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Practical Research for the Educational Community

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Editor's Perspective

LEADERSHIP MATTERS

LEADERSHIP, LEARNING AND CHARACTER ARE INDISPENSABLE TO EACH OTHER.

The last two decades have produced a focused national effort to improve the educational achievement of all children and young adults. A variety of public school restructuring efforts have been advanced to support this important dimension of our society. What was once viewed as a national commitment has now become a global imperative. Countries have designed priority initiatives creating educational systems that expand past attempts to educate their citizenry.

This global focus has evolved as a result of three billion more people entering the global economy in the last decade and the connection that countries have perceived between the educational level of their citizens and economic strength. Thomas Friedman notes that "no nation is satisfied with its educational achievement."

The more complex and interconnected our society becomes, the more sophisticated educational and organizational leadership must become. Data from a recent meta-analysis of leadership research clearly demonstrates that there is, in fact, a substantial relationship between leadership and student achievement. Successful leaders will push children and young adults to higher levels of proficiency.

In this edition of the Long Island Education Review, several elements of school and organizational leadership are illuminated that help create environments of cooperation, planning, and practice which directly support increased learning and achievement. Issues affecting school culture, professional development and building leadership capacity provide a foundation to further the national effort to produce a better educated society.

Kevin N. McGuire
Editor

Bullying in Our Schools: A Pervasive Scourge

- by John A. Nidds, Ph.D.

During one of my student teaching seminars this past year, a student commented to the class that a young pupil in his seventh grade social studies class was being bullied so severely that, "if he brought in an AK-47 semi-automatic rifle and "blew away four boys who were harassing him constantly, he wouldn't be surprised!" Stunned, I asked if the teacher was aware of this situation? He replied that she was but believed that the student himself brought on most of the bullying.

This episode, along with a vast array of similar stories, motivated me to do extensive action research, coupled with a number of school personnel interviews on bullying, and write about my conclusions for the edification of school administrators, teachers, students and parents. This fractious subject will not disappear without a concerted effort on the part of all school personnel, parents and students who are directly and indirectly affected by it.

IDENTIFYING BULLYING

During the past ten years the overabundance of school shootings and violence, culminating in the Columbine disaster, has awakened us collectively to the widespread and lethal aspects of bullying. The first logical question, therefore, in an in-depth analysis of bullying should be the identification of bullies and bullying. Some concrete behaviors that are manifested, based on research and numerous interviews with school personnel, are as follows:

- Name calling

- Making the victim feel uncomfortable or scared by spreading rumors, leaving the victim out of activities, teasing about culture, weight, looks, religion

- Taking or damaging the victim's property, or shaking them down for money

- Hitting, kicking or shoving the victim in an impulsive manner

- Spreading false stories to get the victim in trouble or turning other students against him or her

- Forcing victims to do things against their will

- Saying, writing or using technology to tarnish the victim's reputation

- Using the bus stop, school bus, and school campus to dominate and ridicule victims

HOW CAN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS, TEACHERS AND PARENTS KNOW IF A CHILD IS A VICTIM OF BULLYING?

It is a tragic but documented fact that bullying can begin among preschoolers. Young bullies can utter insulting sobriquets to their victims and attempt to isolate them from other classmates. They are also prone to hit, push or trip their sufferers whenever possible. It is a truism that victims of bullies frequently will not tell anyone about their quandary because of fear of retaliation or shame.

In my research, and conversations with school personnel and parents, I compiled the following victimization tally:

- Frequent trips to the school nurse; repeated stomach or headaches in the morning with an appeal to the parents to stay at home

- Will not offer any information on how the school day went

- Hesitation about standing at the school bus stop or boarding the school bus

- Loss of appetite in the morning, but a big appetite after school (caused perhaps by a money shakedown by a bully either on the school bus or before the lunch period)

- Frequently comes home from school with bruises, ripped clothing or missing property

- Feels isolated from school mates, school activities and other social events

HOW CAN A VICTIM STAND UP TO A BULLY AND SEEK OUTSIDE HELP?

It has been noted earlier in this article that a bullying victim may feel depressed and alone in his or her quandary, nevertheless it is important for the victim and the victim's parents to do something about it. Research and conversations with professional educators, school psychologists, and guidance counselors, all offer the following advice on confronting bullies and bullying:

• The victim has a right to feel safe and secure on the school bus and in school. Stand strong, then, and spend time with peers as much as possible. Bullies will not pick on someone in a group.

• Victims should tell an adult (teacher, guidance counselor and/or parent) about the situation. Also, they should keep written notes on each bullying situation.

• Most schools have an active bullying policy, which means that the faculty should know exactly what to do when a bullying episode takes place.

• The concept of RESPECT should resonate throughout each school, classroom and student body with serious consequences for infractions.

WHY IS BULLYING HARMFUL?

Sadly, it happens frequently that many people believe bullying is a part of growing up and a way for young people to become toughened for life's challenges. This postulate is wrong since bullying can make victims feel lonely, unhappy and frightened. They may lose confidence in themselves, become physically and mentally sick, and wind up with chronic problems that can destroy their lives. Add to this the additional consequences of bullying:

• Research indicates that students who bullied, and their victims, are much more prone to engage in violent behavior than those who have not been involved in these behaviors.

• The rash of school shootings, culminating in Columbine, focuses attention on the extent and dire consequences of bullying.

• Studies indicate that victims of bullying are frequently ostracized by their classmates. This may draw them to a plight that can bring about dire lifetime consequences.

• Young people who were noted bullies and victims exhibited the extremes of being excluded socially and being involved in anti-social behavior in school and out.

• Research indicates that both bullies and victims displayed high levels of social avoidance, discipline problems and other social behavior difficulties.

CONCLUSIONS

At the outset of this article, I conveyed the story of a seventh grade student who was being bullied unmercifully without any adult or peer interference. The logical conclusion can then be drawn that bullying is okay if everyone who witnesses it turns their collective backs. On the other hand, an immediate reaction to bullying on the part of a teacher or student can stop it in its tracks. This sentiment was articulated to me by every administrator and teacher in my research study. To treat others as you would like them to treat you is sage advice today as it has been since time immemorial.

I believe that a mental awareness of bullies and bullying and subsequent consequences should be embedded in the minds of all school personnel, parents and students. Young people who bully, and are caught, should be told in no uncertain terms that their actions will not be tolerated and that severe consequences will occur if this anti-social behavior continues. "Place the ball in their court!"

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John A. Nidds, Ph.D., is an Associate Professor of Teacher Education at Dowling College in Oakdale, New York.

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The Principal and the School Can Make a Difference
- by Roxanne M. Mitchell Ed. D.

Abstract

This study investigates the effects of trust in the principal and the school on student identification. Failure to identify with school may explain why some students become emotionally and physically withdrawn from school and exhibit low academic performance. There is little research on the antecedent conditions of school level variables vital to the formation of identification with school. However, some research suggests the plausibility of a relationship between trust and student identification. Results of this study indicated that teacher trust of principal, parental trust of principal and the school, and student trust of principal predict student identification. Socioeconomic status was not related to student identification with school. Furthermore, students identify with school at the elementary level but identification wanes as students advance in school. Finally, school level and trust significantly explained 38 percent and 21 percent of the variance in student identification, respectively.

Failure to identify with school is one explanation for why some students persistently perform below expectations (Osborne, 1995, Steele, 1992, Voelkl, 1997). However, recent legislation such as "No Child Left Behind" has prompted educators to take a serious look at issues of accountability and the need to provide an appropriate education to all students and to assure that no student falls between the cracks. With increased emphasis on educational standards and high-stakes testing, educators are increasingly required to look for ways to reach even the most difficult students and those who have persistently been identified as underachievers.

Identification with school has been conceptualized as involving a sense of belonging and a valuing of school and school related outcomes (Voelkl, 1997). Students who fail to identify with school, and who are emotionally and physically withdrawn from school, often evidence loss of motivation, lack of participation, failure to do assignments, disruption of class, absenteeism, truancy, behavior problems, delinquency, drug use, school crime, violence and potentially even dropping out (Finn, 1989, Finn & Voelkl, 1993, Voelkl, 1997). Thus far, empirical research has attempted to explain this failure to identify with school as being the result of cultural expectations, prior experience with success in school, the structural environment of the school, the regulatory environment of the school, stereotype threat, poverty, and peer-pressure (Finn, 1989, Finn & Voelkl, 1993, Fordham, 1996, Ogbu & Simons, 1998; Osborne, 1995; Steele, 1992; Voelkl, 1997). However, school level contextual variables such as trust that may be influential in promoting the development of student identification with school have not been examined.

There is some recent empirical evidence that would support the notion that trust is vital and fundamental to the operation of schools, to the establishment of healthy school climates, to the implementation of reform initiatives, and is an essential element when focusing on creating an atmosphere that is conducive to the education of students who have traditionally failed to perform at expected levels academically (Bryk & Schneider, 2002, Fuller, 1994, Smith, Hoy, & Sweetland, 2001, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, unpublished manuscript). Faculty trust of students and parents has been shown to be positively correlated with and predicative of academic achievement (Goddard et. al., 2001). While it is clear that trust has a strong influence on academic performance the effect of trust upon student identification with school is not known.

Empirical research in the area of student identification with school has focused on antecedent conditions necessary for the development of identification such as prior academic achievement, student prior experience of participation in school and school related activities, the structural environment of the school (school size and racial/ethnic composition of the school), and the regulatory environment of the school (degree of rigidity of school rules and disciplinary putativeness) (Finn, 1989; Finn & Voelkl, 1993; Voelkl, 1997). The findings from these studies have shown that most of these factors do matter and do have a significant effect not only on student identification with school but also on academic performance. Interestingly enough Finn and Voelkl (1993) found that disciplinary putativeness did not have an effect upon student identification. However the degree of structure and rigidity of school rules did have a significant effect upon student identification. Of the things that Finn and Voelkl term as a part of the structural and regulatory environment of the school, only rigidity of school rules can be manipulated to create a school level contextual environment that is conducive to increased identification with school.

Recent empirical work in the area of trust seems to be more promising (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Smith, Hoy, & Sweetland, 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, unpublished manuscript). Trust, which has been defined as "one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the later party is (a) benevolent, (b) reliable, (c) competent, (d) honest, and (e) open" (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p. 189) has been shown to have a significant effect on student outcome variables such as academic performance. Waning trust in public education is a key problem for educators as evidenced by the emergence of parent choice initiatives such as vouchers, home schools and charter schools, increased legislation, and the use of high stakes testing. Moreover, trust has significant implications for everyone connected with schools and can be a vital resource in establishing a healthy school climate (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999).

Prior investigation into student identification has demonstrated that it has significant implications for student outcomes such as, participation, academic performance and can even have major life consequences for those who fail to identify with school   Current research demonstrates that trust is also a vital resource, one that is very important to the establishment of healthy school environments that foster increased academic performance. Current theory, empirical findings, and reason make the argument that there is a relationship between trust and student identification with school.

Method

Trust in schools and *student identification with school* are organizational level variables. Therefore, the unit of analysis for this study was the school. The stratified random sample consisted of 180 randomly selected schools out of the 836 public schools in the 26 contiguous counties in the northeastern quadrant of one Mid-western state. The initial sample included 60 elementary schools, 60 middle schools, and 60 high schools. The final sample consisted of 79 schools. Five schools were later removed due to low re-

sponse rates, dropping the sample from 79 schools to 74 schools. The final sample consisted of 21 elementary schools, 28 middle schools, and 25 high schools. Ten teachers at each school were randomly sampled as well as fifteen students and parents of students in the fifth, eighth and eleventh grades. The study produced a 54 percent return rate for instruments distributed. The returns were as follows: 619 students (52%), 572 parents (48%) and 529 teachers (67%).

Fifteen parents within each school were randomly selected to receive a parent survey, which consisted of a 10-item survey measuring *Parent Trust of School* (Forsyth, Adams, & Barnes, 2002) and a 15-item survey measuring *Parent Trust of Principal* (Barnes, Forsyth, & Adams, 2002). Fifteen students who were randomly selected in either the fifth, eighth or eleventh grades, responded to a 21-item survey measuring *Student Trust of Principal* (Forsyth et al., 2002) and a 16-item survey measuring *Identification with School* (Voelkl, 1996). Ten teachers who were randomly selected from the entire pool of teachers responded to an 11-item survey that measured *Teacher Trust of Principal* (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Socioeconomic status (SES) was measured by the percentage of students who were on the free and reduced lunch program. The configuration of school level was defined as elementary (K-5), middle school (6-8), and high school (9-12).

