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Practical Research for the Educational Community

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in cooperation with Institutions of Higher Learning as a service for school people to help with school planning and curriculum.

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The Editorial Board of the Journal for Leadership and Instruction has identified the following thematic interests for the 2021 issues:

1. Early Childhood Development
2. Social and Emotional Development and Mental Health
3. School Finance
4. Culturally Responsive and Sustaining Education
5. Media Literacy
6. Equity in Student Achievement
7. School Safety
8. Diversity in the School Workforce

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Editor's Perspective

As we read research regarding teaching, learning and leading, we gain insight into the very complex environment a classroom encompasses that has been made even more complex by virtual instruction for multiple school age groups.

On April 10, Diane Ravitch shared an essay in her blog by David Berliner entitled: "A Hug for Jennifer." In his essay, David describes a visit to a teacher's classroom where the teacher had invited him to visit anytime. On the day he chose to visit, he entered the class after the morning announcements and stayed until the lunch break. During the class, he observed this one student who was not participating in any of the activities. He noted that the teacher and other students ignored this student. He felt a sense of anger at this obvious ostracization of a child. When the class departed for lunch, he approached the teacher and asked what was happening with the student who was not participating. The teacher, Jennifer, explained that the previous night the student's brother had been shot and killed. She met with the student before class and told him how sorry she was for his brother's death and offered him the opportunity to join in any activity in class or not that day. She said that she would not insist that he concentrate on any work and he could join into any activity at any time. David said he recognized at that moment how important it is to understand the intentions, thoughts, feelings and beliefs of the person you are observing when you try to assess how effective her work is.

I had the opportunity to discuss with two grandparents their experiences as monitors and helpers in the home virtual classroom of their grandchildren. One grandparent told me how 3 of her 6 grandchildren shared a room at home with three small desks facing separate walls. The children were in grades five, two and kindergarten. She tried to keep them on task with their teacher and encouraged them to participate and pay attention. The child in grade five had a math lesson that she wanted no help doing. The child in grade two was listening to a story. The kindergartener was listening to the teacher ask for words that began with the sound of the letter W. She told her grandmother "worm is a good one." Her grandmother said: "Raise your hand so the teacher knows you have an answer." She did. Her teacher called on her and she hit the unmute button and said: "Worm." The teacher said: "Dorothy, very good choice. Thank you." Then Dorothy hit the mute button and said to her grandmother: "After you speak you have to mute yourself again." Then Dorothy began to look around the room and her grandmother said: "Pay attention to the other students, Dorothy." To which her grandchild replied: "Why, it's so boring."

A second grandmother told me she was discussing with her granddaughter the return to in-school classes at her middle school and her granddaughter said: "I'm nervous about going back to school. I don't feel comfortable dealing with other kids. I don't know how I will react. I think I might just stay home." Her grandmother tried to assure her that all the kids feel that way and she will feel more comfortable at school as it becomes a habit again. Her grandmother wondered if teachers knew how anxious their students were about returning to school.

In this issue, our researchers offer multiple themes and insights beginning with principal leadership and its effects on programming for students with disabilities. We offer research on anxiety among English as second language learners, the physicality and emotionality of inclusive classrooms, and secondary and college teachers' attitudes towards Writing Instruction. In addition, this issue includes two articles dealing with technology. One article focuses on the expansion of student achievement with effective incorporation of technology for learning and the second article examines social media, gaming with friends and student academic, social and emotional experiences in grades three through six. In our section, From the Field, our researcher deals with qualitative data from teachers that help to expand our knowledge of bullying in an era of a pandemic. As is customary, we offer a book review from one of our editors that deals with global differences in schooling.

The research articles we share with you in this journal open doors to view leadership, instruction, learning and the needs of students and staff in very diverse ways. This research poses many more questions than answers for our readers. We hope that our readers will explore their own questions that this research initiates and they will conduct research to share with us in future journals.

Robert J. Manley,
Editor-in-Chief

CALL FOR PROPOSALS

Leadership for Special Education Programs

Special Issue Editors: Rene S. Parmar & Robert J. Manley

Academic demands on students with disabilities have increased since the implementation of the No Child Left Behind Act (2004) and other initiatives that support college-readiness for all students. Required changes in curriculum and services to address high stakes testing, Common Core standards, and transition to post-secondary environments, go beyond the classroom and require administrative commitment and support. School leaders are on the front line for facilitating changes that enhance outcomes for students with disabilities.

Prior research has indicated that school leaders and district administrators often receive only minimal preparation in designing and supporting programs for students with special education needs. Further, attitudes or misconceptions may get in the way of directing resources to optimize outcomes. Heightened requirements for parent participation, community engagement for vocational training, and additional federal reporting requirements can lead to a situation where leaders feel under-prepared and overwhelmed.

Topics of interest for this special issue of the Journal of Leadership and Instruction include special education leadership issues that are related (but not limited) to:

- Preschool and early education
- School-based academic program considerations
- College and career readiness planning and transition
- Special schools
- Preparation of future leaders
- Leadership needs for diversity in special education
- Policies and practices in special education leadership
- Professional development for school leaders and staff

Submission deadlines

Initial manuscript:

- July 1, 2021

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Submission Process

To be considered for publication, all submissions should be double spaced, in 12 point characters, sent by email as a Word document to ccosme@scopeonline.us. Authors should follow the current APA guidelines. The review of related literature should be written in the past tense. Maximum length is 10 pages (double spaced) including Tables and Figures.

Review of proposals

The submitted full manuscripts will be sent to external peer reviewers for consideration. Final decisions will be made after the review of full papers through *JLI*'s submission system and after review by the seven co-editors

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Special Education Representation and Ratings of School Leadership

- By Rene S. Parmar, Ph.D.

Abstract

Teachers from 1,050 schools in New York City completed a survey, administered annually by the school district, based on the Framework for Great Schools model. Publicly available results were analyzed. Multiple regression analyses revealed a significant effect of representation of students with special education needs, school attendance rates, and principal experience on teacher ratings of Effective Leadership. Schools with high economic needs also served the highest percentage of students with disabilities and tended to have the lowest ratings of leadership effectiveness. The research offers insights into areas where principal leadership for effective programming for students with disabilities is most needed. The information can be useful for both preservice and professional development of school leaders.

