.68)	.70	9	3	0
<b>THEORY-BASED CORRELATES OF BEHAVIOR COMMITMENT</b>											
6. Perceived opportunities for demonstrating competence to teachers.	+	+ .40*	+ .45*	+ .33*	0	0	3.79 (.83)	.75	10	2	0
7. Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in school.	+	0	0	0	0	+ .10	2.63 (.36)	.38	1	11	0
8. Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in this class.	+	+ .11	0	0	0	+ .16	2.53 (.43)	.43	6	6	0
9. Students' rating of this course as being really helpful.	+	+ .52*	+ .55*	-.19 <sub>x</sub>	0	0	2.28 (.57)	.58	9	2	1
<b>ATTACHMENT</b>											
10. Really liking some teachers and believing they care about you as a person.	+	+ .37*	+ .45*	0	0	-.50 <sub>x</sub>	3.69 (.93)	.86	9	2	1
11. Support offered by teachers to build your interest and help you.	+	0	+ .34*	0	0	0	3.21 (.78)	.81	4	8	0
<b>INVOLVEMENT</b>											
12. Timely completion of assignments and coming to class prepared to participate.	+	+ .22*	+ .16*	0	0	0	3.70 (.63)	.62	9	3	0
13. Amount of time spent doing homework.	+	+ .24	+ .50*	0	+ .77*	0	3.00 (1.28)	1.19	10	2	0
14. "Clockwatching" in this class.	-	-.89*	-1.22*	0	0	0	3.29 (1.12)	1.07	9	3	0
15. Encouragement from the teacher in this class of special projects by students.	+	+ .54*	+ .75*	-.39 <sub>x</sub>	+ .54*	-.52 <sub>x</sub>	3.25 (1.06)	1.05	10	0	2
<b>BELIEF</b>											
16. Favorable attitudes toward police.	+	+ .16	+ .28*	+ .23	0	0	3.36 (.78)	.80	10	2	0
17. Belief that judges try to be fair and just.	+	0	0	+ .41*	0	+ .65*	3.89 (.97)	.95	2	10	0
18. Unfavorable attitudes toward deviance.	+	0	0	0	0	0	3.48 (.53)	.52	0	12	0
19. Favorable attitudes toward personal violence.	-	-.20*	-.54*	+ .26 <sub>x</sub>	0	+ .34 <sub>x</sub>	2.33 (.83)	.86	9	1	2
20. Rationalizations that delinquent behavior is acceptable sometimes.	-	0	-.25*	0	0	0	1.99 (.71)	.69	4	8	0

\*Significant at .05 (one-tailed test). (All other figures are significant at .10)

x = Unfavorable effect.

Table 3 (cont.)

Outcome Measured	Desired Effect	Effect of Law-Related Education (Instructor: Number of Classes)					Aggregate Mean	Std. Dev. (con- trols)	# of Fav Eff	Classes w/ Zero Eff	Unfav Eff
		(A: 5 )	(B: 4 )	(C: 1 )	(D: 1 )	(E: 1 )					
		N=133	N=106	N= 38	N= 25	N= 25					
<u>EQUALITY</u>											
21. Belief that you are treated fairly in school with respect to rules, grades.	+	.42*	.51*	0	0	0	4.12	.75 (.85)	9	3	0
22. Perception that the rules in this class have applied the same to everybody.	+	.63*	.84*	.61*	.34*	0	4.09	.97 (1.11)	11	1	0
23. Perception that the teacher in this class grades fairly.	+	.97*	1.05*	0	0	0	4.03	1.01 (1.11)	9	3	0
<u>LABELING</u>											
24. Your parents would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	-.17	0	0	0	2.00	.77 (.85)	4	8	0
25. Your teachers would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	0	0	0	0	1.97	.87 (.92)	0	12	0
26. Your friends would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	0	0	0	0	2.08	.99 (.95)	0	12	0
<u>PEER RELATIONSHIPS</u>											
27. Delinquent peer influence.	-	0	0	0	0	0	2.19	.84 (.82)	0	12	0
28. Exposure to delinquent peers.	-	0	0	0	0	0	1.71	.69 (.63)	0	12	0
29. Students in this class willing to help one another with questions, course work.	+	0	.35*	.63*	0	0	3.60	.92 (.97)	5	7	0
30. When other students speak in this class, they have something worthwhile to say.	+	.36*	.57*	.55*	.46	0	3.69	.83 (.87)	11	1	0
31. The other students in this class pay attention when you are talking.	+	.32*	.51*	.32	0	-.42 <sub>x</sub>	3.59	.82 (.86)	10	1	1
<u>FREQUENCIES OF DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR</u>											
32. School rule infractions (cheat on tests, skip school, and two more).	-	-2.72*	-2.70*	0	-2.13	0	4.86	5.75 (6.99)	10	2	0
33. Drinking alcohol.	-	.82*	.94*	0	0	0	2.65	3.46 (3.58)	9	3	0
34. Violence against other students (using knife, rock, or stick).	-	0	0	0	-.38	0	.14	.60 (.52)	1	11	0
35. Minor theft (steal less than \$50. i.e. override).	-	0	0	0	-1.17*	0	1.38	3.25 (3.80)	1	11	0
36. Vandalism (damage or destroy school or public property).	-	0	-1.01*	.71 <sub>x</sub>	0	-.67	1.20	2.87 (3.81)	5	6	1
37. Go out with a group planning to fight or break the law.	-	.45	.39	0	0	0	.74	1.74 (2.10)	9	3	0
38. Other status offenses (lie about age, run away).	-	0	0	0	0	0	1.35	2.42 (2.02)	0	12	0
39. Index offenses (strong-arm, break and enter, car theft, and two more).	-	0	0	0	.36 <sub>x</sub>	0	.52	1.75 (1.80)	0	11	1
40. Minor fraud (avoid paying for food, movies, shows).	-	.35	.41	0	0	0	.79	1.82 (2.00)	9	3	0
41. Smoking marijuana.	-	0	0	.53 <sub>x</sub>	0	0	.90	2.36 (1.98)	0	11	1
42. Hard drug use.	-	0	0	0	0	0	.22	1.07 (1.19)	0	12	0

\*Significant at .05 (one-tailed test). (All other

40

x = Unfavorable effect.

TABLE 4

IMPACT OF LRE ON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS, FALL 1983 (4 CLASSES)

Outcome Measured	Desired Effect	Effect of Law-Related Education (Instructor: Number of Classes)				Aggregate Mean	Std. Dev. (control)	# of Fav Eff	Classes w/ Zero Eff	Unfav Eff
		(A: 1) N= 25	(B: 1) N= 23	(C: 1) N= 25	(D: 1) N= 25					
<b>EFFECTS OUTSIDE THE THEORETICAL MODEL</b>										
1. Factual knowledge of the law and legal processes.	+	+30.9*	+17.8*	+22.5*	+ 7.5*	60.3	20.9 (18.1)	4	0	0
2. Frequency of telling parents about something useful learned in a class.	+	0	0	-1.85 <sub>x</sub>	0	3.58	3.36 (3.34)	0	3	1
3. Praise received at home for something done in school.	+	0	+ .58*	0	0	3.81	1.15 (1.09)	1	3	0
4. Grade students would give the teacher in this room.	+	+ .87*	+1.81*	+ .71*	- .48 <sub>x</sub>	3.26	1.08 (1.27)	3	0	1
5. Students' rating of things learned in this room as better than things learned in school last year.	+	+ .23	+ .43*	+ .23*	0	1.81	.39 (.46)	3	1	0
<b>THEORY-BASED CORRELATES OF BEHAVIOR COMMITMENT</b>										
6. Perceived opportunities for demonstrating competence to teachers.	+	+ .86*	+ .94*	+ .56*	0	3.89	.95 (1.09)	3	1	0
7. Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in school.	+	+ .16*	0	+ .19	0	2.80	.37 (.45)	2	2	0
8. Students' rating of this class as being really helpful.	+	+ .18	+ .25*	0	0	1.88	.33 (.35)	2	2	0
<b>ATTACHMENT</b>										
9. Support offered by teachers to build your interest and help you.	+	+ .39	+ .68*	+ .44	0	3.71	.92 (.91)	3	1	0
<b>INVOLVEMENT</b>										
10. Encouragement from the teacher in this class of special projects by students.	+	0	0	+ .52*	+ .08	1.84	.37 (.42)	2	2	0
<b>BELIEF</b>										
11. Favorable attitudes toward police.	+	+ .59*	0	- .32 <sub>x</sub>	0	3.67	.85 (.89)	1	2	1
12. Belief that judges try to be fair and just.	+	+ .46	0	0	0	4.01	1.21 (1.26)	1	3	0
13. Unfavorable attitudes toward deviance.	+	+ .21*	0	0	- .11*	3.62	.56 (.49)	1	2	1
14. Favorable attitudes toward personal violence.	-	0	0	0	0	2.01	.97 (.93)	0	4	0
15. Rationalizations that delinquent behavior is acceptable sometimes.	-	0	0	0	0	1.93	.80 (.79)	0	4	0

\*Significant at .05 (one-tailed test). (All other figures are significant at .10.)

x = Unfavorable effect.

Table 4 (cont.)

Outcome Measured	Desired Effect	Effect of Law-Related Education (Instructor: Number of Classes)				Aggregate Mean	Std. Dev. (control)	# of Classes w/		
		(A: 1)	(B: 1)	(C: 1)	(D: 1)			Fav Eff	Zero Eff	Unfav Eff
		N= 25	N= 23	N= 25	N= 25					
<u>EQUALITY</u>										
16. Belief that you are treated fairly in school with respect to rules, grades.	+	+ .59*	+1.01*	0	0	4.18	.91 (.98)	2	2	0
<u>LABELING</u>										
17. Your parents would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	0	0	0	1.80	.82 (.75)	0	4	0
18. Your teachers would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	-.74*	0	0	1.76	.91 (.88)	1	3	0
19. Your friends would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	-.22	-.22	0	0	1.74	.89 (.86)	2	2	0
<u>PEER RELATIONSHIPS</u>										
20. Delinquent peer influence.	-	0	0	0	0	1.97	.90 (1.02)	0	4	0
21. Exposure to delinquent peers.	-	0	0	0	0	1.50	.76 (.78)	0	4	0
22. Students in this class willing help one another with questions, school work.	+	0	0	0	0	1.84	.37 (.38)	0	4	0
23. The other students in this room usually ask good questions.	+	+ .55*	+ .46*	+ .39*	0	1.84	.37 (.47)	3	1	0
24. The other students in this class listen to you when you are talking.	+	0	+ .18	+ .24*	0	1.86	.35 (.39)	2	2	0
<u>FREQUENCIES OF DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR</u>										
25. School rule infractions (cheat on tests, skip school, and two more).	-	-1.58	-1.69	0	+1.29*	2.31	4.39 (4.05)	2	1	1
26. Drinking alcohol.	-	0	0	0	0	.87	2.37 (2.62)	0	4	0
27. Violence against other students (using knife, rock, or stick).	-	0	0	0	0	.59	2.08 (1.95)	0	4	0
28. Minor theft (steal less than \$50. joyride).	-	+ .77 <sub>x</sub>	+1.25 <sub>x</sub>	0	0	1.94	5.04 (5.49)	0	2	2
29. Vandalism (damage or destroy school or public property).	-	0	0	0	0	.89	2.88 (2.91)	0	4	0
30. Go out with a group planning to fight or break the law.	-	-.37	0	0	0	.47	1.59 (1.94)	1	3	0
31. Other status offenses (lie about age, run away).	-	-.35*	0	0	0	.16	.95 (1.42)	1	3	0
32. Index offenses (strong-arm, break and enter, car theft, and two more).	-	0	0	0	0	.92	3.87 (3.21)	0	4	0
33. Minor fraud (avoid paying for food, movies, shows).	-	-.32	0	-.95	+ .18	.57	1.29 (1.69)	2	1	1
34. Smoking Marijuana.	-	0	0	0	0	.26	1.34 (.79)	0	4	0

\*Significant at .05 (one-tailed test). (All other figures are significant at .10.)

x = Unfavorable effect.

dimension (computed in control group standard deviation units). As shown in a later section of this chapter, the classes that received high ratings from observers on their quality of implementation are usually the same classes that produced favorable effects on students. Accordingly, the figures in Table 5 should not be regarded as probabilities that any future LRE class will have an impact on a particular dimension. *The likelihood of favorable impact depends on how well a course is taught and how closely an LRE program adheres to the recommendations presented in the final chapter of this report.*

Among the eight schools in the 1983 study, comparison of those having LRE classes with more and less favorable outcomes reveals no clear pattern of differentiation according to demographic characteristics. As shown in Table 6, the distribution of school sizes is about the same in both categories. The schools with the highest and lowest percentage of minority enrollment both are in the "more favorable" category. The two schools with the highest percentages of low income students (those eligible for subsidized school lunches) fall in the "less favorable" category, although the percentage for one of the schools in the "more favorable" category is only slightly lower. *A more pronounced difference pertains to the number of LRE classes and teachers in a given school.* All four of the schools with more favorable outcomes offer multiple LRE classes, and three of them each have two LRE teachers. This is true of only one school having less favorable outcomes. (One of the recommendations for an effective LRE program is for opportunities for collegial peer support among teachers.)

