Photographed from the Throgs Neck Bridge section of the Bronx on a hazy evening

MISSION

THE MISSION OF THE ACADEMY IS TO PROMOTE THE INTERESTS OF URBAN EDUCATION IN BOTH PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES IN THE METROPOLITAN AREA.

VISION

THE VISION OF THE ACADEMY IS TO CREATE AN AGORA FOR THE EXCHANGEOF IDEAS AMONG EDUCATORS WHO WISH TO ENCOURAGE AND UPHOLD THE PROMOTION OF THE HIGHEST STANDARDS AND IDEALS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN
THE GREATER NEW YORK METROPOLITAN AREA.

FROM THE EDITOR

From the Editor

As the new school year continues to unfold, we welcome students back to our schools. It was a difficult time for them during the last school year, and the educational opportunities that they were missing. It will take much time for them to regain the learning that they may have lost. We can only hope that veryone will be remaining in our buildings and that the absences, quarantines, and remote learnings will be kept to a minimum.

As always, we are indebted to our manuscript contributors, without whom the Journal would not be successful. This is our Tenth Annual Issue and we have new plans for future editions. We are currently looking into being included in the ERIC database for future publications. Dr. Craig Markson and Dr. Linda Paterson are volunteering their time for this noble and worthy cause.

On the cover of this issue, the picture is of the 911 Commemoration as seen from the Throgs Neck section of the Bronx. I am sure that everyone can recall exactly where they were and what they were doing on that fateful day. Those of us who were working in the schools or had friends and loved ones there, will never forget. Perhaps, it is fitting that on the Twentieth Anniversary of the attack on the World Trade Center, we are currently no longer at war. In addition to the thousands who died on that day, we have lost several thousand more Americans to the resulting conflicts and war. Just as we will never forget that fateful day, please remember all of those who never returned home from the war, and those who did return but are still suffering from physical and/or mental wounds. Please pray for them.

Lastly, it would be remiss of me not to acknowledge and thank our Peer Review Committee (identified later in this Journal) who have given of their free time to edit and assist in the production of this Tenth Annual Research Journal of the New York Academy of Public Education. Thank you all!

Fraternally in education,

John C. Jangl, Ed. D.
Editor-in-Chief

A Message from the President

Dear Members,

I hope that this message finds you and your loved ones healthy and safe. I am well aware of your dedication to the transformative power that education offers. The New York Academy of Public Education welcomes and supports each of you as part of our community of diverse and engaged learners as we stand together during these difficult times.

Once again, on behalf of the New York Academy Board of Directors, thank you for your partnership and for helping make education possible for all children during these difficult times. I know you came to this profession with a passion to contribute to the world through education. In my final year as president, I encourage you to bring your ideas, observations, and questions to our meetings. Through our speakers and discussions, you will find the knowledge, skills, and relationships that will empower you to continue to make meaningful change in the lives of students of all ages.

I look forward to working with the members, officers and the board of directors to serve the vision of the Academy:

The vision of the Academy is to create an agora for the exchange of ideas among educators who wish to encourage and uphold the promotion of the highest standards and ideals of Public Education in the Greater New York Metropolitan area.

I would like to commend Editor-In-Chief, John Jangl, Ed.D. and the peer review committee for the work that they have done to ensure that the NYAPE Research Journal maintains its high quality and integrity in the world of research publications.

I would also like to thank the NYAPE board and officers who work daily to achieve the mission of The New York Academy of Public Education.

In addition, kudos to the authors who have contributed to the body of research which serves to inform and improve our schools, institutions and government.

Remember that the NYAPE Research Journal is published annually and can be found on our website New York Academy of Public Education (nyape.org). Please submit articles to our Research Journal Committee for review. In addition, look for our newsletters which review our meetings, activities and the accomplishments of our members.

Let me know how the academy can work to meet your expectations for educational excellence.

Be Well, Be Safe and Continue to Support Our Schools.

Anthony P. Cavanna, Ed.D.
President
New York Academy of Public Education

NYAPE Research Journal Staff

Editor-in-Chief, *John C. Jangl, Ed.D.*

Research Editor, *Linda K. Patteron, Ph.D.*

Peer Reviewers

Linda K. Patterson, Ph.D., New York University
Carol Russo, Dept. of Education, Retired
Teresa A. Trimarco, Ph.D., St. John's University
Lisa Vacca-Rizopoulos, Ph.D., Manhattan College

NYAPE Board of Directors

Table of Contents

Pride and Prejudice: How Workplace Bullying Has No Place in Schools

Mauricio Gonzalez, Stony Brook University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate workplace bullying, the legal jurisprudence protecting victims, the psychological underpinnings of workplace bullying, the possible restorative practices to address bullying, and the effects of bullying on student and leadership performance. The findings indicate that the United States of America leads its peer countries in incidents of bullying with nearly fifty percent of working adults reporting being directly bullied or witnessing coworker bullying. Bullying terrorizes, humiliates, dehumanizes, and isolates targets. The delay of clear workplace bullying jurisprudence for school employees is reaching a tipping point with New Jersey's Anti-Bullying Bill of Rights Act and the proposed New York State's Healthy Workplace Bill. The psychological origins of workplace bullying stem from a series of complex mechanisms that are evolutionarily and environmentally determined. Hubristic pride is more consistently related to problematic interpersonal functioning and psychopathology and therefore a source of workplace bullying. Restorative justice endeavors to create a level of conscious understanding of bullying and fosters an environment of acceptance and forgiveness as opposed to punishment. Though there are no direct studies linking peer-to-peer workplace bullying with organizational leadership and student performance, when effective communication is destroyed, employee morale undermined, and psychological trauma induced by bullying, all aspects of an organization will be detrimentally affected making that link obvious.

Conceptual Rationale

The United States of America leads its peer countries in incidents of bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013) with nearly fifty percent of working adults reporting being directly bullied or witnessing coworker bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). Bullying is defined as "bellicose behavior by a person or persons that hurts or threatens to hurt another in the same peer group (Alexander & Alexander, 2019)." According to Lutgen-Sandvik (2013) bullying is persistent (i.e. 6 months) aggressive interactions that escalate in severity (e.g. uncivil acts like taunting, gossiping, withholding information, opinions ignored, subject to unwelcome practical jokes, to facial expressions conveying threats, to assault, and battery) and hostility over time (i.e. at least 2 negative acts weekly or more) and against which targets are unable to defend themselves,

are otherwise unable to stop abuse, or deny the abuse in order to not be perceived as weak victims. Other terms related to bullying include workplace bullying, adult-on-adult bullying, harassment of a non-sexual nature, emotional abuse, employee emotional abuse, psychological terror, and mobbing. Victims are often referred to as targets in the scientific literature (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013) and those responsible for bullying are often referred to as perpetrators.

Workplace bullying denies employees a healthy work environment because it leads to stress affecting individuals' mental health, physical health, and productivity in the work place (Farrell & Geist-Martin, 2005). This in turn leads to significant impacts to the state (New York State Legislature Bill A04258, 2011) and national (Sigmond, 2020) economies. Moreover, workplace bullying is four times more prevalent than another associated form of bullying - sexual harassment (Alena Shautsova Law Offices, n.d.). Indeed, most of the substance that's taking shape in legal jurisprudence to protect against adult bullying is being drawn from cases of sexual harassment. Because bullying can be considered a type of unwelcome conduct by a supervisor or coworker, albeit of a non-sexual nature, it may fall under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 if it directly involves an individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. According to Title VII, "Unlawful sexual harassment… is unwelcome conduct that creates a hostile, offensive, threatening, or intimidating work environment that impacts the victim's ability to perform his or her job (Alexander & Alexander, 2019)." This is also known simply as "hostile environment" harassment. In connection with Title VII, the "Equal Protection Clause" of the 14th Amendment to the United States Constitution has been evoked for cases of harassment. Notwithstanding, existing workers' compensation provisions and common law tort are inadequate to discourage abusive conduct in the workplace and provide adequate redress to employees who have been harmed by abusive work environments (Alena Shautsova Law Offices, n.d.). Therefore, the line of jurisprudence is incomplete as it regards to this critical topic.

Researchers in the field of medicine have termed workplace bullying as a "Silent Epidemic (McAvoy, 2003)." Market pressures on the global economy leading to increasingly evident job outsourcing, downsizing, automation, and competition has been shown to contribute not only to acts of violence, but to personal distress and interpersonal conflict (i.e. yelling, bullying, and humiliation, and retaliation on the job). So, not

only is bullying on the rise in the US but more cases of physical violence are too (Hoobler, 2002).

Although pride is generally seen as a positive emotion whereby an individual demonstrates a general vision of warranted self-satisfaction with their own achievements, it has also been referenced as an unwarranted self-expression of overbearing self-importance and self-satisfaction (Beil, 2016). The former type of pride results in heightened workplace performance. This is called authentic pride. The latter can result in damaging consequences for the workplace. This is called hubristic pride (Tracy J. L., 2007b). Hubristic pride is more consistently related to problematic interpersonal functioning and psychopathology (Tracy, Cheng, Robins, & Trzesniewski, 2009) and therefore potentially detract from a collaborative work environment.

According to the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2015, p. 1) we're in the midst of an accelerated global economic transformation requiring "school leaders to innovate" and adapt. One key strategy to attain this goal is written in standard seven, item E of the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (PSEL) which tasks leaders to "develop and support open, productive, caring, and trusting working relationships among leaders, faculty, and staff to promote professional capacity and the improvement of practice (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2015, p. 15)." Workplace bullying in a school setting undoubtedly affects school culture and trickles down to student performance (McAvoy, 2003). It is imperative that this problem begin to take a more prominent place in the attention leaders give to improve schools.

One strategy to create a more inclusive and authentically prideful school may lie in employing restorative justice (RJ) practices as opposed to punitive justice practices. "…The restorative perspective sees crimes as defined by harms done to people and relationships (i.e. broken relationships) and people as victims, while addressing the needs of victims and offenders, and using a communitarian process to generate a resolution agreed upon by the participants (Solinas, 2007)." RJ's belief in addressing the fundamental needs of both the victims and the targets democratically, putting the targets pain as secondary to the healing process, and moving away from the heavy-handed punitive approach makes it a highly desirable practice. Notwithstanding, some argue that due to the voluntary nature of RJ, not only are punitive practices difficult to avoid, but that some sort of pressure is often necessary (Walgrave, 2005).

Understanding the psychological underpinnings of workplace bullying and finding methods to protect targets from its wide reach either through legal or therapeutic means is a burning economic, social, political, and even ethical dilemma for our society today. Considered a "silent epidemic" because bullying terrorizes, humiliates, dehumanizes, and isolates (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013) this the paper sought to address A) the legal considerations and protections related to workplace bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013; Aranda, 2018; Hadj Said, 2018; Mazzarella, 2018); B) how hubristic pride could be a fuel behind this phenomenon (Beil, 2016); C) how groupthink, in-group preference, attribution error, and implicit & explicit bias lead to workplace bullying (Efferson, Lalive, & Fehr, 2008), D) whether Restorative Justice practices could be used to effectively address the problem (Hoobler, 2002) (Solinas, 2007); and, ultimately E) to describe the effects of workplace bullying on school students and leadership practices (Rousseau, 1995).

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

Research Question One
According to the research literature what were the legal considerations and concerns related to workplace bullying?

Research Question Two
According to the research literature how did individuals expressing hubristic pride use aggression to gain and maintain their social status?

Research Question Three
According to the research literature how do groupthink, in-group preference, attribution error, and implicit & explicit bias lead to workplace bullying?

Research Question Four
According to the research literature how might restorative justice and other therapeutic practices be used to address workplace bullying?

Research Question Five
How might workplace bullying affect school leadership and student performance?

REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE

Legal Considerations and Concerns Related to Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying is four times more prevalent than sexual harassment in the workplace (Alena Shautsova Law Offices, n.d.). Because workplace bullying is considered a form of harassment, most of the substance that's taking shape in legal jurisprudence to protect against adult bullying is being drawn from cases of sexual harassment. According to Alexander & Alexander (2019) although there is "no specific law of bullying," there is, however, a developing jurisprudence in school law, state statutes, criminal law, and federal constitutional and statutory law. Because bullying can be considered a type of unwelcome conduct by a supervisor or coworker, albeit of a non-sexual nature,

it may fall under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 if it directly involves a protected class such as an individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. According to Title VII, "Unlawful sexual harassment… is unwelcome conduct that creates a hostile, offensive, threatening, or intimidating work environment that impacts the victim's ability to perform his or her job (Alexander & Alexander, 2019)." This is also known simply as "hostile environment" harassment. In connection with Title VII, the "Equal Protection Clause" of the 14th Amendment to the United States Constitution has been evoked for cases of harassment. However, cases that do not involve a protected class are not protected under Title VII. And existing workers' compensation provisions and common law tort are inadequate to discourage abusive conduct in the workplace and provide adequate redress to employees who have been harmed by abusive work environments (Alena Shautsova Law Offices, n.d.). To address this need the New York State Legislature in 2011 proposed a Bill called the Abusive Work Environment Bill also known as the Healthy Workplace Bill (Alena Shautsova Law Offices, n.d.), declaring:

"that legal protection from abusive work environments should not be limited to behavior grounded in a protected class status as required by employment discrimination statutes. Existing workers' compensation provisions and common law tort are inadequate to discourage such abusive conduct and provide adequate redress to employees who have been harmed by abusive work environments. The purpose of this [bill]… shall be to provide legal redress for employees who have been harmed psychologically, physically or economically by being deliberately subjected to abusive work environments; and to provide legal incentives for employers to prevent and respond to mistreatment of employees at work."

In order to better understand the precedent that has been established in case law, it's important to turn the focus on several relevant cases that have been fought in the court of law and on written statute. As established above, workplace bullying is considered harassment albeit of a non-sexual nature, and as such, may find jurisprudence in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 if it's demonstrated to be linked to a protected class under the Act. In one of the most cited cases of harassment, Faragher v. City of Boca Raton (1998), petitioner Beth Ann Faragher resigned as a lifeguard with in the city of Boca Raton and brought an action against the City and her immediate supervisors, alleging that they had created a "sexually hostile atmosphere" at work by repeatedly subjecting her and other female lifeguards to sexual harassment. The United States Supreme Court upheld the District Court's decision "that the supervisors' conduct was discriminatory

harassment sufficiently serious to alter the conditions of Faragher's employment and constitute an abusive working environment."

In the case Harris v. Forklift Systems (1993), a petitioner named Harris sued her former employer, Forklift Systems, Inc., claiming that the conduct of Forklift's president toward her constituted "abusive work environment" harassment because of her gender in violation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The Supreme Court found that "To be actionable under Title VII as 'abusive work environment' harassment, conduct need not seriously affect the employee's psychological wellbeing or lead the employee to suffer injury, so long as the environment would reasonably be perceived, and is perceived, as hostile or abusive… Whether an environment is hostile or abusive can be determined only by looking at all the circumstances, which may include the frequency of the discriminatory conduct; its severity; whether it is physically threatening or humiliating, or a mere offensive utterance; and whether it unreasonably interferes with an employee's work performance. The effect on the employee's psychological well-being is relevant in determining whether the plaintiff actually found the environment abusive. But while psychological harm, like any other relevant factor, may be taken into account, no single factor is required."

The above cases clearly produced material for classes protected under Title VII. However, if there exists instances of harassment that do not directly involve a protected class such as an individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (i.e. also known as Status-Blind) but rather to characteristics which are personal to the target, even if they belong to one of these categories, then Title VII does not apply nor does the Equal Protection clause which would compel the court to uphold Title VII. For example, in the case of Trautvetter v. Quick (1990) brought before the US Court of Appeals, Seventh Circuit, "Plaintiff-appellant, Patsy L. Trautvetter, brought an action in the district court in which she alleged that the defendants had engaged in sexual discrimination in violation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964… Her complaint alleged that the defendants had engaged in and/or condoned acts of sexual harassment which deprived her of her constitutional rights under Sec. 1983. In addition, [it was] … alleged that the defendants had conspired to achieve this result, thus depriving her of those same rights under Sec. 1985." The Court concluded that she had not raised a genuine issue of material fact as to whether Mr. Quick's sexual advances were because of her status as a woman (my emphasis). Although the court concluded that Ms. Trautvetter was indeed a woman, her status as a woman did not in itself support an allegation of sexual harassment under the Equal Protection Clause. In order for this to have been considered as an attack on

her protected class, she would've had to demonstrate that the defendant's advances were because of her status as a woman as opposed to characteristics which were personal to her, even if these characteristics were sexual in nature (Alexander & Alexander, 2019). Thus the use of Title VII as an instrument is a narrower and special protection to only be considered in special protected status cases such as when the bullying is directed at only one employee who happens to be of a different race than the rest of the staff or if the abuse is directed generally at employees of a protected class, which would be considered discrimination. Perpetrators, particularly bully employers, have found ways to circumvent this type of accusation of discrimination by citing Equal Opportunity Harasser Defense. They can purposefully generalize their behavior to others of unprotected classes to avoid claim that they're targeting protected classes under Title VII (Horton-Management-Law, 2019).

The Anti-Bullying Bill of Rights Act passed by the New Jersey Legislature in 2010 widened the protections of targets against workplace bullying and may be key in forwarding jurisprudence in New York State. This statute "strengthens the standards and procedures for preventing, reporting, investigating, and responding to incidents of harassment, intimidation, and bullying (occurring both on and off school grounds)." It also states that incidents "motivated by any actual or perceived characteristic, such as race, color, religion, ancestry, national origin, gender, sexual orientation, gender identity and expression, or a mental, physical, or sensory disability, or by any other distinguishing characteristic is provided for [by this statute] (Alexander & Alexander, 2019)." The latter characteristic may be a wedge into making the case for harassment in cases involving workplace bullying. For example, if the perpetrator attempts to stereotype the victim or place the victim in a class or non-class (which would be a class in itself), this may form the grounds for protection by the Statute. This Statute was brought forth in the case Dunkley v. Board of Education of Greater Egg Harbor Regional High School District (2016). In December 2013 plaintiff, Bryshawn Dunkley, a senior at Cedar Creek High School, was suspended for two days for his out-of-school YouTube account, which contained a video criticizing a football teammate. In February 2014, he was suspended for nine days for content on an out-of-school, anonymous Twitter account that contained harassing statements against other students in the school. The Court ruled that the statements made were "insulting and demeaning to the plaintiff's (perpetrator's) classmates, and were motivated by race, gender, and other distinguishing characteristics of those students (emphasis added)." It must be noted that the plaintiff unsuccessfully summoned

his 1st Amendment right of Free Speech in this case which were denied him for his substantial disruption or interference of the orderly operation of the school and the rights of the bullied students (Alexander & Alexander, 2019).

The line of jurisprudence as regards workplace bullying is incomplete. There are cases that have tried giving substance to harassment and are increasingly giving shape to our understanding of the effects of workplace bullying. Many professional tracks already include regulations against workplace bullying except for those in the teaching profession. It is imperative for New York State to pass the Healthy Workplace Bill to protect our school professionals.

Individuals Expressing Hubristic Pride Use Aggression to Gain and Maintain their Social Status

The measurement of workplace pride has become a valuable endeavor due to its relationship with workplace performance (Beil, 2016). One form of it, hubristic pride affects decision making and leadership so much so that it has been referred to as an epidemic (Garrard, 2018). Hubristic pride, which underpins narcissistic self-esteem is the product of early childhood experiences. Children that are held to high expectations verging on perfection typically by a parent while simultaneously experiencing rejection and humiliation, develop a psychic coping mechanism that leads them to an unhealthy dissociation of self. This dissociation is characterized by a split between an implicit feeling of inadequacy leading to intense feelings of shame and simultaneously an explicit feeling of grandiosity to compensate and associate with the expectation of perfection. This in turn leads to a contingent sense of self-esteem that depends on external factors to validate their self-worth and is therefore an unstable source of that self-worth (Tracy, Cheng, Robins, & Trzesniewski, 2009). In order to suppress their implicit feelings of inadequacy, they try to become what they believe a valuable, successful person is like. This motivates them to perform well, to be acceptable, even outstanding, and are often driven relentlessly in their pursuit of success as a way of staving off feelings of shame and fears of failure (Enneagraminstitute.com, 2019). Thus, the person assumes narcissistic behaviors as a defense against excessive shame. In order to minimize that shame, they keep their negative self-representations implicit and maximize hubristic pride by continually inflating their positive self-representations. This dissociation creates an unstable psychic situation whereby any critique will trigger an outburst of anger towards the critical person. By the same token, the narcissist will repeatedly seek external indicators for their self-worth thus making it contingent or external (Tracy, et.al., 2009).

While authentic pride correlates with self-control and is tied to adaptive achievement and goal engage-

ment, hubristic pride is related to measures of impulsivity and aggression and is tied to extrinsic values of public recognition and social dominance. Authentic pride has been characterized by words such as "accomplished" and "confident," whereas hubristic pride has been characterized by words such as "arrogant" and "conceited (Carver & Johnson, 2010)." Hubristic pride is associated with dominance, which in turn is associated with aggression and disagreeableness. Authentic pride is associated with prestige, genuine self-esteem, agreeableness, conscientiousness, achievement, advice-giving, and prosociality (Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010). Hostility and rage tied to hubristic pride might not be so common or virulent if the underlying pain were due to something other than shame following threats to self-worth (Tracy, Cheng, Robins, & Trzesniewski, 2009). Because social status is paramount to the narcissist, aggression is a common personality trait used when their externally dependent self-worth is on the line. This aggression in the workplace is indistinguishable from workplace bullying.

Groupthink' has been identified as a potential source of hubris (Sadler-Smith, 2018). In the next section, groupthink and in-group preference are discussed as a dangerous source of bully behavior.

Groupthink, In-Group Preference, Attribution Error, and Implicit and Explicit Bias Lead to
Workplace Bullying

When one speaks of bullying, by automatic association one may think of the one playground bully that acts in isolation to intimidate a whole group. Although this may be the case during instances of child bullying, workplace bullying is often the product of a sophisticated set of social and psychic phenomena that implicate a group of people as perpetrators against a few or lone victim. After all, bullying is defined as "bellicose behavior by a person or persons that hurts or threatens to hurt another in the same peer group (Alexander & Alexander, 2019)." Adults have the mental maturity to create elaborate methods of bullying while going undetected by those that have the power to curtail it (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). The capacity to go undetected explains why it is so widespread in the workplace. A major contributor to this characteristic of going undetected is the fact that workplace bullying often happens in the context of subtle forms of group sociability that function on an elusive plane. These forms of sociability are groupthink and implicit bias. Groupthink, on the one hand, is a form of collective unconscious that underpins all forms of cultural groups (Efferson, Lalive, & Fehr, 2008). Once a group shares a strongly cohesive culture, are insulated from outside influences, and produce an homogenous ideology, the group begins to form and protect a collective narrative that typically acts to exclude dissenting forms of voice (Sadler-Smith, 2018). Implicit bias, on the other hand, acts as a psychic strategy of classification of others against self that depend on cultural markers (Mendoza, 2020). These two forms of psychic phenomena exert social pressures on persons already prone to preexisting conditions of low self-esteem who overcompensate by displays of hubristic pride (as discussed earlier) and which endeavor to facilitate the bullying climate in an organization. There may be one, two, or a group of bullies who act to intimidate the few dissenting outliers that do not conform to the dominant cultural narrative, otherwise known as the single story phenomena (Adichie, 2009).

In order to understand the effects of groupthink more deeply, it's important to understand that large (majority) groups that share a specified culture tend to over-estimate their in-group as stronger, smarter, and superior while they under-estimate the out-group as weaker, more stupid, and inferior (Sadler-Smith, 2018). These ideas tend to develop implicitly (implicit bias) initially as a natural and evolutionary psychic mechanism which begins to manifest itself explicitly as the group develops an institutionalized dynamic (Efferson, Lalive, & Fehr, 2008). Furthermore, groupthink promotes closed-mindedness which acts to pressure the organization's members into uniformity and conformity which significantly contributes to organizational hubris through the formation of 'in-groups' as a result of a differential in opinions, dynamics, practices, and social exchanges between organizational members (Sadler-Smith, 2018). Once in-groups (cliques) are established, favoritism begins to take hold (Efferson, Lalive, & Fehr, 2008) called in-group preference. As discussed previously, bullying behavior includes the withholding of ideas and resources from victims which prevents them from excelling at their work and leading to a downward spiral of emotional distress (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013).

In-group preference often leads to attributional error. Attributional error is the psychic phenomena in which in-groups differentially evaluate mistakes between their in-group and out-groups. In other words, in-groups believe their mistakes arise from external factors whereas the mistakes of out-groups are due to personal attributes of the members of the outgroup (Taylor & Doria, 1981). A classic example of this is when a person who is driving is cut off by another car and the driver who is cut off attributes the other behavior to poor personal qualities whereas if the same driver were to cut someone off, they would justify it with external factors like being in an unavoidable hurry or circumstance outside of their control (NYC Department of Education, n.d.). Attributional error is indeed

a form of implicit bias that acts as a discriminatory mechanism to protect the self-esteem of the individual. In the case of an individual with hubristic pride, attributional error can lead to aggression and bullying. It is important to develop the concepts of explicit and implicit bias in order to better understand the pitfalls and solutions that are implicated in workplace bullying.