Introduction

This research study explored whether school leadership effectiveness, as perceived by teachers, was impacted by the representation of students with special education needs (SEN) within a school. Over the past two decades the educational system has witnessed several significant changes that directly impact educational practices for school building leaders as related to SEN, such as and increased emphasis on inclusive programs, higher academic standards, and services for students with multiple educational needs related to language, economic needs, and diversity.

Research on Leadership for Special Education Needs

Many researchers have observed that school building leaders play a key role in ensuring that special education programs are implemented by (a) defining a climate where inclusion is a priority; (b) remaining engaged in the student identification and referral process; (c) building trust with special education personnel; and (d) having a long-term vision for meeting State and Federal guidelines. The present study presents a comparison of teacher ratings of principals in general education schools with varying degrees of special education representation within the New York City Department of Education (NYCDOE).

Participation of All Students in Academic Programs

In response to federal and state legislation (the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 and the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) of 2015), which sometimes are not consonant with the focus on the individual child, as mandated by the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2004), there has been a rapid increase in inclusion programs where SEN receive the general education curriculum and prepare for high stakes assessments. Principals are often tasked with designing management plans that adhere to the mandates. In a study of eight schools from three different states, Salisbury (2006) rated school quality using the School subscale of the Program Quality Measurement Tool and followed up with an analysis of the ecological context of the school. The research revealed that there was an inverse correlation between program quality ratings and implementation of inclusion. Principals who embraced inclusion spoke from perspectives of social justice and stated a philosophy of valuing diversity, acceptance, and membership among students. Principals of schools with lower levels of inclusion focused mainly on compliance with Least Restrictive Environment provisions and tended to have a higher percentage of pull-out services for SEN.

Using critical discourse analysis, O'Laughlin and Lindle (2015) reported the findings from principal interviews and policy document analysis in five urban elementary schools regarding inclusion of SEN. They found that many principals constructed definitions of "normal" and "not-normal" environments, based on their understanding of the IDEA regulations. They struggled to articulate their decision-making practices for student placement, and several participants expressed that inclusion in general education was something SEN "earned" based on their academic performance and ability to handle the general classroom. Some felt they were in a power struggle with parents who demanded services which they were not necessarily willing to accommodate, leading to a discourse of "winning" and "losing." Many principals ceded power to teachers and other decision-makers within the schools, citing them as the experts, and others looked to district mandates.

Increasing Rigor of Academic Programs

In 2009 the U.S. Department of Education proposed Common Core State Standards to provide curriculum guidelines in English Language Arts and Mathematics for educators and parents (National Governers Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State

School Officers, 2010). For SEN, this has implied an increase in the academic focus of their Individual Education Programs, increases in the time they spend in general education classrooms, and participation in supplementary programs designed to enhance their academic performance (e.g., after school tutoring, online study support; computer-based adaptive study programs).

A phenomenological study by Frick, Faircloth, and Little (2012) investigated the moral dilemmas faced by principals as they attempted to make decisions that balanced the best practice for SEN with the collective needs of the general education student body. Increasing requirements for accountability based on standardized test score performance heighten the tensions related to creating appropriate educational programs. The authors interviewed 13 elementary schools principals across rural and urban locations, including both small and large schools. The findings revealed a focus on learning and achievement as driving forces behind decision-making regarding inclusion. While the best interest of the child may be a socially safe and comfortable environment, principals felt pressure to produce results in terms of test score improvements. When the behavioral needs of SEN could interfere with the classroom learning environment, they usually sought alternatives.

Changes in the Student Population

Changes in student demographics may have an influence on principal leadership with regard to inclusion of SEN. Research on students who are "dually diagnosed" with both disabilities as well as English language learning needs has indicated that these students benefit from programs and practices that go beyond the services provided to each group separately (Nguyen, 2012). A survey-based study of 84 principals of schools with primarily Hispanic populations conducted by Roberts and Guerra (2017), revealed that the greatest areas of need for further information were in the areas of meeting IDEA requirements, implementing Response to Intervention, and working with aggressive and challenging behaviors.

Changes in Policies and Practices for SEN

The move toward Response to Intervention (RTI), an identification process that requires documentation of supports provided to students prior to referral for disability services, and Multi-tiered Systems of Support (MTSS) has placed additional responsibilities on school leaders at both the elementary and secondary levels (King, Lemons, & Hill, 2012). Cusson (2010, cited in Pazey & Cole, 2012) surveyed 293 members of the University Council on Educational Administration, and found that only a handful were aware if their preparation programs for school leaders included 12 critical components of special education program administration: (a) relationship and communication; (b) leadership and vision; (c) budget and capital; (d) special education laws and policies; (e) curriculum and instruction; (f) personnel; (g) evaluation of data, programs, students, and teachers; (h) collaboration and consultation; (i) special education programming; (j) organization; (k) professional development; and (l) advocacy. Pazey and Cole (2012) argue that it is not possible to pursue an agenda of social justice for students with disabilities in school settings unless school leaders are aware of issues related to IDEA implementation, and willing to take on the responsibility of implementing equitable programs.

In a review of research supporting the need for special education leadership personnel, Seltzer (2011) noted that of the approximately 20,000 administrators responsible for inclusion programs, 20% had no background in special education. The situation persists, although a survey of 205 school leaders revealed that they report often spending more than 19 hours per week dealing with special education student matters (Lasky & Karge, 2006).

Research on Teacher Perspectives

A case study by Sindelar, Shearer, Yendol-Hoppey, and Liebert (2006) included interviews with 95 teachers at a middle school in Florida where changes in leadership affected the attention and resources given to inclusive programs. The authors found that leadership that was directed toward increasing school test scores resulted in decreases in special education supports and promoted the implementation of direct instruction programs over those that emphasized social and cognitive growth.

Rationale for the Present Study

There is insufficient research on the perspectives of teachers with regard to effective leadership practices in schools serving SEN within complex urban and diverse settings. The present study adds to the current professional literature in this area.

Method

Sample

Teacher responses from 1,500 public schools were aggregated by school within the New York City school system. Schools excluded from the present analysis were schools with incomplete data, alternate schools, charter schools, and early childhood centers. The enrollment within schools ranged from 61-6040 students, with an average of 600 students. The teacher survey response rate per school ranged from 19% to 100%, with an average of 86%. The representation of SEN within schools, English Language Learners, and Students in Poverty are reported in **Table 1**. It is noted that the NYC average percentage of SEN in schools, 23.13%, is higher than the statewide average of 15.6%.