TABLE 9: EFFECTS OF LRE OBTAINED MORE OFTEN THAN EXPECTED BY CHANCE  
RANKED FROM MOST TO LEAST FREQUENT (30 OUT OF 42 ITEMS)

Outcome Measured	ALL LRE CLASSES (5 HS + 12 JHS + 4 Elem)		RANGE IN SIZE OF EFFECT (in control group standard deviation units)
	% Having Favorable Effect	% Having Unfavorable Effect	
Factual knowledge of the law and legal processes. (1)	100%	0%	.4-1.7
Perception that the rules in this class have applied the same to everybody.* (22)	94%	0%	.3-.8
When other students speak in this class, they have something worthwhile to say. (30)	90%	0%	.4-1.2
Grade students would give their teacher for this course. (4)	86%	5%	.5-1.2
"Clockwatching" in this class.* (14)	82%	0	.8-1.5
Students' rating of this course relative to others (better, same, worse). (5)	81%	0%	.5-1.2
Encouragement from the teacher in this class of special projects by students (15)	81%	10%	.2-.7
Students rating of this course as being really helpful. (9)	76%	5%	.3-1.1
Perceived opportunities for demonstrating competence to teachers. (6)	71%	0%	.3-.9
Perception that the teacher in this class grades fairly.* (23)	71%	0%	.3-.9
Really liking some teachers and believing they care about you as a person.* (10)	71%	5%	.3-.5
The other students in this class pay attention when you are talking. (31)	71%	5%	.4-1.0
Minor fraud (avoid paying for food, movies, shows). (40)	62%	5%	.2-.6
Amount of time spent doing homework.* (13)	59%	0%	.2-.6
Go out with a group planning to fight or break the law. (37)	57%	0%	.2-.2
School rule infractions (cheat on tests, skip school, and two more). (32)	57%	5%	.3-.4
Frequency of telling parents about something useful learned in a class. (2)	56%	5%	.3-.7
Timely completion of assignments and coming to class prepared to participate.* (12)	55%	0%	.3-.3
Belief that you are treated fairly in school with respect to rules, grades. (21)	52%	0%	.5-1.0
Favorable attitudes toward police. (16)	52%	10%	.2-.7
Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in this class.* (8)	47%	0%	.3-.4
Drinking alcohol. (33)	45%	0%	.2-.5
Favorable attitudes toward personal violence. (19)	45%	19%	.2-.4
Students in this class willing to help one another with questions, course work. (29)	58%	0%	.4-.6
Support offered by teachers to build your interest and help you. (11)	33%	0%	.4-.7
Vandalism (damage or destroy school or public property). (36)	33%	5%	.2-.3
Praise received at home for something done in school. (3)	29%	0%	.2-.5
Belief that judges try to be fair and just. (17)	29%	0%	.3-.7
Rationalizations that delinquent behavior is acceptable sometimes. (20)	19%	0%	.4-.4
Your parents would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid. (24)	19%	0%	.2-.2

\*Measured only at high school and junior high levels (17 classes).

(Note: The numbers in parentheses following the items are those of the outcomes measures as listed on Tables 4 and 5.)

**TABLE 6: CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOLS HAVING LRE CLASSES WITH MORE AND LESS FAVORABLE OUTCOMES**

	School Level	Teacher	Number of LRE Classes	Class ID Numbers	School ID #	School Size*	% Minority	% Low Income
SCHOOLS HAVING LRE CLASSES WITH MORE FAVORABLE OUTCOMES	High School	A	2	11,12	1	3	70	33
	High School	B C	1 2	13 14,15	2	2	0	8
	Junior High	A B	5 4	16 thru 20 21 thru 24	3	2	11	17
	Elementary	A B	1 1	28 29	6	1	20	0
SCHOOLS HAVING LRE CLASSES WITH LESS FAVORABLE OUTCOMES	Junior High	C	1	25	4	3	47	40
	Junior High	D E	1 1	26 27	5	3	37	13
	Elementary	C	1	30	7	2	50	38
	Elementary	D	1	31	8	1	30	10

\*1 = under 500 students  
 2 = 500-1000 students  
 3 = over 1000 students

### Summary of Student Impact Findings

From 1981 to 1983, evaluators assessed student impact of a total of 61 LRE classes. The study showed that LRE can improve students' attitudes, perceptions, and behavior. The proportion of evaluated classes producing significant favorable effects on these variables increased over the course of the study. In 1981, there were equal numbers of LRE classes having mostly favorable and mostly unfavorable outcomes; in 1983, 19 out of 21 classes had predominantly favorable outcomes (though with substantial variation in number and magnitude).

The outcomes obtained in 1983 show what is possible when implementation of LRE approximates a set of specified standards. Neither the strong experimental evidence nor the predominantly favorable quasi-experimental evidence reported here imply that adopting an LRE textbook and offering a course by that name will automatically impart law-abiding attitudes or improve students' behavior. Some classes have been far more successful than others in accomplishing these objectives. Their varying effectiveness can be attributed neither to chance nor to differing demographic characteristics of the schools in which they were offered.

The next three sections of this chapter report on factors that distinguish effective LRE classes from ineffective ones. The classes studied were uneven in observed quality, as well as in their impact on students. They all conveyed knowledge about the law, but the ones that succeeded in terms of delinquency prevention are those which combined practices recognized as conducive to quality instruction of any subject (e.g., checking for understanding) with practices recommended specifically for effective LRE (e.g., adept handling of debate around controversial legal

issues). Consistent with this evidence is the additional finding that increased amounts of LRE training received by teachers and greater experience in teaching LRE tend to make LRE classes more effective.

#### Quality of Implementation

Classroom observations provide a record of what occurred in the classes studied in all three years of the evaluation. Observers' records yield information on the *process* that produced the quantitative outcomes reported in the preceding section. That information has been the basis for *formative* evaluation over the course of the study; i.e., feedback to trainers and others on ways to improve LRE classes in each successive year.

From the outset of the study, the expectation that LRE could produce gains in students' law-abiding behavior and factors associated with good citizenship presupposed the use of suitable curriculum materials *combined with thoughtful, skillful, and persistent use of certain classroom practices*. In order to make uniform judgments about the quality of implementation of LRE in individual classrooms, evaluation staff used an observation format to record a preselected set of practices and other classroom events likely to have either favorable or unfavorable consequences. The selection of what to record in 1981 (the first year of the study) was based on recommendations for effective implementation from national LRE curriculum developers, inferences from delinquency theory, and literature on effective teaching. The evaluators drew from the first year analysis to refine the observation format used in 1982 and 1983.

### Quality of Implementation in 1981

Seven of the ten classes in the 1981 study were observed. Recorded classroom practices and events were grouped into three categories, each representing one dimension of quality of implementation. Based on the observers' reports, every class received a rating of from "1" (lowest) to "5" (highest) on (a) prospects for building positive attitudes toward the law, (b) prospects for increasing attachments to the school, and (c) prospects for altering peer relationships favorably. The individual class ratings appear in Table 7.

TABLE 7:  
OBSERVED QUALITY OF IMPLEMENTATION IN 1981 LRE CLASSES

CLASS	RATINGS			
	<u>Attitudes</u>	<u>Attachments</u>	<u>Peer Relations</u>	<u>Total</u>
A	5	5	4	14
B	5	5	4	14
C	3	2	3	8
D	1	4	3	8
E	3	2	1	6
F	3	3	3	9
G	3	4	4	11

The highest rated classes (A and B) used police officers as coteachers extensively for about half the semester. The high ratings on "prospects for building positive attitudes toward the law" reflect the balanced view presented by the regular teacher and the participating officers. Students heard neither sermon-like admonitions to obey the law nor unrelenting horror stories about guilty persons going free or innocent persons being punished. The high ratings on "attachments" in

part reflect the good humor and warmth that the instructors conveyed to students (without taking time away from the lessons). The moderately high rating on "peer relations" resulted partly from encouragement given students to answer one another's questions during classroom discussion. No class received a rating of "5" on this dimension, because none made use of structured team learning exercises.

The lowest rating on the "attitude" dimension was for Class D, located in a predominantly black inner-city school. On one of the days the class was observed, the teacher concluded a discussion of the Patty Hearst case by telling students, "Your ability to get justice depends on your lawyers and what you can afford to pay." On another observed day, the teacher remarked (without elaborating) that "a high percentage of police in this town are killing blacks." The lowest rating on "peer relations" was for Class E. There, the teacher displayed a tendency to cut off enthusiastic discussion among students ("Hold it! I know more about this case than you do").

Although less detailed than in subsequent years, the 1981 observation ratings--as will be shown later in this chapter--proved to be extremely accurate predictors of the student impact findings obtained in the observed classes.

After analyzing the observation ratings, student impact data, and interview responses from teachers and administrators, the evaluators conducted two two-day meetings with project directors and trainers. At that time, curriculum projects received recommendations for strengthening their program of training and assistance in the coming year. Those recommendations are summarized in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Formative Evaluation--Recommendations to National Projects for Strengthening Their Training and Assistance (Beginning in 1982)

---

*Theoretical premises:* Curriculum projects were asked to introduce participating teachers to underlying theoretical premises pertaining to delinquency prevention, on the grounds that an understanding of key principles might help teachers in sorting out the day-to-day or week-to-week judgments about the preparation of materials, design of lessons, and conduct of classroom instruction.

*Instructional quality:* Programs were advised to demonstrate and stress the importance of a carefully planned and executed sequence of instruction, adequate to the inherent complexity and ambiguity of the curriculum content, and to propose that schools give careful consideration to decisions about the amount of allocated time and the degree of congruence between IRE and other curriculum areas.

*Selection/balance:* Programs were advised to highlight the importance of the judicious selection and balance of curriculum materials and examples. While published curriculum materials tended to reflect the desired balance, supplemental materials or examples chosen by teachers sometimes erred on the side of violations of rights perpetrated in the name of justice or, conversely, jeopardized credibility by portraying the American system of justice as flawless.

*Managing controversy:* Programs were advised to provide teachers with guidelines and practice in managing controversy and conflict in the classroom.

*Active student participation:* Programs were advised to assist teachers in expanding the opportunities and tactics for generating active student participation, including more frequent student-to-student interaction.

*Cooperative/small group work:* Programs were advised to concentrate on methods for preparing and conducting small group (cooperative) activities in order to make them both productive and satisfying to students.

*Preparation of outside resource people:* Programs were advised to prepare guidelines for teachers on the adequate preparation of outside resource people for participation in classrooms.

*Administrator and peer support:* Programs were encouraged to solicit active administrator involvement as one requirement of site selection, and to cultivate on-site opportunities for peer support among participating teachers.

## Quality of Implementation in 1982

All classes in the 1982 study were observed. The observation format was altered to capture greater detail on program implementation and to assess more directly the features recommended for emphasis after the 1981 evaluation. Observers organized their classroom records around nine dimensions, grouped into three categories: *quality of curriculum treatment*, *quality of instruction*, and *quality of interaction*.\* The following are highlights of observers' assessments of the 30 LRE classes; the percentages of classes rated high, moderate, and low on each dimension appear in Table 8.

### Quality of Curriculum Treatment

*Depth and Density.* In the first year's observations, evaluators had judged that, in many cases, instruction was neither organized nor sequenced nor paced in a way that led to in-depth understanding of complex and ambiguous concepts characteristic of LRE. Much of the classroom treatment was superficial, and teachers often felt at a disadvantage with respect to technical knowledge about the law. The projects addressed this problem in 1982 by encouraging teachers to draw upon knowledgeable community resource persons, by adding detail to curriculum materials, and, in one project, by making systematic and frequent use of law students as teachers in LRE classes. By observers' accounts, depth of treatment was still problematic. The strongest teachers used a variety of activities to teach the main concepts, probed in detail for students' reasoning and for examples, and

---

\*Illustrations of each dimension appear in Chapter 2, Figure 2.

established a classroom atmosphere in which uncertainty was acceptable (e.g., "we're learning this together"). In other classes, teachers accepted one-word answers in response to review questions, spent little time probing for student understanding, used a limited array of practice exercises, and frequently displayed inadequate preparation for the lesson.