The brain receives 11 million bits of information a second, but it can only process 40 bits consciously (NYC Department of Education, n.d.). Vision alone produces about 83 percent of those bits. What we see creates most of the information we need to fuel the processes with which we execute our actions. Our actions therefore are a result of a vast system of filtration at both the unconscious and conscious level, the unconscious being the most important in terms of the bulk of the work. Despite this, the mind needs to take detours around the overwhelming information received in order to ensure efficiency in action and even survival (NYC Department of Education, n.d.). The price paid is that our minds must create implicit biases in the form of schemas, stereotypes, and a priori attitudes that can lead to harmful behaviors of the sort associated to in-group preference, aggression, attributional error, and, ultimately, workplace bullying.

Explicit bias is a conscious bias which causes a person to have preferences towards a person, idea, or thing or a prejudice against a person, idea, or thing. Implicit bias, as discussed above, is unconscious preferences or prejudices against people, ideas, or things (NYC Department of Education, n.d.). Biases exist as evolutionary psychic mechanisms to make sense of the world though they do not necessarily agree with truths or healthy behaviors. Implicit biases are important to understand because they underpin potentially destructive and prejudicial behaviors of people who would otherwise claim to be unbiased. Some key characteristics of implicit bias are that it: 01) manifests itself at an unconscious level, 02) manifests itself instantaneously, 03) can be a preference or a prejudice, 04) can manifest itself towards people, ideas, or things, 05) can lead to attribution error (as discussed earlier), 06) is amplified by in-group behavior (NYC Department of Education, n.d.), and 07) can probably lead to microaggressions and workplace bullying.

Although implicit bias is largely understood as being an automatic and unconscious response, taking the blame almost entirely away from the perpetrator, research has shown that we can make our unconscious behaviors known to our conscious (Jung, 1980). That is, we can become conscious of our biases and make them explicit. This is a crucial step in justifying the use of therapies such as restorative justice which will be touched upon in the next two sections. Furthermore, there are those who actively and consciously seek to

shut others down to move agendas forward aligning their implicit biases with their explicit biases. These are the psychopaths or sociopaths of our society, who, because of their lack of empathy, morality, and a sense of right and wrong (Skilling, Harris, Rice, & Quinsey, 2002), seek to use hate and reckless actions to exclude or remove others for their or their in-group's benefit.

In sum, overwhelming environmental information taken in by a limited mind necessitates the creation of shortcuts to produce behaviors that lead to implicit biases in the form schemas and stereotypes that fuel prejudices, in-group preference, and groupthink which, in turn, lead to attributional error. These forces, when coupled with hubristic pride, can create a perfect storm of aggressive and toxic peer-to-peer or supervisor-to-peer behavior: workplace bullying.

Restorative Justice and other Therapeutic Practices Used to Address Workplace Bullying.

On June 20th, 2019, Mayor de Blasio, First Lady McCray, and Chancellor Carranza announced a major expansion of social-emotional learning (SEL) and restorative justice (RJ) across all city schools (NYC Department of Education, 2019). In partnership with the Sanford Harmony program the DOE would expand SEL support to all NYC elementary schools. Eighty-five clinical social workers would provide early intervention for students in need. All high schools and middle schools would receive RJ training. One goal would be for New York City (NYC) schools to keep suspensions below 20 days cases except those that involve serious or violent incidents.

The development of RJ has undergone a transformation in the NYC Department of Education (DOE) from its original inception. Developed by Homan in 1961, RJ is a theory that addresses an imbalance of power between an employee and an employer such that an employee who feels cheated by the employer will seek to displace aggression on subordinates or peers in order to restore psychic justice. In other words, the theory predicts that a less influential individual will seek to restore justice through indirect means when the source of perceived injustice is in a position of power (Hoobler, 2002). The main vehicle by which the aggressions (even microaggressions) manifest themselves are through breaches in what is termed the psychological contract breach/violation which is defined as "individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization (Rousseau, 1995)." The psychological contract can also be viewed as the culture of communication in a school or organization. It is a delicate balance of civility and conflict resolution techniques that need to be developed through SEL.

Because bullying is a product of early childhood humiliations that lead to low self-esteem, the answer

does not lie in more humiliating punishment but some form of therapy to help them build a sense of self so that bully's don't feel the need to elevate themselves at the price of humiliating others. There are ancient (i.e. Zen Buddhist), historical (i.e. Jung's Active Imagination), as well as contemporary forms (i.e. Sanford Harmony's Restorative Justice through Social-Emotional Learning) of addressing this issue.

The Zen Buddhist practice calls for a method of building a healthy sense of self by employing a strategy that can be summed up in the acronym RAIN: 01) recognize the hindrance (in this case it is the event that triggers shame and low self-esteem), accept it, investigate why it manifested itself or what produced it, and non-identify or release the clinging to it by believing that the feeling is not part of the authentic self or the value as a person (Yi, 2020). In Carl Jung's Active Imagination technique, the subject addresses the trigger using a spontaneously created fantasy. That is, the subject relives certain blocked emotions through actively imagined fantasies expressed as works of art (e.g. drawing, painting, writing, sculpture, dance, or music) thereby assimilating unconscious contents (i.e. origins of humiliation as a child) through some form of self-expression. This method gives a voice to the unconscious, thereby bringing it to consciousness. Even when the end products are not interpreted, something goes on between creator and creation that contributes to a transformation of consciousness and a purging of the hindrance (Carl-Jung.net, 2019). In 2019 The NYC DOE revamped the original RJ theory and redefined it as a de-emphasis on the reliance of solely traditional discipline and punishment. Now, students are encouraged to activate SEL skills by focusing on emotion identification, conflict resolution and problem solving. In turn, SEL is the process through which people (i.e. boys and girls and adults) acquire and effectively apply the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary for being a healthy adult. Some of the strategies proposed by the DOE in the use of SEL include problem-solving skills, intergender communication & understanding, teaching people to embrace diversity, and build healthy relationships that will last (Sanford Harmony, 2020).

We've seen that bullying and hubristic pride stem from early childhood humiliations that lead to extreme lack of self-esteem. The key question here is how can a perpetrator of bullying be made to elevate their self-esteem? How can they be helped to identify their problem so that they can improve their self-esteem and convert their hubristic pride into authentic pride? In all the methods described above the "hindrance" or "unconscious content" or "unacceptable behavior" is trying to protect a part of the person or is acting out of a place of vulnerability even if it is in a destructive manner. The key to all the methods described above is to identify the vulnerability that the behavior is trying to protect, accept it or recognize that it may not be vulnerable by bringing it to consciousness, and bring it to balance as a part of the larger Self-system. Bullies that lash out in anger and aggression to self-aggrandize need to protect their vulnerability, their lack of esteem, their early childhood burden of worthlessness. By realizing that they are worthy intrinsically and not as part of an external contingent like an in-group they can begin to find balance in behaviors that can lead to less bullying. These methods won't work, though, for sociopaths or persons who are delusional, paranoid, or schizophrenic (Deacon & Davis, 2001).

Workplace Bullying Affects School Leadership and Student Performance

Nearly fifty percent of working adults in the United States report being directly bullied or witness coworker bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). Workplace bullying leads to stress which directly affects individuals' mental health, physical health, and productivity in the workforce (Farrell & Geist-Martin, 2005). Workplace bullying destroys the delicate psychological contract of organizations that establish a culture of civility, positive communication, and conflict resolution (Rousseau, 1995). Targets of workplace bullying suffer long-term, often permanent psychological, physical, and professional harm (Crawford, 2001). They report feeling ashamed and confused of their victimization (Randall, 2001). They may suffer from depression, alcohol and drug abuse, posttraumatic stress disorder, broken interpersonal relationships, strained family communication, violent thoughts and/or suicide (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). They report threats to essential life domains such as identity, economic security, and physical safety inciting fear, dread, and flight-fight-freeze responses (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). Furthermore, for every person who speaks up about bullying, another seven have left their jobs because of bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). The additive effects of hundreds of thousands of bullied workers underperforming or taking their institutional and professional knowledge out of the workplace affects organizations' bottom lines (Sigmond, 2020).

Organizational leaders are placed in compromising leadership circumstances by instances of workplace bullying. They often have very little recourse to address the issues because proving events of bullying is difficult. Perpetrators of adult bullying are astutely strategic in their use of bullying tactics because they use indirect aggression that's easy to deny. Perpetrators are excellent at managing-up - appearing completely innocent to upper-managers or other organizational authorities (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). Bullies and their allies push back on resistance by victims/targets and often successfully frame resistance as insubordination, disloyalty, trouble-

making, and, even, mental illness (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). Thus, the effort it would take to garner the proof of bullying beyond a doubt is a high hurdle to overcome. In the meantime, victims struggle to keep their professional and personal endeavors together. Victims will often find it impossible to deal with the added stress of the classroom and even use the students to find some sense of allyship among them.

Workplace bullying in a school setting undoubtedly affects school culture and trickles down to student performance (McAvoy, 2003). Though there are no direct studies linking peer-to-peer workplace bullying with organizational leadership and student performance, it is not an impossible stretch to make that link. When effective communication is destroyed, employee morale undermined, and psychological trauma induced by bullying, all aspects of an organization will be detrimentally affected.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate workplace bullying, the legal jurisprudence protecting victims, the psychological underpinnings of workplace bullying, the possible restorative practices to address bullying, and the effects of bullying on student and leadership performance. The United States of America leads its peer countries in incidents of bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013) with nearly fifty percent of working adults reporting being directly bullied or witnessing coworker bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). Though a form a harassment of a non-sexual nature, workplace bullying is four times more prevalent than sexual harassment (Alena Shautsova Law Offices, n.d.). Bullying terrorizes, humiliates, dehumanizes, and isolates targets and leads to significant impacts to the state (New York State Legislature Bill A04258, 2011) and national (Sigmond, 2020) economies. Researchers in the field of medicine have termed workplace bullying as a "Silent Epidemic (McAvoy, 2003)."

The delay of clear workplace bullying jurisprudence for school employees is reaching a tipping point with New Jersey's Anti-Bullying Bill of Rights Act and the proposed New York State's Healthy Workplace Bill.

The psychological origins of workplace bullying stem from a series of complex mechanisms that are evolutionarily and environmentally determined. Evolutionarily, the need of an individual to decide a course of action from an overwhelming number of environmental inputs necessitates the creation of biases in the form schemas and stereotypes that fuel prejudices, in-group preference, and groupthink which, in turn, lead to attributional error. Environmentally, children that are held to high expectations verging on perfection typically by a parent while simultaneously experiencing rejection and humiliation, develop a psychic coping mechanism that leads them to an unhealthy dissociation of self. This dissociation is characterized by a split between an implicit feeling of inadequacy leading to intense feelings of shame and simultaneously an explicit feeling of grandiosity to compensate and associate with the expectation of perfection. This in turn leads to a contingent sense of self-esteem that depends on external factors to validate their self-worth and is therefore an unstable source of that self-worth. This is called hubristic pride and it underpins narcissistic self-esteem. These forces create a perfect storm of aggressive and toxic peer-to-peer or supervisor-to-peer behavior.

The key question to be addressed is how can a perpetrator of bullying be made to elevate their self-esteem? How can they be helped to identify their problem so that they can improve their self-esteem and convert their hubristic pride into authentic pride? Restorative justice endeavors to create a level of conscious understanding of the unacceptable behavior and foster an environment of acceptance and forgiveness as opposed to punishment. When bullies realize that they are worthy intrinsically and not as part of an external contingent like an in-group they can begin to find balance in behaviors that can lead to less bullying. These methods won't work, though, for sociopaths or persons who are delusional, paranoid, or schizophrenic.

Though there are no direct studies linking peer-to-peer workplace bullying with organizational leadership and student performance, when effective communication is destroyed, employee morale undermined, and psychological trauma induced by bullying, all aspects of an organization will be detrimentally affected making a link obvious. Future research needs to be made in this area in order to understand the extent and mechanisms behind this link.

Uncovering of the psychological underpinnings of workplace bullying, legally protecting victims, and understanding its effects on student and leadership performance are burning ethical dilemmas for our society today. No one should have to go to work feeling terrified, shunned, and humiliated only to go home in dread after the ordeal. Workplace bullying, hubristic pride, and prejudice have no place in our work and is a serious impediment to our most fundamental of humanistic principles.

REFERENCES

Adichie, C. N. (2009, October 7). The danger of a single story. (TedTalk, Producer) Retrieved August 02, 2020, from Youtube: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D9Ihs241zeg

Alena Shautsova Law Offices. (n.d.). New York's Healthy Workplace Bill Addresses Bullying As Harassment. Retrieved May 23, 2020, from Alena Shautsova Law Offices: https://www.shautsova.com/law-publications/new-york-workplace-bill-bullying-harassment.html

Alexander, K., & Alexander, M. (2019). American Public School Law. St. Paul: West Academic Publishing.

Aranda, J. L. (2018). Civility and Bullying in Higher Education: Secrets in Academia and the Culture of Incivilty (Order No. 10784878). ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (2029902300). Retrieved from http://proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/docview/2029902300?accountid=14172

Beil, J. T. (2016). Measuring Pride in the Workplace: The Creation and Validation of a Workplace Pride Measure (Order No. 10128058). ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. Retrieved from http://proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/docview/1809115994?accountid=14172

Carl-Jung.net. (2019). What is Active Imagination. Retrieved August 01, 2020, from Carl Jung Resources: For Home Study and Practice: https://www.carl-jung.net/active_imagination.html

Carver, C. S., & Johnson, S. L. (2010). Authentic and Hubristic Pride: Differential Relations to Aspects of Goal Regulation, Affect, and Self-Control. Journal of Research in Personality, 44(6), 698–703. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2010.09.004

Cheng, J. T., Tracy, J. L., & Henrich, J. (2010). Pride, personality, and the evolutionary foundations of human social status. Evolution and Human Behavior, 31(5), 334–347. Retrieved July 31, 2020, from https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2010-17164-003

Crawford, N. (2001). Organisational Responses to Workplace Bullying. In N. Tehrani, Building a Culture of Respect: Managing Bullying at Work. (pp. 21-31). London: Taylor and Francis.

Deacon, S. A., & Davis, J. C. (2001). Internal Family Systems Theory: A Technical Integration. Journal of Systemic Therapies, 20(1), 45-58. Retrieved August 01, 2020, from https://guilfordjournals.com/doi/10.1521/jsyt.20.1.45.19410

Efferson, C., Lalive, R., & Fehr, E. (2008, September 26). The Coevolution of Cultural Groups and Ingroup Favoritism. SCIENCE, 321, 1844-1849. Retrieved August 01, 2020, from https://serval.unil.ch/resource/serval:BIB_3349730A2242.P001/REF.pdf

Enneagraminstitute.com. (2019). How the Enneagram System Works. Retrieved July 31, 2020, from The Enneagram Institute: https://www.enneagraminstitute.com/how-the-enneagram-system-works

Farrell, A., & Geist-Martin, P. (2005). Communicating Health: Perceptions of Wellness at Work. Management Communication Quaterly, 18, 543-592.

Garrard, P. (2018). The Leadership Hubris Epidemic: Biological Roots and Strategies for Prevention. Palgrave Macmillan.

Hadj Said, A. (2018). Covert Workplace Bullying Among Men: A Qualitative Generic Study (Order No. 10821743). ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (2054025560). Retrieved from http://proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/docview/2054025560?accountid=14172

Hoobler, J. M. (2002). Abusive Supervision in the Workplace: A Restorative Justice Perspective (Order No. 3042463). ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (305513081). Retrieved from http://proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/docview/305513081?accountid=14172

Horton-Management-Law. (2019, April 27). Workplace Bullying. Retrieved May 23, 2020, from Horton-Management-Law: https://hortonpllc.com/workplace-bullying/

Jung, C. (1980). Psychology and Alchemy (2 ed.). Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Lutgen-Sandvik, P. (2013). Adult Bullying. St. Louis: ORCM Academic Press.

Mazzarella, J. R. (2018). The Reported Experiences of Adult to Adult Bullying in K-12 New Jersey Public Schools (Order No. 10745638). ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (2018881311). Retrieved from http://proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/docview/2018881311?accountid=14172

McAvoy, B. R. (2003). Workplace bullying: The Silent Epidemic. BMJ (Clinical research ed.), 326(7393), 776–777.

Mendoza, S. (2020, July 12). The Psychology of Implicit Bias. Providence, RI, United States. Retrieved August 02, 2020, from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i5pvWppnYzU

National Policy Board for Educational Administration. (2015). Professional Standards for Educational Leaders. Reston, VA.

New York State Legislature. (2011, February 2). Healthy Workplace Bill. Bill A04258. Albany, New York, United States: https://assembly.state.ny.us/leg/?default_fld=&bn=A04258&term=2011&Summary=Y&Actions=Y&Text=Y&Votes=Y.

NYC Department of Education. (2019, June 20). Mayor de Blasio First Lady McCray and Chancellor Carranza Announce Major Expansion of Social-Emotional Learning and Restorative Justice Across All City Schools. Retrieved August 01, 2020, from NYC Department of Education: https://www.schools.nyc.gov/about-us/news/announcements/contentdetails/2019/06/20/mayor-de-blasio-first-lady-mccray-and-chancellor-carranza-announce-major-expansion-of-social-emotional-learning-and-restorative-justice-across-all-city-schools

NYC Department of Education. (2020). Resilient Kids, Safer Schools. Retrieved August 01, 2020, from NYC Department of Education: https://www.schools.nyc.gov/school-life/safe-schools/resilient-kids-safer-schools

NYC Department of Education. (n.d.). nycimplicitbias-workshop. Retrieved August 01, 2020, from Workshop: What is Implicit Bias?: https://nycimplicitbias-workshop.com/

Pacer.org. (2020, May). Bullying Statistics. Retrieved May 23, 2020, from PACER's National Bullying Prevention Center: https://www.pacer.org/bullying/resources/stats.asp

Randall, P. (2001). Bullying in Adulthood: Assessing the Bullies and thier Victims. New York: Brunner-Routledge.

Rousseau, D. (1995). Psychological Contracts in Organizations: Understanding Written and Unwritten Agreements. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Sadler-Smith, E. (2018). Hubristic Leadership. Los Angeles: Sage. Retrieved July 31, 2020, from https://au.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-assets/97341_book_item_97341.pdf

Sanford Harmony. (2020). What is SEL? Retrieved August 01, 2020, from Sanford harmony: https://www.sanford-harmony.org/what-is-sel/

Sigmond, M. (2020, May 23). Workplace Bullying Affects The Bottom Line. Retrieved from Ypo.org: https://www.ypo.org/2017/05/workplace-bullying-affects-the-bottom-line/

Skilling, T. A., Harris, G. T., Rice, M. E., & Quinsey, V. L. (2002). Identifying Persistently Antisocial Offenders using the Hare Psychopathy Checklist and DSM Antisocial Personality Disorder Criteria. Psychological Assessment, 14(1), 27–38. Retrieved August 01, 2020, from https://doi.apa.org/record/2002-00748-003?doi=1

Solinas, J. (2007). Harmonizing Restorative Justice Values, Programmes, and Whole School Culture (Order No. MR38374). ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. Retrieved from http://proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/docview/304722216?accountid=14172

Taylor, D. M., & Doria, J. R. (1981). Self-Serving and Group-Serving Bias in Attribution. The Jourbal of Social Psychology, 113, 201-211.

Tracy, J. L. (2007b). The prototypical pride expression: Development of a nonverbal behavior coding system. Emotion, 789-801.

Tracy, J., Cheng, J., Robins, R., & Trzesniewski, K. (2009). Authentic and HubristicPride: The Affective Core of Self-esteem and Narcissism. Self and Identity, 196 — 213.

Walgrave, L. (2005). Towards restoration as the mainstream in youth justice. In E. Elliott, & R. Gordon, New Directions in Restorative Justice: Issues, Practice, Evaluation (pp. 3-25). Cullompton: Willan.

Weiss, H., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective Events Theory: A Theoretical Discussion of the Structure, Causes and Consequences of Affective Experiences at Work. Research in Organizational Behavior, 17, 1-74.

Whitted & Takiff. (2020, May 20). Bullying And School Liability Case Summaries. Retrieved from whittedtakifflaw.com: http://www.whittedtakifflaw.com/resources/publications/bullying-school-liability-case-summaries/

Yi, S. H. (2020, February 13). 5 Hindrances to Self-Mastery. Retrieved from Youtube: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4-079YIasck

Mauricio González was born on the Andean plateau in Colombia, S.A. though he grew up in New York City. He returned to his native land to pursue a degree in Marine Biology on a scholarship researching coral reefs and sea turtles of Tayrona National Park. After living and learning among local fisherman he decided to return to NYC in 2001 to begin environmental inquiry work with underrepresented youth. Named NYC Big Apple teacher of the Year in 2018, he has developed innovative programs to enhance youth's exposure to the natural world with phenomena-based research techniques and unschooling. He is the founder and director of the Marine Biology Research Program and the Civic Science team, New York Harbor SEALs. Visit his site at www.harborseals.org.

Journaling Through the Coronavirus Pandemic in Educational Leadership Internships

Written by:Robert Scheidet, Ed.D. and Cheryl Scheidet, Ed.D.

Abstract

The Educational Leadership (EDL) Internship is designed to be the capstone experience after an EDL candidate has completed their prescribed courses. Specific New York State Education Department (NYSED) guidelines for EDL internships require EDL programs to prepare candidates to become proficient in the national Professional Standards in Educational Leadership (PSEL). Most EDL programs require that candidates work in many areas of education and with as many different administrators within both the school and district settings during their internship as possible. This enables candidates to become well rounded in all aspects of the educational system and be able to reflect on numerous leadership styles.

After completing an initial internship plan it is routine for the candidate to be assigned a university supervisor and a field mentor who is generally a school or district level administrator. While the structure of this supervisory partnership varies slightly from university to university, the goal is always to ensure that candidates are getting worthwhile tasks, responsibilities and projects that will assist in their professional growth and enable them to "hit the ground running" after securing an administrative position. However, as a result of the coronavirus outbreak, the question that has surfaced is: How has the current model of EDL internships been affected by the coronavirus crisis?

Introduction

In the Los Angeles Times, on March 27, 2020, Marisa Gerber, a staff writer's article entitled, Journaling the coronavirus pandemic: 'I'm scared.' 'Can we get a dog?' 'Everything just feels odd' discussed the importance of journaling during the coronavirus pandemic. Marissa connects this importance of journaling to the first journal entry made by Kelly Milligan, a 48-year-old graphic designer who works at a university and lives in Acton, Massachusetts. "Kelly Milligan's mind drifted back to the days after Sept. 11 and the Boston Marathon bombing. These days felt a bit like those did and, yet, completely distinct. This moment wasn't finite — it wasn't one day, and it won't be one week. Nobody knows exactly how long it will last. But it already feels historic."

A significant part of the EDL internship at Stony Brook University is for EDL interns to maintain a reflective journal. The purpose of the reflective journal is to take time to step back and analyze decisions, actions and thoughts related to the intern's work as an administrator. To improve performance, self-assessment needs to become an integral part of the routine. An EDL intern at Stony Brook University crystalized the importance of journaling as a platform for working through the challenges facing administrators during the coronavirus epidemic.

"As many of my colleagues have expressed, and to reiterate sentiments from my last journal log, completing an educational leadership internship in the midst of COVID (the coronavirus pandemic) madness has been extremely challenging. I continue to offer support and assistance, however between contact tracing, and the overwhelming amount of damage control that building and district leadership is dealing with, I feel less of a help and more of a nuisance."

It is quite apparent that the coronavirus changed the landscape of education during the 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 school years and may have lasting effects for decades to come. The impact that these changes have had on the EDL internships is well documented in the journals of the Stony Brook University EDL interns.

Commentary

On December 1, 2019 one hundred and three (103) interns in the Educational Leadership Program at Stony Brook University, New York began the Spring 2020 EDL internship in a traditional fashion. For over three months the Spring 2020 interns were immersed daily with the work of management and instructional leadership at their local school and district. Working side by side with administrators they performed assigned tasks and responsibilities that allowed their professional skills to develop in areas of education initially agreed upon by university supervisors and field mentors.

In the middle of March, 2020 the coronavirus crisis dramatically changed all aspects of schooling. School districts were immediately faced with the challenges of safely closing schools while maintaining adequate education for all students. Huge inequities quickly emerged in areas, such as virtual instruction, technol-

ogy requirements, internet access, distribution of food, and meeting the social and emotional needs of students. Administrators were faced with unprecedented challenges in all these areas.

Through the reflective journal entries from the EDL interns it became apparent that the traditional educational internship model throughout New York State was rapidly changing. One lifeline for all Spring 2020 EDL interns was a mandate from NYSED for EDL programs to develop a comprehensive list of "Contextually Appropriate Alternative Tasks" that would allow interns to successfully complete the requirements of a rigorous internship experience. This list contained numerous opportunities, such as simulations, video archive case studies, and other academic exercises focused on planning, teaching and assessment. The Stony Brook University EDL Program quickly developed this list and shared it with all interns.

While this helped to relieve anxiety among the struggling interns what became clear was that most interns did not need this assistance. Because these interns had been working on administrative tasks for almost four months, and proving their professional capabilities, their school and district administrators assigned the interns to teams, task forces and committees charged with reducing the inequities and utilizing their talents to help safely close schools.

Relationships with administration morphed from mentor-intern to administrative partners. Interns were viewed as equals in many situations and were often praised for addressing the growing needs facing school districts. Administrators realized they alone could not adequately meet the demands of safely closing schools and empowered interns to solve problems on their own. This beneficial outcome could never have been anticipated or planned if not for the challenges presented to school and district leaders due to the coronavirus pandemic.