Instruments

The Framework for Great Schools model (Byrk, Sebring, Allensworth, Easton, & Luppescu 2006) was adapted in survey form by the New York City Department

Table 1

Representation of Students with Special Education Needs Within Participant Schools

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Percent Students with Disabilities	0	56.9	23.13	7.27
Percent Self-Contained	0	33.8	6.80	5.00
Percent English Language Learners	0	100	14.75	12.05
Percent HRA Eligible	3.9	96.2	65.07	22.72

of Education (revised 2018). The present study focuses on the Effective Leadership dimension (19 items out of 105 total items). The survey items were in a Likert format with 4 response choices (Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree). The current version of the survey has internal consistency Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of >.70 for each subscale (Merrill & Lafayette, 2018). Data were obtained from the publicly available files at the NYC website InfoHub https://infohub.nyced.org/ .

Results

Correlation analysis evidenced that an increase in the percent of SEN was inversely correlated with teacher positive ratings on Effective Leadership ($r = -.185$, $p < .01$), as was the percent of SEN in Self-Contained classes ($r = -.257$, $p < .01$) (**Table 2**).

A linear regression analysis was conducted to examine which school demographic factors had the greatest predictive ability for Effective Leadership ratings. The overall R2 value of .355 was statistically significant ($F = 15.56$, $p < .000$). When all factors were considered, the overall SEN representation was a significant positive predictor ($\beta = .085$, $p = .05$) but the representation of students in self-contained ($\beta = -.174$, $p < .01$), indicated a significant negative effect (**Table 3**). Other significant predictors were student attendance and years of principal experience at the school.

Discussion and Implications

The study provides an initial look at whether percentages of included and self-contained SEN are related to differences in leadership ratings of building principals. While the average ratings on Effective Leadership were highly positive (85.3%, range 41-99%), the correlational analysis indicates that as special education enrollment in a school increases, ratings of leadership effectiveness decrease. As an added observation, high special education enrollment occurs concurrently with high poverty and high minority representation among students being served.

Table 2

Correlations of SEN Representations with Demographic Characteristics of Participant Schools

	% ELL	% SEN	% SEN-SC	% HRA Eligible	% Black	% Hispanic	Years of principal experience	Student Attendance Rate
Effective School Leadership Score	-0.028	-.185**	-.257**	-.218**	-.200**	-0.061	.150**	.308**
% ELL	1	-0.045	.132**	.467**	-.363**	.534**	-0.017	0.010
% SEN		1	.610**	.465**	.333**	.249**	-.142**	-.591**
% SEN-SC			1	.540**	.316**	.236**	-.091**	-.527**
% HRA Eligible				1	.322**	.540**	-.096**	-.608**
%Black					1	-.354**	-.105**	-.507**
%Hispanic						1	-0.015	-.214**
Years of principal experience							1	.133**

Note: "*" = significant at $p < .05$; "**" = significant at $p < .01$; ELL = English Language Learners; SEN-SC = SEN in Self-contained classes.

In prior research, principals have reported spending 19 hours per week or more on administering special education programs in their schools (Lasky & Karge, 2006). As noted by Salisbury (2006) principals who were found to prioritize high academic standards frequently were more likely to indicate that managing special education meetings, dealing with litigation, and communicating with parents represented a drain on their time. Principal instructional leadership and support of teacher autonomy were the main components of Effective Leadership defined in the NYC School Survey. The results of the present study reveal that teachers in schools with a high special education enrollment rate believe that their leaders could be more effective in developing and implementing integrated programs, and enhancing curriculum consistency across grades. O'Laughlin and Lindle (2012) observed that when principals were willing to give teachers more power and support their initiatives, it was more likely that Least Restrictive Environment provisions of IDEA were implemented in schools.

Given the high minority representation in the participating schools, principal professional development for effective leadership for SEN should include practices that address students who are "dually" diagnosed as having both special education as well as other learning needs related to English language proficiency and poverty which require increased coordination of services and interventions (Roberts & Guerra, 2017).

Limitations of the Study

While the large sample size provides considerable power for the statistical analyses, limitations of the study include restricted information based on pre-designed questions and aggregation of positive teacher responses across schools. The items within the EL component do not focus specifically on SEN, although the movement of students toward less restrictive environments is now part of school quality ratings within NYC schools. There is the possibility of response bias on the part of teachers as the response patterns were negatively skewed. Further analyses could include a breakdown by school type, as well as examination of individual items. Future research could be conducted that more directly examines school leaders' knowledge and ability to implement inclusion through focused surveys, interviews, and observations, particularly at sites where dually diagnosed students are being served.

Implications for Future Practice

It is beneficial for policy-makers to be aware of how the presence of SEN influences school leadership roles and school climate, which could lead to clearer

Table 3

Regression Coefficients for Predictors of Effective Leadership

	B	β	*t*	sig.
Percent Students with Disabilities	0.677	0.085	1.959	0.050*
Percent Self-Contained	-2.001	-0.174	-4.064	0.000**
Percent English Language Learners	-0.239	-0.049	-1.064	0.287
Percent HRA Eligible	0.135	0.053	0.843	0.399
Percent Black	-0.132	-0.060	-1.125	0.261
Percent Hispanic	-0.022	-0.010	-0.193	0.847
Years of principal experience at this school	0.012	0.106	3.476	0.001**
Student Attendance Rate	5.412	0.253	5.455	0.000**
School Level	0.025	0.052	1.644	0.101

Note: "*" = significant at p < .05; "**" = significant at p < .01.

guidelines for developing academic programs and meeting inclusion mandates through effective RTI and MTTS. The press for higher academic standards, as per the CCSS, can have an immense impact on teachers who are charged with teaching inclusive classrooms. As recommended by DeMatthews et al. (2020) and Boscardin and Lashley (2018), based on analysis of prior research, effective leadership for special education programs begins with establishing a vision for inclusion of students, a focus on high quality learning for all, and the building of professional capacity and teacher communities. Some of these principles are evident in the New York State Systemic Improvement Plan (2019), and it is hoped that they will become widely adopted.

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Significant Predictors of Second Language Anxiety Among Chinese University Students

- By Wen Hsuan Yu, Ed.D., and Eustace G. Thompson, Ph.D.