*Selection and Balance.* In the previous evaluation, extreme depictions of law enforcement and justice as either near-perfect or rampant with flaws appeared to produce negative effects on students' belief in the moral validity of the law. That finding prompted a concern for "balance." Trainers conveyed this concern to teachers in their 1982 workshops, often pointing to published texts and teachers' guides as "safe" sources of examples and discussion topics. All but one of the LRE classes observed were rated at least adequate in achieving balance. Following the pointer given by trainers, a majority of the teachers taught straight from project materials.

#### Quality of Instruction

Recommendations for 1982 classes had included expanding the care with which teachers made clear to students what they were to learn, the persistence with which they checked the degree of students' understanding, and the clarity with which they presented tasks. Two-thirds of the 1982 classes included some attempt to establish the focus of the day's work, but that attempt only rarely involved an explicit statement of learning objectives.

Teachers exhibited considerable variation in the way in which they determined whether students understood main ideas and their application.

In the eight classes rated high on this dimension, teachers used a variety of practice activities, asked questions of a broad range of students and probed extensively, and left time to debrief classroom activities.

#### Quality of Interaction

The level of active participation was judged to be high in about half of the classes on the grounds that participation was relatively widely distributed among students and deliberate efforts to promote student-to-student interaction were evident. One-third of the classes received high ratings for their skillful use of groups. Teachers of those classes designed appropriate tasks and gave students enough time to complete them. They taught and rewarded students for effective group process skills and assigned group roles; they debriefed both process and task.

Half of the 30 classes were rated high on opportunities for bonding. Students were encouraged to illustrate lesson topics with first-hand experiences and/or current events, and teachers emphasized the usefulness of the material taught. Ways of demonstrating competence seemed open to all students in the class, and they were made to feel comfortable in volunteering answers or contributing to class discussion. The atmosphere in those classes appeared conducive to students' increasing or confirming their attachments to school, teachers, and one another.

#### Quality of Implementation in 1983

The 1983 observation format was organized around the same dimensions as in the previous year, and guidelines applied by the observation team

to assign high, moderate, and low ratings to classes were nearly identical in 1982 and 1983. On eight of the nine dimensions, a majority of the 21 LRE classes in 1983 were rated "high," based on observers' records. On every dimension, the percentage of highly rated classes in 1983 exceeded that in 1982. Evident contributors to that improvement were (a) a second round of formative feedback provided to trainers (e.g., recommendations to place more emphasis yet on stating learning objectives to students, striving for balance in class discussions of controversial legal issues, and checking for understanding by all in a class), (b) greater attention to strong support by building administrators as a site selection criterion, and (c) more prevalent use of outside resource persons.

Although the features that produced high and low ratings in 1983 generally corresponded to those in 1982, a few comments follow about observed differences between the two years. Table 8 displays observers' 1983 class ratings for each dimension (as well as the comparable ratings for the previous year).

#### Quality of Curriculum Treatment

*Depth and Density.* Improved ratings on this dimension resulted mainly from increased use of knowledgeable resource persons. Highly rated classes brought police officers or attorneys into the classroom frequently or arranged for student contact with judges. The expertise of outsiders made it possible to treat important topics in depth, even where a teacher's specialized knowledge of those topics was limited.

*Selection and Balance.* In a greater proportion of classes than in the previous year, teachers augmented text materials with topics and

Table 8: Summary of LRE Classroom Observation Ratings in 1982 and 1983

Dimension Rated	1982 Classes (N=30)			1983 Classes (N=21)		
	Percentage Rated As:			Percentage Rated As:		
	High % (N)	Moderate % (N)	Low % (N)	High % (N)	Moderate % (N)	Low % (N)
<b>QUALITY OF CURRICULUM TREATMENT:</b>						
Depth and Density	43 (13)	20 (6)	37 (11)	66 (14)	24 (5)	10 (2)
Selection & Balance	40 (12)	57 (17)	3 (1)	71 (15)	24 (5)	5 (1)
<b>QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION:</b>						
Stated Objectives	14 (4)	53 (16)	33 (10)	71 (15)	29 (6)	0 (0)
Checking for Understanding/Practice	27 (8)	33 (10)	40 (12)	76 (16)	19 (4)	5 (1)
Direction-Giving	27 (8)	50 (15)	23 (7)	62 (13)	38 (8)	0 (0)
<b>QUALITY OF INTERACTION:</b>						
Active Participation	47 (14)	40 (12)	13 (4)	57 (12)	38 (8)	5 (1)
Suitable Group Work	33 (10)	27 (8)	40 (12)	48 (10)	52 (11)	0 (0)
Reactive Management	17 (5)	70 (21)	13 (4)	66 (14)	24 (5)	10 (2)
Opportunities for Bonding	50 (15)	23 (7)	27 (8)	80 (17)	10 (2)	10 (2)

illustrative material of their own. They also probed more for opposing points of view in student discussion of law-related issues. Skillful handling of these practices resulted in high ratings for balance in most of the classes that used them. In the single low-rated class, the observer noted several instances of "preachy" elaboration of one point of view to the exclusion of others.

#### Quality of Instruction

In sharp contrast to 1982, most of the observed class periods in 1983 began with the day's learning objectives written on the blackboard. The teachers usually reviewed the objectives verbally before starting a lesson. Ratings for checking for understanding also improved substantially from one year to the next. In many of the highly rated 1983 classes, all students used hand signals periodically either to answer true-false review questions or to indicate whether they understood material just covered.

#### Quality of Interaction

The group exercises observed in 1983 tended to be more complex than in the previous year and sometimes included several days of preparation, usually for a role play or mock trial. For the longer exercises, teachers of most classes deliberately composed working groups so that each included a cross-section of student abilities. Mock trials in particular were designed to require a high level of task interdependence among members of particular teams. In four classes, team performance partially determined the individual grades received by members. Instances of reactive classroom management generally were less disruptive to lessons than in 1982, although in two observed

classes disciplinary measures resulted repeatedly in considerable time off task.

#### Relationship between Impact on Students and Quality of Implementation

As reported in the preceding sections of this chapter, the LRE classes studied displayed considerable variation in both their measured impact on students and their rated quality of implementation. The subject of this section is evidence pointing to a relationship between impact and quality; i.e., to a conclusion that *the capability of LRE to improve citizenship and behavior is highly dependent on the way in which the course is implemented.*

#### Ranking of LRE Classes in the 1981 Study

Before learning results of the numerical analysis of the impact data, the head of the observation team ranked the seven observed classes from highest to lowest in terms of their quality of implementation. The highest rated classes were those judged from observers' records to have the strongest prospects for producing favorable effects on students' behavior. Without knowing the observation ratings, the person analyzing impact data used actual outcome findings to rank the same seven classes from most to least successful in affecting students' behavior favorably. Even though the analyses from the two data sources proceeded independently of each other, the rankings correspond for six of the seven classes, with the four highest being identically ranked. Table 8 displays the two rank orderings (from highest to lowest).

Table 9: Comparison of Actual and Predicted Impact on Delinquency in 1981 LRE Classes

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Based on Impact Data</u>	<u>Based on Observation Data*</u>
1.	Class B (reduction in 5 types of offense)	Class B
2.	Class A (reduction in 4 types of offense)	Class A
3.	Class G (reduction in 2 types of offense)	Class G (rating of 11)
4.	Class F (reduction in 1 type of offense)	Class F (rating of 9)
5.	Class E (reduction in 2 and increase in 2 types of offense)	Class C
6.	Class C (increase in 5 types of offense)	Class D
7.	Class D (increase in 7 types of offense)	Class E (rating of 6)

\*Detail for numerical observation ratings appears in Table 7.

Comparison between 1982 and 1983 LRE Classes

All nine of the classroom dimensions rated by observers and 33 of the student impact dimensions measured in 1983 corresponded to those in 1982, permitting comparison of both quality of implementation and impact between the two years' classes. As was shown in Table 8, the percentage of classes receiving high ratings from observers was higher in 1983 than in 1982 on every classroom dimension rated. Table 10 displays a comparison of student impact findings for the outcomes measured in both years. The proportion of LRE classes demonstrating favorable impact on students was higher in 1983 than in 1982 for 20 of the 33 outcomes and at least double that in 1982 for 17 of those 20. There were only two outcomes for which the 1982 classes outperformed the 1983 classes. In

Table 10: Comparison of Findings for Outcomes Measured in Both 1982 and 1983

	Proportion of LRE Classes Having Favorable Outcomes:		
	Higher in 1982	Higher in 1983	Same Both Years
Factual knowledge of the law and legal processes			X
Frequency of telling parents something learned		X*	
Grade students would give teacher for this course		X	
Students' rating of this course relative to others	X		
Importance of doing well in school		X	
Students' rating of this course as really helpful		X*	
Really liking some teachers		X*	
Amount of time spent doing homework		X*	
Clockwatching in this class		X	
Encouragement of special projects in this class		X*	
Favorable attitudes toward police		X*	
Unfavorable attitudes toward deviance			X
Favorable attitudes toward violence		X*	
Rationalizations for delinquent behavior		X*	
Perception that class rules apply equally to all		X*	
Perception that teacher in this class grades fairly		X*	
Negative labeling by teachers			X
Negative labeling by parents		X*	
Negative labeling by friends			X
Delinquent peer influence	X		
Exposure to delinquent peers			X
Other students' talk seen as worthwhile		X*	
Other students pay attention when you talk		X*	
School rule infractions		X*	
Drinking alcohol		X*	
Violence against other students			X
Minor theft			X
Vandalism			X
Go with group to fight or break law		X*	
Other status offenses			X
Index offenses			X
Minor fraud		X*	
Smoking marijuana			X

\*The proportion of LRE classes having favorable outcomes was more than double that of the other year.

short, observed improvement in quality of implementation of LRE classes was accompanied by measured improvement in their impact on students.\*

#### Comparison between Highly Rated and Other LRE Classes in 1983

Enough 1983 classes received high ratings from observers to yield moderately sized subsets of classes judged to be superior on each of the three broad components of quality of implementation. The three subsets of superior classes were composed as follows:

Quality of Curriculum Treatment--the 13 classes which observers rated high on both *depth and density* and *selection and balance*.

Quality of Instruction--the nine classes which received high ratings on *stated objectives*, *checking for understanding*, and *direction-giving*.

Quality of Interaction--the eight classes which observers rated high on at least three of these four dimensions: *active participation*, *suitable group work*, *reactive management*, *opportunities for bonding*.

The performance of each subset in terms of impact on students was compared with the performance of the remaining (lower rated) classes. For each student outcome that all LRE classes combined had affected more frequently than expected by chance, Table 11 shows the percentages of highest-rated classes (those composing each subset) that produced favorable and unfavorable effects. For comparison, the table also shows the corresponding percentages for classes rated lower on each component.

---

\*Similar improvement in both quality and impact appears to have occurred between 1981 and 1982, but changes from one year to the next in the dimensions measured preclude any but a gross comparison between the two years' classes.

TABLE 11: 1983 OUTCOMES OBTAINED MORE FREQUENTLY THAN EXPECTED BY CHANCE, RANKED FROM MOST TO LEAST FREQUENT (30 OUT OF 42 POSSIBLE OUTCOMES)

(Includes crosstabulation by observer ratings on three dimensions)