Journal entries from the Spring 2020 EDL interns showed that skills developed during this crisis were adding to the interns' resumes and making them excellent candidates for administrative positions. Compiled here are a few noteworthy comments from interns who's internships were impacted by the coronavirus pandemic:

"When this internship transferred from a real-time experience to a virtual one I was concerned that I would fall short in opportunities to assist administrators. However, in the past few weeks this has not been true as I have become inundated with responsibilities to assist others in the implementation of virtual learning, as well as the development operations for the 20-21 school year."

"Another task that I performed, was to contact perspective families to ascertain if there was still a need to receive meals after one of the locations was discontinued. This experience has been extremely rewarding, and I am proud that my district is willing to go above and beyond to supply meals to our students who are in need, especially during these difficult times. My continuing leadership role as the meal distribution supervisor has been a great experience so far, honing management skills, as well as interpersonal communication skills."

"As evidenced by my artifacts I worked with parents, school personnel, and district supervisors to implement initiatives such as safety, modified curriculums for ENL students, and creating and implementing a district wellness policy. These projects took a great deal of collaboration, education, and the promotion of a shared vision with varied constituencies."

"What I am learning is that the life of an administrator means being flexible and being able to roll with the punches. Especially in these unique times when the building leader has to listen to the district leader and the district leader to the governor, a lot of decisions are out of the principal's hands. Being flexible is probably one of the most valuable assets an administrator can have."

After the Spring 2020 EDL internship one hundred and eight (108) new interns began their Fall 2020 EDL internship on June 1, 2020, as access to schools at this time had been impeded by the growing pandemic. Early in their internship the Fall 2020 EDL interns were instructed to refer to the "Contextually Appropriate Alternative Tasks" to augment obtaining meaningful tasks and responsibilities in the field.

While this helped to relieve anxiety among the Fall 2020 EDL interns, like their earlier counterparts, most of the interns did not need this assistance. School districts were required to submit reopening plans to NYSED by July 31, 2020. This was an enormous undertaking. School districts were faced with the unprecedented challenge of analyzing all aspects of the educational system from instruction to transportation, sports to food service, facilities to scheduling, staffing to the social-emotional well-being of students, and to ensure that safety protocols mandated by NYSED were being followed.

As a result, the Fall 2020 EDL interns were quickly assigned to teams, task forces and committees charged with developing the complex plans for reopening

schools. Interns worked collaboratively with administrators to develop a comprehensive plan in a relatively short period of time. Therefore, it is not surprising that administrators and interns developed close professional relationships and the interns found their learning curves to be immense.

A review of statements made in journal entries from the Fall 2020 EDL interns, like the Spring 2020 EDL interns, also showed that skills developed during the coronavirus crisis were adding to the interns' professional capabilities as future administrators. Compiled here are a few noteworthy comments from the Fall 2020 EDL interns' reflective journals:

"Writing this(re-opening) plan was an amazing learning experience. For one it put emphasis on a leadership style we read about many times during our schooling, distributed leadership. This job took eleven of us to complete and I can't imagine how the administration team alone would have been able to complete this without all the interns and volunteers."

"This internship has placed me in new situations some of which are uncomfortable. These uncomfortable situations, although difficult, are ones that are the catalyst for growth."

"Through it all, I find myself grateful for interning during these times because I'm getting to see what real leadership looks like on a daily basis as well as be a major part of it."

"I think one thing we have all learned is that there will be growing pains. Schools that waited a few more weeks to open may have been wise to do so. We were not ready to open, but we "ripped the bandaid off" and got kids into the building. I'm not sure what the right decision was, but we are finally starting to settle into some sort of a routine. That was before we just had two confirmed cases on Friday. Monday will bring a whole new set of challenges".

A third group of one hundred and fourteen (114) interns started their Spring 2021 EDL internships on December 1, 2020. As with the previous two internship groups expectations were high that these new interns would experience the same beneficial set of experiences and not require many of the "Contextually Appropriate Alternative Tasks." However, another surprise impact from the coronavirus pandemic was about to unfold.

As the Spring 2021 EDL internship began, administrators and teachers were faced with the reality that reopening plans were no longer adequate. There became on ongoing process of evaluating all aspects of the educational system in order to make necessary modifications. School districts also had the challenge of addressing the continued inequities promoted by the coronavirus pandemic, such as creating effective virtual instructional strategies, designing new attendance and grading systems, addressing technology and internet concerns, as well as continuing to provide students with nutritious meals.

In addition, new coronavirus cases emerged within the schools forcing teachers and staff to be quarantined leaving many classrooms without educators. Administrators had to make daily scheduling and personnel decisions to cover for the loss of supervision and instruction of students. Often, the EDL interns were responsible for covering classes during times normally designated for internship work. This dilemma could never have been foreseen. This situation has forced the Spring 2021 EDL interns to complete more of the "Contextually Appropriate Alternative Tasks".

Journal entries compiled from some of the Spring 2021 EDL interns indicated:

"Due to the Covid-19 Pandemic, I feel that the administrators are so consumed with the constant opening and closing of schools, constant changing of regulations, and the students going back and forth from blended to remote learning, that they haven't had time to come up for air, let alone be able to delegate tasks to me."

"This week was extremely hectic. I did get some internship hours completed, but to be honest, I was pulled from many of my prep periods this week to cover other teachers' classes who are quarantined or ill with COVID or other issues."

"When it comes down to it, all of the logistics matter to ensure that communication is strong and organized for all involved, but we all must do what's best for kids and not allow the stress and changes to deviate where we put our energy because kids are our passion."

Conclusion

"Kids are our passion" must remain the focus of the EDL internship. It is easy to draw conclusions when you look at the impact the coronavirus pandemic has had on EDL internships over the past year as seen through the reflections of the EDL interns in their journal entries. The efficient use of journal entries allowed university supervisors and field administrators to quickly identify the dilemma facing all aspects of the educational system. As Kelly Milligan described in her journal entry there was a historic impact of the coronavirus pandemic on society. Based upon the reflective

journals of the EDL interns the pandemic greatly affected EDL internships and their understanding of leadership in this time of crisis. This is highly apparent from an EDL intern who stated:

"The talent and gift of leadership certainly includes experience. But I firmly believe that we were cut from a different cloth. This has been a really crazy year. The pandemic, the economy, indefinite school closure, the social justice movement. Everything intersects and the tension has created an energy that will not be contained. And we are in an awesome position because we have been gifted with the opportunity to grow several generations' worth of future leaders. But first, we have to help schools evolve. Our specific ILC (Internship Learning Community) has had awesome models throughout the Stony Brook EDL team to demonstrate how evolution can lead to amazingly positive results. What applicants before us would have been able to sit in front of an interview committee and discuss plans and priorities for closing and reopening schools?"

Professionals in every field have always used the rallying cry, "out of crisis comes opportunities." It allows groups and organizations to harness latent energy to accomplish great things. This was evident when schools had to be safely closed and then safely and strategically reopened. As seen in the reflective journals of the EDL interns the partnership that formed between the interns, their field administrators and internship supervisors helped to develop the necessary leadership skills which will enable them to flourish as future leaders.

Who ever thought that schools would become coronavirus pandemic test centers? Who ever thought that schools could not adequately do their job to educate our students fairly and equitably under these conditions ? Is this unprecedented? Yes, but it is the "new reality".

Intern Remarks: Michelle Barbaretti, Stephanie Burns, Kim Collins, Michael DeRosa, Luke Ferland, Omar Hussain, Katie Lessig, Cara Monteforte, Kelly Palmer, and Kim Romeo.

Reference

Scheidet, R. (2018). PSEL Educational Leadership Internship Workbook. Pearson Publishing.
Robert Scheidet, Ed.D. is the Coordinator of Internships and Cheryl Scheidet, Ed.D is an Internship Supervisor within the Educational Leadership Program at Stony Brook University.

Dr. Robert Scheidet is a retired school district administrator who is part of the leadership team for the Educational Leadership Team at Stony Brook University and is the Coordinator of Internships for the EDL Program.

Dr. Cheryl Scheidet is a retired school principal and has been an internship supervisor for the Educational Leadership Program at Stony Brook University for over ten years.

Effective Ways to Increase Parental Involvement: Tips for School Leaders

Wei-Ee (Katie) Cheng, Stony Brook University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine effective ways to increase parental involvement in K-12 urban schools. This study investigated the types of parental involvement that positively affected students' academic achievement. It also explored how leadership styles played a significant role in parental involvement. Finally, it aimed to discover best practices for using technology to increase parental involvement. The findings indicated that home-based parental involvement was the most effective in promoting students' academic achievement and a transformational leadership style with the use of innovative practices, such as technology, could be used to increase parental involvement.

Learning at home, type four of Epstein's six types of parent involvement, was found to be the best type of parent involvement in terms of influencing students' academic achievement. Learning at home focused on parent-child interactions. This included interactive homework which involved the family through hands-on activities and discussions about their schoolwork. Interactions about parents' educational expectations and aspirations for their children also had a strong impact on students' academic achievement. Students were more motivated to work towards their goals because their parents influenced their attitudes and learning behaviors. Moreover, there was a stronger correlation between home-based involvement and academic achievement than school-based involvement and academic achievement.

Leadership styles also played a significant role in parental involvement. Research showed that the transformational leadership style was the most effective because it promoted parental involvement and empowered parents to become leaders within the school. School leaders that shared the decision-making and power with parents were able to build capacity that created positive organizational change. In addition, they created a collaborative, welcoming, and supportive school culture by building and maintaining trusting relationships. These partnerships led to increased parental involvement to reach a shared vision that focused on students' academic achievement.

Furthermore, the use of technology has fostered communication between the home and the school and encouraged parental involvement. Parents' preferences for specific types of technological communication could be used to inform school leaders of how they can use technology to increase parental involvement. Parents checked the school website often, so schools need to ensure that they are updated regularly, engaging, informative, and user-friendly. Parents also preferred email when communicating important information, class updates, and academics. More recently, parents have utilized applications (e.g., ClassDojo, Remind, EdModo) that include both text messaging and posted information because they allowed them to communicate with teachers quickly and be notified of what is happening in the school. Parents also preferred an online gradebook system because it provided them with immediate access to their children's grades and progress. In addition, parents were open to the idea of using Microsoft Skype or Apple FaceTime for virtual parent-teacher conferences because of their convenience.

Conceptual Rationale

Parental involvement has been a topic of interest for decades amongst school administrators and teachers, especially those serving urban schools and districts with students that come from a low socio-economic background. Parental involvement is the "behaviors parents engage in to support their child's scholastic endeavors" (Ogg & Anthony, 2020, p. 97). Research has shown that parental involvement is crucial to students' academic success and that the stronger and more supportive the home-school connection, the better students perform (Fan & Chen, 2001; Jeynes, 2005, 2007; Ogg & Anthony, 2020). There has been a decrease in parental involvement over the years and with the increased use of technology, it is even more urgent to ascertain best practices for using technology to increase parental involvement for student achievement in K-12 urban schools.

In the current state of the coronavirus pandemic, New York City public schools have transitioned to remote learning and will more than likely continue with either remote learning or a blended model of remote learning and face-to-face instruction once school resumes. Remote learning, also known as distance education, is "a form of education in which students are often or always physically separated from the instructor and the educational institution" (Bagriacik, 2019, p. 191). With remote learning, there are increased demands and responsibilities placed on the parents to support their children at home to ensure that they are understanding the concepts and skills being taught and completing the assignments successfully using some form of technology.

The topic of parental involvement is important for K-12 school leadership effectiveness according to the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (PSEL), so it was also important to determine the leadership styles that play a significant role in parental involvement. Standard eight, meaningful engagement of families and community, expresses that school leaders need to develop collaborative relationships with families in order to promote student learning and academic achievement (National Policy Board for Educational Administration [NPBEA], 2015, p. 16). This includes ongoing communication and making parents feel welcome so that they are aware of the resources available to them and will engage in events and workshops that involve their children. Standard nine, operations and management, suggests the use of technology to manage the school efficiently (NPBEA, 2015, p. 17). Since there is a growing use of technology within education and in daily life, effective school leaders need to learn how to use technology effectively for parental outreach and engagement. Moreover, standard ten, school improvement, is related to parental involvement because school leaders must "seek to make school more effective for each student, teachers and staff, families, and the community" (NPBEA, 2015, p. 18). They can do this by using innovative strategies, such as the use of technology, to involve parents in their children's education.

As a result of the interest in increasing parental involvement in traditional and distance education, the purpose of this study was to determine the types of parental involvement that positively affect students' academic achievement, how leadership styles play a significant role in parental involvement, and best practices for using technology to increase parental involvement.

Research Questions
The following research questions guided this study.
Research Question One
According to the research literature, what types of parental involvement positively affect students' academic achievement?
Research Question Two
How do leadership styles play a significant role in parental involvement?
Research Question Three
What were best practices for using technology to increase parental involvement?

REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE
Effective Parental Involvement and Students' Academic Achievement

Most research on parental involvement has referred to Joyce Epstein's six types of parent involvement. According to Epstein (1995), schools can involve parents in their children's education through parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making and collaborating with the community. Type one, parenting, means helping families establish a supportive home environment for their children to succeed in school. Type two, communicating, is developing effective modes of communication between the school and the home to discuss school-related programs and policies and their children's progress. Type three, volunteering, means recruiting parents to help and support the school and student learning. Type four, learning at home, is ensuring parents are given the information and ideas needed to be able to assist their child with school-related activities and interact with them about their homework. Type five, decision-making, means giving parents a voice in schoolwide decisions and involving them in leadership teams and committees. Type six, collaborating with the community, is working with community members, resources, organizations, programs, and services to support families and the school and enrich student learning. Types one, two, and four are home-based types of parental involvement, whereas, types three, five, and six are school-based types of parental involvement. Olmstead (2012) categorized parental involvement as either reactive or proactive. Reactive involvement pertained to non-academic involvement within the school (e.g., volunteering, attending events and activities, participating in fundraisers) whereas proactive involvement dealt with academics (e.g., helping with homework, communicating with the teacher about their child's progress).

Various studies have shown that type four of Epstein's six types of parent involvement was most effective in increasing students' academic achievement in specific subject areas because it focused on parent-child interaction and was a proactive time of parental involvement. Van Voorhis (2003) studied how interactive homework affected sixth and eighth grade students' academic achievement in science. Interactive homework was homework that involved the family through TIPS (Teachers Involve Parents in Schoolwork) assignments with clear directions on how the family could support their children in the completion of homework through hands-on activities and discussions about their learning. It also gave parents the opportunity to communicate with the teachers about their children's work and ask for more information regarding the assignments (Epstein et al., 1992). After comparing TIPS students and noninteractive homework students over the course of 18 weeks, TIPS students reflected higher report card grades. Surveys obtained

from parents and students showed that TIPS students interacted with their families about their science work more at home and this interaction promoted learning of skills and concepts in science.

Sheldon and Epstein (2005) studied how parent involvement practices affected students' mathematics achievement in ten elementary and eight secondary schools across the United States that participated in the "Focus on Results in Math" project. About three-fourths of the schools received Title I funding which meant that they served students from low-income families. They surveyed how schools implemented fourteen partnership practices to involve families in mathematics education and the perceived effectiveness of these practices. Then, they analyzed the results and found that practices related to type four were the most effective in increasing the number of students scoring at or above proficiency based on the standardized mathematics achievement test scores for two consecutive years. Type four practices included mathematics-focused workshops, interactive homework that encouraged parent-child discussion, and materials, games, and resources for families to use at home to support their children's learning of mathematics skills and concepts. Like Van Voorhis (2003), there was a positive relationship between parent-child interaction and student results in a specific subject area.

Catsambis (2001) investigated Epstein's types of parent involvement and its effects on twelfth graders' academic achievement. Indices of parental involvement and parent and student surveys were examined to ascertain the types of parental involvement that positively affected reading, mathematics, and science test scores according to the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988. At the high school level, parent-child interaction centered on encouragement for college, discussions about exams, and high educational expectations rather than interactive homework practices. This study found that high parent educational expectations had the strongest effect on students' academic achievement as shown by courses taken and the number of course credits completed. Fan and Chen (2001), Jeynes (2005), and Jeynes (2007) also concluded that parents' expectations and aspirations for their children had the biggest impact on their academic achievement. In addition, Jeynes (2005) and Jeynes (2007) found that type one, a supportive parental style, and type two, communication about school activities, at urban elementary and secondary schools played significant roles in students' academic achievement.

Hill and Tyson (2009) focused on parent-child interaction at the middle school level but named it academic socialization. Academic socialization "includes communicating parental expectations for education and its value or utility, linking schoolwork to current events, fostering educational and occupational aspirations, discussing learning strategies with children, and making preparations and plans for the future" (Hill & Tyson, p. 742). This study found that academic socialization had a stronger correlation to academic achievement than school-based involvement (e.g., volunteering, attending events) and home-based involvement that entailed homework assistance. Adolescents begin to develop autonomy in middle school and therefore, parent-child interactions about academic strategies, expectations, and aspirations not only equipped them with the tools for academic success, but also motivated them to work towards their goals. Moreover, parents' high educational expectations in eighth grade had the "strongest long-term effects on twelfth grade test scores in all subjects" (Catsambis, p. 19).

High parent educational expectations also promoted academic achievement at the elementary school level. Loughlin and Bierman (2017) recruited families from low-income households and interviewed them about academic expectations for their children. They also gathered reading assessment data for the children when they were in grades one, two, three, and five. Finally, they analyzed the interview responses and assessment data with teacher ratings of the parents' involvement in their children's education to find out if there was a correlation between high educational expectations and academic achievement. They found that parents with high educational expectations in the early elementary years (i.e., grades one to three) influenced children's learning behaviors and therefore, positively affected their academic achievement. In the later elementary years (i.e., grades two to five), the children developed self-perceptions of academic competence that led to academic achievement.

McNeal (2014) added to the research on parental involvement and its connection to academic achievement by comparing parent-child and parent-school involvement. This study defined parent-child involvement as parental monitoring of their children and their homework and discussion about school; this is related to type one and type four of Epstein's six types of parent involvement, respectively. Parent-school involvement entails types two, parents communicating with the school, type three, parents volunteering at the school, and type five, parents participating in the Parent-Teacher Organization. After analyzing data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 for eighth and tenth grade public school students, the study concluded that parent-child involvement was more effective than parent-school involvement in positively affecting stu-

dent achievement. More specifically, parents' discussions with their children indirectly affected their academic achievement by influencing student attitudes and behaviors. Student attitudes meant that they had higher expectations of themselves. Student behaviors indicated better attendance and more time spent doing homework which improved their academic achievement in reading, science, and mathematics.

Otani (2020), a more recent study, investigated home-based parental involvement and academic achievement in mathematics and science for elementary and middle school students. This study also focused on parents' communication (i.e., discussion) with their children about schoolwork and parental monitoring of homework. It analyzed data from the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study 2011 and fourth and eighth grade students' responses to questionnaires. Reinforcing McNeal (2014), it determined that home-based parental involvement positively influenced students' attitudes and aspirations and therefore, indirectly affected their academic achievement in mathematics and science. However, parental monitoring played a more significant role at the elementary level and directly affected academic achievement because elementary school students were more likely to complete their homework to please their parents and teachers. Nevertheless, home-based parental involvement at both the elementary and middle school levels promoted academic achievement.

Leadership Styles and Parental Involvement

"Since 1978, leadership has progressed from being the study of top down, directive behaviours focused on teaching and learning, to a bottom up collaborative process of guided change for school improvement" (Stewart, 2006, p. 24). According to Green (2017), there are three main leadership styles that correspond with standard eight of the PSEL, meaningful parent and community engagement, and standard ten, school improvement. First, there is servant leadership. Servant leaders place the needs of others before their own. They do this by getting to know their community in order to meet their needs. Next, there is transformational leadership. According to Burns (1978), transformational leaders motivate followers to become leaders so that leadership is distributed. Both leaders and followers encourage each other to reach their potential, which in turn builds capacity and promotes organizational change in order to achieve a vision. These leaders empower others by creating a collaborative culture where leadership and decision-making is shared amongst staff and community members so that all stakeholders have a sense of

ownership and therefore, will work as a team in order to improve the school. Finally, there is transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is a more managerial type of leadership where followers fulfill tasks for the leader in exchange for a monetary or social reward (e.g., promotion) so that both parties can achieve their goals.

Of the three leadership styles related to standard eight of the PSEL, transformational leadership has been proven to be the most effective in increasing parental involvement. Carr (1997) studied the leadership styles of four different public middle school principals. Parents on advisory teams were interviewed to gain their perceptions on power and decision-making within the schools. Principal interviews and observations as well as staff and parent interviews were used to determine the principals' leadership styles. The principals that shared the decision-making and power with parent members were able to empower parents to be actively involved in improving the school. They showed that they were willing to hear the issues parents brought up in order to ascertain solutions collaboratively. Moreover, they cared about others' interests and not just their own which displayed a transformational leadership style.

Giles (2006) conducted three case studies to determine how principals at urban elementary schools were able to use a transformational leadership style in order to successfully increase parent involvement, engagement, and empowerment. Involvement in this study meant parents' attendance at parent-teacher conferences. Engagement meant more participation within the school through volunteering opportunities and teacher assistance. Empowerment involved building capacity by creating parent leaders on various school teams to help improve the school. By using a transformational leadership style, the three principals restructured the school so that there was more collaboration amongst administration, staff, parents, and the community. They worked closely with the parents to support their needs at home and in school, involve them in creating a safe and orderly learning environment, engage them in the classroom and the school, and empower them to help make schoolwide decisions. As transformational leaders, they had the charisma and ability to build trusting relationships that helped them to create partnerships with the parents and therefore, increased parental involvement to reach a shared vision. Furthermore, they had high expectations of everyone and created a supportive culture of learning that impacted students' academic achievement.

Gordon and Louis (2009) focused on participatory and shared school leadership which are principles of transformational leadership. This study analyzed

principal and teacher surveys obtained from the 2005-2006 Learning from Leadership study. Stakeholder interviews at the school, community, district, and state level were conducted over three consecutive years and principal and teacher surveys were administered in 2008 to discover if there were a type of leadership that promoted parental involvement. One key finding was that the more diverse a school's leadership team was in terms of the stakeholders (i.e., school administration, teachers, support staff, parents, community members) involved, the more the principal reflected a shared leadership style because s/he encouraged participation from others. Another key finding was that a shared leadership style was indirectly correlated with students' academic achievement. These principals created a more democratic school culture whereby parents and teachers were more directly involved in the decision-making and therefore, they were more willing to work towards overall improvement of the school, which includes student learning.

Similar to Gordon and Louis' (2009) study on shared leadership, Erol and Turhan (2018) looked at the distributed leadership approach of transformational leadership and its effect on family involvement. This study used a perception scale and questionnaire in order to obtain parents' perceptions of distributed leadership within 60 secondary schools. It found that the more parents perceived the school to involve them in decision-making and the more willing the principal seemed to cooperate with them, the more involved they were in their children's education. If they perceived the leaders to have more of an autocratic leadership style, they were not as involved in the school. Furthermore, family involvement consisted of home-based involvement, school-family cooperation-based involvement, and school-based involvement. Out of the three types of family involvement, parents showed a higher level of home-based involvement when they perceived the leadership to be distributed.

Butler (2012) utilized the Leadership Practices Inventory developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) to measure principal's leadership in five areas of transformational leadership to determine if there was a correlation between principals' leadership styles at six elementary schools in Alabama and parental involvement based on parents' sign-in logs for school activities and events. The five areas were modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. This study found that principals who challenged the process and enabled others to act were more likely to increase parental involvement. Challenging the process meant that they sought out innovative opportunities and were willing to take risks to improve the school. Enabling others to act

consisted of collaborating with others, including parents, and empowering them to take on active roles within the school.

Barr and Saltmarsh (2014) added to the body of research on leadership and its effect on parent-school engagement. Interviews were conducted to obtain parents' perceptions of principals' leadership practices in primary and secondary schools. This study found that a principal's leadership style affects parental involvement because principals create the school culture based on the vision they develop, their attitude, communication skills, and decision-making skills. Parents were more involved when the principal displayed a more transformational style of leadership. This meant that the school vision was shared, and parents were included in making decisions that affected the school and their children's education. Moreover, transformational leaders were those that were more involved in the school and the community. They welcomed all parents, especially those that were usually marginalized, and worked on building and maintaining trusting relationships which in turn increased parental involvement.

Best Practices for Using Technology to Increase Parental Involvement

Technology started to become popular in the 1990s. Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is "any communication device or application, including radio, television, phones, computer, and network hardware and software as well as the various services and applications associated with them, such as videoconferencing and distance learning" (Olmstead, 2012, p. 5). Ramirez (2001) gave some suggestions regarding how schools could use ICT to increase parental involvement. First, schools could create a master list of parents' email addresses in order to disseminate information quickly. Another suggestion was using the internet to post assignments and communicate important information to the parents. In order to get parents involved, phone trees could also be developed whereby each parent volunteer would be responsible for reaching out to at least fifteen other parents to notify them of school events. Moreover, schools should ensure that they have interpreters and translators available for parents who prefer a language other than English.

Lunts (2003) focused on how to create effective websites in order to increase parental involvement. Essential components were listed in creating a school or classroom website that

would be engaging, informative, and user-friendly for parents. First, parents should be presented with the option to choose their preferred language. The main page should consist of a welcome message, in video or audio format if possible, by the principal along with the school's mission. Besides the school mission, many parents would be interested in the school's history and any awards it has received. Next, there should be a section with information about upcoming and past events with a separate extracurricular activities section for upcoming sports events and pictures of student participation in the activities. A contact page with the school's address, phone numbers, and the administration's emails should be provided. In addition, staff emails and their classroom websites should be included in a section featuring staff members. An educational resources page with links to useful websites should be included on another page. If the Parent Teacher Association does not have their own website, then a page with information about family events such as workshops and parent-teacher conferences should also be included in the school website. If the Parent Teacher Association has its own website, then a link to it would be sufficient. To help families feel welcome in the community, there should be a page with information about the school community. Finally, a section with frequently asked questions should include other pertinent information such as a parent handbook with school hours and procedures for drop off and pick up. Rogers and Wright (2008) also found that more parents checked the school website than their email for important school information and posted homework assignments. Gu (2017) suggested that school websites could include sections and resources related to Epstein's six types of parent involvement in order to provide parents with more opportunities to be involved.