Abstract

Second language anxiety is an emotional reaction that diminishes second language learners' academic performance. Researchers have identified cognitive and affective factors as contributors to students' classroom anxiety reactions, yet few studies have examined the concurrent effect of those factors. This study employed survey questionnaires to investigate the effects of native language learning history, second language learning attitude, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy on students' second language classroom anxiety. Multiple regression results indicated that the affective factors, self-efficacy and attitudes about learning the target language, were significant predictors of students' English communication apprehension in the classroom.

Introduction

Issues related to Second Language Learners (SLL), particularly university students of Chinese backgrounds, is of importance in the field of higher education. A specific dimension of this issue is SLL anxiety. Tanir & Ozmaden (2018) indicated that anxiety is one of the most common psychological symptoms that affect mental health negatively among college students. Anxiety is defined as: a worrisome feeling that appears when it feels like a strong desire or impulse will not reach its goal (Alver, Dilekmen, & Ada, 2016). The work of MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) indicate that situation-specific anxiety could be referred to as anxiety triggered when specific factors are present. Horowitz (2001) identified such contexts as taking exams, performing on stage, giving a speech, and/or communicating in a second or foreign language.

Liu (2006) investigated levels of English language learners' second language anxiety among Chinese college students via multiple measures (i.e., surveys, observations, journals, and interviews), and reported that two-thirds of these students experienced foreign language anxiety in the classroom at a variety of levels. Similarly Liu (2012) concluded that this type of anxiety had a debilitating and long-lasting detrimental effect on the second language use, motivation toward learning the target language, and overall second language attainment.

The issue of second language anxiety is of particular concern when one considers that Chinese students are the largest sector of international student enrollments in American schools. The number of Chinese students in the United States from academic years 2008/09 to 2018/19 showed a consistent increase from 98,235 to 369,548 (Statista, 2010). In addition, attracting and retaining Chinese students is critically important to the U.S. economy. The Association of International Educators (NAFSA, 2019) latest analysis reported that the 1,075,496 international students studying at U.S. colleges and universities contributed $38.7 billion and supported more than 415,995 jobs to the U.S. economy during the 2019-2020 academic year.

The purpose of this study is to continue to unravel the predictors that may contribute to second language anxiety, and use the findings as a framework to develop ways by which to mitigate stress. Data was collected prior to the Covid-19 pandemic. The anxiety created by this event had no impact on the findings of this study.

Literature Review

The triggers of language anxiety in classrooms were explored in particular learning contexts. Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986) first introduced the three componential sources of language anxiety in the classroom: 1) communicative apprehension; 2) fear of negative evaluation; and 3) test anxiety. This model came to be regarded as one of the most influential frameworks in the construct of language anxiety. In the research literature, factors contributing to language anxiety have two classifications, cognitive factors and affective factors. The cognitive factors of language aptitude, native language problems and learning styles are identified as primary. Wong (2004) conducted a study that investigated international students' preferred learning styles while studying in Australian colleges.

The anxiety levels of students in the affective category are explained by factors of motivation and attitudes, culture and learner beliefs, and self-efficacy, self-esteem and self-confidence. In an interview with several Asian English as a Second Language students, Ohata (2005) found that Asian culture characteristics might contribute to student apprehensive reactions in the classroom.

Pappamihiel (2002) explored the affective factors of self-efficacy, self-esteem and self-confidence as related to Asian students. In this study, he found that English language learners' self-perceived skills in reading and writing in English contributed to students' anxiety. Similarly, Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2006) reported that students who perceived themselves as good readers were proficient in reading, whereas for students who expressed high reading anxiety, their reading self-efficacy levels were low. Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994) added that an individual's self-perceived efficacy and self-esteem may have a direct impact on his/her self-confidence, and his/her level of self-confidence is likely to be a strong predictor of his/her academic achievement.

In summary, a substantial body of social psychology research focused on Chinese students revealed a strong connection between second language learners' anxiety, first language acquisition, motivation and self-efficacy in the second language learning process. However, little research was conducted that took all of these factors into account and compared them explicitly.

Research Question

To what extent is English language anxiety predicted by cognitive variables (native language learning history, academic learning history, test taking characteristics, and classroom learning characteristics) and affective variables (attitudes towards English language learning, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy), when controlling for gender, English language ability, accumulated grade point average, length of time studying English, and time spent living in the U.S.?

Methodology

The study was conducted in a mid-sized private university located in the suburban region of New York State with a substantial Chinese student population. As of 2017, the students from China represented the largest majority (N = 614), followed by students from India (n = 62), South Korea (n = 27) and Taiwan (n = 24). A total of 145 Chinese international students enrolled in undergraduate and graduate studies comprised the final sample size. However, due to missing information on some questionnaires 128 respondents comprised the final sample size. All of the participating subjects were directed to sign off on the study informed consent at the onset of the study.

This study employed a cross-sectional, single-subject quantitative design that examined the effect of four cognitive predictor variables (native language learning history, academic learning history, test-taking characteristics, and classroom learning characteristics) and four affective predictor variables (attitude toward learning the target language, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy) on Chinese English language learners' language anxiety in American college classrooms. The demographic information (gender, length of time studying English, years living in the U.S., English language ability, and academic achievement) served as controlling variables in order to gauge any influence that these variables might have on student' anxiety levels.

Data were collected by means of survey questionnaires containing a total of 77 items. Seventy-two items were constructed using five-point Likert scales, with responses ranging from extremely agree to extremely disagree. Five items were asked in regards to personal information: student identification number, program of study, gender, length of time learning the English language, and time spent living in the U.S.

Factor analyses were run to test the reliability and validity of the adapted measures. The coefficient alpha and probability values were examined to determine the statistical power of each measure, as well as whether statistical significance was reached. Multiple regression, specifically hierarchical regression models, were employed to investigate the relationships between the controlling, predicting and the outcome variables. The effect size generated by the models indicated the strengths and relationships among variables, as well as the interactions between variables.

The outcome variable, second language class anxiety, was measured using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1986.

The cognitive predictor variables related to language learners' naïve language learning problems included the four following components: 1) native language (Chinese) learning history; 2) overall academic learning history; 3) test characteristics; and 4) classroom learning characteristics. They were measured by using a modified version of the Foreign Language Screening Instrument for Colleges (FLSI-C), developed by Ganschow and Sparks (1991).

The affective predictor variable of attitude/motivation was measured by Gardner's (1985b) "Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery" (AMTB). To identify the effect of self-efficacy on students' language anxiety, this study adapted The New General Self-Efficacy (NGSE) an eight-item psychometric instrument, developed by Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001).