Results

The independent variables for this study were teacher trust in principal, parent trust in principal, parent trust in school and student trust in principal. The dependent variable was student identification with school. SES and school level were included as control variables. The purpose of this study was to test the hypothesis that trust would be related to and predictive of student identification with school.

The first level of this investigation involved obtaining bivariate correlations of all the variables that were included in the study. These results are presented in ***Table I*** below.

Table I: Zero Order Correlations Matrix among all Variables

	TTP	STP	PTS	PTP	School level	SES	Student Identification
Teacher Trust of Principal	1.0	.37**	.41**	.66**	-.17	-.14	.26*
Student Trust of Principal		1.0	.37**	.50**	-.60**	-.02	.68**
Parent Trust of School			1.0	.68**	-.48**	-.24*	.52**
Parent Trust of Principal				1.0	-.40**	-.11	.42**
School Level					1.0	-.12	-.62**
SES						1.0	.11
Student Identification							1.0

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There was a significant inverse correlation between school level and student identification with school (r = -.62**). This would indicate that students identify more with school at the elementary level and that identification with school significantly decreases by the time students reach high school age. There was no relationship between socioeconomic status and student identification with school (r = .11). As mentioned earlier, this is the first study known to investigate the relationship between teacher trust in principal and student identification. These results show a positive and significant correlation between teacher trust in principal and student identification (r = .26*). At the same time, this is the first study known to test the relationships between parent trust of the school and student identification (r = .52**), parent trust of principal and student identification (r = .42**), and student trust of principal and student identification (r = .68**), respectively.

The final level of investigation involved a hierarchical regression in which student identification was regressed on school level and the trust variables. School level was entered into the equation first and the trust variables were entered into the equation last. SES was not included in this model because it was not significantly related to student identification. **Table II** below shows the R square change for this model.

As can be seen from **Table II**, school level significantly explained 39 percent of the variance in student identification and the trust variables together significantly explained 21 percent of the variance in student identification.

Conclusion and Implications

The results of this study indicate that parent and student trust of the school and the principal are significant predictors of student identification with school. Prior research had investigated the effects of faculty trust on academic performance and had demonstrated that faculty trust and in particular teacher trust of clients was a strong positive predictor of academic outcomes (Goddard et al., 2001). However, no previous study has investigated the effect of teacher trust of the principal and parental and student trust of principal and the school on student identification with school. Specifically this study indicates that, when parents and students trust the school, students are more likely to be identified with academics. It also indicates that when the principal establishes trusting relationships with the faculty that such an environment also predicts student identification with school.

The present study has confirmed that students identify with school at the elementary school level and that this identification tends to wane as students move on to higher levels. It follows that, elementary school is the time to intervene and develop strong positive relationships between parents, students and the school. Everett, Bass, Steele, and McWilliams (1997) point out that:

> Waiting until the high school student demonstrates his or her drop potential through low and or falling grades may be too late to rescue the student from dropping out. Drop out prevention programs should begin treatment for the student prior to his or her having the opportunity to fail academically. (p. 25)

This study has also shown that parental and student trust predicts student identification with school. Involving parents in the school and establishing strong, healthy, and trusting relationships with parents and students are essential. Fuller (1994) suggests that when working with disadvantaged populations and at-risk students, schools focus on the following strategies:

Table II: Model Summary - R Square Change of Student Identification regressed on School level and the Trust Variables

Model		R	R Square	R Square Change	Adjusted R Square	F Change	Std. Error o the Estimate	Sig. F Change
1	School Level	.62	.39	.39	.38	45.55	3.10	.000
2	Teacher trust of Principal	.77	.60	.21	.57	8.74	2.59	.000
	Parental trust of the Principal							
	Parental trust of the school							
	Student trust of the Principal							

(1) enhance communication between the school and the parents;

(2) involve parents and students in decision-making; and

(3) teach parents how to interact within the school bureaucratic context and how to negotiate networks and boundaries.

Finally, in order for schools to improve student identification they must be willing to address impediments that stand in the way of identification with school such as, inappropriate and uninteresting curriculum, lack of parental and student involvement, and old fashioned pedagogical styles that minimize active student participation in learning (Taylor-Dunlop & Norton, 1995). Furthermore, schools must focus on creating a climate of trust that is conducive to the formation of identification with school. As can be seen from this study the principal has a critical role to play in establishing an atmosphere of trust within the school, particularly at the elementary school level. When teachers, parents, and students trust the principal and the school there is a strong likelihood that students will develop a sense of belonging and a valuing of school and school related outcomes.

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Roxanne Mitchell, Ed.D., is an Assistant Professor in the School of Education - Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership at St. John's University. She holds a Doctor of Education Degree in Educational Administration as well as a Certificate in International Studies from Oklahoma State University. She has 23 years of combined experience as an administrator, licensed professional counselor, and certified school counselor both in the mental health community and public school setting.

Science-based Reading and No Excuses: Addressing the Achievement Gap

By Howard Weiner, Ph.D

While there is heated debate about the strengths and weaknesses of the federal government's No Child Left Behind legislation, we should not lose sight of an opportunity it offers to address many ills in our education system. One of the legislation's goals, closing the achievement gap, e.g., expecting that all third graders will read on the third grade level in all schools, is actually within our grasp. We can prevent reading failure among the most vulnerable students and close the achievement gap if we make a commitment to use science-based reading instruction.

Science of Reading

Essentially, we have an achievement gap in reading, not because of students' deficient preparation for learning to read, but as a consequence of *poor instructional response* to the diversi*t*y in their levels of preparation. Children enter school differing in experiences with language and print that prepares them for learning to read. In the early grades, children from lower SES backgrounds start out far behind others in knowledge and skill in print-related areas, e.g., their phonological sensitivity (skill at identifying and manipulating the sound structure of language) is not well developed. These are the *instructionally-needy* struggling readers. The long-term consequences of lagging behind in reading include: receiving less practice in reading than other children; missing opportunities to develop reading comprehension strategies; often encountering reading material that is too advanced for their skill level; and acquiring negative attitudes toward reading (Lonigan, 2004).

To close the gap that existed when these children came to school and prevent an ever widening achievement disparity, effective reading instruction is crucial. If we want all third graders to read on the third grade level or beyond, we are saying that we want all students to read grade level text with understanding. All students should read easily and find the activity pleasurable, unburdened by problems with decoding or comprehension. They should read the words from a third grade text by "sight." To achieve this goal the focus should be on intensive instructional interventions that develop and maintain high rates of growth in reading skills, from phonemic decoding to independent reading.

Key components of science-based reading, informal screening and progress monitoring assessments, take only a few minutes to administer. Diagnostic assessment informs the teacher how each student performs on five reading skills: phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension (Paglen, 2003; Wilson, 2001).

These five skills are taught sequentially and hierarchically, with nothing left to chance (Gumm & Turner, 2004). These are the (only) reading skills that research has shown to increase literacy. Analyzing the pattern of errors made and observing behaviors during successive one-minute reading fluency tasks builds information to create a reading skills profile for each student. Based on the data analysis, instructional groups are created and model lessons are designed. Intensive remediation is cyclical; teach, assess, modify instruction then assess again.

Science-based reading is more intensive, more explicit, more systematic, and more motivating than typical core reading instruction. For the most part, you won't see all students working on the same reading tasks, at the same time, in the same manner, in the science-based classroom, as that inadvertently maintains the achievement gap. The students not well prepared for a whole class lesson on reading new words accurately and fluently, for example, may get frustrated, lose motivation and appear unresponsive. Learning how to "attack" words not seen before in print is fundamental to reading; as is knowing which students need intensive practice for proficiency in using phonemic analysis, as that skill provides the single most important clue to identify unknown words in print (National Reading Panel, 2002).

Brain-based research has focused on a neural processing condition called *automaticity*, the ability to recognize, understand, and read words at first sight. Students practice foundation skills to the point where sounds, letters, then words are read and spelled rapidly. Words must correctly be identified 3-8 times before they become "sight words." Automaticity is the prerequisite skill to constructing meaning when reading (Torgesen, 2005).

Student learning is monitored carefully with rates of progress indicating how effective instruction is and whether student progress reaches expected levels. Instructional scaffolding insures that awareness of phonemes precedes learning how they are represented in print; grapho-phoneme knowledge precedes decoding; vocabulary instruction precedes reading for meaning; and strategies for oral language comprehension support reading comprehension.

Skilled reading develops over years when word recognition becomes increasingly automatic and language comprehension that includes background knowledge, vocabulary knowledge, language structures, verbal reasoning and literacy knowledge becomes increasingly strategic

(Lyon, 2002). Assessing progress and designing interventions based on performance over time is the precision that makes this process scientific and effective. To reduce the achievement gap in the upper elementary school, middle and high school, effective reading instruction depends on rigorously addressing several factors in an engaging and motivating fashion: how well one reads the words on a page, how much one knows, how well one thinks, and how motivated one is to do the "work" of comprehension.

No Excuses

Comprehensive staff development is required to enable classroom teachers to assess reading skills accurately and employ effective interventions systematically and conscientiously. Current practices based on experience and anecdotal information must be replaced. However, if new demands are placed on teachers, then administrators and other building and district level personnel must do more than mandate technical compliance.

We ask teachers to change how they use time-management, grouping, assessment, strategies, materials, support personnel, etc., but don't always take the time to address myths and misinformation they harbor, motivation for, or resistance to change. There can be no excuses; all stakeholders, parents, teachers, etc., should be knowledgeable about science-based reading programs.

Research suggests that at least 94% of all students meet third grade reading goals in general education classrooms when a comprehensive science-based reading program is instituted and operates consistently over time (Torgesen, 2005). Students can catch up; even students with known learning handicaps and those from the most deprived backgrounds.

There are several research-based programs, subjected to rigorous experimental design standards, that have been successfully replicated in many schools; they include Wilson Reading System; Lindamood Bell Programs; and Spell Read P.A.T. Program (see e.g., Closing the gap 3/22/04; Sharing What Works, 2004). The literature offers many examples of goal oriented, data-driven, collaborative practices in schools producing an array of effective methods and materials to reduce the achievement gap (Schmoker, 2001).

Teachers should have the opportunity to visit schools using excellent research-based reading programs and observe what teachers do and how they feel about their work. Teacher teams should be encouraged to review the literature on successful literacy programs and what type of training and new practices are involved. Many informative websites are easily accessible, including the Florida Center for Reading Research at www.fcrr.org; and What Works Clearinghouse at http://www.whatworks.ed.gov.

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Howard Weiner, Ph.D. is an Assistant Professor in the School of Education at Adelphi University with research interests in inclusion, Response-to-Intervention and diversity issues.

ETHICS, ATHLETICS AND COACHES: DOES SPORT BUILD CHARACTER? A CRITICAL ANALYSIS

By Robert Dranoff, Ed.D.

For many Americans, sport has a prominent role in society. In many ways, as David Putnam (1999) writes, "The sports world reflects and influences the larger society of which it is part" (p.4). Sports impacts schools, colleges, families and social networks and brings into the spotlight both great achievements and significant concerns.

For much of the twentieth century, educators, coaches and others involved in athletics at the youth, high school and college levels have endorsed the belief that sport, in addition to assisting with physical development, builds character for those who participate. Sport participation can bring qualities and teach lessons that society believes young people should learn: sportsmanship, leadership, work ethic and others. Coaches are seen as individuals equipped to help youngsters gain these important character-building traits.

While this belief continues to be strongly held, over the last 20 years or so, sport sociologists and educators have taken a new look at this concept. Questions have arisen about the character and values of many who participate in athletics. If sport builds character, why are there so many incidents involving athletes and coaches, ranging from youth sport to professional, where 'deviant' behavior is exhibited? Pope (1998) asks, "Why are there so many reports of gratuitous violence, bizarre and hazardous training practices, drug use...emotional and physical abuse?" (p.1). Why is it that what is so often seen as deviant and anti-ethical behavior in society has so often been seen as acceptable in sport?

Does participation in sport build values and character? Perhaps in some cases it does, but in many cases sport may just provide an opportunity to expose and support behavior that is more destructive than constructive.

Sport Builds Character...

In their book on school sports, Miracle and Rees (1994), refer to a 1974 quote by President Gerald R. Ford: "Broadly speaking, outside of national character and an educated society, there are few things more important to a country's growth and well being than competitive athletics. If it is a cliché to say that athletics build character as well as muscle, then I subscribe to the cliché" (p. 24).

Like Gerald Ford, most Americans, whether they have a background in athletics or not, believe that sport builds character. Miracle and Rees (1994) note a 1983 study that found three out of five Americans surveyed agreed that sport competition is good for children, teaching them to strive to be their best; that athletes are often the best role models for youngsters; that sport reduces delinquency and builds family bonds. This concept originated in the late 1800's and gained strength during the twentieth century based on the idea that individuals develop socially through interactions and experience. As Miracle and Rees (1994) write, "Moral development occurs through action...and action is firmly linked with athletics" (P. 221).