Olmstead (2012) examined how ICT could be used to increase parental involvement in order to positively impact students' academic achievement. Interviews were conducted, and surveys were given out to upper elementary school teachers and their students' parents. Most of the parents and teachers preferred email as the primary means of communication via technology but parents wanted teachers to use it to communicate information and class updates in addition to academics. Parents listened to voice messages from the school in their entirety and checked the school's website frequently, which indicated that they wanted to be informed about pertinent school activities and events. On the other hand, they did not check the teacher's website often because it was not updated regularly. Both parents and teachers were extremely open to the idea of using a parent portal to track and discuss student progress, assignments, and attendance. Tan (2012) examined an online gradebook system, which is similar to a parent portal, as a means of getting parents of ninth grade students more involved in their child's education. The online gradebook system provided parents with immediate access to student grades to check their child's progress instead of waiting for quarterly report cards. It also automatically notified parents of any missing assignments via email. Results from the case study showed that many of the parents who logged onto the online gradebook system initiated contact with the teacher to discuss a grade which indicated that they were more involved in how their children were performing academically. Moreover, parents were more likely to discuss the grades and assignments with their children.

Thompson, Mazer, and Flood Grady (2015) found that with the convenience of smartphones, parents began to use text messaging and social media in addition to email to communicate with teachers and be notified of updates. Runcorn (2018) specified that parents highly preferred using ClassDojo, an application that includes both text messaging and posted information, to communicate with teachers. In a more recent study, Snell, Hindman, and Wasik (2020) found that texting between teachers and parents has increased due to applications, such as Remind, EdModo, and ClassDojo, which encourage private communication without the use of personal numbers.

Winkler (2016) studied the use of virtual tools (i.e., Microsoft Skype and Apple FaceTime) as an alternative to face-to-face parent-teacher conferences in order to increase parent participation. Parents from two middle schools were selected to participate in the two types of conferences. Teachers were trained by the technology specialist on how to conduct the virtual conferences with an introduction of themselves, strengths and weaknesses for each student, and action plans to achieve the goals for each student. Parents were given surveys to express their level of satisfaction with each type. Telephone conferences were conducted a month later to find out if parents had taken action to help their children reach the goals mentioned in the conferences. Results indicated that both groups of parents were satisfied with the type of conference they participated in. However, almost all the parents that participated in the virtual conference felt that it saved them time and were more likely to participate in it in the future. Furthermore, parents that participated in the virtual conference recalled the goals more than the parents that participated in the face-to-face conference and therefore, acted on the goals.

Runcorn (2018) surveyed and interviewed parents on other ways technology could be used to inform them about what is going on in the school and how they could support their children at home. One parent suggested recording all the meetings and uploading them on the school website so that parents could view them later. Technological trainings and parent workshops could also be recorded and made available online. Additionally, many parents said they were likely to watch online videos or tutorials on subject area concepts so that they could help their children understand them better. If online videos or tutorials were not available, over fifty percent of the parents surveyed expressed interest in an online blog where they could communicate with other parents about homework and other school-related topics. Snell, Wasik, and Hindman (2020) discovered an innovative way to use texting to support children's learning at home. For example, teachers used texting applications such as Remind and ClassDojo to inform multiple family members of what their children learned in school that day and the vocabulary words associated with the content so that they could have meaningful discussions around those topics at home. Teachers also texted games and activities to reinforce the learning of concepts and words. Above all, text messaging made it easier for all parents to be involved in their children's education because the texting applications had translating services available. If the texts were not translated, parents with limited English skills were able to easily translate the messages with help from an English-speaker or application (e.g., Google Translate).

Conclusion

Parental involvement has been a heavily researched topic for decades. Many studies have shown that parental involvement positively affects students' academic achievement but there has been a decline in parental involvement over the years, especially in K-12 urban schools. With the coronavirus pandemic and the transition to remote and blended learning in New York City, there has been an even more urgent need to ascertain effective ways to increase parental involvement. This study discovered that home-based parental involvement had a greater impact on students' academic achievement than school-based parental involvement. Leadership styles also played a significant role in increasing parental involvement. In addition, specific types of technology were preferred by parents when establishing and maintaining home-school connections.

The findings from this study suggested that learning at home, type four of Epstein's six types of parent involvement, had the biggest influence on students' academic achievement. Learning at home meant that parents engaged their students in discussions about schoolwork and their educational expectations for them. It also included interactive homework that promoted parent-child interactions and sometimes involved hands-on activities. Learning at home did not mean homework support; rather, it was through the interactions that students were able to gain a deeper understanding of the concepts and skills they were learning and develop positive attitudes and learning behaviors based on their parents' expectations and aspirations for them.

Regarding leadership styles, the findings indicated that transformational leaders were the most successful at increasing parental involvement. The transformational leadership style focused on shared decision-making, distributed leadership, and collaboration to achieve a shared vision and create organizational change. The school leaders that exhibited a transformational leadership style were able to get more parent involvement and commitment because they not only established a welcoming, collaborative, and supportive school culture, but also gave parents opportunities to voice their concerns and participate in the decision-making. Moreover, they built and maintained trusting relationships and empowered parents to take on active leadership roles within the school.

Furthermore, there are "at least four ways that technology can serve the family-school connection: (1) communication and information, (2) learning and instruction, (3) interest and motivation, as well as (4) resources and costs" (Blanchard, 1998, p. 241). The findings showed that parents' technological preferences have changed slightly over time. Parents have preferred email for the past two decades but would like teachers to use it to send important information and class updates instead of solely academic-related information regarding their children. Parents also preferred the school website over class websites because they were updated more regularly. In recent years, parents have preferred using newer applications such as ClassDojo, Remind, and EdModo because they allow them to receive notifications quickly and communicate with teachers through text messaging. They also expressed interest in newer and more convenient ways of receiving their children's grades and communicating about their progress. For example, they were open to the idea of an online gradebook system and using Microsoft Skype or Apple FaceTime for virtual parent-teacher conferences.

In conclusion, the research literature confirmed that K-12 urban school leaders could take several steps to increase parental involvement. They could emphasize learning at home by encouraging teachers to give

more interactive homework assignments. They should also adopt a transformational leadership style with a focus on welcoming, collaborating with, and empowering all parents. Finally, they need to provide trainings for staff and parents on the use of various technology in order to strengthen communication between the home and the school.

REFERENCES

Bagriacik Yilmaz, A. (2019). Distance and Face-to-Face Students' Perceptions towards Distance Education: A Comparative Metaphorical Study. Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education, 20(1), 191-207.

Barr, J., & Saltmarsh, S. (2014). "It all comes down to the leadership" The role of the school principal in fostering parent-school engagement. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 42(4), 491-505.

Blanchard, J. (1998). The Family-School Connection and Technology.

Burns, J. M. (1978). Leadership New York: Perennial.

Butler, S. W. (2012). Leadership styles and parental involvement [ProQuest Information & Learning]. In Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences (Vol. 73, Issue 5–A, p. 1698).

Carr, A. (1997). Leadership and community participation: Four case studies. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 12(2), 152-168.

Catsambis, S. (2001). Expanding knowledge of parental involvement in children's secondary education: Connections with high school seniors' academic success. Social psychology of education, 5(2), 149-177.

Epstein, J. L. (1995). School/family/community partnerships. Phi delta kappan, 76(9), 701.

Epstein, J. L., And Others, & Center on Families, C. S. and C. L. (1992). TIPS: Teachers Involve Parents in Schoolwork. Language Arts and Science/Health. Interactive Homework in the Middle Grades. Manual for Teachers.

Erol, Y. C., & Turhan, M. (2018). The Relationship between Distributed Leadership and Family Involvement from Parents' Perspective. Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 18(3), 525-540.

Fan, X., & Chen, M. (2001). Parental involvement and students' academic achievement: A meta-analysis. Educational psychology review, 13(1), 1-22.

Giles, C. (2006). Transformational leadership in challenging urban elementary schools: A role for parent involvement?. Leadership and Policy in Schools, 5(3), 257-282.

Gordon, M. F., & Louis, K. S. (2009). Linking parent and community involvement with student achievement: Comparing principal and teacher perceptions of stakeholder influence. American journal of education, 116(1), 1-31.

Green, R. L. (2017). Practicing the art of leadership: A problem-based approach to implementing the professional standards for educational leaders. Pearson. One Lake Street, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey 07458.

Gu, L. (2017). Using school websites for home–school communication and parental involvement?. Nordic Journal of Studies in Educational Policy, 3(2), 133-143.

Hill, N. E., & Tyson, D. F. (2009). Parental involvement in middle school: a meta-analytic assessment of the strategies that promote achievement. Developmental psychology, 45(3), 740.

Jeynes, W. H. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relation of parental involvement to urban elementary school student academic achievement. Urban education, 40(3), 237-269.

Jeynes, W. H. (2007). The relationship between parental involvement and urban secondary school student academic achievement: A meta-analysis. Urban education, 42(1), 82-110.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2003). Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI): Facilitator's Guide. Pfeiffer.

Loughlin-Presnal, J., & Bierman, K. L. (2017). How do parent expectations promote child academic achievement in early elementary school? A test of three mediators. Developmental Psychology, 53(9), 1694.

Lunts, E. (2003). Parental involvement in children's education: Connecting family and school by using telecommunication technologies. Meridian: A Middle School Computer Technologies Journal, 6(1), 1-8.

McNeal, R. B., Jr. (2014). Parent Involvement, Academic Achievement and the Role of Student Attitudes and Behaviors as Mediators. Universal Journal of Educational Research, 2(8), 564–576.

National Policy Board for Educational Administration (2015). Professional Standards for Educational Leaders 2015.

Ogg, J., & Anthony, C. J. (2020). Process and context: Longitudinal effects of the interactions between parental involvement, parental warmth, and SES on academic achievement. Journal of School Psychology, 78, 96-114.

Olmstead, C. (2012). Using technology to increase parent involvement. California State University, Fullerton.

Otani, M. (2020). Parental Involvement and Academic Achievement among Elementary and Middle School Students. Asia Pacific Education Review, 21(1), 1–25.

Ramirez, F. (2001). Technology and parental involvement. The Clearing House, 75(1), 30-31.

Rogers, R., & Wright, V. (2008). Assessing technology's role in communication between parents and middle schools. Electronic Journal for the Integration of Technology in Education, 7(1), 36-58.

Runcorn, T. (2018). Innovative Parental Involvement: Utilizing Information and Communication Technologies to Increase Parental Involvement (Doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California).

Sheldon, S. B., & Epstein, J. L. (2005). Involvement counts: Family and community partnerships and mathematics achievement. The Journal of Educational Research, 98(4), 196-207.

Snell, E. K., Hindman, A. H., & Wasik, B. A. (2020). Exploring the use of texting to support family-school engagement in early childhood settings: teacher and family perspectives. Early Child Development and Care, 190(4), 447-460.

Stewart, J. (2006). Transformational leadership: An evolving concept examined through the works of Burns, Bass, Avolio, and Leithwood. Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy, (54).

Tan, J. (2012). Improving parent involvement in secondary schools through communication technology. Multiple Literacies in the Technical Editing Classroom: An Approach to Teaching, 13(2), 30.

Thompson, B. C., Mazer, J. P., & Flood Grady, E. (2015). The changing nature of parent–teacher communication: Mode selection in the smartphone era. Communication Education, 64(2), 187-207.

Van Voorhis, F. L. (2003). Interactive homework in middle school: Effects on family involvement and science achievement. The Journal of Educational Research, 96(6), 323-338.

Winkler, D. M. (2016). A New Approach to Parental Involvement: The Role of Virtual Parent-Teacher Conferences.

Wei-Ee (Katie) Cheng became a New York City Teaching Fellow in 2007 and has been teaching English as a New Language (E.N.L.) for the past 14 years in high-needs schools in Brooklyn. In 2013, she became a Fulbright Scholar through the Fulbright Distinguished Awards in Teaching Research Program. Currently she is working on her Educational Leadership certification through Stony Brook University.

The Growing Gap Between Teachers and Students of Color:
What Are the Benefits and Barriers, Policies, Practices, and Programs to Close the Gap?
Dafny J. Irizarry, Stony Brook University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate how the lack of teacher diversity impacts the academic achievement of minority students. In addition, this study examined the benefits and barriers in recruiting and retaining teachers of color and how policies, practices and programs are succeeding in closing the growing mismatch between the percentage of teachers and students of color. The findings indicated that student/teacher same race matching has a positive impact for all students, but especially for low socio-economic students of color. Because teachers of color serve as role models to students of color, these students perform better in the short and long term resulting in a more positive and successful school experience. This study identified an increase in test scores, attendance, participation in gifted programs and graduation rates as well as a decrease in absenteeism, suspensions, and drop outs as benefits. The striking gap between teachers of color and students of color is widened by a number of barriers in the teacher pipeline supply, including inadequate K-12 preparation, low enrollment in schools of education (due partly to its high cost), relatively low hiring and retention, and feelings of isolation. These are contributors to an alarming teacher minority shortage that persists despite policies, practices, and programs yielding financial incentives, government mandates and/or specific recruitment programs. The findings suggest that the exponential growth of students of color and the high turnover of minority teachers are out pacing the gains policymakers and educational leaders have hoped for in recruiting and retaining teachers of color.

Conceptual Rationale

The subject of teacher diversity was of interest to school communities as the number of diverse students continued to increase throughout United States, far outpacing the number of diverse teachers. The racial gap between teachers and their students has been researched as it relates to demographic changes in our schools and minority students' academic achievement.   It is important to understand whether the lack of teacher diversity in the workforce reduces students' achievement gaps or increases students' success in schools.

Diversity in teaching has become a growing concern all over the country including Long Island.

A report on Long Island teacher diversity issued by the National Center for Suburban Studies (NCSS) at Hofstra University in 2019 presented a demographic portrait of Nassau and Suffolk counties indicating that 45% of Long Island's students are non-White while 92% of their teachers are White. This has resulted in Long Island having a diverse teaching workforce of only 8% lagging behind the percentages of diverse teachers nationwide (approximately 20%) and statewide (16%). (Education Trust, 2017).

In the past few months the concern for a more diverse teaching workforce has intensified as advocates and social justice movement groups - locally and nationally - have engaged in demonstrations demanding more racial justice across institutions including education. For many decades the New York State Education Department (NYSED) has struggled with these historical inequities and concerns. Most recently, in 2018 NYSED developed the Culturally Responsive-Sustaining (CR-S) framework in response to structural inequities. Today school leaders and all educational stakeholders have a document to guide their work for a more inclusive curriculum and school environment. Moreover, the NYSED has developed and expanded teacher pipelines such as Teachers Opportunity Corps and the Teacher Diversity Pipeline Pilot with the goal of increasing diversity in the teaching profession. Still, the gap between White and non-White teachers in contrast to the growing diverse student population is sharp and additional actions by local, state, and federal organizations might need to be explored to close the gap.

The impact of teacher diversity in the workforce relates to most of the standards set forth by the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (PSEL, 2015). The critical role that school leaders play in teacher diversity as it relates to students success is central in closing the achievement and opportunity gaps. In PSEL Standard One, the educational administrator develops, advocates and enacts the school's mission, vision, and core values in collaboration with school community members by using relevant demographic and academic performance data which supports the academic success and development of each child. Teacher diversity relates to Standard Two more explicitly promotes the values of equity and diversity. In regards to Standard Three, teacher diversity ensures that students have access to effective and culturally competent teachers preparing students for the diverse cultural contexts of a global society.   In Standard Four, teacher diversity contributes

to the implementation of curriculum, instruction and assessment which are culturally responsive. Standard Five demands that educational leaders cultivate a school environment that is inclusive of the cultures and languages of the school's community. This leads to Standard Six which expects leaders to recruit, hire, support, develop and retain effective and caring teachers that can meet the academic, social and emotional needs of the students. Teacher diversity impacts educational leaders' effectiveness with Standard Eight -by having teachers who are racially and linguistically representative of the student population, there is a higher level of school, family and community engagement and connectivity. Creating a school environment with continuous opportunities to improve learning and teaching requires educational leaders to plan and advocate for teacher diversity as an essential value and element for students' academic success and well-being (PSEL, 2015).

As a result of the interest in teacher diversity due to the growing demographic changes in student population, the purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of lack of teacher diversity in the academic performance of minority students. In addition, this study aims to explore academic benefits students receive by having diverse educators and the policies and programs that create teacher pipelines to increase the number of diverse educators.

Research Questions
The following research questions guided this study.
Research Question One
According to the literature review, how lack of teacher diversity affect student achievement among minority students in k-12 schools?
Research Question Two
What were the benefits to recruiting and retaining a more racially and culturally diverse teacher workforce in k-12 schools?
Research Question Three
What were the barriers to recruiting and retaining a more racially and culturally diverse teacher workforce in k-12 schools?
Research Question Four
What were effective policies, practices and/or programs to increase diversity in the teacher workforce in k-12 schools?

REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE
Teacher Diversity and Student Achievement
A number of studies exist to explain how teachers race/ethnicity might influence student achievement. This review examined several studies which consistently identified that minority teachers can boost and benefit students of color academic performance during their educational experience (Dee, 2004, 2005; Egalite, 2015; Gershenson, 2017).

Dee (2004 and 2005) provided studies on the question of possible association between own-race teacher and student achievement in earlier grades. In 2004 Dee examined test score data from the Tennessee's Project STAR (Student Teacher Achievement Ratio). The Tennessee Project STAR began in the 1985-86 school year with a group of over 6,000 students and continued through third grade with a total of 11,000 students in 79 schools. This large size experiment sought to understand the achievement benefits of small classes. The experiment was not designed to examine the relationship between own-race teacher and student achievement. However, the manner in which students and teachers were randomly assigned to small classes, regular classes and regular classes with aides allowed to observe the possible effects of own-race teacher in the early stages of formal schooling.

The empirical results found presented by Dee (2004) based on the Project STAR public-access data indicated that "assignment to an own-race teacher increased math and reading scores by roughly 2 to 4 percentile points." (Dee, 2004, pg. 196). Furthermore, the results highlighted that "the achievement gains associated with an own-race teacher are somewhat larger among students with lower socioeconomic status." (Dee, 2004, pg. 208). The achievement gains noted in the study held true for all groups of students defined by race and gender. It is relevant to note that the data only included Black and White students with Black and White teachers. The number of Hispanics, Asian and American Indians were not included because their participation was limited (Dee, 2004).

Although the study does not address effects of own-race teachers on long term student outcomes as educational attainment, the study provided an insight on the cumulative effects regarding assignment to an own-race teacher for the four years of exposure. The results suggested that student achievement increased in years of exposure to own-race teachers. According to Dee's findings (2004) the gains observed are not fixed to one year but "can have additive effects on a student's achievement as they age." (Dee, 2004, pg. 209).

In a subsequent study, Dee (2005) provided additional empirical evidence on "whether having a demographically similar teacher influences the teachers' perceptions of a student's performance and behavior." (Dee, 2005, pg. 160). Dee analyzed data based on a national representative survey -the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88). The nationally conducted survey solicited student-specific evaluations from two demographically different teachers for each

8th grade student in two academic subjects. This longitudinal study collected surveys for 21,324 8th grade students from 1,052 schools. A total of 42,648 observations completed the final data set. The teacher survey included questions on how the teacher perceived the classroom performance and personal traits of participating students. Dee's analysis (2005) focused on three teacher assessments; wether the students was frequently disruptive, consistently inattentive or rarely completed homework. The results of his analysis confirmed that "having a teacher who does not share a student's racial/ethnic designation increases the odds of the student being seen as inattentive by at least 33% and the odds of rarely completing homework by at least of 22%." (Dee, 2005; pg. 162). The evidence presented by Dee (2005) revealed that racial and ethnic dynamics between students and teachers have an effect on teacher perceptions of student performance; thus, contributing and influencing the observed demographic gaps in student achievement. (Dee, 2005).

Egalite, Kisida, and Winters (2015) also conducted a study on the effects of student/teacher race matching. They analyzed substantial student and teacher dataset from the Florida public school system which included 2.9 million students linked to 92,000 teachers over a period of seven years. The study followed the "performance of individual students across an entire state as they were assigned to teachers of different race/ethnicities throughout their elementary and secondary education." (Egalite, et al., 2015, pg. 4).

The dataset contained demographic information for teachers and students in grades three through ten for each year from 2001-02 to 2008-09. In addition, the dataset included math and reading test scores from the state mandated standardized exam, the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) (Egalite, et al., 2015). Using this approach, Egalite, Kisida, and Winters (2015) found small, positive effects in reading and math. The analysis of the dataset indicated that "assignment to an own-race/ethnicity teacher has positive and potentially policy relevant reading achievement for Black and White students, and significant math achievement impacts for Black, White, and Asian/Pacific Islands students" (Eagalite et al., 2015, pg. 17). The findings held to be stronger at the elementary level for Black and White students and for Asian/Pacific students at the middle/high level. Additionally, the study noted that "lower performing Black and White students appear to particularly benefit from being assigned to a race-congruent

teacher." (Eaglite et al., 2015, pg. 17). In regards to the Hispanic population the study reported that the overall effects were slightly negative and researchers made note that the Hispanic population in Florida is diverse and there were data limitations to "effectively code own-race/ethnicity matches with regards to Hispanics." In other words, the data did not provide to determine how the various Hispanic students were matched to Hispanic teachers. For example, there was no way to know if a native or foreign born Cuban student was matched to a Cuban teacher. Because Hispanics are a heterogeneous group, results for this group are questionable as a general term Hispanic was used instead of a more defined ethnicity match within this group (Egalite et. al, 2015)

The above studies (Dee, 2004, 2005 and Egalite et al., 2015) suggest that a teacher's race which can be observed at the time of hiring can have a predictable positive impact in reducing the demographic related gaps in educational achievement among students.

Teacher Diversity Benefits

An examination of literature and research about teacher diversity by Villegas and Jordan (2010) identified three major benefits supporting increasing educators of color in the teaching workforce: They serve as role models for all students, improve the academic outcomes and school experiences of students of color and help reduce the shortage of educators for high-minority schools. Researchers who studied the short and long term impacts of racial diversity in the teaching workforce agreed that there are a myriad of benefits for all students, but studies on same-race teachers underscored that for students of color the benefits are especially substantial. They found students of color perform better academically, if they are taught by a same-race teacher (Dee, 2004, 2005; Ingersoll and May, 2011; Egalite et al., 2015; Holt and Gershenson, 2015, Gershenson el at., 2017).

A study by Holt and Gershenson (2015) on the impact of teacher demographic representation on student attendance and suspension used the representative bureaucracy theory - that is, outcomes are enhanced when human service providers and clients are of similar demographics - to examine the influence of teachers (providers) on the attendance and behavior of primary school disadvantage students (clients). The study used longitudinal administrative data provided by the North Carolina Education Research Data Center (NCERDC) on all primary school (grades K-5) students and teachers in North Carolina's public schools between 2006-2010 academic years (Halt and Gershenson, 2015). The data included records of "student and teacher demographics (race and gender),

the students' total absences (excused and unexcused) as well as total suspensions" (Halt and Gershenson, 2015, pg. 15) resulting in a robust sample of 1,028,885 students and 43,708 teachers. The study aimed to test two hypotheses. First, that student-teacher mismatch affects individual students' absences and suspensions. Second, that having "providers" who demographically represent the "clients" affects public support. Because parents of elementary school children are partly responsible for student attendance, their assessments and opinions influenced their decisions regarding their children absences, thus impacting their children success (Halt and Gershenson, 2015).

The study results supported the representative bureaucracy theory by providing "strong evidence of a causal relationship between student-teacher racial mismatch and student absences and suspensions" (Halt and Gershenson, 2015, pg. 27). Moreover, the study revealed that the effects of student-teacher mismatch were larger regarding suspensions than absenteeism. Specifically, it noted that students with "racially mismatched teachers experienced a 20% increase in suspension, driven primarily by the response of non-White male students to white classroom teachers." (Halt and Gershenson, 2015, pg. 28).

Gershenson, Hart, Lindsay and Papageorge (2017) examined the long-term impacts of Black student-teacher match. They used longitudinal administrative data on all public school students in North Carolina for the cohorts who entered the third grade between 2001 and 2005 and followed them all the way to their senior year of high school. Their findings revealed that "black males who are randomly assigned to a black teacher in the third, fourth, or fifth grades are more likely to aspire to college and less likely to drop out of high school, particularly among the most disadvantaged black males." (Gershenson et al., 2017, pg. 5). Exposure to a Black male teacher during 3rd, 4th or 5th grades reduces high school drop outs by 39% (Gershenson et al., 2017). The study argued that a mechanism to explain these results is role modeling. Students who see people who look like them in positions of authority become motivated and perform better (Gershenson et al., 2017). Conversely, same race teachers become more invested in these students feeling a responsibility to nurture and show them what is possible. The student-teacher racial match, allows for a synergies and group connections that lead to higher expectations and investments by both - teachers and students. This results not only in short-term positive outcomes, such as test scores and behaviors, but in long-run positive educational outcomes (Gershenson, et al., 2017).