The demographic covariables included student's identification number, gender, program of study, length of time studying the English language, length of time living in the U.S., English language proficiency, and academic achievement. Levels of the participants' English language proficiency were assessed using the scores of Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL) submitted to the institution as part of the admission requirement. Participants' academic performance were assessed based on accumulated grade point averages (GPA) during their studies at the institution.

Results

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the degree of contribution of the cognitive variables (Chinese learning background, classroom learning characteristics, academic learning background, and test-taking characteristics) and the affective variables (extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, and attitude about learning English) imposed on the outcome variable (English communication apprehension). A significant model emerged, $F (8, 120) = 3.24$, $p < .05$, with an adjusted R-square value of .12, indicating that when all variables were held constant, these variables accounted for 12% of the total variance in predicting Chinese international students' English communication apprehension in the classroom (see **Table 1**).

To examine any potential influences that gender, English language proficiency, academic achievement, and the length of exposure to the English language and culture might exert in predicting students' English communication apprehension levels, these variables were entered in the second block as control variables. Another significant model emerged, $F (13, 115) = 3.52$, $p = .00$, producing an adjusted R-square of .20 (see **Table 2**). It suggested that 20% of the variance could be explained when taking all predictor and control variables into account. The predictor variables that had coefficients below the cutoff point of .05 in the models were self-efficacy and attitude about learning English. Furthermore, gender and length of time students have been learning the English language were also found to be significant contributors of students' English communication apprehension in the classroom.

As suggested by the hierarchical regression models, students' perceived efficacy level was the strongest predictor of levels of English communicating apprehension experienced in the classroom. This finding showed that on average, every unit increase in student's level of self-efficacy would result in a 2.67 decrease in students' levels of English communication apprehension when holding all variables constant, $p < .001$. The regression model also suggested that in addition to students' perceived self-efficacy, students' attitude about learning the English language was also a significant predictor of students' English communication apprehension in the classroom. The level of English communication apprehension was found to be 1.78 points higher in male's averages than in female's, $p < .01$, and with every one

***Table 1**. Regression Analysis Model 1 Predicting English Communication Apprehension*

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient Beta	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficient Beta	*t*	95% CI
Model 1	**24.47**	**3.58**		**6.83**	**[17.38, 31.56]**
Self-Efficacy	-3.01	.71	-.40	-4.27***	[-4.41, -1.62]
Extrinsic Motivation	1.05	.80	.15	1.31	[-.54, 2.64]
Intrinsic Motivation	.56	.56	.10	.99	[-.55, 1.68]
Attitude about Learning English	-1.40	.66	-.23	-2.25**	[-2.63, -.17]
Chinese Learning Background	-.01	.54	-.00	.88	[1.08, 1.07]
Classroom Learning Characteristics	.20	.39	.05	.50	[-.58, .98]
Academic Learning Background	.74	.60	.14	1.25	[-.44, 1.93]
Test Taking Characteristics	-.67	.59	-.12	-1.14	[-1.84, .49]

Adjusted R Square = .12, $F (8, 120) = 3.24$, $p = .00$

Note. N = 128. CI = Confidence Interval. $*p < .05$; $**p < .01$; $***p < .001$

Table 2. *Regression Analysis Model 2 Predicting English Communication Apprehension*

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient Beta	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficient Beta	*t*	95% CI
Model 2	**31.66**	**6.24**		**5.07**	**[19.29, 44.03]**
Self-Efficacy	-2.67	.68	-.36	-3.90***	[-4.02, -1.31]
Attitude about Learning English	-1.49	.59	-.24	-2.52**	[2.67, -32]
Gender	1.78	.69	.21	2.57**	[.405, 3.15]

Adjusted R Square = .20, F (13, 115) = 3.52, p = .00
Note. N = 128. CI = Confidence Interval. $*p < .05$;
$**p < .01$; $***p < .001$

unit increase in the time the student has spent learning the English language, it resulted in a reduction in .23 points in students' English communication apprehension in the classroom, p < .05.

Contrary to findings in the literature, none of the cognitive variables (Chinese learning background, classroom learning characteristics, academic learning background, and test-taking characteristics) were found to significantly predict students' levels of classroom English communication apprehension. Factors associated with motivation, such as extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation, did not contribute significantly to students' English communication apprehension levels. Students' English language proficiency (as measured by TOEFL), academic performance (as measured by GPA), as well as the length of time living in an English-speaking environment did not contribute significantly to the variance in students' levels of English communication apprehension.

Conclusions

The overarching findings of this study suggested that Chinese international students experienced a high level of English communication apprehension in the classroom. Among the variables examined in the regression models, the strongest predictors of Chinese students' English communication apprehension were students' perceived self-efficacy and attitudes about learning the English language.

The strongest contributors to students' English communication apprehension, perceived self-efficacy and attitude about learning the target language (English) in this study, provided further evidence to support Schunk's (2007) and Zhong's (2010) claims. Both Schunk (2007) and Zhong (2010) proposed a direct interrelationship between past experiences, praise, self-efficacy, and anxiety. Furthermore, students' perceived self-efficacy can be reinforced if they receive consistent praise for their performance by the instructors, which builds a foundation of confidence and capacity (Schunk, 2007). In short, positive past learning experiences and consistent praise serve as a catalyst for promoting an individual's self-worth and perceived self-efficacy. The evidence provided by this study indicated that regardless of students' levels of English language proficiency, English communication apprehension was prevalent among Chinese English language learners. Findings as such support McCroskey, Richmond, and McCroskey's (2005) claim, proposing that individuals' second language competence may not alleviate their levels of anxiety if they are affected by challenges of public speaking.

In summary, it is not completely surprising that students' native language learning history was not found to play a significant role in students' second language (English) communication apprehension. This finding warrants further investigation in regard to first and second language acquisition (Cook, 2010; MacIntyre, 1995). Children acquire their first language intuitively and are exposed to a plethora of language stimuli that allows them to feel more at ease in the learning environment where first language is the language used for academic purposes. However, when learners are required to perform in the second language setting, it is common for learners to feel anxious as their attention is shifted to avoid making errors in public which in turn threatens their sense of dignity (Horwitz, 2000; Ohata, 2005; Onwuegbuzie, Baley, & Daley, 2000).

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The Physicality and Emotionality of Learning: Design Inclusive Classrooms for All Students

By Sara Lyn Crump, Ph.D.