Both American society and sport have always emphasized winning. We believe that winning demonstrates strength, both physical and moral. One needs hard work, dedication and self-sacrifice to be a winner. Sport is one of the best ways to learn these kinds of traits and, once learned, they become part of the individual's character and success.

To some theorists, young people develop these desired traits on their own, similar to Rosseau's 'Doctrine of Natural Goodness" that espouses children can develop natural virtues in an almost automatic way from within (Kilpatrick, 1992). Character may also be a result of the skills and discipline that are taught through sport. Josephson (2003) notes that the coach is often the person who best instructs and handles discipline and is often the most influential adult in the life of the adolescent. As one's character develops, morals and ethics are affected by the personality traits gained. These traits include teamwork, self-sacrifice, sportsmanship, leadership and the desire for success. In terms of academics, reports have shown that athletes often achieve at a higher rate than non-athletes and that participation can lead to better college and career opportunities. Sport also encourages health, self-respect and the avoidance of anti-social activities such as crime, violence, drinking and drug abuse (Miracle & Rees, 1994).

It is generally agreed that sport teaches values. However, as Morgan, Meier and Schneider (2001) write in their book about ethics in sport: "there is no guarantee… that the values and character traits are good ones "(p.5).

...Or Does It?

Miracle and Rees (1994) also note the opposite point of view regarding the character building qualities of sport with a quote by well known sport psychologists Bruce Ogilive and Thomas Tutko: " We found no empirical support for the tradition that sports builds character. Indeed, there is evidence that athletic competition limits growth in some areas" (p. 24).

According to sports sociologist Jay Coakley (2001), "Sports can be seen as a site for socialization rather than causes of specific socialization outcomes"(p.137). To many theorists and educators, the belief that sport builds character is based on a mistaken understanding of what sports is really about.

Several studies have been done about sport and character. Despite some differences in the ages of participants and the methodology, Beretta (1999) finds that most studies reached similar results: "1) sports don't automatically build character and 2) sports have no more potential to develop character in children or adolescents than any other school activity and may, in fact, create more obstacles than bridges on the path to maturity" (p. 17). Miracle and Rees (1994) note research which points to increased self-esteem and concern about academic achievement for athletes, but also shows an increased aggression and reduced honesty.

In a study of student-athlete's reasoning, Still and Beller (2004) concluded, "the environment of athletics has not been supportive of teaching and modeling moral knowing...and moral actions" (p. 1). One of the reasons for this, the authors noted, was the limited consequence for immoral behavior in the sports world and for deviant behaviors as opposed to the larger consequences that occur in the real world. Athletes often become morally disconnected from their competitive environments, doing whatever is needed to win (one of the character traits youngsters are encouraged to learn) and using the desire to be a winner to justify their actions (Still & Beller, 2004).

Sport often takes on meaning for the participants through the way they are treated by those in charge, very often the coach. As mentioned previously, ethics in American sport is very focused on winning and when winning is the main objective, all the other important outcomes of participation disappear. Coaches, often with a need to fulfill their own ego and professional needs, may, as Conn and Gerdes (1998) state, "pressure athletes to play while injured, violate rules to their advantage, quit if not good enough" (p. 23). As a result, athletes, with a desire to please the coach, make a team or gain playing time, have a tendency to ignore moral decisions and adopt an attitude of 'me first' when deciding what kind of behavior is necessary to get ahead.

Miracle and Rees (1994) mention another quote regarding character, this one by sports commentator Heywood Hale Broun: "Sports do not build character, they reveal it" (p. 81). Athletics may reflect character, but not nec-

essarily form it. Many still believe the opposite and feel that winning equates to being right, to having moral strength. However, it becomes much more difficult to believe this in the face of the 'deviant' behavior pervasive in sport today and the questionable ethical decisions athletes make to become winners.

The Issue of Deviant Behavior and the Athlete

Highly publicized episodes of deviance – defined here as behavior different from what is normally accepted – in the world of sport has always disappointed, interested and often shocked the public. The most highly noticed of these cases have usually occurred in professional or Olympic sport, as they receive the most media attention. However, deviant behavior among athletes, coaches and others in youth, high school and college athletics is more in the public eye than ever.

Examples of this behavior include: poor sportsmanship, gamesmanship and cheating; disrespectful behavior towards authority figures such as officials or coaches; binge drinking; sexual harassment and relationship violence; intentionally injuring opponents; and three issues we will look at in more detail below: eating and weight disorders related to athletic appearance and participation; use of performance enhancing illegal substances and hazing (Coakley, 2001).

In sports, athletes are often allowed and even encouraged to participate in these deviant activities, doing things that are prohibited or would otherwise be viewed as criminal. Behavior by athletes that risk health and well being to themselves or others don't receive the condemnation in sports they would in other parts of society. Coaches, like their team members, often believe that anything is permitted if it means winning. At times, coaches treat athletes in ways that we would view as dangerous and deviant if teachers or other adults were to act in a similar manner. Coakley (2001) notes "We tend to view the motives of people in sports as positive because their behaviors are directed toward achievement of success…those behaviors, even when clearly outside accepted limits, may be tolerated, even praised, rather than condemned" (p. 139).

Most athletes and coaches don't see this behavior as deviant. Instead they look at it as strengthening their identity as a winner and as a member of the team. To the athlete and coach, this behavior has personal and social value, especially when coaches and the public praise the athlete who engages in any behavior that helps the team to victory. This puts both the coach and athlete in a difficult ethical position. If sport is to help with character building and the coach is the instructor of this, what happens when the athlete chooses to do whatever is necessary, even if it is destructive, to stay on the team and help the teams win? How is the athlete supposed to react to the support and adulation they receive, even when they are guilty of harmful behavior?

Coakley (1994) writes: "When coaches encourage the behavior – whether intentionally or naively, they promote

dangerous types of deviance" (p. 149). Intentional encouragement can come in the form of physical or emotional abuse, belittling players, violating institutional rules or allowing eating disorders, the use of steroids and hazing to occur because to interfere may disrupt the team. Winning is valued so highly that playing with pain, cutting weight, use of drugs and other demonstrations of power become just other ways to become number one. None of this, of course, has a positive effect on learning morality (Miracle & Rees, 1994).

Weight Pressures on Athletes

Several studies suggest that athletes in sports that emphasize appearance and the need to fit into certain weight classes are at a higher risk for developing eating disorders or participating in dangerous weight loss activity than other athletes. Eating disorders are common among female athletes in sports such as swimming, gymnastics, running and rowing. Wrestlers will often binge before a match, then purge to make weight or will lose a large amount of weight quickly through controversial training techniques (Anorexia Nervosa and Related Eating Disorders [ANRED]).

Weight is an important factor in the lives of most athletes. Many coaches will weigh team members regularly and hold that individual accountable for it. The stress of making weight can cause many problems. Writing about eating disorders on the University of Texas Swimming team, Putnam (1999) states: "Most of the swimmers interviewed said...the coach stressed being thin so much that they would do anything to get their weight down and please him" (p. 172). Pressures to conform to the demands of the coach as well as the socially developed images of what female athletes should look like – that lower body weight equals better performance, that thin athletes are more fit – create conditions ripe for eating disorders such as bulimia and anorexia (Miracle & Rees, 1994).

Losing weight is also a way of life for wrestlers. Here, the goal is to become a winning athlete by shedding pounds in a short amount of time, but still maintaining strength. While high school and college rules have been made to prevent dangerous practices used for weight loss, Putnam (1999) states "the activity is tacitly endorsed by many coaches who often lecture against radical weight cutting but then ignore it when it actually takes place" (p. 36).

Weight pressures on athletes and the dangerous practices used to achieve lower weight can lead to shorter careers, damaged health and even death. Ironically, some of the character traits we hope athletes learn from sport – dedication, commitment, perseverance – are qualities that may keep an athlete on the downward spiral when they are faced with pressures to be the best.

Performance Enhancing Drugs

Athletes have used performance-enhancing drugs for decades. The most commonly discussed are anabolic steroids, synthetically derived compounds that stimulate testosterone and promote muscle growth. In the 1980's, the NCAA adopted drug testing programs for college athletes to promote fair and equitable competition and to safeguard the student's health and safety. Since that time, the number of banned substances has risen significantly as athletes find new ways to avoid detection and gain a competitive edge (Gibbs, 1991).

Despite efforts made by the NCAA, it appears that steroid use has not decreased and may even be increasing. High school and even middle school students use steroids, the majority of them male, to improve athletic performance or improve appearance. The danger is that, taken without supervision, these drugs can cause physical harm – heart and liver damage and emotional problems such as increased aggression and anxiety (Putnam, 1999).

Coakley (2001) writes that the use of performance enhancing drugs is generally not the result of a lack of moral character, "After all, the users and abusers often are the most dedicated and committed athletes in sports" (p. 161). Instead, those who use may actually be overly committed to the character traits we want them to learn from sports: the drive for success and how to be a winner. A major concern here is that as long as some athletes use drugs to gain the edge they need to keep performing, others will also feel that they too, must use to stay competitive even if they know its illegal and dangerous (Putnam, 1999).

Again, this creates an ethical dilemma and a question about the character building value of sport. On the one hand, there is a strong belief that competition in sports must be clean and free of artificial aids like steroids. There is an equally strong demand on athletes to win, to push their body's limits. They feel the pressure to do whatever it takes from their coaches who reward those who make sacrifices, those who put their bodies on the line for the sake of the team. If this means taking drugs to do their job, many will.

Some would argue that the use of performance enhancing drugs is a choice athletes make, the same as the use of recreational drugs. Putnam (1999) notes that athletes know the dangers, give informed consent, so they are responsible. But can it truly be informed consent? Under the stress of making a team or keeping a scholarship, the pressure can make an athlete vulnerable and remove the ability to make a free choice.

Drug testing is the response to steroid use in amateur and college sport – an attempt to prevent abuse and remove those who violate the rules. If we see drug testing as the solution, however, we have already agreed that drugs are the problem rather than a symptom of the problem with morality in the world of sport. This problem, again, may be the 'win at all costs' mentality that holds victory to a higher level than an athlete's health.

Hazing

The deviant behavior of hazing in athletics was in the public eye well before the sickening events involving the Mepham High School football team in August 2003 (Schuster, 2004). New York State Law 120.16 defines hazing as "any

humiliating or dangerous activity expected of someone to join a group, regardless of the person's willingness to participate" (Child Abuse Prevention Services [CAPS], "Definition of Hazing" para.2). Some examples of hazing are: being physically, verbally or emotionally abused; destroying property; and excessive use of alcohol or drugs.

In the past, hazing was seen as a college initiation rite or a rite of passage to join a fraternity or athletic team. Mepham is an example of how hazing is more and more common in high school. In a survey by Alfred University in 1999 of 2000 college athletes, 79% of the college athletes said that they had either hazed another athlete or had been hazed themselves. Only 15% of the students said that they thought they were hazed in high school, but twice that many reported abusing substances or committing dangerous acts as part of an initiation (Pollard, 2000).

Rituals to enter a group can be a valuable experience in some cases – a learning opportunity that strengthens one's character. More and more, however, initiation rites go over the line to become humiliating, intimidating, violent and dangerous. Hazing is common at the high school and college level because at that age, youngsters crave rituals and a sense of status. As the Alfred study notes, young people are also vulnerable to peer pressure and have a strong need to belong and get approval from the group. Pollard (2000) explains that adolescents are often willing 'to do anything' in order to belong, including subjugating themselves to being hazed or doing the hazing themselves. In addition, fearful of losing the status of being an accepted team member, the athlete does not want to be seen as the one who would break a tradition or disclose abusive behavior they may have endured or witnessed.

A major part of the hazing problem is that many high school and college administrators still do not understand what hazing is or the impact it has. There are often misconceptions, including the idea that it is nothing more than harmless pranks or 'kids being kids'. This includes many coaches. Coaches may understand and even endorse or promote initiation rites, not necessarily seeing them as hazing but as potentially valuable activities that bond team members, promote acceptance and tradition. Coaches often allow hazing activities to go on because hazing can serve a purpose – weeding out the weak and those not willing to sacrifice for the team. The feeling may be that if someone is not willing to endure the 'requirements' of initiation, who needs that student? What they fail to see, or choose not to see, is that hazing is not about traditions or fun antics; it is about the abuse of power and violating rights (Allan, 2004).

In the Alfred survey, students often said that they would not report hazing because "there was no one to tell" or "adults won't know how to handle it" (Pollard, 2000). Unfortunately, in many cases, the students were right. Many adults do not know how to handle this problem.