Using longitudinal data on elementary students, Grissom and Redding (2016) investigated the pre-

dictors and reasons for the underrepresentation of high-achieving students of color in gifted programs. Crucial to the study was documenting racial and ethnic identification of students and teachers. The data showed that compared to Whites (90%), Black students (83%) are less likely to attend a school with a gifted program. In addition, the study showed that in the case of reading assignments, Black students with Black teachers were more likely (6.2%) to be referred to gifted programs than if they were with non-Black teachers (2.1%). In the researchers' words, "Black students are predicted to be assigned to gifted services 3 times more often in classrooms with Black teachers than with non-Black teachers." (Grissom and Redding, 2016, pg. 10). It is important to note that no evidence of same-race benefit was found in regards to math assignment in a gifted program. Nevertheless, the study uncovered evidence signaling that the likelihood of assigning high achieving Black students to a gifted reading program is reduced by the lack of same race teacher (Grissom and Redding, 2016).

Teacher discretion in screening and referring students to gifted programs can be one explanation for the discrepancies in the number of referrals. Teacher perceptions of students are impacted by race and ethnicity and this may lead teachers to misinterpretation or biases in their judgments because of differences in cultural backgrounds. Students might display different behavior in the presence of a same-race teacher. Likewise, parents may also engage differently when reaching out to a Black teacher or (vice versa) to have child tested or signed up for gifted services. (Grissom and Redding, 2016).

Most recently researcher David Quinn conducted an experiment to illustrate how racial bias impacts grading. The researcher surveyed 1,549 K-12 teachers in grading two almost identical second grade writing samples. The only difference in the samples was the names of the boys writing them. One sample used the name Dashawn hinting it was written by a Black boy and the other one used the name Connor hinting the writer was a White boy. The teachers randomly graded the samples with a grade-level scale. In addition, they answered demographic questions and completed a test to measure racial attitudes. The findings revealed that second grade female White teachers were less likely to rate the Dashawn sample as being on grade level than the Connor sample. Essentially, they were 4.7 percentage points more likely to give better marks to the Connor sample than to Deshawn's. However, teachers of color graded both samples, Deshawn and Connor, as being on grade level (Quinn, 2020). It is important to note that in the experiment teachers were asked to grade the samples a second time but

this time using an explicit rubric. The second grading results showed that there was no difference for Black and White boys indicating that both races were graded equally and they both did better. By using an objective grading rubric, the racial bias showed to diminish (Quinn, 2020).

Having teachers of color can help White and non-White students by breaking down stereotypes and reducing bias and prejudice (Cloutier et al., 2014). Results in Cloutier et. al. (2014) revealed that greater childhood exposure to interracial individuals reduced amygdala response - brain emotion to fight or flight - to familiar Black faces in adults. Moreover, Chiefs for Change -an advocacy organization of state leaders across the country- issued a report in 2016, "Diversity to the Forefront," which highlighted the academic and social advantages of diversifying the teaching workforce. The report cited "increasing the diversity of the educator workforce at every level can build citizenship, provide role models and welcoming environments for students of color, encourage individuals to challenge the status quo, increase academic achievement, and shift teacher mindset and expectations." (Chiefs for Change, 2016, pg.2).

Barriers to Teacher Diversity

Understanding the causes that contribute to the lack of teacher diversity is crucial in removing the barriers that prevent students to experience the benefits of having teachers of color during their school experience. The lack of teacher diversity in K-12 schools is an issue that deserves urgent attention due to the increasingly diverse student population. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) projects that 54 percent of the students will be non-White by the year 2024. This is in sharp contrast to demographics between teachers of color (18%) versus White teachers (92%) nationwide (U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

Studies agreed on a number of reasons that explain the lack of teachers of color in K-12 schools. A qualitative case study by Simon, Jhonson, and Reynor (2015) on the challenge of recruiting and hiring teachers of color in six high poverty and high performing urban schools identified inadequate K-12 education experienced by students of color experience as a barrier to pursuing post-secondary education. Teacher preparation begins with a strong K-12 education. Fewer minority students enter and complete college (Simon et al., 2015).

This study interviewed 142 teachers and administrators to analyze the process of recruiting and hiring Black and Latino educators. Their findings revealed that hiring and recruiting teachers of color was challenging in all six schools even though all the schools had a strategic plan to involve their current teachers

of color in attracting more (Simon et al., 2015). The schools with greater success had their teachers of color active in developing and enacting the strategy so equity and race were familiar conversations (Simon et al., 2015). Another challenge cited by Simon et al. (2015) was passing the teacher certification examination which around 40 percent of minority do not pass. This results in disqualifying teachers of color from joining the teaching workforce (Simon, et al., 2015).

A deeper exploration of the shortage of teachers of color took place in a report, The State of Racial Diversity in the Educator Workforce (2016), which examined the teacher pipeline -post secondary enrollment and completion as well as hiring and teacher retention. The study provided a deeply textured portrait of the racial diversity of K-12 educators in public schools across the nation (US Department of Education, 2016). The report revealed that the number of teachers of color decreases at different points in the teacher pipeline. It highlighted that in 2011-12 students with bachelor's degree were less diverse (38%) than the number of students with a high school diploma (43%) showing the first point of decrease in the pipeline. The second point happens in the enrollment in education/teaching preparation programs. In the 2012-13 school year the racial composition of students pursuing a degree in education was less diverse than students enrolled in other fields. For example, in 2012 White students accounted for 73% of all students majoring in education while they only accounted for 62% of the racial composition in non-education majors. The same pattern is observed in the racial composition of students pursuing a master's degree in education. While 71% of White students were enrolled in a master's education program, 64% of White students were enrolled in non-education master's program.

The third point of decrease relates to post-secondary completion, 73% of White students complete a bachelor's degree with an education major six years after beginning the degree in contrast to 42% for Black and 49% for Hispanic students completing their degrees within the same time frame (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). In addition, the report includes data showing that education degrees are conferred to a less diverse student population than to students in non- education majors. In other words, fewer students of color enroll and complete post-secondary education/teaching degrees in comparison to white students as well as to students of color in other major programs (US Department of Education, 2016).

In a dissertation on teacher diversity issues on Hispanic and English language learners (Ells) Samantha Jancia Julien investigated the reasons for the lack of

minority teachers despite the large K-12 Ell Hispanic student population within a school district. She sought the opinions of White and non-White teachers and administrators at the elementary, middle and secondary level to determine their perceptions about the lack of teacher diversity among Ells. To collect data, the researcher conducted eight interviews, using a qualitative case study approach (Jancia, 2019). According to the participants' responses in the study, three educational issues were identified as contributors to the lack of diverse educators in the district. First, the low number of diverse applicants for job positions in the district yielded to a low recruitment of Hispanics and teachers of color. This lack of diverse applicants was the result of a low number of diverse students who enroll and complete a degree in education at the nearby university where most teachers in the district are recruited from. The majority of the students in the teaching program are White (Jancia, 2019).
vAnother contributor to the lack of diversity was isolation. The data collected revealed that if a "majority of teachers are White and if individuals realize they may be the only one who looks like them at a school, this may result in feelings of isolation, and possibly reluctance in applying for positions at the school" (Jancia, 2019, pg. 73). The third identified contributor was financial constraints. The participants shared that the inability to afford to pay for a college education as well as the view of teaching not as a lucrative career choice make it hard to attract diverse teacher candidates in teaching programs. The high cost of college might take students to more lucrative careers in order to pay back student loans (Jancia, 2019).

In a 2011 report, Increasing Teacher Diversity, issued by the Center for American Progress, researchers, Bireida and Chait highlighted that over 40 percent of public schools nationwide do not have teachers of color. Moreover, a 2019 report by the National Center for Suburban Studies at Hofstra University reported that over 60 percent of schools on Long Island do not have a single Black teacher (Mangino and Levy, 2019). This lack of diversity in teaching results in an absence of role models - for students of color, explaining in part why fewer students of color are pursuing a teacher career, thus, creating a non-ending shortage of teachers of color. (Villegas and Jordan, 2010).
Policies, Practices, and/or Programs to Increase Teacher Diversity

Federal, state and local policymakers are concerned with increasing the number of teachers of color. This goal is also embraced by The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education(AACTE), which adopted - as one of their Core Values - increasing the diversity of their faculty and the teachers they prepare

(AACTE, 2017). States and school districts across the country have developed strategies in addressing this goal. Several studies have reviewed and reported on successful strategies to increase diversity in the teacher pipeline.

Villegas et al. (2012) examined two decades (1987-2007) of minority teacher recruitment policies and programs nationwide. By 2010 researchers identified that 31 out 50 states had adopted policy strategies to diversify the teacher workforce. Recruitment strategies used by 31 states were organized into five types: "Offering financial incentives, creating government mandates, supporting specific types of recruitment programs, establishing recruitment centers, and promoting alternate certification programs as a pathway to teaching" (Villegas et al., 2012, pg. 289). According to this study, the two most common strategies were the use of financial incentives (scholarships, grants and forgivable loans) found in 25 out of 31 states and government mandates, found in 17 out of 31. Many states offer scholarships that specifically target teachers of color (Villegas, et al., 2012). For example, the Minority Teacher Education Scholarship (MTES) is a policy in Florida that aims to increasing the recruitment of minority teachers by granting successful candidates $4,000 a year to complete their bachelor's in education. Upon graduation, the awardee agrees to teach one year in a Florida public school for each year the scholarship was received (Florida Fund for Minority Teachers). A study showed that strategies like this one in Florida increase the recruitment of minority teachers (Egalite, et al., 2015).

The second most frequently used strategy mandates government agencies to carry out actions to support diversifying the teaching workforce. For example, states such as Arkansas, Kentucky, and Tennessee, require school districts to set minority teacher recruitment goals that match the percentage of minority students in the district. Another type of mandate carried out in New York is requiring school districts to report data on the racial-ethnic composition of teachers. The study revealed that states differed in the configuration of their recruitment policies. Twelve states relied completely on one strategy while 19 others had a package of two or more strategies (Villegas, et al., 2012).

Two particular strategies are promoting specific recruitment programs and encouraging recruitment through non-traditional or alternate programs. Among the specific minority teacher recruitment programs, early outreach and career ladder options for paraprofessionals were spotlighted in aiming to bridge the student-teacher diversity gap. An example of this recruitment strategy is the "grow your own" programs. They help meet the demand for bilingual teachers - a

shortage area - by tapping into the existing paraprofessionals within a district. In 2012 the Northern Nevada English Learning Institute partnered with the University of Nevada and the Washoe School District to provide paraprofessionals with a ninth month course to improve their skills and practices in working with English language learners and ultimately built on their career to become certified teachers (Bader and Pennell, 2019). This program recruited 57 paraprofessionals of which 27 were Spanish-English bilingual. Participating paraprofessionals reported that they not only gained a better understanding of how Ells acquire another language, but gave them tools to better work with this population in classroom activities. Furthermore, five bilingual participants enrolled in teaching programs and three additional ones were reassigned to positions where their new set of skills would be better used. The rest of the participants continued to work in the district indicating "workforce stability with increased knowledge and competence" (Bader and Pennell, 2019, pg. 51)

In New York as part of the Every Student Success Act (ESSA) plan the Teacher Diversity Pipeline Pilot program was approved in 2018. This program seeks to assist teacher aides and teaching assistants in attaining the necessary educational and professional credentials to obtain teacher certification. State funding ($500,000) was allocated for this initiative in the hopes of increasing diversity and reducing teacher shortages in high-need district(s) and schools (NYSED).

Other "grow your own" programs focus on the early outreach, providing a direct pathway from high school to teaching. The Boston Public School High School to Teacher Program has been identified as a program highly effective in increasing teacher diversity (US Department of Education, 2016). In the 2015-16 school year, 37% of the Boston Public Schools (BPS) teachers were of color, compared to 18% nationwide and 16% in NY. This program identifies students in high school and connects them with mentors, college prep courses, partial tuition, and ultimately with a teaching job. A similarly program is the Buffalo Urban Teacher Academy (BUTA). Buffalo has 81% students of color while the percentage of white teachers is 86%. In 2017, BUTA recruited a cohort of ninth-graders to embark in a "four-year program of career-focused classes that introduces them to the teaching profession and allows them to earn up to 12 college credits" (Saunders, S., June, 2017, pg. 16). In addition, students are matched with a mentor and if they continue in the program, they receive a full tuition scholarship at SUNY Buffalo State (Saunders, S., June 2017). After college graduation, students are recruited to work in the Buffalo Public Schools if they agree to stay for five years in the city schools. The rationale for "grow your own" programs

is that drawing teaching candidates from the school community results in recruitment of teachers "who are more likely to match the racial, ethnic, and economic characteristics of the students and will be more likely to stay in the district for a longer period of time" (Breida and Chait, 2011, pg. 7).

Another type of specific recruitment program by The New York State Education Department worth mentioning is the Teacher Opportunity Corps I and II. Both were developed in partnership with public and private universities in the state with the purpose to increase the rate of underrepresented and economically disadvantaged individuals in teaching careers. This program also provides professional development on culturally and linguistically responsive curriculum, STEM, and teaching best practices by integrating a 10-month internship experience that includes partnerships with high-needs schools with teacher shortages (NYSED).

Among the case studies analyzed by Breida and Chait (2011) was the widely known national alternative certification programs called Teach for America. This alternate certification program recruit's college graduates to teach in at least 39 underserved areas across the country for two years. This alternate program has shown successes in recruiting and retaining minority teachers. The study revealed that Black and Latino members of TFA enjoy longer teaching careers than white and Asian teachers. Similarly, to TFA, The New Teacher Project- Fellowship Programs (TNTP) is a national program in about 20 cities which facilitates alternative certification programs and recruits candidates without an education degree. According to the researchers' review, "TNTP estimates that 37% of their fellows are people of color, compared with 17.6% of teachers nationally" (Breida and Chait, 2011, pg. 12). The program seems to have great success at retaining teachers. It has an 87% retention rate for all teachers. The percentage is higher for Black and Latino teachers (92%) (Breida and Chait, 2011).

Although policies and programs have helped diversify the teaching workforces -from 299,627 in 1987 to 575,364 by 2007 resulting in a 92% increase in the percentage of minority teachers, the efforts have not kept pace with the increasing number of students of color. In 2007 schools employed 3,404,504 teachers. To match the percentage of minority students in schools that year, 1,504,790 teachers of color would have needed to be employed; instead, schools employed 575,364 (Villegas et al., 2012). Strategies are also needed to retain minority teachers. A data analysis revealed that the gains in recruitment are short lived, "In the 2004-2005 and 2008-09 school years,

minority turnover was respectively, 18% and 24% higher than White teacher turnover" (Ingersoll and May, 2011, pg. 23). Recruitment alone cannot solve the problem.

Conclusions

Currently, every state in the country experiences a wide gap between the percentage of minority teachers and percentage of minority students. The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of this growing mismatch in students of color academic achievement and possible benefits in having or not access to teachers of color who not only look like them but reflect the multi racial and multi ethnic society they must live, work, and proper. Moreover, the study examined possible barriers in the recruitment of teachers of color and the success of a number of policies and programs in recruiting and retaining teachers of color.

The rapid growth of diverse student population demands an equally diverse teaching workforce. Studies on student/teacher race matching agreed that increasing diversity in the teaching workforce yields to positive academic outcomes and benefits for all students but especially for low socio economic students of color. Studies revealed that students of color showed gains in math and reading when matched with a same race teacher. Furthermore, studies highlighted that same race teacher serve as role models and their presence, expectations, and perceptions of students of color had short and long term positive impacts in test scores, behaviors, educational opportunities in gifted programs, and graduation rates. On the other hand, this study found evidence indicating that absence of same race teacher can increase the odds of minority students to experience lower grades, absenteeism, being suspended, seen as inattentive and unlikely to complete homework, underrepresented in gifted programs and/or dropout of school contributing to the existing demographic achievement gap and decreasing the number of future minority teachers in the workforce.

The findings of this study suggest that the lack of diversity in the teaching workforce stems from the teacher supply pipeline, beginning with students of color having an inadequate K-12 school experience impacting their preparation to enroll in college. The teacher pipeline suffers from lack of diversity at different points: enrollment, retention and completion -less than 50% students of color who enroll in a teaching program complete a bachelor degree (Villegas, et al., 2010). A subsequent obstacle is the high percentage of minority teachers who do not pass the teacher certification examination. These contributors along with the high cost of college and feelings of isolation in homogenous white schools result in a minority teacher shortage. Thus, more must be done at different points of the teacher pipeline - from preparation and completion, to recruitment and hiring, and then placement and retention.

This study found that federal, state and local policymakers and educational leaders have adopted helpful polices, practices and programs in most states aiming to increase diversity in the teaching workforce. Some of these actions include financial incentives, government mandates, and specific and alternate recruitment programs to increase the number of teachers of color. They have proved to be effective strategies in the recruitment of teachers of color but not as successful in the retention of these teachers. Thus, in a time when our nation is demanding in the streets equity and racial justice, closing the achievement gap is an urgent priority for policymakers and educational leaders. This study's findings suggest that investments in policy, funding and research must be intensified to recruit and retain teachers of color to meet our moral obligation to provide all students with a successful school experience.

REFERENCES

American Association of Colleges for Teacher. (2017). Retrieved from https://aacte.org/about-aacte/

Bireda, S., & Chait, R., (2011). Increasing teacher diversity - Strategies to improve the teacher workforce. Retrieved from www.americanprogress.org.

Chiefs for Change. (2016). Diversity to the forefront: Why it matters + recommendations for system-level leaders. Washington, DC. Retrieved from https://chiefsforchange.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/Diversity-to-the-Forefront-Paper-v2.pdf

Dee, T. (2004). Teachers, race, and student achievement in a randomized experiment. Review of Economics and Statistics, 86(1), 195-210.

Dee, T. (2005). A teacher like me: Does race, ethnicity or gender matter? American Economic Review, 95(2), 158-165.

Education Trust. (2017). See our truth. Retrieved from https://seeourtruth-ny.edtrust.org/wp-content/uploads/sites/4/2017/10/See-Our-Truth.pdf

Egalite, A., Kisidab, B., & Winters, M. (2015). Representation in the classroom: The effect of own-race teachers on student achievement. Economics of Education Review, 45, 44-52.

Gershenson, S., Hart, C., Lindsay, C., & Papageorge, N. (2017). The long-run impacts of same-race teachers. Bonn, Germany: The IZA Institute of Labor Economics. Retrieved from http://ftp.iza.org/dp10630.pdf

Grissom, J. A., & Redding, C. (2016). Discretion and disproportionality: Explaining the underrepresentation of high-achieving students of color in gifted programs. AERA Open, 2, 1-25. Retrieved from https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/full/10.1177/2332858415622175

Holt, S. B., & Gershenson S. (2015). The impact of teacher demographic representation on student attendance and suspensions. Discussion Paper No. 9554. Bonn, Germany: The IZA Institute of Labor Economics. Retrieved from http://ftp.iza.org/dp9554.pdf

Ingersoll, R., & May, H., (2011). Recruitment, retention and the minority teacher shortage. Consortium for Policy Research in Education. Retrieved from https://repository.upenn.edu/gse_pubs/226

Jancia, S. J. (2019). Teacher diversity issues among hispanics and english language learners (ELLs): Perspectives of administrators and teachers in a mid-south town (Order No. 13863226). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (2218647615). Retrieved from http://proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/login?url=https://www-proquest-com.proxy.library.stonybrook.edu/docview/2218647615?accountid=14172

Mangiano, W. & Levy, L. (2019). Teacher diversity in Long Island's public schools. Hofstra University. Retrieved from https://www.hofstra.edu/pdf/academics/css/teacher-diversity-li-public-schools.pdf

National Policy Board for Educational Administration. (2015). Professional Standards for Educational Leaders. Retrieved from https://ccsso.org/resource-library/professional-standards-educational-leaders#:~:text=The%20National%20Policy%20Board%20for%20Educational%20Administration%20%28NPBEA%29,improve%20student%20achievement%20and%20meet%20new%2C%20higher%20expectations.

New York State Education Department (NYSED). Teacher Development Programs. Retrieved from http://www.nysed.gov/postsecondary-services/teacher-development-programs

Quinn, D. M. (2020). Experimental evidence on teachers' racial bias in student evaluation: The role of grading scales. Education Evaluation and Policy Analysis. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.3102/0162373720932188

Saunders, S. (June, 2017). 'Grow your own': Buffalo launches high school program for aspiring teachers. NYSUT United, 16. Retrieved from https://www.nysut.org/news/nysut-united/issues/2017/june-2017/buffalo-launches-high-school-program-for-aspiring-teachers

Simon, N. S., Johnson, S. M., & Reinhorn, S. K. (2015). The challenge of recruiting and hiring teachers of color: Lessons from six high performing, high-poverty, urban schools. The Project on the Next Generation of Teachers. Harvard Graduate School of Education. Retrieved from https://projectngt.gse.harvard.edu/files/gse-projectngt/files/the_challenge_of_recruiting_and_hiring_teachers_of_color.diversity._july_2015.pdf?m=1465278436

Rader, T. & Pennell, S. (2019). Diversity in the Teacher Pipeline. The Learning Professional, 40(2), 49-52.

U.S. Department of Education. (2016). The State of Racial Diversity in the Educator Workforce. Retrieved from www.gov.ed.

Villegas, A. M., & Irvine, J. J. (2010) Diversifying the teaching force: An examination of major arguments. The Urban Review, 42(3) 175-192. https://www.montclair.edu/profilepages/media/439/user/Villegas_&_Irvine--2010.pdf

Villegas, A. M., Strom, K. & Lucas, T. (2012) Closing the racial/ethnic gap between students of color and their teachers: An elusive goal. Equity &Excellence in Education, 45(2), 283-301.

Dafny J. Irizarry is the founder and president of the Long Island Latino Teachers Association. Ms. Irizarry teaches English as a New Language (ENL) in the Central Islip School District. She also serves as First Vice President for the Labor Council for Latin American Advancement (LCLAA) Long Island Chapter. A woman and educator with a passion for equity, justice, and inclusiveness.

Critical Reflections on Digital Race Dialogues in Teacher Education

Alesia Mickle Moldavan, Ph.D. and Asia Franks, M.Ed.
Fordham University

Abstract
Teacher education must provide opportunities for preservice teachers to critically reflect on race and other educational inequities to challenge spaces of marginality in today's classrooms. To ensure preservice teachers engage in critical conversations around equity, race, and justice-oriented pedagogy, teacher educators must prioritize activities and discussions that leverage such reflection in an already overcrowded curriculum. This task is no small feat, especially when coupled with the challenges of modifying instruction with digital innovation to respond to the COVID-19 crisis. With a lens of critical race theory, this study reports on a mathematics teacher educator and preservice teachers who engaged in digital race dialogues during their mathematics methods courses. Recommendations and future research considerations are shared for how similar activities can be used in teacher education to enhance critical reflection on race and racial inequities to create equitable and inclusive classrooms for all learners.

Critical Reflections on Digital Race Dialogues in Teacher Education

Significance of the Study

To create equitable and inclusive classrooms for all learners, teachers must challenge spaces of marginality by critically reflecting on race and other educational inequities (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics [NCTM], 2020). Teacher education can assist preservice teachers in acquiring the skills to leverage such reflection by incorporating activities and discussions focused on equity, race, and justice-oriented pedagogy into curriculum for methods courses. With an already overcrowded curriculum, this task is no small feat; however, the need to prioritize such work is echoed by professional organizations (e.g., American Educational Research Association [AERA], National Education Association [NEA]) and activist groups (e.g., Black Lives Matter [BLM], National Association for the Advancement of Colored People [NAACP], American Civil Liberties Union [ACLU]) that continue to shed light on race-based discrimination and systemic inequities that fuel educational disparities. To dismantle systems of oppression that prevent Black and Brown children from gaining access to high-quality education based on race and other factors (e.g., gender, sexual orientation, culture, nationality, socioeconomic status), tar-

geted efforts must be made to challenge systemic and institutionalized racism in school. By engaging teachers, school leaders, and other educational stakeholders in critical reflection and dialogue focused on making a more just and equitable future for all learners, great strides in advancing racial and social justice in education can come to fruition.

Teacher education is tasked with preparing preservice teachers to understand the historical, social, and political construction of schooling in the United States (Association of Mathematics Teacher Educators [AMTE], 2017). In response, research has shown that teacher educators have made strategic initiatives to design coursework that elicits conversations about access, achievement, identity, and power to address equity and social justice in the classroom (Moldavan, 2020a). While such initiatives have paved the way for a transformative vision of teacher education that challenges preservice teachers to examine the complexities of what equity looks like in our practice, advancements must be made to ensure issues of race and racial inequities are at the forefront of such equity work. As teacher educators, we acknowledge that it can be difficult to facilitate conversations about race within the context of a particular setting (e.g., a mathematics classroom) and encourage collegiate discourse that unpacks race dialogues to leverage self-reflection on racial dispositions and biases. This task is even further complicated with modified instruction that requires digital innovation to respond to the COVID-19 crisis. Thus, research is needed to examine effective ways teacher educators have responded to this call and what recommendations can be made to guide others interested in enhancing their own professional practice
.