Abstract

In today's classrooms, the tone and physical space of learning is increasingly important so that all student voices are included and valued. This position paper aims to describe how the learning space is a sacred one in which students who have disabilities, come from diverse ethnic backgrounds and certainly varied learning backgrounds should feel respected, supported and comfortable to share their viewpoints when interacting with the teacher and with their peers daily. With the increasing demands that COVID-19 has stressed upon our public schools, students are often moving from in-person learning to online learning fluidly so these environments and their tone are more and more relevant and important in the lives of our students.

Introduction

I would love to find out how many teachers originally majored in another discipline but gravitated toward teaching as a sort of calling in early adulthood. When I was an undergrad English major at a state university, I told my parents, "Well, I'm NOT majoring in English education because they have to take classes in bulletin boards or something." My judgmental comment would haunt me a few, short years later when I confessed to them that I wanted to earn a master's degree in education and get certified to teach. Teachers have known for generations that the way we present our learning spaces for our students is an important part of how the students feel when they learn in these environments. In our classrooms today this space is even more important for our students who represent a microcosm of our culture. The way we set the tone in our learning environment matters. In fact, it is essential for the learning process because diverse student groups need a sense of calm and community even more now than back in the late 1980s when I rolled my eyes at the suggestion of a 'bulletin board.'

This fall, I started my 29th year to teach English in public high schools in the Midwest. The first day of school, I asked the students to write a letter of introduction to me on their tablets and I shared a letter as well as a photo of my house. The students shared so many stories of their favorite foods and their least favorite as well as deeper personality aspects like "I have anxiety" so that I could get to know them as we began our year together. Surprisingly, one senior wrote, "I already enjoy the atmosphere of your classroom and your teaching. I'm looking forward to the rest of the semester." Another student wrote, "I like the vibe in here. So, thank you for helping me feel less nervous for the first day." And yet another letter said, "I can tell already by your personality and your room that you are an exceptional teacher." These comments sparked a deeper consideration about how important the environment we create in our learning spaces helps students to feel comfortable sharing their stories and learning daily. My aim in seeking a deeper understanding of classroom environment and its impact on today's learners is framed theoretically in narrative inquiry (Clandinin & Connelly, 1999).

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this research is narrative inquiry. This position paper intends to use a narrative, a story with a purpose conveyed about theories in curriculum standards and reform that focus upon inclusive classrooms, their tone and student space in a physical and emotional setting.

Stories and an inquiry into such stories exemplify a teacher's experiences when interacting with the curriculum and the students and emphasize the role of the teacher as a major element of the curriculum (Connelly & Clandinin, 1999). Thorp and Shacklock (2005) argued that these stories provide structure for teachers to understand their interactions with students in the classroom at a deeper level. They explained that "narrative inquiry is concerned with the production, interpretation and representation of storied accounts of lived experience" (Thorp & Shacklock, 2005, p. 156).

In this way, a life history is told by the person who lived it and who can personify a time period, a sociological context, as well as a political commentary and a personal experience that symbolizes a greater message about the world. In storying experiences, the stories emerge as layers of context to help explain the complexities of a life and

that it is "socially constructed" (Thorp & Shacklock, 2005, p. 156) and not random in its occurrences. Lives take on meaning when the stories are told, retold, and interpreted to develop a sense of self.

The stories help the listeners to understand from a larger perspective beyond the personal lens of the original story (Richardson, 1997). When stories are told, a person's voice develops into a pedagogy that is unique only to that person's way of using words and relating a personal experience that can emerge for greater purpose (Thorp & Shacklock, 2005). It is with this theoretical framework that I investigate the impact the physical and emotional environment has in the lives of diverse learners.

Sacred Spaces

I have always considered my classroom a sacred space for learners to be themselves and to interact with me and the curriculum, but I have not thoroughly considered what this space really means until recently. Inclusion for all learners is vital in today's classrooms as well as a flexibility to make learning enjoyable for students quarantining and exposed to Covid-19 which adds a challenging layer of instruction for educators.

As an emphasis to create a safe learning environment for diverse learners, spatial distancing was a priority this fall. Students were encouraged to sit where they were comfortable a safe distance from someone else. Glatter, Deruy and Wong (2016) argued that "Each classroom will be set up based on what is necessary to meet learning objectives. But schools will prioritize configuring classes to inspire learning first and foremost, and, where appropriate, reflect the diversity of environments that students are exposed to outside a school setting" (n.p.). The physicality of the learning environment does affect a student's feelings about learning in that space. Each teacher should use the classroom space and tone to enhance the comfort of their students by personalizing the space and by being a constant, positive presence within the space in which to interact during a pandemic or non-pandemic time. These spaces function as part of the curriculum because they create the setting in which students learn.

Additionally, the environment functions together with the curriculum and of course, the teacher. Schwab (1969) demanded that the curriculum be shaped in accordance with the practical realities of teaching and learning. He further delineated the four pillars of the curriculum as the teacher, the learner, the subject matter, and the setting. Teachers were considered to be imperative for both shaping and understanding the curriculum.

Connelly and Clandinin (1988) argued for envisioning the curriculum in tandem with experience and for the recognition of the idea of the teacher's role in planning the curriculum. This call renewed a sense of urgency for positioning the curriculum within classroom and school landscapes. It further acknowledged the need to recognize the agency of teachers as professionals and to envision the actual curriculum work that teachers accomplish. Jackson (1990) further enhanced this view by turning the lens onto what happens in the classroom as the curriculum. His theory is essential to gaining insight into the curriculum, with an understanding that teachers drive the curriculum that is lived out between them and their students. In this way, the teacher is the leader who sets the tone for the inclusive nature of the classroom environment to elicit engagement from each person in the class. This environment develops relationship both between the teacher and the student as well as among the students.

Schlein and Schwarz (2015) shared that the relationship between teachers and the curriculum has been seen historically as connected. They described the history of Quintilian, who was the first paid teacher in first-century Rome, explaining that "The teacher was the wise, able person from whom one could learn philosophy, one's trade, and much else. The teacher was and remains a model, the exemplar of the curriculum in action" (p. 6). The authors further argued for an understanding of "teachers as curriculum" (Schlein & Schwarz, 2015, p. 2). The role of teacher as curriculum examines the functionality of curriculum in the classroom and the how and the why of instruction. Teachers have a certain rapport developed with a group of learners that only happens in a dynamic and personal way.