Conclusion

Conn and Gerdes (1998) write in their article about ethical decision making in sport: "Questions continue to go unanswered whether sport participation builds character in participants or sport participation exposes the moral character of its leaders and athletes. Both are likely happening simultaneously" (p. 2).

Many studies show no link between sports and the moral character we hope our youngsters are learning, that athletic skills do not provide students with the means to function effectively as adults in society. When one looks at issues such as hazing, eating disorders and drug use in sports, there is no question that this is very dangerous ethical territory. However, there is also no denying that the majority of Americans still believe strongly in the value of sports for the physical, emotional and ethical development of children.

There is a middle ground somewhere. It appears that there should be a movement away from a 'win at all costs' mentality. When the outcome is so important that participants will use any means possible to win, unethical behavior is much easier to participate in and to accept. This kind of behavior is a detriment to the kind of values and character we do need to build in our youngsters. Those in athletics, especially coaches, have the opportunity to make participation in sports an arena for the practice of important character traits, not just assume that young people are absorbing the necessary qualities through participation.

As Beretta (1999) writes, Aristotle once said: "We grow as moral persons through apprenticeship" (p. 19). The athlete is the apprentice and looks to the coach to be his or her teacher. The coach must teach, must explain and model ethical behavior. If may be true that sport does not build character, but when an environment is created where a youngster can learn not just athletic skills but to be a good person and to be ethically sound, the potential for the young athlete's development into a complete person grows significantly.

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Robert Dranoff, Ed.D. is Director of Athletics at Suffolk County Community College in Selden, New York.

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Teachers' Perceptions of their Cross-Cultural Training

By Renee White-Clark, Ed.D.

Abstract

Research has confirmed that a large proportion of America's culturally diverse student population is attending culturally isolated schools (Orfield & Lee, 2004). Many of these educational settings are staffed with majority descent teachers who have not been cross-culturally prepared to teach in such predominately minority communities. This lack of teacher preparedness has been found to negatively impact the effectiveness of instruction and the interaction with parents, thereby creating inequitable and inferior educational experiences for these students (Eubanks, 2002; Vavrus, 2002).

This study assessed teachers' perceptions of their cross-cultural training and its relationship to effectively teach students and collaborate with parents in a culturally diverse school setting. It was found that 41% of the participants, 37 primary and high school teachers of a culturally isolated Long Island, New York school district, were not adequately prepared for culturally diverse students. Fifty-nine percent of the participants also believed that they were not sufficiently trained to collaborate with diverse parents and families.

Introduction

America's schools have been tackling the challenge of educational equity by means of several tactics such as desegregation, busing, school choice, and assessment accountability. Still many diverse students are receiving unequal educational opportunities in culturally isolated schools. As recent as 2001-02, New York ranked third as having the largest proportion of Black students (61%) attending "intensely segregated schools" of 90-100% minority student populations in the United States. New York was the leading most segregated state for Latino students (58%) during the same school year. Further, 88% of the country's Black and Latino students who attend culturally isolated 90-100% minority schools are also classified as being poor. Clearly, these students attend "highly segregated neighborhood schools" that usually lack resources, and employ less experienced or unqualified teachers; factors that can result in inequitable educational opportunities (Orfield & Lee, 2004).

The diversification of our schools has steadily increased in the last ten years. In 2002, thirty percent (30%) of the public school population was of minority descent. The steady increase of diverse students will continue. By 2025 African American students will encompass forty-nine percent (49%) of the U.S. public schools (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Despite these demographic changes, educational systems and teacher education have not addressed this diversity issue effectively. The National Center of Educational Statistics reported that, "increased classroom diversity has brought equity issues to the forefront of the educational agenda, but past studies have shown that many teachers were not trained to meet the needs of diverse student populations" (1998, p. 2).

Researchers contend that children who attend schools that are economically disadvantaged tend to be culturally isolated and are often educationally disadvantaged because of inadequate funding and resources. These inequalities are further compounded by low teacher expectations and the lack of parent involvement. Haycock attributes a portion of the achievement gap to teachers' low expectations that are conveyed through their comments such as, "They're poor." "Their parents don't care enough" (2001, p. 8). Even though culturally isolated schools tend to have lower student achievement and lower rates of parental involvement, teachers should not conclude that these students cannot learn and their parents do not want to be involved. According to Weinberg, "Too often, teachers assume that parents who do not actively demonstrate an interest in their child's education are apathetic and unconcerned…chances are these parents want very much to be part of their child's education but feel they cannot" (1990, cited in White-Clark and Decker, 1996, pp. 5-6). In fact, low-income parents may face impediments to involvement and must first fulfill their primary needs such as employment, transportation, and childcare concerns.

Present Study

The present study was undertaken to assess in-service primary and high school teachers' perceptions of their cross-cultural teacher preparation to effectively teach in a culturally diverse educational setting and collaborate with diverse parents.

Setting

New York has been characterized as one of the most segregated, educational and residential communities in the United States (Orfield & Lee, 2004). Specifically, Long Island has the three most racially isolated school districts (Roosevelt, Hempstead and Wyandanch) of culturally diverse students in New York, outside of New York City (Long Island News 12, 2004). The diverse student population in

the Long Island public schools accounts for 27% of Nassau and Suffolk Counties' public school enrollment. Few Long Island school districts currently service these diverse children. "Of the 125 Long Island school districts, 76 have 80% or more White students, and 44 are more than 90% White. More than half of Long Island's African American and Hispanic students are concentrated in just 13 districts, each of which has a student body that is over 60% students of color. In seven of these thirteen districts more than 90% of the students are students of color" (Education, Research, Advocacy and Support to Eliminate Racism (ERASE Racism), 2004, p. 17).

This study was conducted in a culturally isolated Suffolk County public school district serving approximately 2209 pre-kindergarten to twelfth grade students. The culturally diverse composition of the student population is 83.8% African American, and 16.1% Hispanic. The district is categorized as high-needs with a large proportion of "at-risk" students. Seventy percent (70.1%) of the school district's population is eligible for free/reduced lunch.

Demographics of the Participants

The thirty-seven participants consisted of 24 primary (pre-kindergarten to second grade) and 13 high school (ninth to twelfth grade) in-service teachers with one year to thirty-one years of teaching experience. Of the total respondents, fifty-seven percent of the teachers had 1-10 years experience, 21% 11-20 years and 21% with more than 20 years experience in the classroom. Twenty-five of the 37 participants indicated that they obtained a Masters degree (and/or credits above MS), 2 possessed a Professional Diploma, 4 had earned a Bachelor's degree, and the remaining 6 teachers did not respond to the formal training/ academic degree section of the demographic questions in the survey. The racial composition of the sample was 22 White, and 12 Black/African American participants. Three participants identified themselves as "other."

Methodology

A survey was used to collect data that consisted of three components: demographic information, questions on preparation for diversity in the classroom, and open-ended questions. Likert-type response items based upon the question, "To what extent did the teacher education program prepare you regarding...?" were employed to determine the level and quality of preparation that respondents received. Participants were given the option to respond to the following ranking: 3-exceptional, 2-satisfactory, 1-poorly, and 0-not at all. Open-ended questions that produced narrative responses (in-

cluding additional comments section) were also available. The participants were asked to complete the survey at their school's monthly faculty meeting. The surveys were voluntarily and confidentially completed, and later submitted in sealed envelopes to the researcher. A comparative data analysis was promptly conducted.

Selected Findings

Overall teacher preparation for cultural diversity

It was found that a major portion of the teacher participants perceived their teacher training as culturally insufficient. It was found that 41% of the participants believed their teacher preparation for cultural diversity to be unsatisfactory (Figure 1). Eleven percent indicated no diversity training at all and 30% were poorly prepared. A greater proportion (53%) of high school teachers, compared to 33% of primary teachers, believed that they were not prepared for their current teaching assignments.

In response to the narrative question, "How much of what you know about teaching culturally diverse students did you learn as a result of your teacher training," one participant commented that his/her training was "very minimal, (and) mostly from life situations and own teaching experience." Another concurred, responding "None, as a result of being trained. It was a result of on the job training."

Collaboration with culturally diverse parents

Fifty-nine percent (24% no training at all and 35% poorly prepared) of the participants felt that they were not sufficiently prepared to collaborate with diverse parents. Figure 2 indicates that high school teachers (68%) expressed greater dissatisfaction with their teacher education regarding parental collaboration than primary teachers (54%).

Figure 1

Teachers' Perceptions of Teacher Preparation for Cultural Diversity

- 11% None
- 30% Poorly
- 43% Satisfactory
- 16% Exceptional
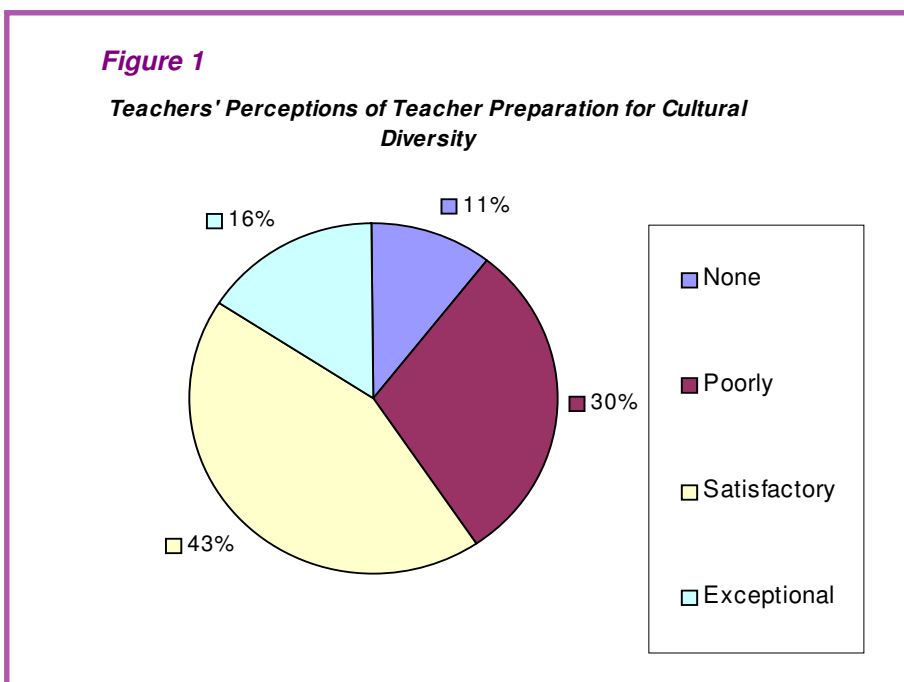
In-service teachers' narrative responses that support these findings include, "I think I would have liked to learn more about how to work with and collaborate with culturally diverse parents and more about understanding the socio-cultural dynamics of working in diverse settings," and "I would have wanted to learn how to deal with parents of different cultural backgrounds. They foster much of what the children learn in school and have a lot of power - it's challenging to speak to them about certain issues that they or I cannot relate to that I sometimes bring into the classroom (ex. religious holidays, birthdays, issues that we face everyday."

Summary of Item Analysis

The item analysis **(Figure 3)** indicates that, in all categories, at least 29% of the participants perceived that teacher preparation did not train or poorly trained them for cultural diversity. The area that the participants (68%) felt that they were most prepared for was "using multicultural materials and literature in the classroom". The area of least preparedness (59%) was "collaboration with culturally diverse parents."

Limitations and recommendations for future research

This study was limited to thirty-seven educators in one public school district in Suffolk County, Long Island, New York. The study was too small to generalize to all teachers in culturally isolated schools throughout the county or other regions of the state and/or nation. The results of this study may be similar in school districts, suburban or urban, that reflect common characteristics. Subsequent research should be conducted to determine the prevalence of this educational issue across regions and locales.

Also, the participating teachers were currently teaching in the same district but their teacher preparation experiences varied. Future research is suggested to examine how individual teacher education programs are addressing cultural diversity and exploring strategies for program enhancement.