OUTCOME MEASURED  (Outcomes marked with an asterisk were measured only at high school and junior high levels. Numbers in parentheses refer to positions of particular outcomes in individual class impact tables.)	% of LRE Classes Having Favorable/Unfav. Effects						
	ALL LRE CLASSES  Fav/Unf	Dimensions Rated By Observers					
		Curric.Trtmnt		Instruction		Interaction	
		Highest Rated	Others	Highest Rated	Others	Highest Rated	Others
		Fav/Un	Fav/Un	Fav/Un	Fav/Un	Fav/Un	Fav/Un
Factual knowledge of the law and legal processes. (1)	100/0%	100/0%	100/0%	100/0%	100/0%	100/0%	100/0%
Perception that the rules in this class have applied the same to everybody.* (22)	94/0	100/0	83/0	100/0	88/0	100/0	92/0
When other students speak in this class, they have something worthwhile to say. (30)	90/0	92/0	88/0	100/0	83/0	100/0	92/0
Grade students would give their teacher for this course. (4)	86/5	92/8	75/0	100/0	75/8	88/13	85/0
"Clockwatching" in this class.* (14)	82/0	100/0	50/0	100/0	71/0	100/0	75/0
Students' rating of this course relative to others (better, same, worse). (5)	81/0	92/0	75/0	100/0	67/0	88/0	77/0
Encouragement from the teacher in this class of special projects by students (15)	81/10	92/0	63/25	100/0	67/17	75/0	85/15
Students rating of this course as being really helpful. (9)	76/5	92/0	50/8	100/0	58/8	88/0	69/8
Perceived opportunities for demonstrating competence to teachers. (6)	71/0	83/0	63/0	100/0	50/0	88/0	62/0
Perception that the teacher in this class grades fairly.* (23)	71/0	82/0	50/0	100/0	38/0	100/0	58/0
Really liking some teachers and believing they care about you as a person.* (10)	71/5	100/0	17/17	100/0	38/13	100/0	58/8
The other students in this class pay attention when you are talking. (31)	71/5	77/0	63/13	100/0	50/8	75/0	69/8
Minor fraud (avoid paying for food, movies, shows). (40)	62/5	85/8	25/0	100/0	33/8	75/13	54/0
Amount of time spent doing homework.* (13)	59/0	82/0	17/0	100/0	13/0	75/0	42/0
Go out with a group planning to fight or break the law. (37)	57/0	85/0	13/0	100/0	25/0	75/0	46/0
School rule infractions (cheat on tests, skip school, and two more). (32)	57/5	77/8	25/0	100/0	25/8	88/13	38/0
Frequency of telling parents about something useful learned in a class. (2)	57/5	69/0	38/13	100/0	25/8	63/0	54/8
Timely completion of assignments and coming to class prepared to participate.* (12)	53/0	82/0	0/0	100/0	0/0	100/0	33/0
Belief that you are treated fairly in school with respect to rules, grades. (21)	52/0	77/0	13/0	100/0	17/0	88/0	31/0
Favorable attitudes toward police. (16)	52/10	69/0	25/25	100/0	17/17	75/0	38/15
Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in this class.* (8)	47/0	64/0	17/0	56/0	38/0	100/0	25/0
Drinking alcohol. (33)	43/0	69/0	0/0	100/0	0/0	71/0	31/0
Favorable attitudes toward personal violence. (19)	43/19	69/0	0/50	100/0	0/33	63/0	31/31
Students in this class willing to help one another with questions, course work. (29)	38/0	31/0	50/0	44/0	33/0	0/0	62/0
Support offered by teachers to build your interest and help you. (11)	33/0	38/0	25/0	44/0	25/0	25/0	38/0
Vandalism (damage or destroy school or public property). (36)	33/5	31/0	38/13	44/0	25/8	0/0	54/8
Praise received at home for something done in school. (3)	29/0	38/0	13/0	44/0	17/0	13/0	42/0
Belief that judges try to be fair and just. (17)	29/0	0/0	75/0	0/0	50/0	13/0	38/0
Rationalizations that delinquent behavior is acceptable sometimes. (20)	19/0	31/0	0/0	44/0	0/0	0/0	31/0
Your parents would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid. (24)	19/0	31/0	0/0	44/0	0/0	0/0	31/0
Total # of Classes At All Levels	21	13	8	9	12	8	13
# of High School & Junior High Classes	17	11	6	9	8	5	12

For each component of quality of implementation, the subset of classes receiving superior observer ratings outperformed the remaining LRE classes. The most striking differences in impact between highest-rated and other classes pertain to quality of instruction. Every class judged superior in that regard produced favorable effects on 22 of the 30 outcomes, and the performance of those classes surpassed that of lower rated classes on 28 of the 30 outcomes. With respect to quality of curriculum treatment and quality of interaction, the favorable impact on students of the highest-rated classes surpassed that of other classes for 25 out of 30 outcomes and 22 out of 30 outcomes, respectively.

As presented in this section, the results of three types of analysis point to quality of implementation as critical in realizing the potential of LRE to affect student attitudes and behavior in the direction of better citizenship. Classes which adhere to recommended instructional practices, curriculum treatment, and avenues for student interaction are likely to have favorable impact on students; those which do not are unlikely to have that impact. A notable exception appears to be gain in factual knowledge of the law and legal processes. Within the range exhibited by classes in this study, gradations in quality of implementation have made little or no difference in measured gains in knowledge by students. A plausible conclusion is that an average teacher without specialized training can increase students' factual knowledge by simply leading a class through an LRE textbook. The least successful classes studied (in terms of delinquency prevention) produced about as much

knowledge gain among students as did the most successful ones.\* Unlike the mere communication of facts to students, the strategies and other features that make an LRE course effective in improving citizenship require more than typical classroom skills. To reiterate, the crucial importance of quality of implementation is with respect to the capability of an LRE course to improve students' attitudes and behavior.

### Teacher Training and Teaching Experience

#### Overview

The principal means used to improve quality of implementation has been to train teachers who implement LRE curricula. Over the course of the study, the evaluators have attempted to indicate areas in which the projects' training programs could be strengthened in order to result in better implementation and greater impact of LRE on students' attitudes and behavior. Most of the training conducted in 1982 and 1983 conveyed familiarity with the text materials that particular sites had adopted, provided instruction in carrying out the recommendations that appear in

---

\*A related finding comes from a study of the effects of LRE on fifth- and sixth-graders in suburban New York, conducted by Michael G. Jacobson and Stuart B. Palonsky (1981). Relative to control subjects, the experimental group displayed significant knowledge gains and attitude changes in the direction desired (no behavioral measures were included). There was virtually no association, however, between knowledge of legal concepts and positive attitudes. The authors conclude that the program was effective in improving both knowledge and attitudes, but that the students who learned the most about the law were not necessarily those who developed positive attitudes toward the law.

In two studies of the impact of LRE on high school students (in schools located in Arizona and Australia), researchers found that the courses produced significant knowledge gains but had little or no effect on attitudes. See Edward A. Nelson (1979); and Barry J. Fraser and David L. Smith (1980).

Chapter 4 of this report, and included an explanation of the theoretical basis for expecting LRE to improve citizenship. Adequate attention to each of these areas is recommended for future training. The duration of training has ranged from two to four days, depending on teachers' prior experience and the arrangements for release time that national projects were able to negotiate with participating school districts.

In 1981, a number of untrained and inexperienced teachers participated in the impact study at a few of the sites. Those teachers' classes received low ratings from observers and were largely responsible for the mixed impact findings which revealed as many LRE classrooms showing predominantly negative effects as showed predominantly positive effects. Based on formative feedback from the evaluators, the curriculum projects redesigned their training programs the following year to focus more on six recommended areas of concern for enhanced implementation. In addition, the projects attempted to recruit more experienced teachers--those with a prior familiarity with LRE--into their programs. Both the impact findings and the observers' ratings in 1982 indicated improvements in the quality of implementation over 1981. Additional training innovations (as described later in this section) occurred in 1983. Just as the quality of implementation and proportion of classes demonstrating favorable impact on students increased year by year, so did the quality of the training that LRE teachers received.

#### Effects of Teacher Training and Teaching Experience

The LRE evaluations conducted in 1981 and 1982 suggested that teachers who did not participate in project-sponsored training programs were neither as effective in the classroom (as measured both by classroom

impact and observation) nor as satisfied with their experience teaching LRE (as noted in their questionnaire responses) as were the teachers who did participate in formal project training programs. For example, at one 1982 site the classes of the teacher who did not attend the three days of project training with any regularity or for any appreciable length of time did not compare favorably to the control classes at his school in terms of the impact on students' behavior or the impact on the theoretical antecedents of delinquent behavior. Conversely, the other teacher at this site did compare favorably with controls at his school in these areas. Similarly, the nontrained teacher was rated lower by the observer than the other teacher in certain aspects of quality of curriculum treatment, quality of instruction, and quality of interaction. These aspects--depth/density of coverage, checking for understanding, opportunities for practice, and achieving active participation--were all areas in which he would have received training had he attended the workshops held the preceding summer.

Teachers who have participated in training rate such training as being very useful to them in their subsequent attempts to implement LRE: 20 of 22 teachers participating in the 1982 study rated the formal training workshops as being "very useful" to them; the two teachers who rated these workshops as "somewhat useful" had only attended portions of their project's training program. Teachers in 1983 were unanimous about the degree of usefulness of training; all depicted it as "very useful" to them in their teaching.

Such high marks for usefulness apparently derive from the fact that project-sponsored training provides teachers with unique sources of

information. Assistance in implementing several aspects of LRE instruction is, based on teachers' questionnaire responses, forthcoming solely or largely from project training sessions. For instance, methods for achieving high class participation, organizing small group work, and finding and developing examples which give a balanced view of the law were all cited by 60 percent or more of teachers as being areas in which project training sessions were their only form of assistance. Majorities--around 55 percent--of teachers further cited their training in LRE conducted by the national projects as their sole source of assistance in learning how best to discuss and manage controversial issues in the classroom, and in preparing outside resource people to contribute effectively to their LRE classes.

The level of prior LRE teaching experience--or minimally, the level of familiarity with LRE in general--also has an effect on what teachers get out of a training program. Teachers new to LRE register greater knowledge gains about project/program objective, rationales, methods, etc. than do "veteran" LRE teachers. An analysis of the 1982 training participants' gain in knowledge of program objectives, for instance, indicated that sites with fewer veteran LRE teachers and more novice teachers recorded higher average aggregate gain scores. Thus, this score for the North Carolina training group was 1.39; for the Los Angeles group, 1.13; for the Michigan group, .92; and for the Chicago group, .86. (A score of 1 indicates "movement" to a new discrete level of knowledge or expertise.) These scores accurately reflect the relative experience of the participating teachers at each site with regard to the CRF, LFS, and NICEL curricula.

For veteran teachers, the more important gains derived from project training programs are in the areas of confidence and "renewal." A number of teachers have commented in their training surveys and year-end questionnaires that attending training sessions such as those designed by the curriculum projects, as well as those sponsored by the ABA, renewed their enthusiasm for LRE and for teaching in general. In terms of confidence-building, one second-year CRF teacher summed it up best by noting that such programs "have built my confidence and reduced the fear I had my first year in the [LRE] classroom." Such "first-year fear" may be initially alleviated by having veteran teachers attend--or even conduct--training alongside teachers new to LRE. As another CRF teacher commented in her 1983 questionnaire: "It was very helpful to have someone here who has experienced these situations previously [in order] to get suggestions on lesson plans and to offer alternatives."

In 1983, the projects achieved a good mix of experienced LRE teachers and newly recruited LRE teachers to participate in their training program. LFS invited three of their most effective teachers from 1982 (as measured by impact testing and observation standards) to join nine new teachers in their 1983 program. In Michigan, training participants were all experienced high school LRE teachers. Two of the three teachers were trained in NICEL's 1982 session and the third, along with one of the other two just mentioned, had also received LRE training from nonproject sources--through the University of Detroit, and through the College of Education of Michigan State University. At NICEL's Colorado site, training participants included not only the teacher who participated in the 1982 study--who had received his training in Street

Law at the ABA-sponsored 1982 Summer Institute--but also the four police officers who worked in this teacher's Street Law classes as resource persons. These veterans were joined in 1983 by two more teachers from this junior high school and by another four police officers, and together they received joint training as instructional teams for the 1983 implementation year.\*

CRF's North Carolina training program and the training program at NICEL's Colorado site were notably different from any others offered to date and merit closer attention. These two programs provided the evaluators with unique opportunities to examine effects of training programs on the subsequent quality of implementation. In the case of CRF's training, variable teaching and training experience provided the opportunities for comparison. In Colorado, the evaluators had the opportunity to gauge the effects of joint training for teachers and community resource persons. While law students had been included in the training program at one of NICEL's 1982 impact sites, the inclusion of a number of police officers in a teacher training program in 1983 was unique and was particularly interesting for the possible effects it could have on a number of the theoretically linked elements of law-abiding behavior (e.g., belief in the fairness of social rules and their enforcement, and positive labeling) around which much of the impact assessment of LRE was based.

---

\*Subsequent to 1983, this mushrooming pattern has continued (with support from formula grant funds obtained through the Colorado Division of Criminal Justice). In 1984, two more junior high schools in the same district were added to the program. Police and teachers who had taught the course through 1983 conducted training for those who had not taught the course before. In summer of 1985, the most experienced teachers and police from this program became trainers of law enforcement and school personnel from several other Colorado districts that were planning new LRE programs of their own.

### 1983 Training Innovations: North Carolina

CRF training in 1983 was innovative in its use of four teachers involved in the 1982 impact study as trainers for newly recruited teachers in 1983. Through this design, CRF was able to establish peer support for its participating teachers--a longstanding evaluation recommendation--at the outset. In 1982, only about half of all the LRE teachers at all impact sites had a colleague in their building who was also teaching LRE. Under CRF's 1983 program, three of their second-year teachers (who conducted the training sessions) would be paired in their buildings with a newly trained teacher, while the fourth teacher-trainer was paired in her building with another second-year teacher who had not participated in the 1983 training.

This approach set the stage for subsequent peer support within buildings and represents another improvement in the design of training programs for LRE teachers in 1983.

Assessment of effects of differential exposure to training and level of prior LRE teaching experience. The pairing of teachers in the same building during the implementation phase of the program in North Carolina provided the evaluators with an opportunity to assess more directly the differential effects on student impact and quality of implementation due to varying levels of teaching experience and training. Rather than compare student outcomes in LRE classes with those in control (non-LRE) classes, comparisons were made at this site between two LRE classes in each of the five schools. Comparisons of student impact were based on the same measures and analytical procedures as in the national impact

study; however, here it was the effects of teachers' training and experience that were being measured rather than the effects of LRE.