Moreover, Schlein and Schwarz (2015) said, "If teachers are seen as possessing knowledge, then they are the professionals responsible for professional decisions and actions" (p. 7). Thus, teachers as curriculum incorporates a perspective on the increased professionalization of educators due to the critical positioning of teachers and their knowledge and experience to drive the curriculum. Teachers' work when creating curriculum, delivering instruction, and interacting with their student audience generates a phenomenal experience that is larger than the classroom. Schlein and Schwarz (2015) argued that accepting the notion of teachers as the curriculum includes acknowledging that teachers bring their own knowledge of the discipline being taught, an understanding of how to teach effectively, and an understanding of their audience as well as "other contextual features of local curricular situations and interactions. They also bring their desires to contribute to communities" (p. 3). This perspective intends to add to the premise that teachers create the environment by serving as a living curriculum that involves spaces for students to share, think and engage daily not only in the discourse but in each other's lives. Inclusion for all means instilling an understanding of each person's valued story and their contribution to the learning.

Diversity

Within these spaces, students may be placed in AP classes, dual credit, regular tracked classes, gifted or special education classrooms and represent a diverse cross-section of learners. Students in my classes often

have accommodations for learning through the use of a 504 plan. For these learning plans, often preferential seating, repetition of directions, verbal and written instruction and sounds can be important for students while they are in my room. These needs are met by specific plans and accommodations, but there is also an element in today's classroom environments that includes culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 2002). Geneva Gay (2002) developed a framework that describes learning as culturally responsive, which includes establishing an environment for students to "deal directly with the controversy, studying a wide range of ethnic individuals and groups contextualizing issues within race, class, ethnicity and gender" (p.108). Gay (2002) explained that when students are taught in a culturally responsive way, they experience the curriculum in a way that helps them embrace differences in a non-confrontational manner. She found that "culturally responsive teachers are critically conscious of the power of the symbolic curriculum as an instrument of teaching and use it to help convey important information, values, and actions about ethnic and cultural diversity" (p. 108). When the tone of the classroom is established by the teacher from the first day, the students will be more apt to share of themselves and even discuss controversial issues with consideration of views opposite theirs. Clandinin and Connelly (1999) found people live "storied lives" in that sometimes the decisions they make are purposeful and aware, but other times, these choices are made without a conscious awareness (p. 93). When students share their stories in the classroom where they feel safe, they will gain more in their educational acumen and may not even be cognizant of this willingness to grow and learn.

Teachers should encourage students to share their stories daily so that students develop an understanding of the fact that a person is not one-dimensional and only what we see on the outside, but there is a whole backstory to each person's persona in a classroom setting. Just as we include our passions, interests and experiences into our lessons, teachers' decisions in how they fill the learning space for their students whether in person or on a virtual platform, they should recognize that their personality and tone is a signature to the feeling created in a learning space.

Space is often not considered as an important factor in experiences of teaching and learning. Yet experiences happen somewhere, and teaching and learning is contextualized within the confined of specific classrooms and schools. They are further embedded in particular contexts and cultures. There are so many ways to share space in a classroom. I usually think of it as a physical place, the room itself but throughout my experiences, I have concluded that spaces can have many different definitions and roles that include an emotional space in a classroom.

In Igoa's (1995) work with immigrant children, she relies on the dialogic to create energy in her classroom. Igoa (1995) explained that "there is a lot of good energy in the classroom because tranformations begin to take place" (p. 118). When we share space with our students, we can focus on this positive energy to push our students as readers, writers and as thinkers. Students who feel comfortable in a classroom because of the aesthetics of the environment whether it is involving the smells of candles, lamps, student work on the walls, school spirit and colors, plants or even posters and photographs, the personalized signature of the teacher communicates to them that they are important and trusted to be independent learners. Jacobs and Weber (2020) discovered that " The classroom should serve as a safe space for children and adolescents to express themselves, their heritage, and their stories without experiencing negative social, academic, or institutional stigmas" (p. 1). This notion is prevalent for all learners in our safe spaces including students from diverse backgrounds ethnically, socio-economically and learning abilities.

Special Education

Teaching during the current times requires flexibility among educators, students and parents. Not only do we need to insure that our spaces are inclusive for all learners, we must work with our students to practice equity in our teaching practices for students who qualify for special education accommodations. Fransisco, Hartman and Want (2020) found that "Special education is often seen as as a way to provide equity for individuals with disabilities; however, it may seem that the current way special education is structured does not pave the way to that equity...There are so many layers in the intersectionality of special education and inclusion, such as race, gender, and socioeconomic background" (p. 5). These layers of diversity are represented in special education populations as well as regular education students.

A current student enrolled in the dual credit English class I teach wrote her personal narrative about a keychain her mom gave her to remind her that she is strong and can do anything anyone else can. Catie (pseudonym) was born with mild Cerebral Palsy. Her narrative focused on the message about her disability that does not prohibit her from being included in both physical activities nor learning experiences.

In her narrative, Catie writes, "I remember feeling the cringy embarrassment if someone asked because it only reminded me that my deficiency was there, and everyone saw it. Everyone saw me getting pulled out of my classroom for physical therapy. My mom, however, made sure I was never treated any differently. She couldn't stop the questions, but she made sure teachers didn't help me up when I fell." Afterall, we all want to be included and counted "in." Teachers set the tone to invite all learners in their classrooms to be valued and important. Catie's story rings true of my work with her. According to her IEP, she can have extended time and does well with redirection and verbal re-iteration of directions. Catie understands that she needs these extra accommodations for success so she leans in and embraces them so that she can "not be treated any differently" as she so aptly stated.

Jeffrey Dorman (2009) revealed that environment has everything to do with learning outcomes for students. He explained that "One of the stronger areas of classroom environment research has been the study of links between classroom environment and student cognitive and effective outcomes" (p. 70). Dorman (2009) found that there was a significant correlation between classroom environment and student efficacy for academics. He discovered that "significant positive correlations between academic efficacy and teacher support, involvement, investigation, task orientation and equity" (p. 79-80). This finding indicates that environment impacts students as they learn in many different capacities. Also, teacher attitude connected in establishing an inclusive and welcoming tone within the classroom environment helps students with disabilities. Rodriguez, Saldana and Moreno (2012) explained that "positive teacher attitudes are an important predictor of the successful education of children with disabilities, including those with autism spectrum disorder" (p. 1). The environment we establish from the first day of school does matter for all students who enter our spaces to learn each day.