Discussion

The present study's findings confirmed prior research that many teacher education programs are not based upon multicultural perspectives, therefore not adequately

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Table 2

Primary and High School Teachers' Perceptions of their Preparation to Collaborate with Diverse Parents
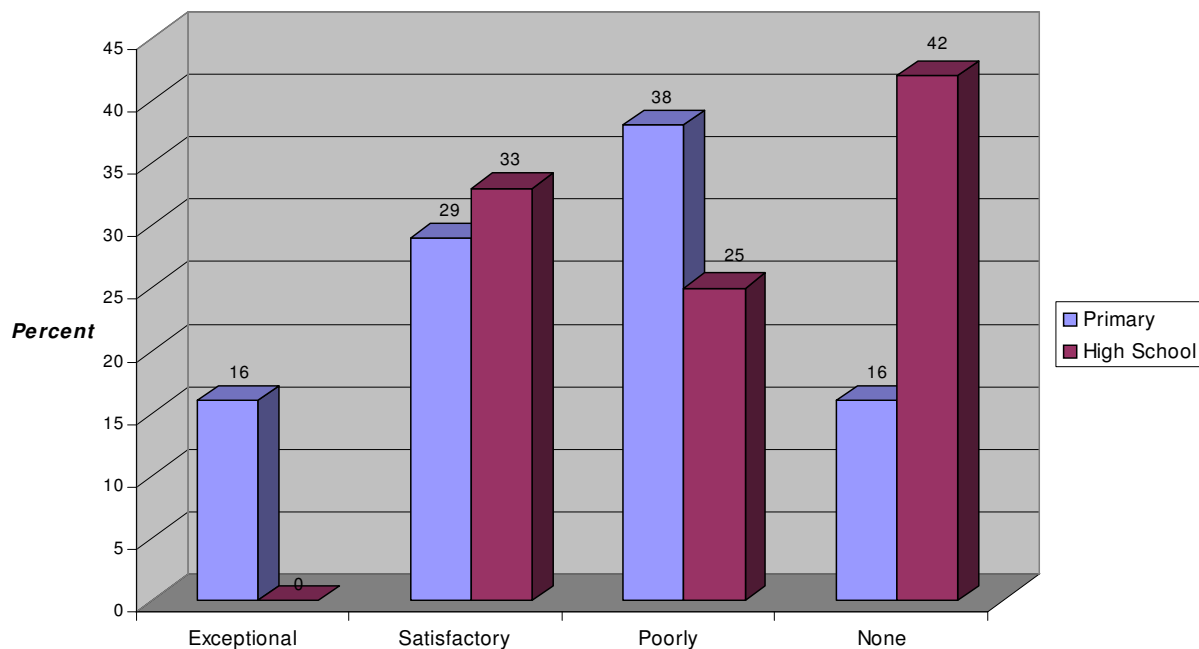
Figure 3: Item Analysis

Items	Exceptional (HS/Primary)	Satisfactory	Poorly	Not at all	Total n=37 (100%)
Cultural sensitivity	0/7 (19%)	4/11 (41%)	6/3 (24%)	3/3 (16%)	37 (100%)
Understanding socio-cultural dynamics	1/5 (16%)	4/13 (46%)	6/3 (24%)	2/3 (14%)	37 (100%)
Self-reflective practices regarding attitudes	0/6 (16%)	8/11 (51%)	3/5 (22%)	2/2 (11%)	37 (100%)
Differentiating instruction	1/4 (13%)	6/11 (46%)	2/6 (22%)	4/3 (19%)	37 (100%)
Multicultural materials/literature	1/9 (27%)	8/7 (41%)	3/6 (24%)	1/2 (8%)	37 (100%)
Collaboration with culturally diverse parents	0/4 (11%)	4/7 (30%)	4/9 (35%)	5/4 (24%)	37 (100%)
Overall teacher preparation for cultural diversity	0/6 (16%)	6/10 (43%)	5/6 (30%)	2/2 (11%)	37 (100%)
Level of teacher efficacy to teach in culturally diverse setting	2/7 (24%)	6/10 (43%)	5/5 (27%)	0/2 (6%)	37 (100%)

preparing teachers for culturally diverse classrooms. Similar to the NCES (1998) survey that found 17 percent of the teachers who taught limited English proficient or culturally diverse students were not prepared at all, 30% somewhat prepared, and 33% moderately prepared to meet these students' needs, the current participants believed that they were also improperly prepared for their classroom settings.

Training teachers for cultural diversity is crucial for teachers to better understand the cultural and socio-economic dynamics of working in diverse communities. Multicultural teacher preparation is essential, especially when more than 40 percent of schools across America have no teachers of color on staff (National Education Association, 2002). A significant proportion of in-service teachers are middle-class and White females who have not received appropriate cross-cultural training. Research has found that cultural differences between teachers, students, and parents can impact the achievement of culturally diverse students. Due to cultural differences in language, communication and interaction styles, teachers can misinterpret students' aptitude, intent or abilities (Delpit, 1995). Vavrus (2002) concurs that teachers' attitudes toward diversity can impact the effectiveness of their teaching. Teachers' personal beliefs, attitudes, and expectations can directly influence their teaching practices in the culturally diverse classroom and their interactions with diverse parents.

Multicultural education, or cross-cultural training, should be synonymous with educational innovation and reform. Multicultural education has been defined as "an educational reform movement that is concerned with increasing educational equity for a range of cultural and ethnic groups" (Banks, 1981, p. 32). The attainment of educational equity involves "the transition to a society that values cultural plural-

ism, (and) education institutions… (that) provide leadership for the development of individual commitment to a social system where individual worth and dignity are fundamental tenets" (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), 1972, p. 2). Therefore, teacher education and school systems should take heed to the participants' recommendations for an educational reform that would better prepare teachers for cultural diversity. The participants suggest:

- "In terms of an education program, you need books that not only have multicultural 'pictures,' but describe everyday life and real experiences of all people."
- "Teachers should be required to take sociology, psychology and diversity courses in undergraduate education programs."
- "I would give students an opportunity to work/train in a culturally diverse setting at a school close to home. Have cooperating teachers give lectures/presentations to a college class."
- "All student teachers should be required to do at least one field experience in a culturally-diverse setting" (White-Clark, 2005).

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) have embraced cultural diversity. As Maria Estela Brisk, chair of AACTE's Committee on Multicultural Education, contends, "if our nation truly desires to close the achievement gap for all students, we must increase cultural competence and diversity in the teaching workforce" (AACTE, 2004, p. 1). Cross-cultural training for pre-service and in-service teachers should help to create equitable educational experiences for ALL students.

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Renee White-Clark, Ed.D. is an Associate Professor in the Graduate Literacy Program, School of Education at Adelphi University on Long Island.

Gender Differences in Online Undergraduate Courses

By Elizabeth Conklin

Women are enrolling in and completing postsecondary education in greater numbers than ever before. In 1999-2000, women obtained 56.3 percent of bachelor's degrees and 57.8 percent of master's degrees (National Center for Education Statistics, 2000). During the years 1988-1998, the number of bachelor's degrees earned by men grew by only 9 percent, while degrees earned by women increased by 28 percent (National Center for Education Statistics, 2000).

In 2000-2001, 56 percent of two- and four-year postsecondary institutions offered distance education courses, enrolling over 2,876,000 students in college-level credit courses (Waits & Lewis, 2003). This is more than double the number of distance learning students enrolled just 3 years earlier, in the 1997-1998 academic year.

Women tend to enroll in online courses at a higher rate than men as well (Thompson, 1998), so it is important to understand how male and female preferences may differ in the online classroom.

There are differing opinions as to whether women fare better in the traditional classroom setting or in the asynchronous online classroom. A study conducted by the American Association of University Women concluded that, while distance education provides greater flexibility and convenience to women seeking higher education, it also imposes a "third shift" on them by adding extra work to their lives, which already may be filled with job and home responsibilities (Kramarae, 2001). A different study of men and women in online courses concluded that both males and females used online courses in similar ways, had positive attitudes towards online learning and their computer experience, and both expressed a desire to take more courses online (Orly, Bullock, & Burnaska, 1997).

Previous studies have concluded that females are more technophobic (Karma, 1994), have more negative attitudes toward computers (Dambrot, 1985), and are less confident in their use of computers (Culley, 1988) than males when they enter postsecondary education. As asynchronous learning becomes more prevalent, some researchers worry that women will be disadvantaged by their lack of familiarity with computers and by the way that males and females differ in their use of computers (Kramarae & Taylor, 1993).

Researchers Orly, Bullock, and Burnaska (1997) sought answers to the following questions: Is the frequency of asynchronous learning network use the same for male and female students? Are males and females using asynchronous learning networks differently? Do male and female student differ in their attitudes about using asynchronous learning networks? (Orly, Bullock, & Burnaska, 1997)

Females reported using conferencing more often than did the male students (Orly, Bullock, & Burnaska, 1997). The average percentage of postings in online courses was approximately equal for males and females. The female students used the online forums for social and instructional interaction with other students and instructors more often than the male students. Both female and male students found using computers to be "Somewhat easy" or "Easy," with males reporting slightly less difficulty.

In this study, there was no significant difference between males and females in regards to their overall experience with asynchronous learning; both genders reported positive experiences. Seventy percent (70%) of both males and females reported that they would enroll in another online course (Orly, Bullock, & Burnaska, 1997). Females reported that the use of the online course resulted in a greater positive impact on their computer familiarity, while males reported little to no change with their computer familiarity after taking an online course.

Orly, Bullock, and Burnaska (1997) reported that there were few significant differences between the attitudes of males and females toward online courses. The one significant difference, familiarity with computers, suggests that taking an online course helps to even out previous inequality by helping women become more comfortable with computer use. The results did not suggest that one gender benefited more than the other from the integration of computers in college course offerings. Females used the World Wide Web to communicate both socially with classmates and with the instructors more than males, and males used the World Wide Web more for fact finding and source seeking. The findings suggest that computer training for students, particularly females, would be helpful before any student thinks about taking an online course.

Wood (2000) reported that in mixed gender traditional classrooms, females may speak less frequently or

less confidently than male counterparts because of role socialization that encourages females to be polite and passive and males to be assertive and vocal. Also, when female students do speak in the classroom, they may internally filter their comments or they may not be heard by others in the class in the same way male students are heard. The muted group theory explains that because "the public sphere has been predominantly populated by men and their language, women generally feel less able to participate in public discourse" (Wood, 2000). However, in online courses with a required amount of participation, a different dynamic exists. Female students are less hesitant to participate in discussions, and students are encouraged to make well-supported arguments in which "all voices are heard, not just those of the most vocal students" (Poole, 2000). Schleiter (1996) believes because "nonverbal indications of status are unavailable" in electronic mediated classroom discussions, females tend to participate as much or exceed the participation levels of their male counterparts.

Women's "ways of knowing" (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986) are complemented by the dialogue and connectedness of online discourse, because "many women are 'connected' knowers who make sense of reality by relating new knowledge to experience in the world of relationships" (Kerta, 1993). Witkin's theory of field independence states that women are more field dependant than men, and therefore favor learning methods that focus on context and emphasize interaction (in Murphy, Casey, & Young, 1997).

Gallini and Barron (2001, 2002) found that students in online courses reported greater communication with instructors and peers when compared to students in traditional classroom courses. This depends on many variables. One study found that there was greater student interaction in traditional face-to-face classes, but the online courses in the study were taught over weekly emails rather than through a course website or chat room (Card & Horton, 2000). This type of online course is not as prevalent today, when the majority of online courses are taught over a course website such as Blackboard, and students can leave messages any time of the day or night.

Anderson and Haddad (2005) proposed that greater learning occurs in online courses since online students write all responses, and in putting their thoughts into writing are more deliberate than when they spontaneously offer verbal responses in a traditional classroom setting. In online courses students may read and reread responses from both the instructor and fellow classmates. While students may be exposed to other ideas or responses in a face-to-face classroom, in an online course students may visit the website to reread viewpoints throughout the week. Anderson and Haddad also theorized that deeper perceived learning occurs online since students can find resources and sites on the World Wide Web to support their own viewpoints, and they may post these sites for fellow classmates to visit and learn from. Anderson and Haddad found that females experience greater perceived learning in online

courses, while males do not. Their research suggests that the difference in perceived learning occurs because women feel free to express their voices and opinions more freely in online courses, as opposed to face-to-face. They found that both genders reported a greater sense of control over learning in online classes. This sense of control was associated with greater learning. Both females and males reported less concern for their classmates in online courses, as opposed to face-to-face courses (Anderson & Haddad, 2005). Women experienced more instructor support in online courses than in face-to-face courses, while for men there was no difference. Female students in online courses are more likely to voice opinions and to write to instructors for help or clarification, perhaps in part due to role socialization, which inhibits them from speaking out in the face-to-face classroom (Anderson & Haddad, 2005).

Meyer (2003) found that students in online courses listed the opportunity to reflect before writing as an advantage to taking online courses. Meyer adds that students view online learning differently depending on their own personal learning styles. Students who process information best verbally and enjoy the "give and take" nature of the traditional classroom "may feel disadvantaged in the online setting" compared to students who prefer to reflect before offering responses.