In three schools (A, B, C, in Table ) the comparison was between an experienced LRE teacher--i.e., with at least one more year of LRE training and teaching experience--and a teacher with training but no prior LRE teaching experience. In another school (D) the comparison was between two teachers with the same amount of LRE teaching experience, but different exposures to training--one teacher served as a trainer in 1983, for which she received extra training, while the other had not participated in training since 1982.

The results of those comparisons appear in Table 12. The cells in the table record the effects in the more experienced/trained teachers' classes over those obtained in the less experienced/trained teachers' classes in all four schools. The number displayed in a cell represents a differential in either a scale score or a frequency established for each outcome. For example, under variable 9, students were asked to rate their respective courses on a three-point scale as having been "very helpful," "a little helpful," or "not helpful." At school B, students' ratings of the more experienced teacher's LRE course as helpful surpassed students' ratings of the less experienced teacher's class by .34, and this difference was significant at the .05 level. In school C, the more experienced teacher's class showed a similar advantage, though the .30 figure for this outcome was significant only at the .10 level. Comparisons at schools A and D for this variable showed uniform outcomes; i.e., no differential effects between the two teachers' classes at either school. The last two columns in the table

TABLE 12: EFFECT OF GREATER TEACHER EXPERIENCE/TRAINING ON STUDENT OUTCOMES AT FOUR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Outcome Measured	Desired Effect	SCHOOLS:				# of Outcome Favoring	
		A	B	C	D	More Exp'd Teachr	Less Exp'd Teachr
<b>EFFECTS OUTSIDE THE THEORETICAL MODEL</b>							
1. Factual knowledge of the law and legal processes.	+	0	+8.1*	+15.3*	0	2	0
2. Frequency of telling parents about something useful learned in a class.	+	+1.31	+1.66*	0	0	2	0
3. Praise received at home for something done in school.	+	0	+ .47*	.66*	0	2	0
4. Grade students would give their teacher for this course.	+	.70*	0	0	0	1	0
5. Students' rating of this course relative to others (better, same, worse).	+	0	+ .25	0	+ .22*	2	0
<b>THEORY-BASED CORRELATES OF BEHAVIOR COMMITMENT</b>							
6. Perceived opportunities for demonstrating competence to teachers.	+	0	0	+ .45	+ .24	2	0
7. Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in school.	+	0	0	- .21*	0	0	1
8. Importance of doing well and being regarded as a good student in this class.	+	0	0	0	0	0	0
9. Students' rating of this course as being really helpful.	+	0	+ .54*	.30	0	2	0
<b>ATTACHMENT</b>							
10. Really liking some teachers and believing they care about you as a person.	+	0	0	0	0	0	0
11. Support offered by teachers to build your interest and help you.	+	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>INVOLVEMENT</b>							
12. Timely completion of assignments and coming to class prepared to participate.	+	0	0	0	+ .34*	1	0
15. Amount of time spent doing homework.	+	0	0	0	0	0	0
14. "Clockwatching" in this class.	-	0	- .66*	0	- .76*	2	0
15. Encouragement from the teacher in this class of special projects by students.	+	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>BELIEF</b>							
16. Favorable attitudes toward police.	+	0	+ .32	- .72*	0	1	1
17. Belief that judges try to be fair and just.	+	+ .66*	.49*	0	0	2	0
18. Unfavorable attitudes toward deviance.	+	0	0	- .34*	+ .28*	1	1
19. Favorable attitudes toward personal violence.	-	0	- .32	0	- .35*	2	0
20. Rationalizations that delinquent behavior is acceptable sometimes.	-	- .49	0	0	0	1	0

\*Significant at .05 (one-tailed test). (All other figures are significant at .10)

x= unfavorable effect

Table 12 (cont.)

Outcome Measured	Desired Effect	SCHOOLS :				# of Outcome Favoring	
		A	B	C	D	More Exp'd Teachr	Less Exp'd Teachr
<u>EQUALITY</u>							
21. Belief that you are treated fairly in school with respect to rules, grades.	+	0	0	0	0	0	0
22. Perception that the rules in this class have applied the same to everybody.	+	0	0	-.40*	0	0	1
23. Perception that the teacher in this class grades fairly.	+	0	0	0	0	0	0
<u>LABELING</u>							
24. Your parents would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	+.40*	-.37	0	1	1
25. Your teachers would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	+.58*	0	0	0	1
26. Your friends would agree that you get into trouble, are a bad kid.	-	0	0	0	0	0	0
<u>PEER RELATIONSHIPS</u>							
27. Delinquent peer influence.	-	-.44*	0	0	0	1	0
28. Exposure to delinquent peers.	-	0	-.38*	0	-.21	2	0
29. Students in this class willing to help one another with questions, course work.	+	-.52*	+.38	0	0	1	1
30. When other students speak in this class, they have something worthwhile to say.	+	0	+.42*	0	+.49*	2	0
31. The other students in this class pay attention when you are talking.	+	-.55*	+.77*	0	+.58*	2	1
<u>FREQUENCIES OF DELINQUENT BEHAVIOR</u>							
32. School rule infractions (cheat on tests, skip school, and two more).	-	0	0	0	-2.65*	0	0
33. Drinking alcohol.	-	0	0	0	0	0	0
34. Violence against other students (using knife, rock, or stick).	-	0	0	-.17	0	1	0
35. Minor theft (steal less than \$50, joyride).	-	0	0	0	0	0	0
36. Vandalism (damage or destroy school or public property).	-	0	0	0	0	0	0
37. Go out with a group planning to fight or break the law.	-	0	0	-.53*	-.50	2	0
38. Other status offenses (lie about age, run away).	-	0	0	0	0	0	0
39. Index offenses (strong-arm, break and enter, car theft, and two more).	-	0	0	0	0	0	0
40. Minor fraud (avoid paying for food, movies, shows).	-	0	0	+.22*	0	0	1
41. Smoking marijuana.	-	0	0	+1.38*	0	0	1
42. Hard drug use.	-	-.26*	0	0	0	1	0

\*Significant at .05 (one-tailed test). (All other figures are significant at .10.)

x = unfavorable effect

for variable 9, therefore, record two effects favoring the more experienced teachers and zero favoring the less experienced teachers.

Overall, there were fewer instances of significant differentials between the classes of more experienced/trained teachers and those of less experienced/trained teachers than there were instances of uniform effect--i.e., no differential effects between the two types of teachers. However, of the 47 instances of significant differential impact on students, 37 (79 percent) favored the classes of the teachers with more experience and/or training.

The theory-based outcomes in which the more experienced/trained teachers showed the greatest differential impact on their students were: (1) *peer relations of students* (#27-31 in Table 12), where they surpassed the less experienced teachers in 40 percent (8/20) of the possible outcomes, having eight favorable comparisons and two unfavorable; and (2) *belief in the fairness of social rules* (#16-20), where they surpassed the other teachers in 35 percent (7/20) of the possible outcomes, having seven favorable and two unfavorable. Differential impact was also in evidence with respect to outcomes not derived from the theoretical model (#1-5); i.e., knowledge gain, school/home links, and students' general ratings of their course and teacher. Here the more experienced/trained teachers surpassed the less experienced teachers in 45 percent (9/20) of the possible outcomes, having nine favorable comparisons and none unfavorable.

The less experienced/trained teachers, on the other hand, showed slightly greater impact on their students, as compared to the more experienced/trained teachers, in the areas of *positive labeling of*

students (24-26), having had two favorable comparisons and one unfavorable; and on the dimension of *equality of opportunity for students* (21-23), where they compared favorably in one instance and unfavorably in none, with just over eight percent (1/12) of all possible outcomes on this dimension being in their favor.

There was no differential impact on students on the dimension of *attachment* (10-11), and little differential impact--11 percent (5/44) favoring the more experienced teachers and 4.5 percent (2/44) favoring the less experienced teachers--on the frequencies of delinquent behavior of students at these four schools.

Moving to an examination of differential impact at the individual schools, we see that in schools A and B the differential effects were on the order of three to one (6 to 2, actually) and six to one (13 to 2, actually), respectively. On the other hand, the more experienced teacher's classes at school C had only a slight differential advantage (seven to six) over those of the less experienced teacher. These classes may, therefore, be considered essentially the same in this regard. The test condition at these three schools, it should be recalled, paired veteran LRE teachers with novice teachers, with the former training the latter for three days about two months prior to implementation. The total differential effects in the veteran teachers' classes surpassed those in the novices' classes in these three schools (A, B, C) by a ratio of better than two and one-half to one (26 to 10).

Results at the fourth school (D) were most striking of all. In this case, the comparison was between two veteran teachers, one of whom had more training. This teacher also served as a trainer for the 1983

CRF training program; her colleague had not attended a training session since both these teachers' initial CRF training in the summer of 1982. Impact on students in the class taught by the teacher with more training was significantly more favorable on 11 outcomes and less favorable--i.e., more favorable for the teacher with less training--on none.

It seems even more curious that the novice teachers in schools A, B, and C were able to achieve at least a few favorable effects in student impact vis-à-vis their more experienced colleagues, while the second veteran teacher at school D could not. However, a possible explanation emerges when the *recentness* of training is considered. It may be noted that although the second teacher at school D had taught LRE previously, she had not participated in LRE training since the summer of 1982. The novice teachers at the three other schools, on the other hand, had the apparent benefit of recent training and this might explain why they could have registered some differentially favorable impact. A possible implication is that not only more training, but more *recent* training can have a salutary effect, *regardless of the level of prior LRE teaching experience*, on subsequent classroom performance.\*

---

\*Other research suggests that the presence in their buildings of more experienced teachers with whom they could confer also was beneficial to the novice LRE teachers. At four sites in Texas, the effects of formal teacher training LRE workshops were compared with the effects of one-on-one "buddy" training, where a trained teacher worked closely with an untrained teacher. For comparison, a third group of teachers received neither type of training. The researchers found that knowledge of and attitudes toward the law improved more for students taught by teachers in the two trained groups than for those taught by untrained teachers. There were no differences, however, between the first two groups: students of "buddy-trained" teachers improved as much as those of formally trained teachers. See Jon J. Denton and James B. Kracht (1976).

A further implication may be drawn from the results obtained at school D. It seems clear that the added training had a notable effect on this teacher's ability to have an impact on students; i.e., this teacher's confidence and sense of renewal were activated. It cannot be determined, however, whether this effect was due to training other teachers in LRE or simply to the fact of participating in more LRE training (in any capacity) just prior to another year of teaching LRE. In either case, the results may indicate that, rather than reaching a point of diminishing returns, training for veteran LRE teachers might have a "snowball" effect. More training just helps good teachers get better.

#### 1983 Training Innovations: Colorado

Three days of LRE training at Reed Junior High School in Loveland, Colorado, were conducted by two master teachers from the school and an outside consultant.\* The training drew on the school's repertoire of mastery teaching techniques, bonding theory and research, selected 1982 LRE evaluation findings, and the 1982 LRE experience at the school, with the aim of creating instructional teams of teachers and officers. These teams would integrate strategies for social bonding and cognitive learning into methods of classroom interaction around a law-related curriculum. The LRE curriculum was half of a year-long course, Law and Government, which incorporated a semester of Street Law as the law unit. The teacher who participated in the 1982 study (denoted as junior high

---

\*A staff member of the Center for Action Research, though not a member of the evaluation project.

teacher A in this report's Impact Findings section) had developed this course of study following his training at the 1982 ABA Summer Institute.

Joining this teacher for the 1983 training at Reed Junior High were two colleagues (teacher B and the control teacher for the 1983 impact study) and seven police officers--including a captain--of the Loveland Police Department. (An eighth officer, who could not attend the training, joined the instructional team of teacher B once the semester began and received on-the-job coaching.) The officers were divided into two teams; one would work with teacher A, the other with teacher B. Each team included two experienced LRE officers--i.e., those who had participated as resource persons in 1982--and two officers new to the program. The third teacher being trained would serve as a control (non-LRE) teacher during the first semester when the evaluation was being conducted, and then teach the LRE segment of the curriculum using one of the officer teams during the second semester. This teacher would employ only the mastery techniques in his control classes, serving to hold the quality of instruction constant. Thus, any differences between control and LRE classes would be attributable to the unique impact of LRE as a subject.

The training was intended to introduce the new officers to the program as well as to provide all the officers with more systematic instruction in interactive teaching strategies and methods. Although four of the officers had participated as resource persons previously, they had not received any LRE training. One day of this training program, therefore, was devoted to instructing the officers in the use of some of the same teaching practices used by the teachers. For

example, stating specific learning objectives, checking for understanding, and providing ample "wait time" were examined as contributing both to cognitive learning and to bonding--particularly to attachment to teacher and school, positive labeling, and belief in the fairness of social rules and their enforcement.