Research Questions

This study reports on the initiatives of a mathematics teacher educator who engaged their preservice teachers in digital race dialogues during their mathematics methods courses. We look at the design of an instructional activity that used an online discussion board to facilitate race conversations and reflections on race-related scenarios that included teacher-student dialogues in the mathematics classroom. Within the context of critical race theory, we also report on the feedback from the preservice teachers engaged in the activity and the overall reflection from the mathematics teacher educator. Taking the findings into consideration, we reflect on how this research has impacted our

own instruction as mathematics teacher educators and the implications for this work in teacher education. The following research questions guide this study:

1. How do mathematics teacher educators facilitate digital race dialogues in their methods courses?

2. How do preservice teachers respond to digital race dialogues in their methods courses?

Critical Race Theory

Critical race theory (CRT) is a theoretical framework that has been used to examine issues of race in educational research (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). Without a doubt, race and socioeconomic status play a major role in students' access to high-quality and equitable educational experiences. CRT provides a theoretically grounded approach for researchers exploring areas of racial inequities by examining experienced discrimination and inequities from people of color, eradicating racial subjugation, and telling counter-stories that undermine deficit narratives (Creswell & Poth, 2018). As noted by Abrams and Moio (2009), the six central tenets of CRT can be summarized by the following: (a) racism is embedded in societal structures and practices, (b) race is a social construction, (c) people in power can racialize groups of people in different ways, (d) racism benefits the majority race, (e) the lived experience of minorities should be presented in their own words, and (f) analysis must acknowledge various oppressions, not just race.

Historically, racism permeates societal structures and practices due to the origins of slavery in our country. The first tenet of CRT acknowledges the roots of racism in every aspect of society, ourselves, and more importantly our schools (Capper, 2015). Research that uses CRT as a framework has the potential to allow marginalized voices to contribute knowledge based on their experiences with racism. Another tenet of CRT affirms that race is a social construct because race is a contrived system for categorizing people based on observable physical traits that have no connection to genetics (Bryant et al., 2015). Depending on the needs of the dominant group, people representing marginalized groups can be racialized, as stated in the third tenet of CRT. Political and economic structures that benefit the dominant group in society have created a racial hierarchy framing the fourth tenet of CRT, which states that significant progress for Blacks is achieved only when the goals of Blacks are consistent with the needs of Whites (Capper, 2015). Given the lack of acknowledgment of how the history of slavery and inequities has impacted racially oppressed groups of people, history often excludes racial and minority perspectives, which intensifies the need for CRT as the fifth tenet. Lastly, intersectionality can be used to describe the sixth tenet of CRT in that it is necessary to acknowledge various oppressions, such as ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, and language, because they work in unison to understand the dynamics of exclusion.

Critical Race Theory in Mathematics Education

According to Jett (2012), "CRT has been underutilized as a theoretical and methodological framework to investigate the mathematical experiences of African American students" (p. 23). However, it is an appropriate theoretical framework for investigating mathematics education because it centers the issues of race at the forefront to understand positive and negative experiences of minority students and assist teachers in uncovering their implicit biases for purposes of changing their practice (Davis & Jett, 2019). Moreover, it is an appropriate methodological framework because it allows researchers to offer a counter perspective through a personal narrative (Jett, 2012). According to Creswell and Poth (2018), "the use of critical race theory methodology means that the researcher foregrounds race and racism in all aspects of the research process; challenges the traditional research paradigms, texts, and theories used to explain the experiences of people of color; and offers transformative solutions to racial, gender, and class subordination in our societal and institutional structures" (p. 30). Thus, CRT serves as an analytic tool to theorize race and understand school inequity.

CRT is needed in mathematics education to examine how our country's racist history in education has negatively impacted minorities and vulnerable communities, specifically their access to high-quality mathematics instruction. According to Berry and colleagues (2014), Black learners are "routinely given the least access to advanced mathematics content, the fewest opportunities to learn through methods other than memorizing facts and mimicking teacher-modeled procedures, and the least well-prepared teachers" (p. 541). The discussion of an achievement gap between White and Black students often perpetuates the notion that White students are more advanced and capable of performing well in mathematics compared to students of color. This deficit view of mathematics learning for Black students perpetuates discourse that there is a problem with students' abilities to learn rather than placing the responsibility on teachers to know how social and cultural experiences in school, often negative, have been shaped by racism and inequities (Gutiérrez, 2009). Therefore, CRT can be used to examine how educational systems and structures maintain racism resulting in poor achievement in mathematics, which is often necessary for access to advanced courses, college, and high paying jobs. Teacher preparation programs and professional development for in-service teachers can use the lens of CRT

to challenge these belief systems and educate teachers to reflect on their implicit bias about who can learn mathematics and how students learn mathematics (Berry et al., 2014). Such research about race, racism, social justice, and identities are pertinent issues that must be explored to teach mathematics to Black and Brown children.

Research Design

A qualitative case study (Yin, 2014) was conducted to examine how a mathematics teacher educator from a New York institution of higher education in a mathematics teacher preparation program facilitated digital race dialogues in their methods courses. Consenting preservice teachers enrolled in the methods courses were also recruited to provide insight into how the participants responded to the digital race dialogues. To protect confidentiality and anonymity, the mathematics teacher educator is referred to as Michelle. During the fall semester of 2020, Michelle taught two methods courses, one that prepared 25 elementary mathematics preservice teachers and another that prepared 10 secondary mathematics preservice teachers. Both courses shared similar course activities, readings, and assignments drawing upon justice-oriented pedagogical theories specific to each course's targeted mathematics content. In response to the COVID-19 crisis, both courses were taught online using synchronous and asynchronous materials. The institution also prioritized anti-racism work embedded in teaching that encouraged the facilitation of coursework that explicitly addressed and challenged racism. Thus, Michelle's context served as a purposeful setting to examine an information-rich case (Patton, 2002). This case provided insight into the explored research questions and contributed to the researchers' reflections on the ways they planned to facilitate and engage preservice teachers in similar coursework with explicit focus on race to challenge spaces of marginality.

Data Collection and Analysis

The researchers collected artifacts and written reflections from both the mathematics teacher educator and the preservice teachers. Given that the coursework's artifacts of interest consisted of asynchronous materials where all participants used written text to partake in the digital race dialogues, the researchers were able to capture the instructor-student and student-student correspondences and use them as corroborating sources of evidence. The correspondences were coded to look at the participants' actions and what they were saying about race. Keeping in mind the lens of CRT, everything of relevance to race was coded using in vivo and descriptive coding techniques (Saldaña, 2016). These codes were then used to rec-ognize patterns and develop themes using a thematic analysis approach (Grbich, 2013). The researchers also performed memo writing to document the coding process and interpretation that guided their analysis and self-reflection.

Findings

In response to the COVID-19 crisis, teachers in various settings (e.g., K–12, higher education) have had to modify their curriculum and incorporate innovative activities that use digital technology (Moldavan, 2020b). Michelle was no different in that she had to be creative in developing coursework that would be accessible and engaging for her preservice teachers in her methods courses. With encouragement from her institution to create resources that examine racism and embed such material within curriculum to pilot new ways to talk about race and challenge spaces of marginality, she facilitated digital race dialogues through a discussion board on Blackboard.

The digital race dialogues were presented as case-based scenarios that the preservice teachers responded to throughout the semester. Each scenario was designed in response to current events and teacher-student interactions that could be critically examined in the context of the mathematics classroom. For instance, one of the scenarios reflected on issues highlighting the pandemic and the social justice movement of BLM. The scenario narrates a situation where a teacher asked their students to complete a group task to explore a mathematics concept. As students began to organize their groups, a group of White students rejected working with a Black student based on their preconceived notions of the student's racial background and her support of BLM. While it was noted that the preconceived notions were in response to recent media rhetoric circulating racially motivated messages that unjustly accused Blacks for disruptions in local communities (e.g., riots), the messages negatively impacted the school-aged children who, thereby, associated feared potential disruption in their collaborative task. The scenario was left open to discuss how a teacher would handle such a situation and how such a response could impact building a safe classroom community for every learner.

The preservice teachers were given three to five prompts to respond to following each scenario. Michelle used the prompts to engage preservice teachers in self-reflection so they could assess their own racial biases and problematize ways to address potential microaggressions experienced in their own future classrooms. The preservice teachers were asked to publicly post their responses on the discussion board so others could read, reflect, and respond. The scenarios generated digital race dialogues between the

preservice teachers and Michelle, where colleagues could provide feedback to one another's shared ideas and experiences.

Michelle found that the digital race dialogues served as an opportunity for all of her preservice teachers to reflect and participate in the activity at their own discretion. Given that the scenarios were incorporated into asynchronous work, she could preview the preservice teachers' reflections and feedback to one another before the following synchronous class. During class, she reserved a short period of time to discuss broad findings and takeaways from the activity. While she would have preferred to provide even more time in class to discuss the scenarios, she found that the online aspect of the activity encouraged engagement from the participants even beyond the class discussion. If she had her preservice teachers discuss the scenarios only during class, she believed several of her preservice teachers would have "disappeared" from the discussions, given that the online setting added complexity to facilitating small and whole group conversations.

Similarly, the preservice teachers also commented on the design and facilitation of the digital race dialogues. Some of the preservice teachers noted that they appreciated the activity being presented asynchronously because it gave them time to self-reflect on the scenarios at their own discretion and draft a well thought-out, written response to communicate their feelings and thoughts. The preservice teachers had a week to complete the activity, so they could take the necessary time needed to read each other's insights and provide constructive feedback and suggestions. The requirement to review the scenario and respond before the next synchronous class also aided in preparing the preservice teachers with talking points and confidence to participate during the live class session.

In reviewing the feedback reflection on the digital race dialogues administered at the end of the semester, several of the preservice teachers commented on how the activity helped them grow professionally with new insight into their own racial biases and dispositions. For example, one preservice teacher said, "I really liked the Blackboard discussions we had about equity, biases, and cultural responsiveness." Another preservice teacher shared: "I like that we had race discussions that focused on equity in the mathematics classroom and were asked to respond to colleagues. I think the requirements of those assignments were valid and appropriate." The preservice teachers recognized how the digital race dialogues presented "opportunities to talk about race in terms of equity, community, perspectives/assumptions, and academic identities." However, not all preservice teachers saw

a benefit to engaging in conversation about race and racism. One participant shared, "I could do without the stereotypical hypotheticals that portray minorities as victims of racism in education." This comment suggests that the preservice teacher had difficulty in identifying racial inequities as depicted in the scenarios that were inspired by observed disparities in education that have been reinforced by systemic oppression that disadvantages Black and Brown children. Thus, such evidence reaffirms the need to unpack scenarios that explicitly address race and racism to encourage preservice teachers to be reflective of their implicit biases so they can change their own practice.

As for the topics addressed in the digital race dialogues, three themes emerged from the data through the lens of CRT. The first theme addressed the consciousness of race privilege. Most of the preservice teachers used the scenarios to develop awareness of how a dominant racial status results in privileging some students over others based on their cultural backgrounds and the color of their skin. Thus, there were comments from the preservice teachers in how teachers need to examine their personal biases and conceptions of race to effectively work with diverse groups of students. While the scenarios provided a context to explore how the preservice teachers would respond in particular situations where racial inequities can be observed, one White, male preservice teacher found it challenging to engage in some of the scenarios. In one post, he expressed his disregard for engaging in the activity in that the scenarios communicated the "stereotypical peddling that Whites are a bunch of racists." While he reflected on the activities as "agenda pushing" and found the "hypothetical to be kind of offensive", there were observed patterns of other preservice teachers recognizing the need for such an activity to assist in recognizing racial privilege as it exists in education and explore the consequences of racism to eradicate it from the classroom.

Another theme that reoccurred in the preservice teachers' dialogue was that of using the scenarios to recognize policies and procedures in education that marginalize groups based on race. One of the scenarios addressed zero-tolerance policies and how such policies, among others, can limit student participation and educational success. The preservice teachers were able to engage in conversations about how some policies reaffirm systemic educational inequities. Several preservice teachers began to critique policies like homework, attendance, and dress code for the ways in which they advantage students with access to resources (e.g., tutors, transportation, clothing, healthcare). Thereby, such policies position students with resources to meet the demands of such policies and result in better educational outcomes. Thus, the activity encouraged preser-

vice teachers to engage in conversations that recognize and critique social and racial issues that permeate policies and procedures in education.

The last theme that resonated across the preservice teachers' responses was the need for teachers to recognize their power and responsibility in advocating for positive learning experiences for Black and Brown children. The scenarios depicted in the digital race dialogues challenged preservice teachers' assumptions and how they planned to interact with students from diverse backgrounds in their classrooms. The preservice teachers addressed the need for teachers to welcome students' cultural backgrounds into the classroom to democratize the learning environment. For instance, one preservice teacher shared: "recognizing cultural identity and race are important to learning mathematics. All students are "math people" if they see themselves represented in the coursework, so teachers need to make this a priority when planning their lessons." Another preservice teacher said, "I think it is important in every classroom to make sure students are learning about issues like racism and that we teach students about respecting others even if they look different from oneself." Engagement in the activity enabled the preservice teachers to reflect on their commitment to change inequities and problematize ways they can become part of the solution.

Discussion

Teacher education has a responsibility to teach preservice teachers about equitable pedagogical practices that are effective for providing students with accessible and rigorous mathematics instruction to be college and career ready (AMTE, 2017; NCTM, 2000, 2014). Without explicit focus in coursework that examines race and racism within the context of the history of education and systemic inequities, preservice teachers will be ill-equipped to identify the biases that they bring into their classrooms about how and which children can learn mathematics. An inability to properly monitor such biases can impact mathematics instruction and the decisions teachers make, which can reaffirm the systemic inequities that have disenfranchised the learning of mathematics for minority students (Martin et al., 2017). Thus, teacher education must be strategic to incorporate conversations about race and equity in methods courses. Doing so can provide opportunities for preservice teachers to critically assess classroom situations and problematize ways to foster inclusivity for marginalized students.

As mathematics teacher educators, we found our study of a mathematics teacher educator's experience to be insightful to our own practice. When planning the curriculum for our methods courses, we prioritize teaching mathematics from an equity stance. Such practices inform our preservice teachers that teaching mathematics is an act of social justice, while also affirming their ability to create equitable and empowering mathematics classrooms that ensure all learners can succeed by removing social, emotional, and academic learning barriers for students. We are purposeful in selecting excerpts and articles that encourage preservice teachers to discuss equity in the mathematics classroom and how teachers can enhance their instruction with a justice-oriented lens. To promote reflection, we engage preservice teachers in conversations focused on acknowledging injustices in mathematics education, holding professionals accountable for creating equitable classrooms, and examining ways to take action to advocate on behalf of historically marginalized students. For instance, we use discussion protocols, critical review of instruction, and constructive peer feedback to assist preservice teachers with identifying their own biases in their questioning patterns. A sample activity that we have implemented asks preservice teachers to record approximately 10 minutes of a questioning sequence from their classrooms and engage in peer review and reflection. Those participating have shared that this activity allowed them to notice their bias in which students they commonly questioned to assess for understanding (e.g., students who they knew would answer correctly, students who were paying attention, students of a specific race or gender). We look to use this study and the work of others to broaden our resources and activities that elicit meaningful discourse and reflection on ways to create an antiracist mathematics classroom free from racial biases and structures that privilege some students over others.

Conclusion

Intentional efforts are being made by teacher educators to engage preservice teachers in conversations about diversity, equity, and inclusion in teacher education. A close look at one such effort by a mathematics teacher educator proved to provide insight into the benefit of using digital race dialogues to facilitate opportunities for preservice teachers to critically reflect on their own racial dispositions and biases as well as how they might respond to classroom scenarios with a justice-oriented lens. Fostering open dialogue for preservice teachers to examine new ways of thinking about race is a crucial step in helping them become aware of racism and racial injustices in education. From this awareness, preservice teachers (and others in the field) can strategize ways they can take action to create and sustain equitable learning experiences for all students.

References

Abrams, L. S., & Moio, J. A. (2009). Critical race theory and the cultural competence dilemma in social work education. Journal of Social Work Education, 45(2), 244–262.

Association of Mathematics Teacher Educators. (2017). Standards for preparing teachers of mathematics. https://amte.net/standards

Berry, R. Q., III., Ellis, M., & Hughes, S. (2014). Examining a history of failed reforms and recent stories of success: Mathematics education and black learners of mathematics in the United States. Race, Ethnicity and Education, 17(4), 540–568.

Bryant, L. C., Moss, G., & Zijdemans Boudreau, A. S. (2105). Race dialogues in teacher preparation: Beginning the conversation. International Journal of Critical Pedagogy, 6(2), 43–59.

Capper, C. A. (2015). The 20th-year anniversary of critical race theory in education: Implications for leading to eliminate racism. Educational Administration Quarterly, 51(5), 791–833.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches (4th ed). SAGE.

Davis, J., & Jett, C. C. (2019). Critical race theory in mathematics education. Routledge.

Grbich, C. (2013). Qualitative data analysis: An introduction. SAGE.

Gutiérrez, R. (2009). Embracing the inherent tensions in teaching mathematics from an equity stance. Democracy & Education, 18(3), 9–16.

Jett, C. C. (2012). Critical race theory interwoven with mathematics education research. Journal of Urban Mathematics Education, 5(1), 21–30.

Ladson-Billings, G., & Tate, W. F., IV. (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. Teachers College Record, 97(1), 47–68.

Martin, D. B., Anderson, C. R., & Shah, N. (2017). Race and mathematics education. In J. Cai (Ed.), Compendium for research in mathematics education (pp. 607–636). National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

Moldavan, A. M. (2020a). Advancing conversations of equity and inclusion in mathematics teacher education. New York Academy of Public Education Research Journal, 9(1), 20–26.

Moldavan, A. M. (2020b). Using digital education amid a global pandemic to address coursework and wellbeing. Digital Culture and Education. https://www.digitalcultureandeducation.com/reflections-on-covid19/coursework-and-wellbeing

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM). (2000). Principles and standards for school mathematics. NCTM.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM). (2014). Principles to actions: Ensuring mathematical success for all. NCTM.

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM). (2020). Catalyzing change in early childhood and elementary mathematics: Initiating critical conversations. NCTM.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative evaluation and research methods (3rd ed.). SAGE.

Saldaña, J. (2016). The coding manual for qualitative researchers (3rd ed.). SAGE.

Yin, R. K. (2014). Case study research: Design and methods (5th ed.). SAGE.

Alesia Mickle Moldavan, Ph.D. is an Assistant Professor of Mathematics Education in the Graduate School of Education at Fordham University. Her research interests include equity-based teaching practices, culturally responsive pedagogy, ethnomathematics, and digital technology in teacher preparation. Her current research looks to promote cultural awareness, elicit mathematical engagement, and support social justice and advocacy in mathematics education. Email: amoldavan@fordham.edu

Asia Franks is a Ph.D. student in Innovation in Curriculum and Instruction at Fordham University, the Math Department Chair at Packer Collegiate Institute in Brooklyn, and the Director of Curriculum and Training at Fraser's Mathematics Solutions. Passionate about improving experiences for underrepresented students in mathematics classrooms, her research interests include teacher beliefs, preservice programs, professional development, and mathematical knowledge for teaching. Email: afranks2@fordham.edu

Using Clinical Experience as a Lever of Change in Preparing Preservice Secondary Teachers to Work Effectively with English Language Learners and Multilingual Learners

Kerri Mulqueen

Abstract

NYSED believes that "all teachers are teachers of ELLs and MLLs" (NYSED, Blueprint for English Language Learner/Multilingual Learner Success), indicating a commitment to the greater than 10% of New York State students who matriculate in public schools throughout the state. This article discusses the challenges inherent in preparing a predominantly monolingual teaching force to effectively educate ELL/MLL students in a manner that is faithful to NYSED's mission to "raise the knowledge, skill, and opportunity of all people in New York" (NYSED, About, 2021) through the lens of a teacher educator. Included are findings from a pilot study requiring Adolescent Education and Physical Education majors to complete fieldwork hours in a designated public high school serving only nonnative English speakers. Discussion includes the impact of clinical placement models prioritizing ELL/MLL instruction on preservice teachers' confidence and competence when working with this important and growing student population.

Introduction

In a press release dated April 8, 2019, the New York State Education department announced its intention to increase the focus given to English Language Learners in teacher preparation programs. In it, Chancellor Betty A. Rosa was quoted, "We need to support our Multilingual and English language learners and provide them with equity and access to instruction that will help them thrive (2019)." Providing three dedicated credit hours to the study of ELL instructional needs and strategies in addition to the current required programming on language acquisition and literacy development shows a commitment on the part of New York State to keeping its covenant with all students by mandating that prospective teachers learn about the different needs of learners who are nonnative speakers. This population is significant in New York State where 272,292 students, or 10.4% of total public school enrollees statewide, are considered English Language Learners (ELL) or Multilingual Learners (MLL) (NYSED, Office of Bilingual Education, 2019).

Public schools in the five boroughs of New York City account for 62% of the enrolled English Language Learners in New York State (NYSED, ELL Demographic Slides, 2018) with 13.2% of New York City's 1.1 million public school students currently classified as ELLs (NYCDOE, Data at a Glance, 2021), making the adequate preparation of preservice teachers for working with ELL and MLL students of paramount important in the context of urban education and one which the entire K-12 community should have on the radar.

Keeping all this data in mind, the NYSED push for more consideration of the needs of nonnative speakers in our classrooms and the necessity of preparing our future educators for serving this substantial community complements the work many New York City based teacher preparation programs are already doing in our courses. However, there is another data set that needs to be examined and considered when thinking through best practices for preparing next generation teachers for working with linguistically diverse students.

The National Center for Education Statistics reports that 79% of K-12 teachers nationwide are classified as white and 9% Hispanic or Latinx, 7% black, and 2% Asian (NCES, 2018). In New York City, these numbers are slightly less stark with a reported 58.6% of teachers classified as white and 14.4% classified as Hispanic or Latinx, 19.6% black and 5.9% Asian (New York City Independent Budget Office, 2014). This is eye opening when we note that as much as 64.5% of designated ELL students in New York State are native Spanish speakers and 9% are native Chinese speakers (NYSED, Office of Bilingual Education, 2019). The New York City disparity may seem palatable when compared to the nationwide disparity but it is nonetheless significant, especially considering that Hispanic or Latinx students make up the largest demographic in racial breakdowns of New York City public school students at 41% compared to 15% white, 26% black and 16% Asian students (New York City Council, 2019).

2016 data from the US Department of Education shows that while the teaching force is slowly diversifying, it is not doing so at the rate of the public school student population. While over 50% of American public school students, and 85% of New York City public school students, are nonwhite, three quarters of those enrolled in higher education teacher preparation programs are white (Department of Education, 2016). Even with modest gains in the last decade showing

white teacher dominance in public schools nationwide declining from 84% to 80% (NCES, 2018), the next wave of teachers being molded in teacher education programs is still likely to have marked cultural and linguistic disconnects from the K-12 students populating their public school classrooms.

These statistics indicate that a majority of the adolescent education and physical education majors sitting in my Adolescent Language and Literacy course each semester are graduating into classrooms where they will be tasked with developing the academic literacy of and adequately addressing content area educational objectives for a significant population of English Language Learners when they arrive as first year teachers in New York State and New York City public schools. With this future in mind, I considered how I might expand not only their skillset around effective instructional strategies for ELL students but how I might help them to also address key dispositional concerns such as feeling confident when working with and serving the needs of students from various linguistic backgrounds. My hypothesis was that preservice teachers coming from monolingual backgrounds, who were themselves largely educated in predominantly suburban, majority white schools could lack confidence in their ability to be agents of change for English Language Learners and I considered whether the clinical placement experience woven into their teacher preparation coursework could become a lever of change.

Literature Review

In June 2021, Ileanna Najarro wrote for Education Week about the urgent need for post COVID-19 pandemic support for English Language Learners as they return to traditional schooling. She reminded readers that time outside of the school building, taking classes remotely from home, robbed students of the casual conversations and immersive experience that help with gaining language proficiency in a traditional school setting. However, Najarro advised educators to also consider "that being immersed in their families' languages and cultures also offered some potential benefits to this group" as the research on best practices for ELL instruction consistently shows that students who have good foundational skills in their native language fare best as they work towards acquiring one or more additional languages. Bilingual education expert Ofelia Garcia has argued that educators need to move beyond the idea of subtractive or additive bilingualism to "break the cycle of power" (145) and instead encourage recursive and dynamic bilingualism that encourages interplay between a student's native language and the one they are acquiring, allowing students to adopt what she terms "translanguaging" in order "to

function effectively, to educate, and become educated" (148). Najarro and Garcia both offer updated best thinking and practices around ELL/MLL instruction, inviting plurality into the classroom and combining literacy instruction alongside two way cultural diffusion.

The rapidly expanding public school population of nonnative English speakers makes it incumbent upon schools of education to recognize the need to train those entering the field "to meet these students' complex academic and social needs" and "take radical steps toward overhauling the status quo and abandoning any ineffective business-as-usual practices by integrating coherence and integration courses, and intensive and extensively supervised clinical work blended with coursework" (Nguyen, Banken, Hakim-Butt, and Zwiep, 2013). The urgency of altering practices in teacher preparation programs to meet the needs of language learners is underscored not just by the continued growth of the ELL/MLL population in public schools but by the fact that "language minority students' low academic achievement and high dropout rates across U.S. secondary schools" (Rubinstein-Avila, 187) are a chronic concern. It has been established that teacher knowledge and quality are directly correlated to student achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2000) and thus, are a reliable lever for improving outcomes for students. Considering that the preservice period is when burgeoning educators are able to devote considerable time and attention to new information and learning new practices which they can use to the benefit of their future students, it is a ripe place within the educational pipeline to institute changes designed to prepare regular classroom teachers to effectively work with ELLs (Cartiera, 2006, p. 30). Many methods for instituting needed changes have been suggested by researchers in the field of ELL instruction, including second language requirements for teachers in training, targeted coursework on evidence based best practices for ELL instruction, and the use of targeted fieldwork. When incorporating fieldwork into programs of study in order to address the needs of ELLs, it is useful to have procedures in place to monitor the understanding and implementation of best practices (Cartiera, 2006, p.28).