Card and Horton (2000) discovered that students in online courses often cite literature and tie it in to concepts taught in the course, and integrate it with their own experiences. In the traditional classroom, students are more likely to rely upon their own experiences and opinions, and not tie it in to literature and concepts as often. Smith, Ferguson, and Caris (2001) studied the experiences of instructors teaching both web-based and traditional college courses, and concluded that the "emphasis on the written word encourages a deeper level of thinking in online classes," resulting in "more profound learning".

Warschauer (1997) asserts that online courses allow for "more in-depth analysis and critical reflection, because e-mail can be answered more deliberatively than synchronous messages." Online learning environments also encourage more active learning, as students write about what they learn and relate it to past events and experiences (Van Dusen, 2000), rather than passively memorize facts for exams or listen to lectures.

There is little research about gender differences in the online classroom, and what research has been done has involved small samples of students. As the number of students enrolling in online courses continues to rise, this is an area that is in need of further research. Initial studies show this method of learning may produce more broad, substantive and lasting knowledge than that of a traditional classroom course in the same subject for both sexes. For women there are added benefits, of increased class participation and increased connections to other students in the class. Further study could be done to learn if both of these yield greater learning and retention of learned material.

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Elizabeth Conklin is in the Education Administration doctoral program at Dowling College and works in the Office of the Dean of Arts and Sciences at Stony Brook University.

Developing and Sustaining
Quality Educational Leaders:
Building the Capacity for Leadership

By Antoinette MacLeod, Ed.D, Kevin McGuire, Ph.D. and Michael Keany, P.D.

ABSTRACT

Given the wide variations in pre-service opportunities for structured authentic practical experience, gaps likely exist between preparation for licensure and capacity for leadership. How do school districts identify these gaps and support the development of novice school principals? Who are the stakeholders, and what are their respective roles and responsibilities for developing effective educational leaders? What are some promising initiatives that build leadership capacity?

This paper examines national and local initiatives to building leadership capacity and focuses on models that emphasize mentored field experience as a major component of leadership preparation and development. The authors, identifying a broad base of stakeholders and building upon the (Young, Peterson and Short, 2002) model of a shared responsibility for preparing qualified educational leaders, suggest the design and implementation of pilot mentoring programs to support novice principals.

Recognition of the urgent need for quality school leaders to fill vacancies that continue to appear as experienced school leaders come of age for retirement has raised questions about the preparedness of universities, departments of education, and school districts to recruit, develop and sustain effective school principals. Lovely (2004), reports that 45% of the nation's principals are over the age of 50. Paige estimates that 40% of sitting principals are eligible for and will likely retire in the near future (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). A recent survey of 671 New York State principals found that half of these school leaders planned to retire by 2006 and three quarters would retire within the next ten years (O'Connell and Brown, 2001). Although the aging of the principal is well documented (Gates, S.M., Ringel, L.S, Chung, C.H., Ross, K. 2003) and, therefore, most school districts will face the challenge of recruiting, hiring, and retaining qualified leaders for changing school environments, estimates are that only 33% of US school districts have succession plans in place (Lovely, 2004). If this is so, it is unlikely that sufficient numbers of heirs-apparent are ready to step up to the principalship.

Recent educational leadership literature details how the role of the principal has expanded from that of supervision to multifaceted leadership focused on student learning and performance outcomes (McGuire, 2003; O'Connell and Brown, 2001; Murphy, 2003; King, 2002; Hale and Moorman, 2004; Levine, 2005). After more than two decades of discussion, policy makers and educators seem to be closer to identifying and agreeing upon the skills and knowledge that the new generation of educational leaders will need to restructure schools around student performance and to address the physical, moral, social, and emotional development of a more inclusive, increasingly diverse population. Researchers also agree that social, political, and economic conditions have dramatically altered the role of school principals and the schools they lead. Similarly, it is a commonly held belief that educational leadership preparation programs have evolved more slowly (McCarthy, M.M. 1999; Grogan, M. and Andrews, R. 2002; Glassman, N., Cibulka, J. and Ashby, D. 2002; Murphy, 2003; McGuire, 2003; Hale and Moorman, 2004; Levine, 2005; Usdan, M.D. 2002; U.S. Department of Education, 2004; Browne-Ferrigno and Muth, 2004; Frey, Bottom and O'Neill, 2005).

Although redefining educational leadership in terms of teaching and learning has been an ongoing discussion among practitioners, law makers, and academic scholars, and major leadership preparation and development projects have been supported and funded through the collaborative efforts of local, state, and federal agencies as well as private foundations little empirical evidence exists to link preparation of school principals to improved student performance (McCarthy, M.M. 1999; Levine, 2005). We do know, however, that practical experience prior to independent practice is valued and required in many professions. Physicians, attorneys, accountants, nurses, social workers, and teachers are among the many professionals who engage in extensive field work experiences while preparing for licensure. A study of NYS principals found that principals ranked *activities involving direct experience with the role including on-the-job experience as an assistant principal and the administrative internship of greatest value to them in preparing for the principalship* (O'Connell and Brown, 2001 p. 39).

Levine contends that educational leaders have *been appointed to and educated for jobs that do not exist any longer* (Levine, 2005, p. 12). It is not surprising that most of the school principals who leave their positions within five years of their appointment do so because they were not

adequately prepared for the complexities and demands of the principalship (Lovely, 2004). Browne-Ferrigno and Muth (2004) studied cohorts of aspiring and practicing principals and observed that pre-service training is only a preliminary step in preparing principals and that aspiring and practicing school leaders as well as the districts they serve reap benefits from carefully structured professional development initiatives that provide opportunities for the development of meaningful collaborative working relationships. Proponents of mentoring aspiring and practicing principals, Browne-Ferrigno and Muth contend that *collegial relationships* are essential *to sustain new and novice principals during the often difficult early years in new positions of leadership* (p. 481).

The literature that identifies promising school leadership preparation programs considers factors such as: completion rates, employment of program completers, extent to which participants mirror population demographics, and satisfaction of participants. Most often, programs cited share common characteristics including thorough screening of candidates, partnerships among various stakeholders for school leader preparation, clear goals and relevant curriculum that most often reflect ISLLC standards,[1] comply with rigorous state requirements for licensure, and require **extensive field work experience though internships, mentoring and or coaching (**Jackson and Kelly, 2002; Hale and Moorman, 2004; Lovely, 2004; U.S. Department of Education, 2004; Browne-Ferrigno and Muth, 2004).

Hale and Moorman (2004) emphasize that policy changes with respect to certification and licensure drive university program and curriculum innovations. In recent years policy makers have raised the bar, and changes in state requirements for licensure of principals are reflected in the quality and structure of field experience components of university- based leadership preparation programs as well as alternate routes to certification and licensure programs. Fry, Bottoms and O'Neill, 2005, In *The Principal Internship: How Can We Get It Right*? (a Wallace Foundation supported Southern Regional Education Board study) report findings based on surveys of 61 university leadership programs in 16 southern states: *Only about one-third of the programs require interns to actually lead the kinds of school-based activities successful principals engage in to improve schools and raise student achievement.* The report goes on to say that *There are major gaps between what leadership department heads believe about their programs' effectiveness in preparing aspiring leaders to do the job, the work that schools and districts need them to do, and the activities that interns are exposed to during internship as reported by leadership department heads (*p.26).

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[1] Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards for School Leaders developed by the Council of Chief State Schools Officers (CCSSO). For further information on CCSSO see http://www.ccsso.org To view states that have adopted ISLLC standards see http://www.ccsso.org/isllc.html

Opportunities for pre-service, job embedded practice vary widely from program to program in other regions of the country: **The University of Louisville IDEAS Program** requires 100 hours of internship experience***; CW Post, LIU*** prescribes 400 hours; **East Tennessee State University** mandates 540 hours, **The University of Washington** requires a highly-structured mentored internship that can range from 700-1400 hours and half- time release of the leadership candidate; **San Antonio Region 20 Service Center** requires a full time paid internship where the candidate spends 70% of the day in a leadership capacity (Jackson and Kelly, 2002). **Chicago Public School's Leadership, Academy& Urban Network for Chicago Program (LAUNCH)** is a collaborative model among the Chicago Public School's, Northwestern University, and the Chicago Principals and Administrator's Association (CPAA). This program incorporates a paid fellowship (semester) and a five week summer institute at Northwestern (Lovely, 2004). **The University of Buffalo Leadership** Initiative for **Tomorrow's Schools (LIFTS)**, inaugurated in 1994, requires a full-year mentored internship (Stevenson and Doolittle, 2003).

If preparing future school principals requires *experiential learning,* and job-embedded experience *in administrative practice requires formal structures and support by carefully selected and trained mentors* (Browne-Ferrigno and Muth, 2004, p. 476) while great variations exist in pre-service opportunities for structured authentic practical experience, then most likely gaps exist between preparation for licensure and capacity for leadership. How do school districts identify these gaps and support the development of novice school principals? How do school districts build capacity for leadership as they plan for succession? Who are the stakeholders, and what are their respective roles and responsibilities for developing effective educational leaders? What are some promising initiatives for building capacity for leadership?

This paper examines national and local initiatives to building leadership capacity and focuses on models that emphasize mentored field experience as a major component of leadership preparation and development. For the purpose of this discussion we define mentoring as one-on-one guidance and support specific to the mentees' needs for acquiring the knowledge and skills to succeed in the anticipated or actual job placement where mentors and mentees engage in collegial relations based on trust. We do not distinguish between mentor and coach as does the University of California Santa Cruz *Coaching Leaders to Attain Success* (CLASS). We identify a broad base of stakeholders and build upon the Young, Peterson and Short, 2002 model of shared responsibility for preparing qualified educational leaders.

As previously mentioned, Hale and Moorman (2003) identify state policy makers and institutional leaders as *key players* in the principal preparation program improvement process because they drive policy and influence content (p.5). In 1999 the NYS Department of Education led by Commissioner Mills and the NYS Board of Regents responded to

local and national concerns regarding the *urgent need for an emphasis on developing institutional leadership skills to promote good teaching and high- level learning* in a new age of school environments that require educational leaders to *recognize and assume shared responsibility for...student intellectual development, and…personal, social, emotional and physical development* (McGuire, 2003). The NYS response to growing tomorrow's leaders was and continues to be guided by beliefs about effective school leadership:

- Creating a vision for success;
- Setting High expectations for student achievement;
- **Building the Capacity for Leadership;**
- Demonstrating Ethical and Moral Leadership (McGuire, 2003).

Recent revisions to NYS Commissioner's Regulations Part 52 addressed essential elements of leadership preparation including: admission requirements, program characteristics, leadership experiences, and accountability measures to ensure program quality. Specifically with respect to field experiences, the following revised regulations have raised the bar: *Programs shall require candidates to successfully complete leadership experiences that shall be supervised by certified school district leaders and by program faculty who have preparation and expertise in supervision related to school building leadership* and *occur throughout the program of study. In addition, they shall culminate in a full-time (*or equivalent*) experience of at least 15 weeks that is structured to provide leadership responsibilities of increasing breadth and depth* (Part 52 NYS revised Commissioner's Regulations).

NYS revised requirements for leadership training, however, stop short of requiring formal on-the-job mentoring as mandated by the NCLB influenced NYS revised Commissioner Regulation 100.2 for beginning teachers:

Under previously revised provisions of Section 100.2(dd) of the Commissioner's Regulations, effective February 2, 2004, new teachers must complete a mentored experience in their first year of teaching. Likewise, under the new provisions of Section 80-3 of the Commissioner's Regulations, employing districts are now responsible to provide such mentoring to new teachers and must incorporate the design and planning of such mentored experiences into the district's professional development plan (NYS Office of Teaching and Learning).

Several promising leadership development programs, however, have made the leap beyond minimum state pre-service field experience requirements for licensure and have implemented pre-service paid mentored internships and/or post certification mentoring or coaching initiatives for school principals. These programs reflect the recommendations of recent studies of mentoring for leadership and engage partners in shared responsibility for leadership development.

The Models

The New Administrator Program (NAP) was developed by the University of California Santa Cruz and established a principal's coaching program in 1998 which developed the *Coaching Leaders to Attain Success* (CLASS) training module. The coaching support system was based on seven assumptions about preparing and developing new school principals:

- *New principals are not fully prepared to assume their duties and need major support;*
- *Becoming an effective principal is a developmental process;*
- *Effective coaching relationships are highly individual;*
- *New administrators do not necessarily know how to take advantage of coaching;*
- *Any program that supports new principals must be respectful of the demands for time and attention already placed upon them (new principals) by others within the organization;*
- *Coaches must be competent, trained and available full time;*
- *The cost of such a program is insignificant when weighed against the real cost of failed leadership* (Bloom, 1999, p.16-17; Petersen, 2002; Lovely, 2004, p. 63).