Finally, the training explored the prospects for applying group/cooperative learning principles--student assignment to heterogeneous groups, reward and task interdependence, and assignment of and support for playing particular roles within groups--to more familiar LRE devices such as mock trials and case study analyses. For this purpose, NICEL supplied the trainers with a list of twenty specific exercises from *Street Law* which were believed to lend themselves well to such refinements.

(An account of the results of this unique approach to conducting LRE training and instruction appears in the section, "Impact on Students of Law-Related Education," of this chapter.)

#### Training for Resource People and Other Sources of Assistance

There may be hesitance in other localities to conduct joint training of teachers and law enforcement officers and to obtain the necessary cooperation of law enforcement departments. However, the experience in Loveland, Colorado, proves that such training can be done and done effectively.

There is also a noteworthy example, from 1982, of LRE training for law enforcement officers alone. In this case, PAD sponsored a day of training for Michigan state troopers as LRE classroom resource persons.

The trainer, director of the St. Louis Schools LRE project, was also the author of the PAD publication, "A Manual for Training Community Resource Personnel."

In addition to actual training, both PAD and ABA have published a number of how-to manuals for the express purpose of bringing educators and legal resource people together. Two of the more recent examples are the ABA's *Building Bridges to the Law* (1981) and PAD's "Resource Guide to Assist Lawyers and Law Students for Participating in Kindergarten through Eighth Grade Law-Related Classrooms" (1981). PAD's partnership programs are also vehicles for establishing liaison, at the district level, between educators and legal professionals. This liaison may be taken a step further when such partnership teams attend LRE conferences and workshops, as has been the case at ABA-sponsored summer institutes in San Antonio, Texas, in 1980 and at Evanston, Illinois, in 1981 and 1982.

The support ABA and PAD provide to LRE teachers is exactly the sort which helps to fill the gaps in the curriculum projects' programmatic efforts. In their more usual support role alluded to above, these two projects can mobilize legal professionals who most often serve as classroom resource people. In both 1982 and 1983, LRE teachers have noted in their questionnaire responses that locating and arranging for visits by outside resource people has not been an area in which they rely upon their CRF, LFS, or NICEL training to assist them. The majority of teachers noted their reliance on two sources of assistance in this regard: state and local projects, and "interested individuals, such as attorneys, judges, social service providers." Such individuals

are the natural constituencies of ABA and PAD through their contacts in and influence with state and local bar associations and law schools.

### Summary

Training for teachers who will be teaching LRE is a prerequisite for effective implementation of LRE. Training, as well as greater experience with teaching LRE, can have notable impact on students' attitudes and acts. Experienced LRE teachers benefit from more training not only in terms of knowledge gains, but also in ways which build their confidence and renew their commitment to and enthusiasm for LRE and teaching. And these gains are reflected in classroom outcomes. In short, training can help good teachers get better, and the more recent the training exposure, the better.

LRE training is available from a variety of sources. The national curriculum projects conduct training programs for teachers at their impact sites as well as at state, regional, and national conferences/institutes such as those sponsored by the ABA's law-related education project. LRE teacher training is also available from local universities, as in Michigan.

A number of law schools continue to train law students in the Street Law curriculum, and training for other community resource people, such as law enforcement officers, has been shown to be both feasible and effective. Joint training of teachers and law officers is one of the more promising and exciting prospects for enhancing the effectiveness of LRE.

Finally, the use of experienced LRE teachers as local teacher-trainers has been shown to have salutary effects on both the quality of the training program and on the subsequent quality of the implementation of the curriculum in the school.

### Institutionalization

Besides assessment of the impact of LRE, the quality of its implementation, and the training provided, an additional area of concern was to determine the processes required to assure that appropriate LRE instruction becomes an institutionalized component in the general education curriculum.

Institutionalization of LRE requires that the content of the program and the features that make it effective in improving citizenship become a well established, structured part of the curriculum, accepted by all involved. These include students, parents, teachers, administrators, community members, and policy makers. Regardless of level (school, district, county, state), to be institutionalized the program must be self-perpetuating in the sense that it will continue regardless of who the policy makers are, what the buildings look like, how the grade levels are grouped, or how the community changes.

The restructuring or changing of institutional practices at both the building and district levels is critical in achieving institutionalization of LRE. Some institutional change in the short run can take place at the building level if certain conditions are met. It cannot be assumed, however, that change can be permanently maintained until supporting decisions are made at the policy-making level--the

school district. In some states, where there is considerable central decision-making authority, institutionalization cannot take place without the appropriate state level policy-making decisions to support the change.

The kinds of supporting structures that can be put together at the state level include legislative mandates and/or state department of public instruction curriculum guidelines, competency testing, inclusion of appropriate textbooks on adoption lists, LRE certification requirements for teachers, curriculum specialists at the state department of education, supportive advisory/influence groups composed of notables from several societal sectors, and a statewide LRE project independent of formal department of public instruction ties.

#### Year Three Indicators of Institutionalization Efforts

In varying degrees all five of the major organizations involved in LRE (ABA, CRF, LFS, NICEL, PAD) made substantial contributions to institutionalization of LRE in three of the states--North Carolina, Michigan, and California--in the impact study. Below is a summary listing of some of the projects' institutionalization efforts. These are merely illustrative of numerous efforts by the five organizations.

--American Bar Association sponsorship of state bar association leadership seminars in Michigan, North Carolina, and California.

--Contributions of funds by PAD to the Michigan LRE project, enabling that project to receive other sources of funding which brought the state LRE project budget to \$60,000.

--ABA sponsorship of an LRE leadership seminar in conjunction with the National Council for the Social Studies annual conference directed to numerous leadership persons in the field of social studies.

--PAD provision of matching funds used in North Carolina to assist with implementation of the Department of Public Instruction five-year plan for institutionalization of LRE.

--In North Carolina, LRE is no longer treated as an experimental program; it is a required part of a curriculum, subject to competency testing.

--Through the efforts of CRF, LFS, and NICEL, the inclusion of LRE objectives in the History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools.

--Through the efforts of CRF, LFS, and NICEL, extensive work with ten key leadership persons in ten major California county service units.

--PAD invitations to members of its chapters to become involved in the 1984 California statewide mock trial competition.

--Through the efforts of LFS and CRF, the inclusion of LRE test items in the California Assessment Program (CAP) eighth-grade test.

--A resolution by the California State Board of Education recognizing LFS, CRF, and NICEL for law-related education "seminal contributions."

Briefly stated, the contributions of the five major organizations cannot go unnoticed when institutionalization of LRE is examined. These organizations have large networks of resources that can be made available to state and local education agencies. In addition, the organizations have seasoned staffs that can deliver a variety of LRE services.

## Institutionalization of LRE at the Local Level

Practitioners reading this document will be most interested in the factors which need to be considered as they think about institutionalization of LRE at the local level. The evaluation staff initially identified 32 indicators of local level institutionalization. From this list, seven factors were identified as critical to institutionalization of LRE.

As a backdrop to this section, four conditions of permanence (institutionalization) are identified: (1) the practice is accepted as an approved routine in the school by administration, faculty, students, parents, and the school board; (2) money and time are allocated so as to support the practice; (3) new members of the staff and administration are well enough socialized into the "culture" of the practice to sustain it over time; (4) the practice is promoted, and defended if necessary, in terms of compelling values held by many in the school and community.

1. There is a clear, concrete agreement on exactly what the practice of LRE entails. This is particularly true where "concrete" refers to a set of materials, course outlines, and lesson plans explicating the practice of LRE. This agreement creates the context through which the remaining factors of administrator support, multiple trained teachers, curricular congruence, availability of materials, use of resource persons, and documentation of program effects obtain their significance.

2. Administrators actively support LRE by providing LRE teachers with encouragement and professional assistance, approval for programmatic activities, release time for training, and also by advocating the program

to other teachers and administrators. Support by an administrator may be characterized as active, entailing the application of personal professional resources, or passive, entailing mere permission for teachers to engage in programmatic activities. The former is likely to lead to instructional practice which is both of high quality and enduring. The latter arguably will be able to claim only practice which is of high quality (based solely on the training and expertise of the LRE teachers). Active support by an administrator can help to make an instructional practice a matter of school policy. This enhances the prospects for cooperative instructional improvement. Passive support is likely to fall short of achieving a collegial approach to instructional improvement and is not likely to engender a higher level of organizational accountability.

LRE creates a greater-than-average demand--relative to other elementary and high school courses--for utilization of outside resource people as well as for field trips. An administrator's active support for a program can facilitate scheduling such events in a number of ways. These include not only providing formal approval of them, but cooperating in scheduling class periods so as to maximize the potential for participation by outside professionals (e.g., first thing in the morning or just before lunch); conducting negotiations with, and perhaps preparation of, suitable outsiders as resource persons; and by assisting the LRE teacher in obtaining backup instruction from colleagues for other classes while on a field trip with the LRE class.

An administrator can facilitate professional peer support for LRE teachers. Perhaps more importantly, such support can have an impact on the social relations in the LRE classroom. This prospect is enhanced

by an administrator who sees to it that there is a good mix of students available to LRE classes and that school policies are perceived as fair, predictable, necessary, and viable. The cooperation of administrators should affect the relationship between school governance and what is taught about justice in LRE classrooms. This would lessen any contrast which might undermine students' belief in the moral validity of rules, as well as their attachment to school personnel.

Active administrator support is perhaps the most important factor for institutionalizing the practice of LRE in a school since it touches on the remaining factors. An active administrator would play a role in recruiting more teachers into a program, insuring congruence between program practices and the wider curriculum, identifying and obtaining outside resource persons for the program, insuring the availability of LRE materials, and helping to document the known effects of the program.

3. There is more than one teacher trained and teaching LRE in the school. Simply stated, the more people doing something, the better the chances of it being entrenched and, therefore, routinized. It is more likely that time and money will be allocated to LRE instruction if there are a number of teachers involved in it. The maintenance of the practice will be better accomplished through the work of a number of culture-bearers rather than through the efforts of a solitary heroic figure. It must also be noted that teachers teach one another the practice of teaching. With a number of teachers teaching LRE, the opportunities for discussion of classroom practice, mutual observation and critique, shared preparation, and shared participation in instructional improvement are greatly

multiplied. Not only will this strengthen the program from an instructional standpoint, it will also benefit the school by making maximum use of its own resources.

An important consequence of having multiple teachers is the availability of and shared expectation for professional peer support. Besides diminishing an individual instructor's sense of isolation, involving a number of teachers in the program will help teachers of other subjects understand the strategies and techniques of LRE. Such awareness can reduce the likelihood of resentment for the occasional "commotion" emanating from the LRE classroom, as well as the likelihood of reacting negatively to students who have difficulty "simmering down" in their next class.

4. There is congruence between strategies and techniques used in teaching LRE and a school's attitude and emphasis throughout its curriculum toward innovative and relevant courses. In order for them to be regarded as routine, it is important that curricular activities and principles of LRE mesh well with those generally present in the school. In a school where the norms of quality instruction do not include involving students in topics with immediate relevance to their lives outside of school--and in a very dynamic way--the practice of LRE will not long be sustained. Administrative support is likely to be passive at best, and collegial support will be hard to obtain. Indeed, LRE students in such a school are liable to be labeled troublemakers. Rather than peer support, an LRE teacher is likely to feel peer pressure to control his/her students. On the other hand, in a school which

rewards the teaching of courses having immediate relevance to worldly matters and values highly active students, LRE has much greater prospects for permanence.

Another relevant aspect of congruence between instructional practice and school structure concerns the principles of justice articulated in an LRE class and the policies of governance enforced in a school. This appears important to institutionalizing LRE as a practice only in the extremes, that is, either where there is no congruence between lessons on justice in the classroom and experiences with school rules in general, or conversely, where such congruence has the potential for synergistic or symbiotic effects (e.g., creating a student court).

5. Participating teachers and/or administrators will identify and obtain suitable outside resource persons for LRE classes. Teachers and administrators involved in LRE must expect to use outside resource people in their schools. This practice increases the value of the program. Ease in utilizing resource people requires creating and maintaining shared expectations about the way the school operates and who will play what role in fulfilling such expectations, since direct negotiation and adequate preparation of such outsiders is necessary to insure their suitability. (Suitability is defined here as an ability to interact with students while presenting appropriate topics for discussion from a position of relevant expertise.)

6. LRE instructional materials are available to all LRE students. Without curriculum materials, even well-trained teachers cannot be expected to deliver the full beneficial impact of LRE to their students. Moreover, students may tend to devalue, or perceive that the school

devalues, LRE if they are allowed little or no access to LRE materials. The practice of LRE will not be perceived as routine if access to textbooks is limited to class time, or if sharing texts is necessary, or if texts and collateral materials are wholly unavailable.