Education majors enrolled in programs of study for prospective secondary teachers are often at a disadvantage when compared to their peers planning to work with younger children because "most school programs designed to scaffold the linguistic and academic needs of ELLs are found at the elementary level… Consequently, elementary teachers are likely to be better prepared than their secondary colleagues" (Rubinstein-Avila, 2014, p.187). This can cause additional stress for preservice secondary teachers for whom the focus of their preparation has been on developing pedagogical

strategies designed to deliver information and build skills within a single content area, leaving them to "find the task of placing language at the forefront of instruction rather daunting" (Rubinstein-Avila, 2014, p.187). Daunting as it may be, it is critical that teachers of ELL/MLL students do so because there is a demand on students, regardless of native language, to master increasingly complicated language skills in order to do well in middle and school school and to have a chance at higher education (Valdes, 2004). In seeking ways to increase engagement and achievement with secondary ELL students, it is imperative that teachers establish empathy for the experience of their students and some understanding of the process of gaining fluency in a second language. Additionally, "secondary teachers can implement many subtle instructional changes that are likely to encourage ELLs' interactions (building on their oral language proficiency) with peers and active participation in class" (Rubinstein-Avila, 2014, p.190). In order to accomplish these ends, teachers in training will need exposure to both the theories around how multilingualism is best accomplished as well as regular opportunities to watch master practitioners at work and to get to know ELL/MLL students well enough to gain empathy for and insight into their experiences. Teacher educators are called to prioritize this because:

ELLs/MLLs have immense potential that needs to be developed. The role of education is to grow this potential and assist these students in becoming fully multilingual, intercultural, and literate students who enjoy participating in rigorous academic activity. The quality of our democracy, our society and our world relies on our providing top quality education for the expanding populations of ELLs/MLLs in our schools (Walqui, 2015).

Research Question

Can clinical experience with English Language Learners impact preservice teachers' confidence regarding their ability to effectively teach English Language Learners?

The Study

I designed a pilot study to see if the preservice teachers in my course experience apprehension regarding their preparation to educate students with additional literacy needs due to their status as nonnative English speakers and whether an immersive experience in an environment that prioritizes English Language Learners and Multi Language Learners could help preservice teachers to develop greater confidence working with this important population of students.

As a first step, I identified local public schools serving grades 7-12 that would provide my students with significant experience observing the instruction of and working closely with nonnative speakers. One such school was English Language Learners and International Support (ELLIS) Prep. ELLIS is a member of the Internationals Network for Public Schools, an organization that names as its mission "to provide quality education for recently arrived immigrants by growing and sustaining a strong national network of innovative International High Schools, while broadening our impact by sharing proven best practices and influencing policy for English learners" (Internationals Network, About, 2021). As such, ELLIS serves a student body consisting entirely of newcomer immigrants. Their enrollment is just over 300 students, coming from 20 different countries, speaking more than 10 different languages. For all students, English is at least their second (and possibly third or fourth) language.

Using SurveyMonkey to distribute an online pre and post fieldwork survey, I collected data from two groups of preservice teachers made up of a mix of adolescent education majors and physical education majors, all seeking New York State certification in grades 7-12. Surveys were collected in the fall 2018 semester and again in the spring 2019 semester. Thirty-five students completed this survey before and after completing fieldwork at ELLIS Prep where they spent ten hours in classrooms with exclusively ELL/MLL students. Of the 35 college students completing the survey, 13 were sophomores, 13 juniors, and 9 seniors. None had reached their student teaching practicum experience at the time they answered the survey but all had completed at least some clinical fieldwork, with the majority (52%) having completed more than thirty hours in the field. The critical question asked of these respondents both prior to and again after completing ten hours of fieldwork at ELLIS Prep was "How would you describe your attitude towards working with English Language Learners?"

Significant responses

In asking to self-report about attitudes prior to beginning the assigned fieldwork for the course, 17.65% of respondents said they would be "very confident" working with English Language Learners and an additional 29.41% said they would feel "somewhat confident". 29.41% of respondents said they would be "neither confident nor unconfident" while 20.59% reported feeling "somewhat anxious or apprehensive". The final 2.94% (representing one respondent) self assessed as "very anxious or apprehensive." The responses indicated that anxiety or apprehension was present in a significant proportion of the preservice teachers

surveyed when they considered their feelings about teaching English Language Learners.

The post fieldwork survey on the same question regarding confidence in working with English Language Learners returned significant changes in the preservice teachers' self assessments. The "very confident" percentage for working with ELL students increased to 26.47% and the "somewhat confident" percentage rose to 52.94%. Rounding out the group, 5.88% of respondents post-fieldwork assessed themselves as "neither confident nor unconfident", the "somewhat anxious or apprehensive" group declined to 8.82% and the "very anxious or apprehensive" group remained the same at 2.94%.
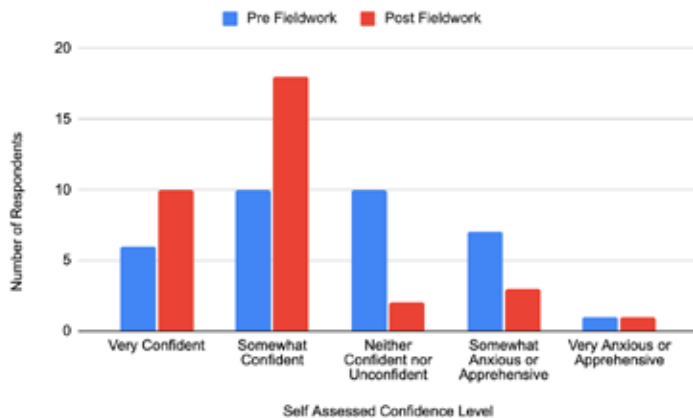
Discussion

These results revealed an overall reduction in apprehension or anxiety and an increase in overall confidence among respondents with regard to self assessed confidence in working with English Language Learners in the classroom. For the majority of respondents, exposure to exclusively immigrant and nonnative English speaking high school students seems to have moved the needle on self assessment regarding their readiness for classroom practice. Prior to the fieldwork experience, 16 of the preservice teachers, or 47.06%, identified themselves as either Very Confident or Somewhat Confident when it came to working with English Language Learners, but after the fieldwork experience, that number climbed to 28 or 82.35%. Also significantly, the number of students who reported feeling Somewhat or Very Anxious about working with ELLs declined from eight (23.53%) to four (11.76%). Taken as a whole, these responses suggest that my hypothesis that the adolescent education and physical education majors would increase in confidence regarding working with English Language Learners after spending targeted time in the field observing and supporting ELL/MLL instruction seems to have been borne out.

The data shows that while there was less anxiety about ELL instruction from the preservice teachers after completing fieldwork, there was still some. I would argue that this reflects a more informed perspective in the respondents. The experience of working with an entirely ELL population may have opened their eyes to the opportunities and challenges present in such a setting and possibly even raised an awareness of the hard work and expanded skill set this work demands of teachers; while that awareness may provoke anxiety in some preservice teachers, it is arguably a necessary step in gaining the professional perspective needed to determine what school setting is a good fit for their future career.

Implications

While the results from this pilot study were promising, further research is needed to broaden the scope of the project. Future plans include using a control group of preservice teachers studying the same content who are not sent for fieldwork at an ELL serving institution but rather to a mainstream public New York City middle school and then comparing their post fieldwork self assessments with those of the variable group completing fieldwork at ELLIS Prep.

The data collected from this pilot study suggest that preservice teachers, and particularly those planning to begin their careers in New York City middle and high schools, are well served by having clinical experiences in schools serving a high percentage of English Language Learners. Clinical experience in this vein allows burgeoning educators to move beyond the college classroom lessons about best practices when working with ELL/MLL students and gain practical experience observing the techniques employed by ELL specialists in the field while also logging classroom time in the company of ELL students, a recipe for increased knowledge and confidence. Targeted fieldwork in ELL serving schools provides an introduction to the realities of meeting the linguistic needs of all students in an urban classroom setting. According to the National Education Association (2020), English Language Learners are the fastest growing student population in today's public schools and 25% of the national public school student body is expected to be classified as ELL learners, meaning they are either foreign born or are American born but reside in non English speaking households, by the year 2025. With this in mind, it is critical that teacher education programs become intentional about ensuring their graduates are adequately prepared to meet the demand and fulfill New York's promise to educate all of its students at a high level.

Works Cited

Cartiera, Maria Rose. "Addressing the Literacy Underachievement of Adolescent English Language Learners: A Call for Teacher Preparation and Proficiency Reform." New England Reading Association Journal, vol. 42, no. 1, 2006, pp. 26–32.

Garcia, Ofelia. "Ch. 8: Education, Multilingualism, and Translanguaging in the 21st Century ." Social Justice through Multilingual Education, edited by Tove Skutnabb-Kangas , Multilingual Matters, 2009, pp. 140–158.

Navarro, Ileana. "English Learners May Need More Support This Fall. But That Doesn't Mean They'Re Behind." Education Week, 22 June 2021.

Nguyen, Huong Tran, et al. "Enhancing Faculty's Preparation of Prospective Secondary Teacher Candidates for Instructing English Language Learners." International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, vol. 25, no. 3, 2013, pp. 305–315.

Rubinstein-Avila, Eliane, and En Hye Lee. "Secondary Teachers and English Language Learners (ELLs): Attitudes, Preparation and Implications." The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas, vol. 87, no. 5, 2014, pp. 187–191., doi:10.1080/00098655.2014.910162.

Valdés, Guadalupe. "Between Support and Marginalisation: The Development of Academic Language in Linguistic Minority Children." Bilingualism and Language Pedagogy, 2004, pp. 10–40., doi:10.21832/9781853597565-002.

Walqui, Aida. New York State Education Department, Office of Bilingual Education and World Languages. (2015). Quality Education for English Language Learners/Multilanguage Learners: Why We Need It and How We Can Achieve It. http://www.nysed.gov/common/nysed/files/programs/bilingual-ed/quality_education_for_ells-mlls.pdf

English Language Learners Toolkit. National Education Association. Retrieved May 8, 2021 from https://www.nea.org/resource-library/english-language-learners

New York State Department of Education. (2018). NYSED ELL demographics slides. file:///C:/Users/user/Downloads/nyseslat-2018-ell-demographic-slides%20(1).pdf

DOE Data at a Glance. (n.d.). Retrieved June 8, 2021, from https://www.schools.nyc.gov/about-us/reports/doe-data-at-a-glance

New York City Council. (2019). School Diversity in NYC. Retrieved January 20, 2021, from https://council.nyc.gov/data/school-diversity-in-nyc/

National Center for Educational Statistics. Characteristics of School Teachers. (2021) Retrieved June 12, 2021 from:https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator/clr

United States Department of Education. The State of Racial Diversity in the Educator Workforce. (2016). Retrieved June 12, 2021 from:
https://www2.ed.gov/rschstat/eval/highered/racial-diversity/state-racial-diversity-workforce.pdf

New York State Education Department. (2019). New York State Multilingual Learner/English Language Learner (MLL/ELL) Data Report: NYS MLL/ELL Data Report 2018-2019. Retrieved June 13, 2021 from: (http://www.nysed.gov/common/nysed/files/programs/bilingual-ed/nysed_ell_mll_data-report_2018-2019-a.pdf).

New York City Independent Budget Office. (2014). Demographics and Work Experience: A Statistical Portrait of New York City's School Teachers.
Retrieved June 13, 2021 from:https://ibo.nyc.ny.us/iboreports/2014teacherdemographics.pdf

New York State Education Department. The State University of New York. Office of Bilingual Education and World Languages. Blueprint for English Language Learner/Multilingual Learner Success.
Retrieved July 3, 2021 from: http://www.nysed.gov/common/nysed/files/nys-blueprint-for-ell-success.pdf

Kerri Mulqueen is an Assistant Professor of Education at Manhattan College. Her work with students and her scholarly research focuses on the integration of culturally responsive and sustaining pedagogies as well as integrating fieldwork as a central component for developing preservice teacher dispositions.

Reading Research for the School Administrator: Best Practices for General Education, Special Education (SWD), English Language Learner (ELL), and the ELL SWD.

Jennifer Lopez, Stony Brook University

ABSTRACT

Reading instruction is at the forefront of many administrator's minds when planning for instruction and the success of their students. This paper is a sampling of what administrators need to know about the current research on best practices in reading instruction. It also looked at best practices for subsets of populations, including; special education students (SWD), English language learners (ELL), and the interface of ELL SWDs. Many school districts struggle to meet the unique needs of these populations. It gives a sampling of interventions and strategies for each population, recommendations for teacher professional development, and explores the use of personnel for the administrator. Administrators will be armed with information and where to look for more information that will serve as a foundation for improving services for these subsets of the school population.

Conceptual Rationale

The instruction of reading is at the forefront of many administrator's minds as they plan for their schools instructionally. It is the basis of all other academic endeavors and predicts future academic success for students. Students with low proficiency in reading have greater academic deficits over the course of their academic years and contribute to increased high school dropout rates (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2002) and increased participation in delinquency (Center on Crime Communities and Culture, 1997). Students who struggled with reading in the early grades remain impaired in their reading abilities for their entire school careers (Francis, 1996). This is of importance to school administrators as educational leaders because student achievement is directly linked to school report cards and the evaluation of a school's efficacy and ultimately the success of the school leader. It is important that administrators keep abreast of the current research available in what is considered to be best practices in delivering reading instruction.

The Long Island Index (Rauch Foundation) found that in 2001, 15.3 percent of students were second language learners and that by 2013, this rose to 26.3 percent of students on Long Island, which represents an increase of 71% and continues to increase to date. The progress of this growing subset of students directly influences the school report cards of many districts; educating these students o the greatest extent possible is important for administrators to consider.

Another subset of the school population of concern to the school administrator is those with disabilities. Districts are faced with limited funding, and as shown by the research, special education students are making minimal progress in the traditional special education programs and services delivered, which in 6 years can make just .8 of a standard deviation of a difference in testing (Hanushek, 1998).

Another growing subset of the school population of concern to the school administrator are ELLs are that are often over-or under-identified for special education services, which is referred to as "disproportionality" (National Education Association, 2007).

School leaders are asked to adhere to The Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (National Policy Board for Educational Administration [NPBEA], 2015, pp. 9-18). By lending importance to the subject of this study, school leaders are addressing the following standards:

PSEL Standard 1: Mission, Vision, and Core Values: Effective educational leaders develop, advocate, and enact a shared mission

PSEL Standard 2: Ethics and Professional Norms: Educational leaders act ethically and according to professional norms to promote each student's academic success and well-being.

PSEL Standard 3: Equity and Cultural Responsiveness: Effective educational leaders strive for equity of educational opportunity and culturally responsive practices to promote each student's academic success and well-being.

PSEL Standard 4: Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment: Effective educational leaders develop and support intellectually rigorous and coherent systems of curriculum, instruction, and assessment to promote each student's academic success and well-being.

PSEL Standard 5: Community of Care and Support for Students: Effective educational leaders cultivate an inclusive, caring, and supportive school community that promotes the academic success and well-being of each student.

PSEL Standard 6: Professional Capacity of School Personnel: Effective educational leaders develop the professional capacity and practice of school personnel to promote each student's academic success and well-being.

PSEL Standard 7: Professional Community for

Teachers and Staff: Effective educational leaders foster a professional community of teachers and other professional staff to promote each student's academic success and well-being.

PSEL Standard 8: Meaningful Engagement of Families and Community: Effective educational leaders engage families and the community in meaningful, reciprocal, and mutually beneficial ways to promote each student's academic success and well-being.

PSEL Standard 9: Operations and Management: Effective educational leaders manage school operations and resources to promote each student's academic success and well-being.

PSEL Standard 10: School Improvement: Effective educational leaders act as agents of continuous improvement to promote each student's academic success and well-being.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study.

Research Question One

How did the research literature describe best practices in reading instruction?

Research Question Two

How did the research literature describe the different learning needs in reading among students with disabilities and bilingual students?

Research Question Three

How did the literature describe the best instructional practices for students with disabilities and bilingual students?

REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE

Effective Reading Instruction

There has been considerable debate in education about the best way to deliver reading instruction. The National Panel of Reading in 2000 was constructed of experts in the field and asked to conduct a scientific and evidence-based review of research literature on the essential components of reading instruction needed for successful instruction of reading in schools. This panel of experts applied critical analysis to the research they collected and sought to identify key components of reading instruction as identified by the research and its successful role in instruction. The report published in 2000 identified the following as critical areas to address in the instruction of reading; phonemic awareness, phonics skills, fluency, and comprehension in order to ensure the greatest success and achievement for students (NICHD, 2000).

Phonemic awareness refers to a student's ability to manipulate the smallest units of sound in spoken speech. The ability to manipulate phonemes by iso-

lating a sound, identifying the common phoneme in a group of words, categorization of phonemes, blending, segmentation, and deletion of phonemes were essential skills identified in the National Reading Panel Report (2000). The instruction of phonemic awareness skills was found to have a moderate effect on reading skills immediately but found to have a greater effect on later performance on standardized testing and comprehension of reading (NICHD, 2000). When this instruction is provided for students in pre-kindergarten with age-appropriate and engaging presentations, phonemic awareness skills were found to be the most effective in later reading instruction. Another interesting finding of the Panel Report was that instruction in smaller groups of these skills was substantially more successful than a whole group or individual instruction for preschoolers (NICHD, 2000).

Phonics Skills is the practice of instructing students to learn the alphabetic system, which refers to the letter-sound correspondences and spelling patterns and learning how to apply this knowledge in their reading (NICHD, 2000). Systematic phonics instruction is a way of teaching reading that stresses the acquisition of letter-sound correspondences and their use in reading and spelling words (2000). The Reading Panel report found that systematic instruction of phonics substantially improved reading skills and that this delivery of the systematic approach was equal whether delivered individually, in a small group, or large group instruction (NICHD, 2000). It also reported that this was the greatest success for students in grades K-6 (NICHD, 2000). The National Reading Panel also identified that systematic presentation and approach to this instruction of spelling principles also adds to the ability to read and later write effectively (NICHD, 2000).

Fluency refers to the ability to read words with speed, accuracy, and ease (NICHD, 2000). The Reading Panel Report indicated that guided oral reading, where a student reads aloud to a parent, teacher, or adult with gentle corrective feedback reading helped students across a wide range of grade levels to learn to recognize new words, helped them to read accurately and easily, and helped them to comprehend what they read more effectively (NICHD, 2000).

Comprehension refers to the student's understanding of reading materials. The Panel reviewed studies of three areas that were important in the instruction of reading comprehension: vocabulary development, text comprehension instruction, and teacher preparation and comprehension strategies instruction (NICHD, 2000). The panel identified that vocabulary should be explicitly taught outside of reading materials and most successful when embedded in reading materials (NICHD, 2000). They reported that the key to success with learning new

vocabulary was multiple exposures to new words, and the ability to use newly acquired vocabulary is what leads to better reading comprehension instruction (NICHD, 2000). They also noted that instruction in specific strategies to recall and summarize information read leads to greater comprehension of reading materials (NICHD, 2000). They found that teachers needed to be taught to teach these strategies so they may teach implicitly and with efficacy to students as they read (NICHD, 2000). The report went on to discuss the professional development of teachers and found that the most effective ways to deliver teacher training have yet to be identified and researched (NICHD, 2000). The panel did find that teacher training of new and established teachers was crucial to ensuring instruction to students was done most effectively (NICHD, 2000).

Grades K-3 Intervention

Hatcher et al. identified in their 1994 study a "phonological link hypothesis" in which the comprehensive instruction of reading with phonetic intervention is key to early reading success. They studied the results of reading instruction with groups of 7-year-old children; one group was instructed with phonetic intervention, a second group with "reading alone " instruction, the third group with combined phonetic and reading intervention, and a fourth control group that received the same curriculum used in the school to teach reading. The group of students that received the combined phonetic and reading intervention fared the best advances in their reading skills and maintained the accelerated gains in the years to follow. This supported their "phonological link hypothesis" (Hatcher et al., 1994).

Bryant & Bradley in 1987 studied the effects of different methods of reading instruction in 65 first-grade students. They took four groups and, in addition to reading instruction added: one that added only phonetic instruction and sound categorization; the second group added phonetic instruction, sound categorization, and semantic instruction of words; the third group added only the sematic instruction of words, and the fourth group as a control group received straight instruction (Bryant & Bradley, 1987). Their findings revealed that the second group of students were ahead of students in reading instruction and an average of 8-10 months, and that group one was only four months ahead instructionally. In addition, four years later, group two was still ahead instructionally over the other groups (Bryant & Bradley, 1987). Thus, making a great case for adding these components to reading instruction.

Cunningham took two groups of Kindergarten

and first-grade students; one group received the skill and drill of phonetic instruction, and a second group received what they called a "Meta-Level Instruction" where they received phonetic instruction embedded in their reading lessons and emphasized a link between the phonics and awareness in their reading in addition to general instruction. The third group received the general instruction of reading stories and discussing them with the teacher. The second group of readers outperformed the other groups by a small amount immediately but in the second grade were substantially more ahead of their peers in the other groups in their attainment of reading abilities in both decoding and comprehension. Thus, making the argument of systematic and meaningful instruction of reading and phonemic awareness crucial for the overall success of instruction (Cunningham, 1990).

In summary, for younger students, grades K-3, the research supported a combined program of a systematically presented phonetic intervention coupled with meaningful reading instruction is what is best for student's achievement in reading.

Grades 4-12 Intervention

Reading growth is often divided into two broad stages of "learning to read" and "reading to learn" ("Learning to Read, Reading to Learn," 1996). This is why it is important for school leaders to recognize the shift of reading instruction for these grades is important to embed in academic instruction in subject matters that lead to greater academic achievement (Torgesen et al. 2007). The research results differ for younger students and find an emphasis on phonetic instruction and reading at this level was not as successful as when taught in a more integrated manner with studies of vocabulary and academic content for older children (Torgesen et al. 2007).

Consider the research of Gillon & Dodd in 1995 that investigated the effects of training phonological, semantic, and syntactic processing skills in spoken language on reading ability. They found that the students' ages 10-12 following participation in the 12-hour phonological skills program enhanced their skills by almost 15 months when the program was implemented over a three-month period. These participants had limited growth in the two years prior to the program in reading and oral skills. However, the study found that the combination of the phonological and semantic-syntactic skills enhanced their comprehension of reading materials, thus indicating that both are important in the instruction of reading for students to experience the most effective growth. They also noted that the greater the deficit was in oral language, the less they benefitted from the latter semantic and syntactic skill develop-

ment. Thus, making an argument for oral discussion an important part of reading instruction for students (Gillon & Dodd, 1995)

The literature on the intervention of older readers who struggled in reading (Edmonds et al., 2009) reported that the best intervention occurred when explicit instruction is provided in word study strategies to decode words, paired with strategies to derive meanings of unknown words, and instruction in comprehension strategies. Instruction for fluency in paired reading with corrective feedback secured the greatest outcomes for students (Hattie & Timeperly 2007).

In 2007, The Center for Instruction published a report on the instruction of reading for adolescents in grades 4-12 titled Academic Literacy Instruction for Adolescents, a Guidance Document from the Center on Instruction (Toregenson et al. 2007). This meta-analysis of research found that the most effective ways to intervene with this population were to provide; explicit instruction in reading comprehension embedded in the content and reading materials, increase the amount and quality of open, sustained discussion of reading content, set and maintain high standards for text, conversation, questions, and vocabulary, increase students' motivation and engagement with reading, teach essential content knowledge so that all students master critical concepts. This is a valuable document for administrators that make recommendations and advice for educational leaders for how to make this possible in instruction and research examples of implementation in grades 4-12. The document goes on to highlight states with effective implementation of this guidance and resources for implementation.

Another document that administrators will find useful in the instruction of reading for older students is entitled Reading Next (Biancarosa & Snow, 2006) which identifies 15 "elements of effective adolescent literacy programs," eight of these have instructional recommendations for content-area teachers. This research is of importance to consider as the content area teacher can prove to be a valuable asset in teaching adolescents to read; professional development will be crucial as typically secondary school teachers are not trained in these models in their teacher preparation programs.

In sum, the reading intervention for older students showed greater achievement when the instruction is embedded within reading materials. When students studied the alphabetic principle alone versus students who studied phonetic strategies within the words they encountered in the reading and absorbed content reading comprehension strategies as well as fluency strategies made the best reading achievement.

Struggling and Disabled Readers

The identification of struggling and disabled readers is critical at the early stages of reading in order to be able to intervene in reading instruction for these populations effectively. Students with low proficiency in reading lead to having greater academic deficits over the course of their academic years and contribute to increased high school dropout rates (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2002) and increased participation in delinquency (Center on Crime Communities and Culture, 1997). Students who struggle with reading in the early grades remain impaired in their reading abilities for their entire school careers (Francis, 1996). This makes it critical for educators to intervene at the earliest stages. A longitudinal study of kindergarten students who struggled to read in Kindergarten and were considered "poor readers" found six years later, they still remained poor readers and 'nothing in their school experience altered this situation' (p. 357), making the argument stronger for specific intervention at earlier stages (Butler et al., 1985).

Many have referred to in the literature the differences in reading difficulties and reading disability. Dyslexia (reading disability) refers to having a significant inability to decode words, specifically difficulties in the phonetic or orthographic processing of words that come from disruptions or deficits in the neural networks of the brains involved in reading skills (Francis et, al., 1996). These are difficulties identified in the brain as inefficient or defective and require more intense intervention to be successful in reading (Francis et, al., 1996).