Focused on leadership coaching, CLASS makes a distinction between mentoring and coaching. *Mentors are typically senior organizational insiders in job-alike positions. The most effective coaches are generally outsiders who, while professional experts; have leadership coaching as their primary work* (Bloom, Castagna and Warren, 2003, p. 3).

CLASS was developed with the support of private funds from the Stupski Family Foundation and is now the core of the New Teacher Center at the University of California Santa Cruz partnership with the Association of California School Administrators for the professional development of leadership coaches. *CLASS* trains coaches and assists school districts in the State of California in the planning of principal induction programs (Bloom, Castagna, Warren, 2003).

The new application of *CLASS* is built upon *precepts* that place student achievement at the heart of the program. Coaching relationships are based upon *trust and permission*. Goals are mutually agreed upon, and coaching is designed around the needs of the coachee. The ISLLC and CPSELS[2] standards provide the framework for goal setting and formative assessment. Coaches are selected from *outside* the coachee's school district and employ a wide range of tools including 360 surveys that involve a diverse group of stakeholders. Built into the NTC professional development for leadership coaches is a plan for assessing the impact of coaching on student achievement. (Bloom, Castagna, Warren, 2003).

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[2] California Professional Standards for Educational Leaders to view standards go to http://www.acsa.org/hot_topics/hot_topic_detail.cfm?id=13

The partnership between UCSC and ACSA for the dissemination of the new CLASS model is a promising leadership support system in that it addresses recommendations for improved practice on mentoring and coaching reported in recent literature on this subject (Grogan and Crow, 2004; Daresh, 2004: Ehrich, et al., 2004; Long, 1997). For example:

- The selection process and training module attempts to ensure the quality of coaches;
- Mutually agreed upon goals for coaches developed within the framework of the ISLLC and CAPSELS standards help to the sustain focus of both coach and coachee;
- Coaching relationships are based upon *trust and permission rather than* superior-subordinate line relationships;
- Coaches are assigned from outside the school district, participate in a larger network, and focus on building leadership skills that facilitate student achievement, thus helping to *interrupt traditional patriarchal mentoring practices that promote sameness of thought* (Grogan and Crow, 2004 p 467);
- Consistent with the (Young, Peterson and Short, 2002) model for shared responsibility of stakeholders for leadership development, the CLASS model engages a broad base of partners drawn from a university, a professional organization, school districts, personnel with whom principals work, experienced principals and district level administrators, as well as the network of CLASS coaches and coachees. Each component of this comprehensive team supports the novice principal and shares in the task of building capacity for leadership.

Alternative Pathways

A recent U.S. Department of Education report identified six alternate pathways to the principalship described as *distinct strategic responses to one underlying crisis: the pervasive need to identify, recruit, prepare, and place high-quality principals in our nation's schools. While this crisis is most acutely experienced in challenging urban and rural areas, the problem of an insufficient applicant pool or pipeline of effective school principals is spreading into every region of the United States* (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

Innovative Pathways to School Leadership

These Features were Common across the Six Programs:
1.   **An initial base of support that includes partnerships with key stakeholders and funders to finance "start-up" costs of planning, development, and early implementation;**
2.   *A commitment on the part of program developers to do the extremely hard work of developing, establishing, and implementing the program over a minimum of three to five years;*

3.   *A research-based vision of what an effective principal does to lead instructional improvement and student achievement gains;*
4.   *A focused theory of action about program development and instructional design based on the vision;*
5.   *Candidate selection criteria and screening process that reflect the vision and the capability of the program;*
6.   *Structuring participant groups into continuing cohorts that frequently meet to discuss what they are experiencing and learning about the principal's job;*
7.   *Authentic learning experiences that incorporate on-the-job, practical realities of the principal's work;*
8.   *Frequent structured opportunities for participants to do personal reflection and performance assessment;*

9.   *Structured program monitoring and assessment through feedback, participants' performance in the program, and participants' success on the job after the program.*

The programs featured include:

Boston Principal Fellowship *School Leadership Institute*

New Leaders for New Schools *New York, N.Y., Chicago, Ill., Washington, D.C., Memphis, Tenn., and San Francisco Bay Area, Calif*

First Ring Leadership Academy *Cleveland State University*

Principals Excellence Program *Pike County Schools and University of Kentucky*

LAUNCH (Leadership Academy and Urban Network for Chicago) *Chicago Principals and Administrators Association (CPAA)*

NJ EXCEL (New Jersey Expedited Certification for Educational Leadership) *Foundation for Educational Administration New Jersey Principals and Supervisors Association*

All of these programs represent successful partnerships among a broad base of stakeholders, and several of these alternative routes to administrative certification incorporate paid internships. *Boston Principal Fellowship*, *New Leaders for New Schools* and *LAUNCH* are among the promising initiatives that emphasize mentored, job-embedded field experience as an essential component of leadership preparation. The *innovative pathways* identified by the US Department of Education draw from a diverse field of candidates and report demographic data which include the representation of minorities and of women, suggesting perhaps the beginning of the end *of a conspiracy of silence* with respect to reporting educational staffing data (Shakeshaft, C., 1999). For detailed information on the six innovative pro-

grams outlined in U.S. Department of Education, Office of Innovation and Improvement, *Innovations in Education: Innovative Pathways to School Leadership*, Washington, D.C. (2004).[3]

Many of the alternative routes to licensure have evolved from a need for large urban areas to *grow their own* educational leaders. New York City's *Children First* initiative gave rise to the NYC Leadership Academy which has been preparing cohorts of new leaders to lead reorganized city schools. The Academy is a tiered principal induction program that features a ten month mentored internship where aspiring principals work alongside exemplary principals to learn and practice the knowledge and skills necessary to lead school improvement and bolster student achievement. First year principals are supported by the NYCLA *New Principal On-Boarding Program* (NPOBP), designed to reinforce the NYC Department of Education mission which is focused on instruction, and seeks to create a support community facilitated by the development and operation of peer networks through technology. In the second year of service, NYC principals continue the induction process supported by *The Principal Leadership Development Program* which offers a series of workshops for further leadership training. The NYC Leadership Academy is another example of a shared responsibility for leadership preparation that includes local universities, the New York City leaders who guide school regulations, budgets and policy, exemplary practicing principals who serve as mentors, local school personnel, and generous funding agents who sponsored the Wallace-Readers' Digest Fund Grants in Education.

Unlike alternative routes to licensure in other states, the New York City Leadership Academy is not authorized to grant certification to aspiring principals. In New York State accredited universities endorse candidates for licensure. A recent NYC Leadership Academy Wallace Grantee Report clearly indicates that the Academy would welcome the opportunity to compete with universities. Throughout the report reference is made to the need for changes in conventional university leadership preparation programs, echoing widespread clarion calls for reform. (NYC Leadership Academy, 2003; McCarthy, M.M. 1999; Grogan, M. and Andrews, R. 2002; Grogan, M. and Andrews, R. 2002; Glassman, N., Cibulka, J. and Ashby, D. 2002; Murphy, 2003; McGuire, 2003; Hale and Moorman, 2004; Levine, 2005; Usdan, M.D. 2002; Paige, 2003; Cambron-Mccabe, N. and Cunningham, L., 2002; Browne-Ferrigno and Muth, 2004).

The search for promising leadership development models found that there is mounting pressure from lawmakers, scholars, leadership academies, large urban school systems, and corporate foundations for universities to rethink curriculum and focus on job-embedded learning opportunities for aspiring principals. Levine (2005) suggests that *because traditional educational administration programs have not prepared school leaders for their jobs, new provid-*

ers have sprung up to compete with them. (p. 68.) Numerous alternative approaches have emerged for preparing school leaders and thus provide evidence to support Levine's claim that *the process of replacing university-based educational leadership programs is well under way* (p. 68). Alternative preparation programs began appearing as early as the mid-1980's with the LEAD (Leadership Development Act). Some LEAD programs established partnerships among professional associations, universities, and state departments. McCarthy (1999) reports, however, that less than one-third of these programs included provisions for research.

Promising programs discussed in this article incorporate provision for the collection of empirical data for the purpose of evaluating the effectiveness of leaders in terms of student achievement. Although sufficient data is not yet available, this emphasis on research and evaluation represents a step forward. For example, The New York City Leadership Academy placed seventy-seven new principals in 2004 (New York City Leadership Academy, 2003). Novice principals partnered with experienced mentors who provided on-site support with school projects and problem solving (p. 38). These new leaders are now in their second year of service. When school achievement data becomes available for these placements, evaluators will be better equipped to assess this alternative pathway to leadership preparation.

Each of the models examined in this article subscribe to a shared responsibility for preparing and developing good educational leaders. Financial support for many of these programs came from large foundations. Partners include a broad base of stakeholders who facilitate the involvement of real schools which serve as learning laboratories where exceptional administrators trained as mentors support aspiring or novice principals. Thus it is anticipated that candidates will acquire the knowledge and skills to drive initiatives for improved student achievement.

Models varied with respect to applicant qualifications. Although teaching experience is required for most of the alternative routes to licensure, some programs have opened the principalship to a wider applicant pool. For example, Boston Principal Fellowship accepts three years experience in teaching, youth development, or management; provided that the candidate holds a bachelor's degree and has passed a state licensure exam (US Department of Education, 2004).

Paige observes that effective schools research has long recognized the pivotal role of the principal (US Department of Education, 2004). Lezotte (1991) predicted that: *The role of the principal will be changed to that of "a leader of leaders," rather than a leader of followers. Specifically, the principal will have to develop his/her skills as coach, partner and cheerleader* (p 4). Novice principals require mentored, job-embedded experiences to acquire the knowledge and skills that build leadership capacity within learning communities and that effect real school improvement. Research has demonstrated the benefits of mentoring for educators and other professionals as well as for the organizations that

these professionals serve. Findings suggest that benefits for mentors include networking, sharing of ideas, and engaging in reflective practice. Mentees, on the other hand benefited from constructive feedback, the comfort of support, sharing ideas and seeking advice for problem solving. Benefits for business organizations included higher productivity, retention of valued employees, better communication and relations in the workplace, and the promotion of loyalty. (Ehrich, Hansford, Tennent, 2004).

Although leadership preparation programs have begun to evolve, it will take time for university and other preparation programs to retool. Therefore, school districts will need to provide the necessary support required for novice principals to develop and grow in their roles (Brown-Ferrigno and Muth 2004; Kelley and Peterson, 2000). Perhaps it is time for an organized approach to the mentoring of first year principals. Several well- designed models have demonstrated potential and could serve as guides for local school districts. The best elements of initiatives such as *Coaching Leaders to Attain Success* (CLASS) in California and *The New York City On-Boarding Program* (NPOBP) might be replicated through collaborations among stakeholders such as New York State Leadership Academies, local universities, professional associations, local small and large businesses and BOCES. In New York as in other states a deep pool of experienced administrators exists who are near retirement age or who have recently retired. Universities could partner with local professional associations and BOCES to prescribe and deliver mentor training. Districts might seek help with funding through local business or legislative grants to design pilot mentoring programs for new leaders placed in schools of high need and records of low performance.

Future research should focus on the evaluation of the many new pathways and *grow your own* approaches to building leadership capacity. Data collection for such programs should include: Admission requirements, applicant pool, participant demographics, cost per participant, placements upon program completion, follow-up support for applicants in the first year of placement, and achievement data of students in placement schools*.* Additionally, *e*ach program should be assessed with the same rigorous criteria applied by Levine and others to evaluate university graduate education leadership preparation programs.

The leadership coaching models discussed have designed purpose, goals, curriculum, and field experiences with a focus on student learning. Each of these models should be studied further to assess the degree to which admissions criteria, self assessment, and school achievement data meet expectations for developing effective leaders equipped with the knowledge, skills, ethics and commitment to lead learning communities through the process of building and sustaining schools of excellence.

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Antoinette MacLeod, Ed.D., an Associate Professor of Education at St. John's University. During her 21 year tenure as a school administrator, Dr. MacLeod held positions at both the middle school and high school levels. She served as a Long Island high school principal for 16 years.

Kevin McGuire, Ph.D., Professor of Administration and Instructional Leadership at St. John's University has also distinguished himself as a Long Island Superintendent of Schools for 18 years.

Michael Keany, P.D., has served as a principal at both the middle and high school levels for 21 years. He has also been a school board trustee for 12 years. Currently he is the Director of the LI School Leadership Center, which is part of a statewide effort to nurture and encourage the next generation of school leaders and to support present practitioners.