7. Participating teachers and administrators can document the known effects of an LRE program. In terms of the conditions of permanence, the promotion and defense of the program in terms of compelling values and the allocation of time and money in support of the practice are the conditions most related to the factor of documenting known program effects. That is, without the ability to document the effects of LRE practice, one can expect the fulfillment of the conditions of permanence to be adversely affected.

Recruitment of additional teachers for the program is enhanced by the ability to document its effects on academic achievement and classroom climate. A program which is popular among students and demonstrates favorable effects on their behavior and on their attitude toward the law and rules in general, stands an improved chance of receiving administrative support through adequate budgetary and time allocations for program staff and activities. Parental support for the curriculum may be documented since data indicate that students do communicate what they've learned in LRE class to their parents and parents do favorably comment to school personnel about the effects of LRE on their daughters and sons. The LRE program can also promote itself through its ability to document the willingness of community resource persons to become involved in the school.

#### 4. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVED IMPLEMENTATION OF LRE AS A DELINQUENCY PREVENTION STRATEGY

Law-related content by itself does not improve student attitudes, build good citizenship, or reduce delinquency; but it is a convenient and effective hook upon which to hang a set of features that have the power to achieve those important objectives. Every LRE class in the study improved students' factual knowledge of the law; the classes that were least effective in terms of delinquency prevention produced about as much knowledge gain among students as did those that were most effective.

The features that have distinguished more effective LRE classes from the rest are the subject of this chapter. The general recommendation is for training of teachers, building administrators, and resource persons designed to assure that those features become prominent parts of future LRE programs.

The recommended features fall into six categories: adequate preparation and use of outside resource persons, quality and quantity of instruction, judicious selection and presentation of illustrative material, strategies for affecting friendship choices through student interaction, opportunities for professional peer support for teachers, and involvement of building administrators. Some of these features (notably those in the second and fourth categories) could be recommended for improving many courses, not just LRE; many appear to be more critical for LRE than for other subjects. When combined with LRE content, all the recommended features--including those that simply constitute good teaching--have been identified as contributing to favorable impact on the behavioral and behavior-related dimensions measured in this study.

As noted at several points in this report, the LRE classes evaluated from 1981 to 1983 were uneven both in quality and in the number and magnitude of favorable outcomes obtained. Twenty of the 61 classes in the main study appear dramatically superior to other classes in each year of the research in terms of their favorable outcomes. Those 20 include 6 high school classes (3 teachers), 13 junior high classes (3 teachers), and one elementary class. Two come from the 1981 study, 6 from the 1982 study, and 12 from the 1983 study. These classes are located in the states of California, Colorado, Michigan, and North Carolina. Besides producing extremely favorable student outcomes, the 20 classes as a group are exemplary of the recommendations that follow; they are the source of the positive illustrations that appear in the following account of recommended features.

#### Adequate Preparation and Use of Outside Resource Persons

In every year of the study, the most effective LRE classes were the ones that made the most frequent use of outside resource persons. More specifically, correlational analysis between practices and outcomes shows appropriate use of visitors in LRE classrooms to be more strongly associated with increased student attachment to teacher and school and with shifts from delinquent to nondelinquent peer associations than any other classroom practice or event.

Of the 20 classes identified as outstanding on the basis of their impact on students, 16 made relatively frequent use of outside resource persons in the classroom. In two classes, at least one police officer was present virtually every day of the semester and an attorney was also

present occasionally. In 12 classes, a police officer was in the classroom 3 days a week. The teachers of two other classes brought in varied resource persons (e.g., attorney, judge, police officer, consumer advocate, representative of local government) almost once a week. The remaining four classes in this group were located in a school across the street from the county courthouse; although in-class visits from resource persons were relatively infrequent (averaging twice a semester), students in these classes spent several full days witnessing actual criminal and civil trials. An optional assignment in two of the classes was to interview the judge following a court visit.

In a few instances, visitors have proved less than beneficial. They have come ill prepared, covered material having no apparent bearing on the course, or used a straight lecture format. In one 1983 high school class, a visiting attorney presented a less than balanced account of the violation of one of her client's constitutional rights during his trial in a local district court. While it was apparent in both the attorney's presentation of the facts and local media accounts that the defendant's rights had been violated by the prosecution during his trial, neither the attorney nor the LRE teacher made any attempt to point out just how the system should work. Thus, students were left with the notion that defendants are likely to face this form of "justice" in this locality's district courts.

Five guidelines are offered for realizing optimal benefit from the expertise and community standing of professionals who are not trained as teachers. The following is a statement of each guideline, accompanied by an illustrative account of the way in which it was put into practice in

nine classes at one junior high school in the 1983 study. The accounts are based on evaluators' observations of training and classrooms.

First, visitors should receive advance preparation not only in fitting their content into the course as a whole, but in effective interactive teaching strategies--specifically in techniques for reaching the whole class, not just a few particularly receptive students.

Seven of the eight participating officers attended a three-day joint training session with the regular teachers. The training included methods for engaging students in discussion and checking for their understanding of the material covered, lesson plan development, and proactive classroom management. During observations of several consecutive class periods, an evaluator observed the teacher giving feedback at the end of each period to the participating police officer who had been unable to attend training. By the last class of the day, the officer had responded to this coaching by (1) expanding his role from that of "guest" to that of instructor in charge of the entire class from start to finish, (2) moving about the room continually to sustain the interest of all students, (3) addressing every student by name (with the aid of a palmed, miniature seating chart), and (4) thoroughly checking for student understanding of important points.

Second, topics covered by outside resource persons should be relevant to the rest of the course and properly timed for a good fit with the sequence of material presented.

Teachers worked jointly with their respective teams of officers to develop and order lessons. Typically, the teacher would introduce a topic generally, then an officer would cover key aspects of the topic in depth--often relating them to his or her firsthand experience. Occasionally, an unexpected court appearance or extra shift assignment would force postponement of an officer's presentation until several days after the teacher's introduction. When such a delay occurred, the teacher reestablished the students' mental set just prior to the presentation by the officer.

Third, the principal mode of visitors' in-class activity should be interaction with the students.

Whether presenting to the whole class or working with small groups, officers usually succeeded in engaging students in

dialogue. A teacher and officer sometimes worked together ahead of time to minimize the need for straight lecture around particular topics. In most observed instances of officers' use of a lecture format, the information conveyed was relatively technical, e.g., fingerprint identification and methods for becoming a better witness.

Fourth, visitors should present a balanced picture of parts of the system that they know, neither claiming infallibility nor unduly emphasizing "horror stories."

Although officers occasionally referred to suspects as "bandits," their dominant theme was that their actions and those of the judiciary reflected the dual concern of preserving individual rights and protecting society. This theme was particularly evident in discussions of search and seizure, conditions for setting bond, and the exclusionary rule. Officers acknowledged that occasionally they were guilty of abuse of individual rights, but pointed out that subsequent judicial actions were likely to correct such errors. In one day's classes, an officer used a controversial murder case to illustrate this point. A poll of students showed that all of them believed the suspect to be guilty of murder, yet the charges against him had just been reduced because of the means used to obtain the evidence. In discussion with the students, the officer made the point that this was an example of the system working as it should: there are rules by which evidence may be gathered and entered into a criminal proceeding; when these are violated, it may take an unpopular court decision to protect an individual's rights.

Fifth, students should receive preparation before a visit made by an outside resource person to maximize their thoughtful participation when the visitor is present.

The usual sequence was for the regular teacher to introduce a topic before the officer covered it. When an officer began a presentation, students typically had a general familiarity with the topic and (from their textbook) had learned many of the terms pertaining to that topic.

#### Quality and Quantity of Instruction

The recommendations in this category are for practices associated with good teaching in general; use of these practices in any course ought to improve learning of whatever material is presented. The reason for

including them in this report is that they appear to contribute not only to the achievement of purely educational objectives, but (at least in the LRE classes studied) to improvements in student behavior and attitudes toward teachers and school.

#### Check for Understanding and Provide Ample Opportunities for Practice

Eighteen of the 20 classes that produced superior outcomes received high ratings from observers on opportunities for students to practice and demonstrate a command of one topic or aspect before moving on to the next. The teachers of these classes avoided perfunctory checks ("Unless there are any questions, we'll go to the next lesson"), called on all students (hands raised or not) to respond to review questions, and made sure that virtually all in a class understood a lesson without appearing to repeat the same material endlessly. They also gave students ample opportunities to practice material already covered.

In 12 junior high classes, hand signals were used when appropriate to speed review of factual material (e.g., with all students putting thumbs up or down to respond to true-false questions). In three high school classes and the one elementary class in this group, review questioning often required each student in rapid succession to amplify or modify a previous student's response. In two other high school classes, one technique for review was to require students to compose their own questions on material already covered; the teacher had familiarized the students with Bloom's taxonomy and graded them partly on the level of questions they were able to ask.

Five-minute quizzes were typical forms of practice; in many classes, these occurred at the start of nearly every session. In two high school classes, students were assigned periodically to "peer teach" law-related content at a nearby junior high school. In the elementary class, students often practiced and demonstrated competence by making up examples to illustrate material just covered.

### State Objectives and Establish a Mental Set

In sharp contrast to most classes in the study, explicit statements of learning objectives for the day occurred regularly in 17 of the 20 classes that produced outstanding outcomes. These teachers began nearly every class by calling students' attention to a set of expected learning outcomes written on the board and frequently read these aloud. In the vast majority of the 41 classes not in the outstanding group, teachers told the observers before class what the objectives were, but did not convey this information to the students. Typically, task directions alone were used in those classes; students usually were told what to do, but had to figure out for themselves why they were doing it.\*

### Provide Sufficient Quantity of Instruction and Depth and Density Appropriate to the Material Covered

Like all but a few high school and junior high classes in the study, those in the outstanding group of 20 were semester-long LRE courses (so are not distinguished on this count). The elementary class in this group had ten weeks of LRE (completing the LFS Authority and Justice units); about half of the remaining elementary classes in the study had this much

---

\*Checking for understanding and stating learning objectives are critical elements of mastery learning. Benjamin Bloom (1984) reports several studies showing that students taught by mastery learning strategies outperform those taught through conventional means by as much as one full standard deviation (putting mastery students in the 84th percentile relative to students taught conventionally). In contrast, Robert E. Slavin and Nancy L. Karweit (1984) report from their own research that students taught through mastery learning strategies performed no better than students in their control classes. *A key difference in this latter research is that stated learning objectives and checking for understanding occurred in the control classes, as well as the experimental (mastery) classes.*

or nearly this much LRE instruction. What does set the top group apart is the use made of the time available; all 20 classes received high ratings from observers on depth and density (which includes suitable sequencing and pacing and amount of time spent on given topics).

Teachers of these classes brought in supplementary materials and visitors with expertise to amplify topics that merited detailed attention and encouraged student debate around important issues only after making certain that those in the class understood the facts involved. They did not allow reactive management, lengthy joking, extended housekeeping, or superfluous examples to take time off task. They used films sparingly and began mock trials only after students had a fundamental understanding of the procedures and topics involved. In most observed periods, students were on task within one minute of the starting bell.

#### Judicious Selection and Presentation of Illustrative Material and Management of Controversy

Disregarding the other recommendations for classroom practices may merely reduce the prospects that an LRE class will improve student attitudes and behavior. A possible consequence of disregarding what follows is a *worsening* of student attitudes and behavior.

One way to keep students' attention is to shock them with repeated accounts of abuses perpetrated in the name of the law. One way to make students feel good is to reinforce their anti-establishment preconceptions. In the few observed classes that produced predominantly *unfavorable* effects on student attitudes and behavior, the weight of illustrative material presented depicted laws as unfair, police as brutal, judges as

whimsical, and justice as too costly for poor people to obtain. Student debates of controversial legal issues were as likely to reach a conclusion that the system was unfair as a conclusion that it was fair.

Teachers of the most effective classes were not unrelenting defenders of the status quo, either. On important issues, however, discussion and debate around illustrative cases usually left students persuaded that existing laws and enforcement and judicial procedures were mostly necessary and just. When contrary conclusions occurred, students learned that the legal system has built-in safeguards and provisions for self-correction.

In 3 of the outstanding 20 classes, student discussion led to a conclusion (with the teacher's blessing) that there were more reasons for eliminating laws against prostitution than for keeping them on the books. In two classes, students reached a similar conclusion regarding homosexual marriages. In five classes, the teacher spoke against the system by calling capital punishment "murder by the state." In four classes, students received a one-sided presentation in favor of gun control legislation.

By design or simply through a need to express their convictions, teachers of those classes had gained credibility by demonstrating their willingness to entertain nonestablishment points of view. They had given students reason to believe that their function was not to preach blind obedience to the system.