Functional Magnet resonance imaging (FMRI's) taken of children and adults with reading disabilities show brain structural and functional differences when compared to the FMRI's of typical readers, the children who participated in the FMRI's had years of reading difficulties already experienced, and it is hard to separate whether the structural difficulties are a result of the years of inadequate reading or present prior to the difficulties (Norton et al., 2015). They go on to report that when these students are compared to other students based on ability, that there are structural and activation differences that suggest a deficit in the underlying process that is causal in association with dyslexia and not a result of reading difficulty (Norton et al., 2015). One very promising finding that is presented by Norton (2015) points out that preschool students who struggle with pre-reading skills needed for later successful reading can be identified earlier. These skills are identified as Rapid Automatic Naming (RAN) (Name, as quickly as possible, a ten × five array of five randomly repeated objects, colors, letters, or numbers) and phonemic awareness (Norton et al., 2015). These skills can be

identified in preschool with simple subtests of psychological assessment tools to identify deficits in these areas, and these students can be followed to determine whether they will struggle with reading or not and intervened at an earlier age. This is of great implication for early assessment and intervention of reading difficulties and disabilities (Norton et al., 2015).

The literature was abundant in the early intervention of reading difficulties, and disorders recommended interventions in the systematic instruction of reading in the areas of phonemic awareness, phonics skills, fluency, and comprehension as indicated by the National Panel on Reading (NICHD, 2000) is the best way to intervene with the struggling or disabled reader (Blachman et al., 2004; Denton et al., 2006). These researchers emphasized "the systematic and explicit teaching" of these skills to struggling and reading disordered students(Edmonds et al., 2009) and according to (Scammacca et. al., 2007) for students with disabilities.

In sum, the literature agreed that more intensive explicit and systematic instruction to disabled readers in the key areas of reading is what is needed for the success of this subset in reading, with an emphasis on more explicit methods that are scientifically based and thoughtfully presented in a sequential manner.

English Language Learners

English Language Learners (ELL) represents a growing population of students in our nation's schools. In 1979, there were 6 million language-minority students; by 1999, this increased to over 14 million students. ELLs are not doing well academically, and only 18.7% of English-language learners scored above the state-established norm for reading comprehension (Kindler, 2002)

The research literature agreed that children learning a second language transfer skills in their primary language (L1) to a second language (L2). The stronger the L1 is, the greater the transfer to L2 (Cummins 2000). It is widely agreed that Bilingual Education is the best way to deliver services to ELL youngsters. According to Cummins, ELLs develop basic interpersonal (BICS) proficiency in a target language in 2-3 years, and he further asserts that it takes 5-7 years more to develop the Cognitive Academic Proficiency (CALP) in a target language needed to interact with academics in school effectively (Cummins, 1984). Research done in this area supports the need to develop stronger English language proficiency is to create programs that address the L1 of students early in instruction to strengthen the L1 for transfer to L2 is more effective than English-only programs (Escamilla, 2009). The findings of Fung et al. supported the point

of using the native language in improving outcomes for ELLs in reading (2003). Studies also indicated that investing in instruction in the native language does not encumber or "slow down" attainment of skills in English (Cummins, 2000). In their research, Fung et al. also supported the use of the native language in improving outcomes for ELLs in reading (2003).

ELL and Reading instruction

In 2006, August & Shanahan (2006) published a report titled; Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth. This panel was tasked with evaluating the research on English language learners and reading to identify the most effective ways that emerged in current research to instruct this population in reading. The Panel found that instruction that included the key instructional components of reading as identified by the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension had clear benefits for language-minority students. They cautioned that this needs to be done in a highly individualized way for English Language Learners that includes instructional supports and best practices in teaching English as a Second Language (ESL). For example, they reported that younger Spanish-speaking students will have more success when instructed more intensely with particular phonemes and combinations of phonemes in the target language that do not exist in the native language (2006). The panel also identified that oral proficiency in the target language was overlooked, they stressed that the relationship of oral proficiency in the target language is directly linked to the success of reading and writing in the target language (August & Shanahan, 2006). The explicit instruction of English vocabulary knowledge, listening comprehension, syntactic skills, and the ability to handle the metalinguistic aspects of language (handling meanings of words) positively affected the development of English reading and writing proficiency (August & Shanahan 2006). Goldenberg, in his article, talked about the need for teachers to take into account the language proficiencies of their students in their planning for instruction and made valuable insights for educators to consider when making these associations (2008).

Escamilla noted in her review of the Panel Report that information in the report is often contradictory. While they do caution that the needs of the ELL population must be taken into account, they later state that they did not have enough evidence to perform a true meta-analysis for each component to discount that the same interventions for monolingual English students met with success for Ells. There was sufficient evidence in the

literature and agreement that teachers must modify instruction to take into account students' levels of proficiency in English (Goldenberg, 2008). When teachers take into account the cultural and linguistic differences of their students, they are not the same method of instruction or strategy being used for monolingual students (Escamilla 2009). Critics pointed out that this distinction not made can mislead educators and school leaders to misunderstand the findings of the panel and cause them to think that the same methods work for all, which they go on to illustrate is clearly stated in the panel report (Escamilla 2009, Pray & Jiménez, 2009).

Another criticism of the Panel is that the report downplayed the link between socio-cultural factors and achievement (Escamilla 2009, Cummins 2007). The Panel report (August & Shanahan 2006) described socio-cultural factors as not researched enough to consider their effect on the interaction of reading to language minority students. It directly stated, "qualitative research can only make a hypothesis about instruction since they do not manipulate the instruction" (August & Shanahan 2006, p. 256,). Escamilla made reference to an impressive amount of qualitative research that shows a clear relationship between these factors that cannot be ignored (2009). The research my be qualitative and harder to vet through an evidenced-based meta-analysis of research but contained valuable insights and instructional recommendations to make in addressing this population effectively (Escamilla, 2009). Researchers also agree that qualitative research was misrepresented in the Panel report and dismissed as not being of value (August & Shanahan 2006). Cummins asserted that the observations made in qualitative research that form a hypothesis in need of further research and contributed to theories that guided practice. Cummins further asserted that these types of studies can prove or disprove a hypothesis in practice (2007).

A valuable resource for administrators is a book entitled "The Best for Our Children: Critical Perspectives on Literacy for Latino Students. The editors showcased highly esteemed professionals in the academic research arena that showcased their qualitative research and work with the ELL population and highlighted successful implementation in their classrooms and schools. It presented different classrooms and teachers and gave valuable insights into the qualitative research available in the field. This is a very good resource and essential reading for all school administrators with an ELL population in their schools (Reyes & Halcon 2001).

The Panel Report discussed the attitudes and perceptions of ELLs that need to be considered when planning instruction for this population (August & Shanahan 2006). They asserted that membership in a low-status minority group can lead to lower self-esteem and impact self-concept motivation and learning that was found to have a negative effect on reading achievement (August & Shanahan 2006). The report made note that the perceptions and beliefs of teachers about ELLs and their abilities impacted teaching and cited a study that reported; "teachers blamed the English language learners' difficulty with reading skills on their cultural and language backgrounds, rather than on teaching methods, materials, and teacher assumptions" (August & Shanahan 2006, p.258). Escamilla asserts that only a few studies done on teachers' perceptions were reviewed, but it was clear that most teachers have a deficit view of language minority children, and this needs to be addressed and reversed for ELLs to flourish (2009).

The Panel Report stated that the parents and families of language minority students were willing to support and wanted their children to succeed academically, but schools did not take advantage of this adequately to support their student's learning (August & Shanahan 2006). School Administrators need to be cognizant of these factors and need to address this explicitly in their instructional planning as parents and homes can be of great support to their instructional programs. Administrators must capitalize on support from parents. Flor- Ada and Zubizaretta showcased their successes in partnering with parents that encouraged dialogue and communication in the community and fostered greater support of their children in attainment of greater skills. They outlined their classroom-based approach and a family literacy program that worked directly with parents ensured greater outcomes for all (in Reyes & Halcon, 2001).

The greatest criticism of the 2006 report was that the authors took a pessimistic and deficit lens when looking at the ELLs and only looked at them through the monolingual English lens (Escamilla 2009, Pray & Jiménez, 2009). Both cautioned that there is a rich background of language and culture that students possessed and they should be regarded as valuable and strengths of the students, especially because a great number of studies that indicated that the development of the L1 leads o greater success in the L2 (Escamilla 2009, Pray & Jiménez, 2009).

ELL's and Special Education

The term "bilingual special education" continues to evolve. While there is much research in the acquisition of a second language and in teaching strategies with second language learners, research in Bilingual Special Education is minimal; this is a growing area

of need. Baca & Cervantes defined it as the use of students' home utilizing the native language and culture, along with English, of the students in an individually designed educational program of instruction for students who have been recommended for special education classrooms (2003)

The panel report for ELL's addressed this subject in short, only a small number of studies were reviewed, and the number of subjects ranged from 5-8 students each, and reported that some of the students identified as learning disabled were not, in fact, disordered and lacked English proficiency and adequate exposure to reading instruction in the target language (August & Shanahan 2006). This is a critical statement and represented a growing population leading to overrepresentation of ELLs in Special Education presently. It is imperative that professionals in assessment be able to distinguish between language difference and language disorder. This will correct the over-representation of special education students in special education (Cummins 1984). In the area of assessment: Cummins (1989) asserted that the assessment professionals have to be advocates for minority students and have to include in their assessments how the student's difficulties in the classroom are attributed to interactions within the school environment rather than served to perpetuate the location of the problem as within the student (1984). Assessment for this population is overly focused on the deficits rather than the strengths they possess, which is key to uncover if success is to be reached with this population (Cummins 1984; Baca & Cervantes 2003).

Language difference versus language disorder is the subject of much research in the field of special education. Cummins asserted that assessment professionals must "dismantle" psycho-educational assessment to include the social and educational context of the student and school to look at the extent to which students are encouraged to use the native language, the way professionals collaborate with families, and the extent to where the student's culture and language are incorporated into the school program. (1984).

Prezas and Jo presented a framework for teachers to understand language difference versus a language disorder; it contained useful information for teachers to consider when they have ELL students struggling in the classroom (2017). Teachers reported that they have frustrations relating to the understanding of differences in bilingual development (Shohamy, 2006) as well as a general lack

of qualified bilingual staff or personnel who can help them understand the differences in the classroom (Buysse, et. al., 2004).

Prezas and Jo asserted that these language needs in both languages are imperative at the earlier stages and should not be just related to special education assessment (2017). Speech and language professionals, bilingual staff, and teachers need to work together in the framework of Response to Intervention (RTI) and in the Multi-Tiered System of Support, and reported that RTI is a multi-tiered framework used to provide support to students before a referral to special education and aided in the early detection and prevention through academic and/or behavioral support (at increasing levels of intensity) to students in the school setting (Brown-Chidsey & Steege, 2010).

What required further investigation is the impact of this process on the numbers of ELLs in special education and their progress in the program. Research that looked at the effects of special education and the effects of instruction in special ed programs represented only a nominal improvement in reading abilities studied years later; the students still made nominal advances and cited the little or no progress for ELL students in special education (Hanushek et al., 2002).

Successful Interventions with English Language Learners with Special Needs
In a study done with 165 students, all were struggling readers, three groups were assessed before, during, and after the intervention; the group contained ELLs and SWDs (Lovett et al., 2008). Three groups received research-based interventions, while another control group received the traditional special education program in the school. All received 105 hours of intervention. All were low in oral proficiency at the start of the program, and some were English language learners, and other students took English as a foreign language. The children who received the research-based interventions far outperformed those in the special education control group. The authors also found a direct link between entering oral proficiency and outcome, the greater the oral proficiency at the start of the program, the greater the outcome for the student. This study highlights the importance of taking into consideration individual needs while intervening with a research-based intervention program. No differences were noted for the ELL or EFL students in the groups in terms of growth or reading rate; all progressed with their group but differed in progress in terms of oral proficiency first seen at the start of the program (Lovett et al., 2008).

Another study looked at the effect of peer-assisted

learning strategies (PALS), which is a class-wide intervention for reading on Spanish-speaking students with learning disabilities (LD) and their low-, average-, and high-achieving classroom peers (Sáenz et al., 2005). There were 132 students assigned randomly to 12 reading teachers. They all received three times weekly for 15 weeks. The students that were in the groups showed greater growth over peers in reading comprehension, lending importance to the inclusion of peer-related interventions with ELL students with disabilities (Sáenz et al., 2005).

In another study, students were assigned to groups for intervention that were both struggling readers and at-risk monolingual English students or at-risk ELL students (Solari & Gerber, 2008). One group received a program that heavily relied on the instruction of phonological awareness and word-level study with listening comprehension instruction as a small concentration of remediation the of the second group was the opposite where the students received intervention heavily reliant on instruction in listening comprehension with the phonological awareness and word study instruction as a smaller part of the intervention. (Solari & Gerber, 2008). The third group received only the phonological awareness training and word-level study. Both the at-risk readers yielded the greatest growth and results when receiving the intervention program with the strong listening comprehension component (Solari & Gerber, 2008). This serves to caution us to develop these skills, and to target listening comprehension for ELL students is of critical importance for administrators to note in educational planning.

Teacher Preparation and Professional Development
All of the research examined for this paper agreed that the professional development of teachers is crucial for success in intervention with any population in any way for reading instruction. Each study that presented with successful outcomes had a professional development component of the proposed interventions for teachers prior to administration of the interventions to the groups. This is important for school administrators to note that teachers need training and development. Both panel reports agreed that there is still much research to be done to determine the most effective ways to

provide professional development for teachers (2000, 2006). Teachers both new and experienced in teaching need the training, and had many frustrations in applying the little they know about interventions and student populations, and lack of ongoing support from adequately trained professionals (Shohamy, 2006; Buysse et. al., 2004).

Conclusion
The pressure on school administrators to be educational leaders in their schools with varied populations with need as suggested in the research literature, is strong. A school leader must adhere to The Professional Standards for Educational Leaders that added to this growing pressure (NPBEA, 2015, pp. 9-18).

The research is detailed and outlined in this study of the best practices in reading for all students published by the National Reading Panel Report (NICHD, 2000). Administrators can use this as a foundation for building successful curriculums that address reading as a universal program of instruction in their schools. From this foundation, a school administrator can build on this base and refine these programs for other populations, such as struggling readers, special education students, English as a New Language Learners, and Ells with SWDs.

School administrators need to use the talent of the faculty around them and from outside sources to build successful and ongoing professional development that is meaningful for teachers both new and seasoned in the field. The research outlined in this study makes a clear argument for further study and the critical need for meaningful professional development.

School administrators must thoughtfully include and rely on special educators, bilingual personnel, and English as a New Language teachers (ENL) to develop the most effective instructional programs for students in their schools. School administrators must include and rely on these professionals to help make educational decisions and curricular adjustments for these special populations in collaboration. Research showed that the majority of bilingual and ENL professionals are often marginalized. These professionals must be trained as teacher leaders and enabled to help guide school leaders in educating their students (Palmer 2018).

Bibliography
Alliance for Excellent Education. Every child a graduate: A framework for an excellent education for all middle and high school students. Washington, DC: Author; 2002.
August, D., & Shanahan, T. (2010). Response to a Review and Update on Developing Literacy in Second-language Learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth. Journal of Literacy Research, 42(3), 341–348. https://doi.org/10.1080/1086296x.2010.503745
August, D., & Shanahan, T. (2006) Developing Literacy in Second Language Learners: Report

of the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority and Youth. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Baca, L. M., & Cervantes, H. T. (2003). The Bilingual Special Education Interface (4th Edition) (4th ed.). Pearson.

Biancarosa, C., & Snow, C. E. (2006). Reading next—A Vision for Action and Research in Middle and High School Literacy: A Report to Carnegie Corporation of New York (2nd ed.).Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education.

Blachman, B. A. (1994). What We Have Learned from Longitudinal Studies of Phonological Processing and Reading and Some Unanswered Questions. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 27(5), 287–291. https://doi.org/10.1177/002221949402700504

Blachman, B. A., Schatschneider, C., Fletcher, J. M., Francis, D. J., Clonan, S. M., Shaywitz, B. A., & Shaywitz, S. E. (2004). Effects of Intensive Reading Remediation for Second and Third Graders and a 1-Year Follow-Up. Journal of Educational Psychology, 96(3), 444–461. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.96.3.444

Brown-Chidsey, R. & Steele, M. W. (2010). Response to Intervention: Principles and strategies for effective practice. New York, NY: Guilford.

BRYANT, P. E. T. E. R., & BRADLEY, L. Y. N. E. T. T. E. (1987). "KNOWING" AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 57(2), 249–252. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8279.1987.tb03159.x

Butler, S. R., Marsh, H. W., Sheppard, M. J., & Sheppard, J. L. (1985). A seven-year longitudinal study of the early prediction of reading achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 77(3), 349–361. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.77.3.349

Center on Crime, Communities, and Culture. Education as crime prevention (Occasional Paper Series No. 2) 1997.

Cummins, J. (1984). Bilingual Education and Special Education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy. San Diego: College Hill

Cummins, J. (2000). Language, power, and pedagogy: Bilingual Children in the Crossfire. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Cummins, J. (2009). Literacy and English-Language Learners: A Shifting Landscape for Students, Teachers, Researchers, and Policy Makers. Educational Researcher, 38(5), 382–384. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189x038005382

Cunningham, A. E. (1990). Explicit versus implicit instruction in phonemic awareness. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 50(3), 429–444. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-0965(90)90079-n

Denton, C. A., Fletcher, J. M., Anthony, J. L., & Francis, D. J. (2006). An Evaluation of Intensive Intervention for Students with Persistent Reading Difficulties. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 39(5), 447–466. https://doi.org/10.1177/00222194060390050601

Edmonds, M. S., Vaughn, S., Wexler, J., Reutebuch, C., Cable, A., Tackett, K. K., & Schnakenberg, J. W. (2009). A Synthesis of Reading Interventions and Effects on Reading Comprehension Outcomes for Older Struggling Readers. Review of Educational Research, 79(1), 262–300. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654308325998

Francis, D. J., Shaywitz, S. E., Stuebing, K. K., Shaywitz, B. A., & Fletcher, J. M. (1996). Developmental lag versus deficit models of reading disability: A longitudinal, individual growth curves analysis. Journal of Educational Psychology, 88(1), 3–17. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.88.1.3

Fung, I. Y. Y., Wilkinson, I. A. G., & Moore, D. W. (2003). L1-assisted reciprocal teaching to improve ESL students' comprehension of English expository text. Learning and Instruction, 13(1), 1–31. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0959-4752(01)00033-0

Genesee, F., Lindholm-Leary, K., Saunders, W., & Christian, D. (2006). Educating English Language Learners. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Gillon, G., & Dodd, B. (1995). The Effects of Training Phonological, Semantic, and Syntactic Processing Skills in Spoken Language on Reading Ability. Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools, 26(1), 58–68. https://doi.org/10.1044/0161-1461.2601.58

Goldenberg, C. (1990). Teaching English language learners: What the research does and does. not say. American Educator, 8–44.

Hanushek, E. A., Kain, J. F., & Rivkin, S. G. (2002). Inferring Program Effects for Special Populations: Does Special Education Raise Achievement for Students with Disabilities? Review of Economics and Statistics, 84(4), 584–599. https://doi.org/10.1162/003465302760556431

Hatcher, P. J., Hulme, C., & Ellis, A. W. (1994). Ameliorating Early Reading Failure by Integrating the Teaching of Reading and Phonological Skills: The Phonological Linkage Hypothesis. Child Development, 65(1), 41. https://doi.org/10.2307/1131364

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The Power of Feedback. Review of Educational Research, 77(1), 81–112. https://doi.org/10.3102/003465430298487

Kohnert, K. (2010). Bilingual children with primary language impairment: Issues, evidence, and implications for clinical actions. Journal of Communication Disorders, 43(6), 456–473. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcomdis.2010.02.002

Learning to Read, Reading to Learn. (1996). TEACHING Exceptional Children, 29(2), 78–81. https://doi.org/10.1177/004005999602900219

Lovett, M. W., De Palma, M., Frijters, J., Steinbach, K., Temple, M., Benson, N., & Lacerenza, L. (2008). Interventions for Reading Difficulties. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 41(4), 333–352. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022219408317859

Norton, E. S., Beach, S. D., & Gabrieli, J. D. E. (2015). Neurobiology of dyslexia. Current Opinion in Neurobiology, 30, 73–78. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conb.2014.09.007

National Reading Panel (U.S.), & National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching children to read: an evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction : reports of the subgroups. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health.

Palmer, D. K. (2018). Supporting Bilingual Teachers to Be Leaders for Social Change: "I must create advocates for biliteracy." International Multilingual Research Journal, 12(3), 203–216. https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2018.1474063

Prezas, R. F. & Jo, A. (2017) "Differentiating Language Difference and Language Disorder: Information for Teachers Working with English Language Learners in the Schools," Journal of Human Services: Training, Research, and Practice: Vol. 2: Iss. 1, Article 2.

Reyes, M. D. L. L., Halcon, J. J., & Nieto, S. (2000). The Best for Our Children: Critical Perspectives on Literacy for Latino Students (Language and Literacy Series) (New ed.). Teachers College Press.

Sáenz, L. M., Fuchs, L. S., & Fuchs, D. (2005). Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies for English Language Learners with Learning Disabilities. Exceptional Children, 71(3), 231–247. https://doi.org/10.1177/001440290507100302

Scammacca N, Roberts G, Vaughn S, Edmonds M, Wexler J, Reutebuch CK, et al. intervention for adolescent struggling readers: A meta-analysis with implication for practice. RMC Research Corporation, Center on Instruction; Portsmouth, NH: 2007.

Shohamy, E. (2005). Language Policy: Hidden Agendas and New Approaches (1st ed.). Routledge London.

Slavin, R. E., & Cheung, A. (2005). A Synthesis of Research on Language of Reading Instruction for English Language Learners. Review of Educational Research, 75(2), 247–284. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543075002247

Solari, E. J., & Gerber, M. M. (2008). Early Comprehension Instruction for Spanish-Speaking English Language Learners: Teaching Text-Level Reading Skills While Maintaining Effects on Word-Level Skills. Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 23(4), 155–168. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5826.2008.00273.x

Torgesen JK, Rashotte CA, Alexander A, Alexander J, MacPhee K. Progress towards understanding the instructional conditions necessary for remediating reading difficulties in older children. In: Foorman B, editor. Preventing and remediating reading difficulties: Bringing science to scale. Parkton, MD: York Press; 2003. pp. 275–298.

Torgesen JK, Houston DD, Rissman LM, Decker SM, Roberts G, Vaughn S, et al. Academic literacy instruction for adolescents: A guidance document from the Center on Instruction. RMC Research Corporation, Center on Instruction; Portsmouth, NH: 2007.

Jennifer Lopez is a CSE chairperson in Special Education. She taught bilingual special education and worked as a bilingual school psychologist for 29 years and now works as a special education administrator. Jennifer has taken coursework in School Neuropsychology and has a passion for the learning process and ensuring that all children have the opportunity to learn to read.

Call for Manuscripts

The New York Academy of Public Education is announcing a Call for Manuscripts for its Eleventh Annual Research Journal. Articles are to be no less than 1,000 words and typed double spaced in # 12 Ariel font. (See suggested format below.) Manuscripts are to be submitted to the editor at - Triadedu@aol.com - no later than February 15, 2022, in order to be considered for publication in the May, 2022 11th Annual Edition. All manuscripts will be read and reviewed by the Academy's Peer Review Committee and returned to the author with any editorial comments/corrections/suggestions and further instructions. Kindly indicate your interest in writing an article by contacting the editor at the above email address no later than February 1, 2022 with the proposed title of your manuscript.

Topics to be addressed can include (but are not limited to): the Cultural Arts; Core Content Standards; school building administration; teacher education; standardized assessment; budgeting; higher education; effects of class size; parent involvement; should a teacher internship be required; ELLs and/or Bilingual Education; impact of charter schools on public education; school restructuring; changing the culture of a school; the new Ed TPA process; educational leadership; CTE Education; STEM (STEAM); Gender Analysis; Culturally Responsive Pedagogy; Bullying; Cyberbullying/Internet Safety; International Analysis of Educational Practices; our latest category – Hybrid and Remote Learning; and other areas dealing with the educational sphere. All articles **must** include a reference section.

The Academy encourages all members and colleagues to submit a manuscript for publication in our annual Research Journal. Membership in the Academy is not a pre-requisite for submitting an article. As a result of Peer Editing, prior contributors have successfully used this publication in support of their tenure application in various colleges/ universities.

Suggested Format

For the sake of brevity, yet maintaining the essence and integrity of your manuscript, the following format is suggested:
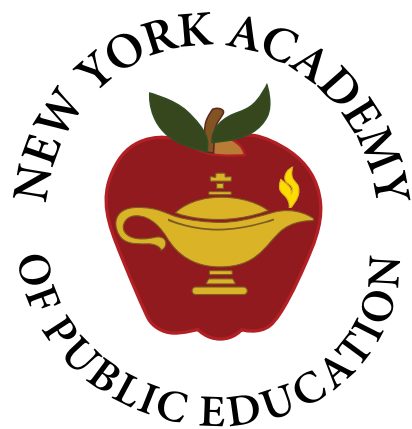
Abstract
Introduction
Statement of the Problem
Research Question(s)
Hypothesis
Type of Research Design and Data Analysis

NEW YORK ACADEMY OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

New York Academy of Public Education
41 Hyatt Ave. • Suite 1
Yonkers, New York 10704