Second Grade Teacher Attitudes Regarding a Writing Consultant Training/Coaching Model of Staff Development and its Impact on Instructional Practices
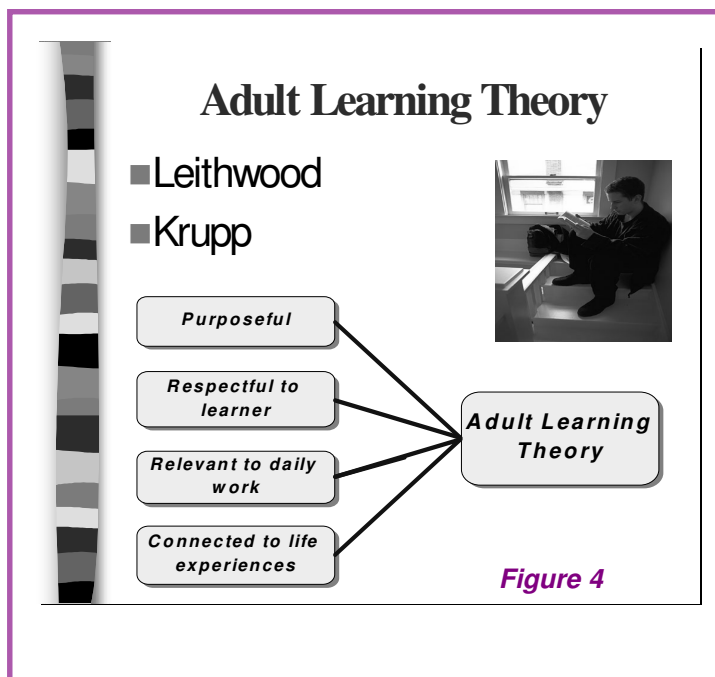
By Dr. Darlene McDonough

During my fifteen years in education as a classroom teacher, a reading specialist, a college professor, and an administrator in New York State, I was always curious about how to positively impact student achievement in the most students. An elementary classroom teacher can impact approximately twenty-two children a year and a secondary classroom teacher about one hundred and twenty-five. During a twenty-five year career that means an elementary teacher can reach five hundred and five children and a secondary teacher three thousand one hundred and twenty five. As a reading specialist, depending on the responsibilities of the position, one could reach approximately the same number of students as a secondary classroom teacher.
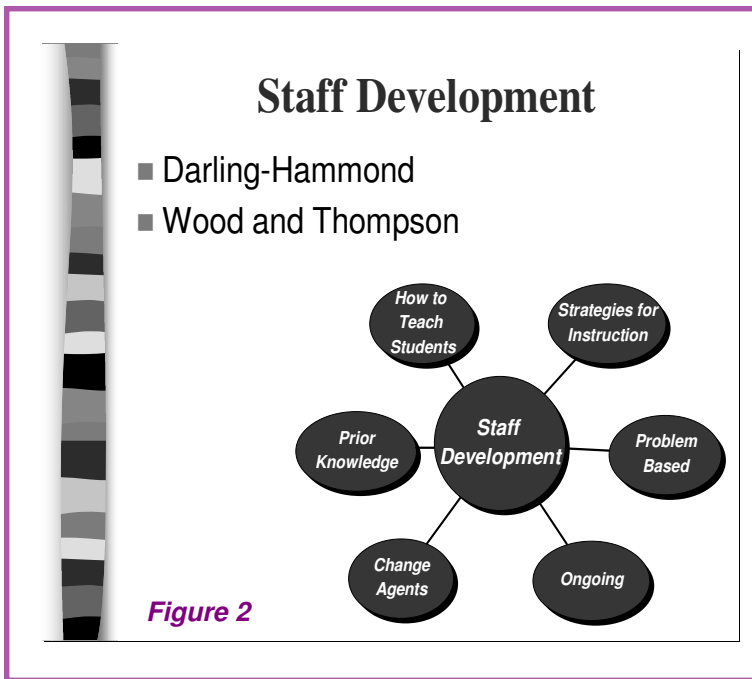
However, as a college professor there could be a pyramid effect. Providing instruction in educational methods to twenty-five preservice or graduate students each semester over a four year undergraduate degree period, a professor could possibly impact five thousand children and over a two year graduate degree period two thousand five hundred children as each teacher implements best practices learned. This same pyramid effect can take place in a district where a building or district administrator could impact approximately the same number of students by providing ongoing professional development for teachers. I entered this profession to make a difference in the lives of children, and it seemed to me that as an elementary or secondary classroom teacher, after twenty five years, I would be reaching a very small percentage of children. As a college professor or an administrator, I could impact the academic success of many more students by providing the appropriate training/coaching and professional growth opportunities. After reaching this conclusion, I decided to become a school administrator.

My first administrative position was at the central office level in a suburban school district. We had five elementary schools grades kindergarten through five, two middle schools grades six through eight and one high school grades nine through twelve. Based on our standardized test data, we needed to increase student achievement in writing.

After researching the best practices in providing professional development for teachers, we decided to use the training/coaching model. The components of effective training/coaching, as presented by Joyce and Showers (2002) include providing teachers with the theoretical knowledge on which the training is based, demonstrations of the strategies, opportunities to practice in real or simulated situations in which coaching and feedback are given to the teachers, and there is transfer into the instructional practices of teachers. Based

Adult Learning Theory

- Leithwood
- Krupp

Purposeful

Respectful to learner

Relevant to daily work

Connected to life experiences

Adult Learning Theory

Figure 4

on adult learning theory (**Figure 4**), the adult learner needs to view the new learning as purposeful, relevant to their daily work, connected to their current life work experiences, and presented in a way that is respectful of the learner (Leithwood, 1996 and Krupp, 1982). According to Darling-Hammond (2000) and Wood and Thompson (1993), professional development for teachers needs to be problem-based, ongoing, teach instructional strategies, be based on teacher's

Staff Development

- Darling-Hammond
- Wood and Thompson

How to Teach Students

Strategies for Instruction

Prior Knowledge

Staff Development

Problem Based

Change Agents

Ongoing

Figure 2

prior instructional knowledge, provide teachers with the knowledge of how to teach students, and help teachers become change agents (**Figure 2)**.
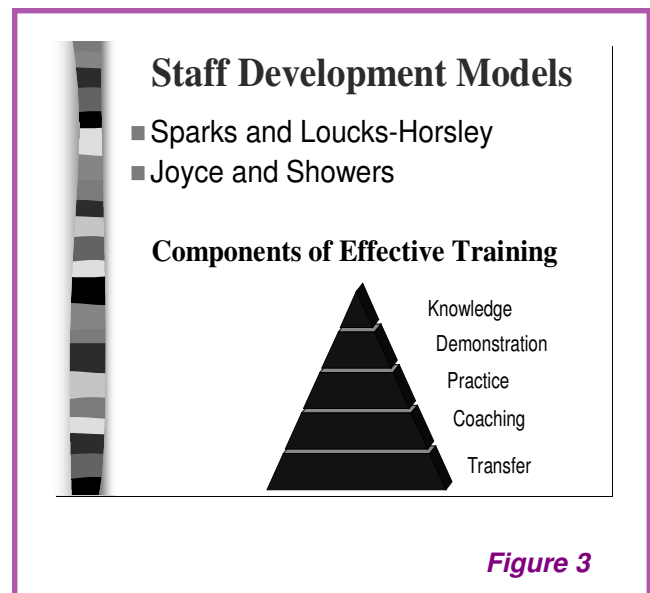
We could only afford to provide this extensive training for one grade level and through consensus began with second grade. The previous year, the third grade teachers had had a similar model of implementation in the area of writing with two consultants. They had not, however, worked in a high needs district with a diverse population and shared the responsibility of providing the training/coaching for the five elementary schools. The materials used to present the strategies in the third grade classrooms were developed by the two consultants and were not the resources that the district had currently adopted for instruction in the elementary English Language Arts program. So the third grade teachers had to adapt the strategies to the core resources in the District. The difference this year would be that one consultant would be used for all the second grade teachers in the district and the consultant would be a teacher who had had previous experience working with minority and diverse populations. The consultant would be developing strategy lessons using the core resources that the District had adopted for the teaching of English Language Arts at the elementary level. We believed the criteria was crucial to maintain consistency and continuity throughout the district and help teachers learn how to teach strategies using the core programs as well as have an individual who had a working knowledge of how to meet the instructional needs of minority students.

Teachers would meet with the consultant for one half hour prior to the classroom lesson to understand the objective of the lesson, the instructional plan, and the resources that would be used. The consultant would rotate

through the buildings twice a month. In each building, one second grade classroom was used as the classroom lab for the demonstration lesson in which the teachers observed the consultant modeling a lesson. The classroom lab was rotated through all the second grade classrooms by the end of the school year. After each demonstration by the consultant, the teachers would meet to discuss their observations, ask questions, and plan for the implementation of the strategy by the individual classroom teachers. When the consultant returned after two weeks, she would visit the second grade classrooms to assist in the implementation process by team teaching, conducting another demonstration or provide feedback to the teacher based on each teacher's individual need.

At the end of the school year, all second grade teachers were given a survey to complete. The survey was designed based on the Components of Effective Training/Coaching (Joyce and Showers, 2002 and Sparks and Laucks-Horsley, 1989) and the Five Levels for Evaluating Effective Professional Development (Guskey, 2000). Personal interviews with the second grade teachers were conducted to determine 1) their reactions/attitudes regarding the training/coaching, 2) the knowledge gained as a result of their experience, 3) the support received from building and district administration, 4) their ability to transfer the knowledge into classroom practice, and 5) their perceptions of the impact of the training/coaching on student achievement (**Figure 3**).

The survey data indicated that no matter the age, years of teaching experience, degree, or home school, all second grade teachers found that they were able to transfer the instructional strategies into classroom practice to some

Staff Development Models

- Sparks and Loucks-Horsley
- Joyce and Showers

Components of Effective Training

Knowledge
Demonstration
Practice
Coaching
Transfer

Figure 3

Relation to Demographics

Gender	Ethnicity	Age	Teaching	Degree	School
Male 2/7.7%	African American 5/19.2%	22-30 6/23.1%	1-5 7/26.9%	BA 2/7.7%	#1 6/23.1%
Female 24/92.3%	Caucasian 21/80.8%	31-40 8/30.8%	6-10 7/26.9%	BA+30 1/7.7%	#2 3/11.5%
		41-50 2/7.7%	11-15 4/15.4%	MA/MS 16/ 61.5%	#3 8/30.8%
		51-60 9/34.6%	16-20 1/3.8%	MA/MS+ 1/3.8%	#4 4/15.4%
		Over 61 1/3.8%	21-15 1/3.8%	MA/MS+15 1/3.8%	#5 5/19.2%
			26-30 4/15.4%	MA/MS+30 2/7.7%	
			Over 31 2/7.7%	MA/MS+60 2/7.7%	

Figure 1

degree and as a result of this transfer there was some degree of improvement in student writing (**Figure 1**).

The interviews indicated that 1) the teachers had an overall positive reaction to the training/coaching, 2) they gained some knowledge in the area of writing instruction, and 3) there was some degree of organizational support from both building and district administration. The result was the transfer of instructional strategies modeled by the consultant into each second grade teacher's classroom practices, and student writing improved (**Figure 5**).
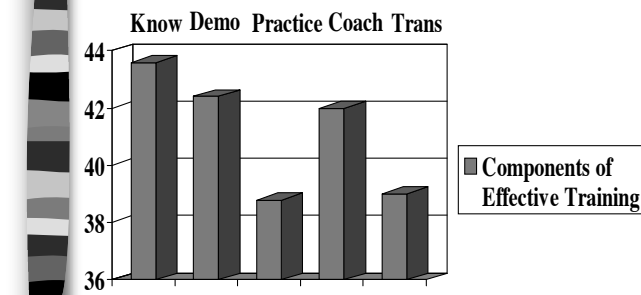
Findings

Figure 5

Teachers responded to questions in the survey about improvement in student writing. Of the teachers surveyed, 92% agreed that student writing had improved. Eighty percent of the teachers agreed to some extent that students were writing more frequently and 77% agreed that students were writing longer pieces. Teachers were asked if student attitude regarding writing had changed and 94% indicated that the coaching/training model had a positive impact on student attitude regarding writing. Ninety two percent of the teachers agreed that they are now analyzing student writing as a result of the coaching/training model.

I have since changed districts and administrative positions. I have continued to implement the training/coaching model of professional development as a district administrator in English Language Arts in grades 3 and 4 as well as in math in grades five through eight. Similar results were found. It is my belief, based on the qualitative and quantitative data of teacher attitudes that the training/coaching model of professional development makes a difference in classroom practice that has a positive impact on student achievement.

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Dr. Darlene McDonough is Director of Elementary Education in the Middletown Schools, Middletown, New York.

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Joseph J. Del Rosso
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