Nevertheless, the side of law and justice had a clear advantage in most presentations and student discussions in those same classes. In every class, students received explicit instruction in sorting reason from rhetoric and emotion and in responding *rationally* to arguments by others. Through role playing and interaction with law enforcement and justice professionals, students learned the dilemmas faced by those who must make decisions in carrying out the rules. Through hypothetical dramatizations, students came to see the probably dismal consequences of suspending certain rules.

Only rarely did the teachers resort to heavyhandedness to defend the system, e.g., by reinforcing lavishly a student's comment about shoplifting that "If I do it, it's a reflection on my mother for not teaching me the proper values."

The recommendation here parallels one of the guidelines offered for outside resource persons, namely, that the system be depicted neither as infallible nor as a nightmare. To reduce the risk that students will generalize from one seemingly unjust instance to an entire body of rules, teachers are urged to emphasize legitimate remedies for unjust laws and, where feasible, to obtain the views of outside resource persons.

In student debates of controversial legal issues, outcomes conducive to favorable attitudes appear most likely where (1) the topic chosen for debate generates strong initial differences of opinion among students, (2) the teacher and/or visitor, through preparation and rehearsal, comes to class able to anticipate the arguments and counterarguments that students are likely to voice, (3) students are required to back any view they express with reasons and are encouraged to respond to reasons voiced by other students, and (4) where necessary, the teacher uses probing questions to help individual students recognize and confront inconsistencies in their reasoning.

#### Active Participation and Student Interaction

Built into many LRE text materials are opportunities for small group work. In the classes studied, appropriate group exercises repeatedly have proved useful in generating student enthusiasm and improving student views of interaction in the classroom. Participation in mock trials in particular has the potential as well to inform students about the workings of the justice system and (based on limited evidence collected only in 1983) to improve their attitudes toward judges. The tradeoff is that overuse of such exercises in some classes has taken substantial time away

from other activities capable of producing a broader range of outcomes. One recommendation is to use group work only for lessons especially suited to it and never simply because students like it.

A second recommendation is to escalate the potential behavior-related effects of group work by adding elements shown by other research to have lasting effects on friendship choices. Neither the justification for this recommendation nor evidence that it may work comes from the present evaluation, *because no teacher in the LRE study has ever tried it fully.* The elements identified in other studies as critical are a deliberate mix of abilities of students who form groups, task interdependence (work that cannot be completed except through contributions of all group members), and reward interdependence (a grade or other reward based on group, rather than individual, performance) (Slavin, 1980). Among the 20 outstanding classes, task interdependence has been a regular feature of mock trials and a few other group exercises. In four classes, the teachers have handpicked the members of some groups to assure a mix in ability levels; in the rest, the usual procedure is simply to have students count off to determine their group assignment. In only one observed mock trial have students' grades been based, in part, on the preparation and performance of each of the teams, and this was atypical even for that teacher.

Mock trials appear almost ready-made for the aforementioned three critical elements that in combination have promise for affecting peer relationships. This is a dimension that even the more successful LRE classes in the study have failed to affect substantially.

### Involvement of Building Administrators

Throughout the study, effective LRE classes have appeared to require strong in-building administrative support, at least in the form of providing classroom resources, facilitating field trips, and dealing with concerns voiced by other teachers or members of the community. This level of support was present in all 5 schools containing the outstanding 20 classes. At 2 of the schools (containing 14 classes) support from building administrators included direct instructional leadership for the LRE classes-- observation and feedback to the teachers, help in developing course materials, and intense work in arranging for outside resource people.

Where minimal support was missing, building administrators have undermined the effectiveness of LRE classes in the study in at least two ways: by chastising the teacher for permitting loud discussion among students and by loading an LRE class with disproportionate numbers of known troublemakers (as confirmed by questionnaire responses at the start of the semester). Cooperation from a building administrator can also help narrow the possible gap between school governance policies and what is taught about justice in LRE classes. Joint effort between the assistant principal and the teacher of three of the top high school classes resulted in revision of the school bylaws to allow a student court, at which LRE students served as attorneys in disciplinary cases.

The recommendation here is for an understanding of LRE and at least moderate support for it on the part of building administrators, accompanied, where feasible, by instructional leadership.

### Professional Peer Support for Teachers

Teachers called upon to be innovative in the midst of others pursuing a more conventional path are likely to require greater support than usual from peers, preferably others teaching LRE in the same building or district. Fifteen of the top 20 classes were taught by teachers who had colleagues teaching that subject in the same building. The teacher of two of the remaining classes had worked closely with a fellow LRE teacher in the same building the year before. The teacher of two other classes was in one of the two schools with highly active administrator involvement and worked with a police sergeant who served as costructor throughout the semester. The teacher of the 20th class received no special support within her building, but maintained close contact with the district social studies supervisor (who had a particular interest in LRE).

The recommendation is for professional support from within an LRE teacher's building when possible and otherwise from others in the same district (even if it takes project-sponsored social functions to bring them together).

Where course objectives include improvement of students' behavior, attitudes, and perceptions, all six categories of recommendations merit serious attention. Where objectives are only to impart knowledge of the law without harmful side effects, two of the categories still appear critical; these are the ones pertaining to judicious selection and presentation of illustrative material and involvement of administrators. In addition, three of the features recommended for making LRE an effective delinquency prevention strategy correspond to factors described in

Chapter 3 as conducive to local level institutionalization of LRE. They are active administrative support, the use of outside resource persons, and multiple teachers trained and teaching LRE in the same school.

## REFERENCES

- Becker, Howard S. (1972). *Outsiders*. New York: Free Press.
- Berman, Paul and Milbrey W. McLaughlin (1978). *Implementing and Sustaining Innovations, Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change*, Vol. VIII. Prepared for the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.
- Bloom, Benjamin S. (1984). "The 2 Sigma Problem: The Search for Methods of Group Instruction as Effective as One-to-One Tutoring," *Educational Researcher* 13(6): 4-16.
- Brophy, Jere E. (1982). "Research on the Self-Fulfilling Prophecy and Teacher Expectations." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York City.
- Carroll, James L., Edward A. Nelson, and Nancy Eisenberg-Berg (1980). *Law-Related Education: Assessing Adolescents' Knowledge and Attitudes*. Tempe: Arizona State University. (A paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Education Association in Boston in April, 1980.)
- Center for Action Research and Social Science Education Consortium (1980). *Evaluation of Law-Related Education, Phase I Final Report*. Prepared under grant no. 79-JN-AX-0036 for the U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Boulder, CO: SSEC and CAR.

- Center for Action Research and Social Science Education Consortium  
(1981). *Law-Related Education Phase II Formative Evaluation Report*.  
Prepared under grant no. 79-JN-AX-0036 for the U.S. Department of  
Justice, National Institute of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency  
Prevention. Boulder, CO: SSEC and CAR.
- Chastain, Michael R. (1977). *Delinquency, the School Experience, and  
Conceptions of Self and Opportunities*. Ann Arbor: University  
Microfilms. Cited in *Criminal Justice Abstracts* 10(1): 21-22.
- Cloward, Richard A. and Lloyd E. Ohlin (1960). *Delinquency and  
Opportunity: A Theory of Delinquent Gangs*. Glencoe, IL: The  
Free Press.
- Cohen, J. and P. Cohen (1975). *Applied Multiple Regression: Correlation  
Analysis for Behavioral Science*. New York: Halsted Press.
- Cronbach, Lee J. and Lita Furby (1970). "How We Should Measure 'Change'  
--Or Should We?" *Psychological Bulletin* 14, pp. 68-80.
- Denton, Jon J. and James B. Kracht (1976). *Final Evaluation Report of  
Teacher Training Projects*. Dallas: Law in a Changing Society.
- Donovan, Dorothy J. (1975). *Turning Students on to Active Citizenship*.  
Pitman, NJ: Institute for Political and Legal Education.
- Elliott, Delbert S., Suzanne S. Ageton, and Rachelle J. Canter (1979).  
*An Integrated Theoretical Perspective on Delinquent Behavior*.  
Prepared for the Center for Studies in Crime and Delinquency,  
National Institute for Mental Health. Boulder, CO: Behavioral  
Research and Evaluation Corporation.

Elliott, Delbert S., Brian A. Knowles, and Rachele J. Canter (1981).

*The Epidemiology of Delinquent Behavior and Drug Use among American Adolescents, 1976-1978.* Boulder, CO: Behavioral Research Institute.

Foster, Jack D., Simon Dinitz, and Walter C. Reckless (1972).

"Perceptions of Stigma Following Public Intervention for Delinquent Behavior," *Social Problems* 20 (Fall): 202-209.

Fraser, Barry J. and David L. Smith (1980). "Impact of Law-Related Education Materials on Student Cognitive and Affective Outcomes," *Social Studies* 71: 139-142.

Fullan, Michael and Alan Pomfret (1977). "Research on Curriculum and Instruction Implementation," *Review of Educational Research* 47(1), pp. 335-397.

Gibbons, Don C. (1970). *Delinquent Behavior.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Gove, Walter R., ed. (1980). *The Labelling of Deviance: Evaluating a Perspective.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications. (2nd ed.)

Hawkins, J. David and Joseph G. Weis (1980). *The Social Development Model: An Integrated Approach to Delinquency Prevention.* Seattle: University of Washington, Center for Law and Justice (prepared in part under grant no. 77JN9900017 from the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention).

Hindelang, Michael J. and Travis Hirschi (1981). *Measuring Delinquency.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Hirschi, Travis (1969). *Causes of Delinquency.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

- Hoffman, Marvin K. and Dan B. German (1973). *Youth and the Law: An Evaluation of the Effect of the Introduction of Legal Education Materials on Youth Attitudes and Cognitions*. U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (NCJ reference no. 0112180).
- Huizinga, David and Delbert S. Elliott (1984). *Self-Reported Measures of Delinquency and Crime: Methodological Issues and Comparative Findings*. Boulder, CO: Behavioral Research Institute.
- Jacobson, Michael G. and Stuart B. Palonsky (1981). "Effects of a Law-Related Education Program," *Elementary School Journal* 82: 49-57.
- Johnson, Grant (1985). *Law-Related Education in Loveland, Colorado (Thompson School District R2-J): Evaluation of the Fall 1984 Program*. Boulder, CO: Center for Action Research, Inc.
- Johnson, Grant, Tom Bird, Judith Warren Little, and Sylvia L. Beville (1981). *Delinquency Prevention: Theories and Strategies* (2nd ed.). Prepared for the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, U.S. Department of Justice. Boulder, CO: Center for Action Research, Inc.
- Kavanaugh, Michelle and Paul Gallagher (1980). *Law Education Goals and Learnings Project*. Miami: LEGAL Project.
- Kratcoski, P.C. and J.E. Kratcoski (1977). "The Balance of Social Status Groupings within Schools as an Influencing Variable on the Frequency and Character of Delinquent Behavior." In *Youth Crime and Juvenile Justice*, Paul C. Friday and V. Lorne Stewart, eds. New York: Praeger.

- Little, Judith Warren (1981). *School Success and Staff Development: The Role of Staff Development in Urban Desegregated Schools. Final Report.* Prepared for the National Institute of Education. Boulder, CO: Center for Action Research, Inc.
- Merton, Robert K. (1938). "Social Structure and Anomie," *American Sociological Review* 3: 678-682.
- National Institute of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (1977). *Preventing Delinquency: A Comparative Analysis of Delinquency Prevention Theory, Vol. I.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice.
- Nelson, Edward A. (1979). *Final Evaluation of the "Criminal Justice in the Classroom" Project.* Tempe, AZ: Tempe Union High School District and Arizona State University Center of Criminal Justice.
- Nye, F. Ivan (1958). *Family Relationships and Delinquent Behavior.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Polk, Kenneth and Walter E. Schafer (1972). *Schools and Delinquency.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Rosenbaum, James E. (1980). "Social Implications of Educational Grouping," *American Research in Education* 8: 361-401.
- Seib, Lawrence and W.F. Schmoll (1985). "Using Law-Related Education to Reduce Juvenile Delinquency," *The Police Chief* 52(1): 39-41.
- Slavin, Robert E. (1980). "Cooperative Learning," *Review of Educational Research* 50(2): 315-342.
- Slavin, Robert E. and Nancy L. Karweit (1984). "Mastery Learning and Student Teams: A Factorial Experiment in Urban General Mathematics Classes," *American Educational Research Journal* 21(4): 725-736.

Social Science Education Consortium and Center for Action Research (1983).

*Law-Related Education Evaluation Project, Final Report, Phase II,*

*Year 2.* Prepared under grant no. 79-JN-AX-0036 for the U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Boulder, CO: SSEC and CAR.

Van DeCar, Patricia A. (1984). *The Effect of Law-Related Education on*

*Students' Attitudes and Knowledge about Authority and the Legal*

*System.* Vanderbilt University, George Peabody College for Teachers.