We share our spaces with all learners which is at a heightened level of importance in an age where our country has racial tensions and students can be abruptly put on quarantine and required to figure out how to learn online. It didn't take me long at the beginning of my career to realize that it really is not about the bulletin boards, but more about the physicality of the learning space and the emotional tone the teacher creates that can motivate students to want to be there to learn daily and to share their stories.

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A Long Island Study: Teachers' and Professors' Attitudes Toward Writing Instruction - The High School/College Transition

By Louisa Kramer-Vida, Ed.D., Vicky Giouroukakis, Ph.D., Victor Jaccarino, Ed.D., and Kyrie Siegel, Ed.D.

Purpose of the Study

In 2018, the Superintendents and College Presidents Partnership (SCPP), a consortium of 15 colleges and universities, charged the Long Island Regional Advisory Council of Higher Education (LIRACHE) Writing Task Force, consisting of secondary and post-secondary ELA educators, with gathering information on the transition between high school and college writing programs to investigate a perceived disconnect among the attitudes of high school and college faculty in terms of what they perceive to be students' proficiency in writing. To fulfill its charge, the Writing Task Force conducted a multi-site, survey type, quantitative study to investigate the attitudes of three groups of faculty in terms of their writing instruction as they prepare their students for success: a) 12th grade high school English teachers, b) first-year college composition instructors, and c) instructors of teacher education.

This study sought to provide recommendations regarding (a) how high school and postsecondary institutions can improve college writing preparation to create a better high school/college level writing transition; and (b) how education professors can help future teachers effectively provide writing instruction.

Literature Review

Writing is the academic skill most linked to success at the college level (Conley, 2008) and in the workforce (Partnership, 2006). Therefore, preparation for college-level writing is a priority within most high school curricula (Conley 2007). According to the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) (2011), writing topped the list of learning outcomes for all students. Yet, a U.S. Department of Education's (DOE) (2006) college and career readiness meta-analysis indicated that "44% of faculty members say college students aren't well-prepared for college-level writing, in contrast to the 90% of high school teachers who think they are prepared" (p. 25). As a result, approximately 40% of all college students are required to take at least one remedial course. Additionally, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (Battelle for Kids, 2019) survey of employers' perspectives of high school graduates' workforce readiness indicated that writing was one of the skills most desired by employers, but over 70% thought that high school graduates were writing deficient.

Contributing to this rift is a disconnect between what English educators read and the professional publications they read. For example, the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) publishes separate journals for different English teaching groups, while English writing program administrators rely on a non-NCTE publication from the Council of Writing Program Administrators (WPA) (Campbell, 2020). This ongoing specialization among educators, compounded by questionable interrater reliability and philosophical differences between secondary and college-level education, is a significant contributor to students' difficult transition from secondary to college-level writing, exacerbated by the autonomy professors enjoy when assessing student writing.

Also problematic is using standardized assessments such as the SAT writing section to determine student placement in college writing courses. Isaacs and Molloy (2010) determined wide-spread distrust of the SATs to measure writing ability and NCTE (2005) challenged the validity and reliability of the SAT writing section and the optional ACT timed writing test. Despite this research, many institutions continue to utilize these assessment results. Even more problematic, high school students and teachers rely on these assessments as strong predictors of college-level writing competency (Burke, 2019). Colleges may use these exams to understand students; students use these exams to understand college.

Since 2010, the most notable documents to provide guidance for writing teachers and researchers at all levels are the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and the Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing, a collaborative effort, reviewed by two and four year college and high school faculty, based on peer reviewed literature

and strong methodologies, and endorsed by professional organizations to respond to the CCSS (Campbell, 2020). The Framework (CWAP et al., 2011) describes the rhetorical and 21st century skills as well as the habits of mind and experiences that are critical for college success. Teachers are encouraged to "foster these habits of mind" through "writing, reading, and critical analysis" (p. 7) that will develop students' rhetorical knowledge, critical thinking, writing processes, knowledge of conventions, and ability to compose in multiple environments. It has been widely accepted by college professors as the definition of good college writing (Chowske, 2013).

Strong writing skills necessitate instructional planning that aims to provide experiences that will lead students to succeed in career, college, and life. Backward Design (BD) is a curriculum design approach that can assist teachers with designing curriculum with writing standards in mind. BD relies on the essential ideas, like the standards, to serve as guiding principles for teaching and learning. The approach requires educators to first identify the end results, decide on the evidence that will demonstrate student learning, and then develop learning experiences that will help students achieve these results. Whereas traditional curriculum planning involves designing lessons before deciding what and how to teach, BD advocates determining the desired results first before planning instruction (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005).

Considerable attention has been directed toward strengthening the transition between 12th grade and college so that first year students will be successful in college writing (Barnett et al., 2013). Teacher training programs have tried to improve future teachers' writing skills, but researchers found that writing instruction in English education programs is often limited to reading methods classes (Myers, Scales, Grisham, Marin, 2016). Thus, there is a need for a renewed emphasis on improving teacher preparation programs that develop prospective teachers' writing skills (Calkins et al., 2012). In addition, there is a lack of confidence among educators regarding writing instruction, indicating the need for greater attention to writing instruction in teacher education programs (Myers et al., 2016).

Methodology

This multi-site, quantitative, survey-based study examined secondary and post-secondary faculty members' perceptions of their writing instruction to ascertain their teaching practices and how they align with expectations of writing preparedness. It drew expectations from (a) the NYS Next Generation Writing Standards, recently revised to promote the development of lifelong writers, as outlined for secondary faculty; and (b) the Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing that describes the writing knowledge, practices, and attitudes that undergraduate students develop in generally required first-year composition courses. Both documents state that teaching writing and learning to write are central to education and a literate citizenry.

Six Long Island districts representing a balance of student mastery levels on the 2019 ELA Regents (CCSS) Exam participated: Two districts had an average student mastery level of 90%; two had an average student mastery level of 60.5%, and two had average student mastery of 41%. The study also included faculty at Long Island public and private two- and four-year colleges and universities, including first year composition instructors and education professors.

Participants completed a short 5-point Likert survey through Google Forms. As survey data can be limiting because they rely on participants' responses (Marshall & Rossman, 1995), a Molloy College psychometrician examined the questions for usefulness. The survey was administered once in February 2020. Questions 1-16 applied to all participants; questions 17-23 were for education professors only. The 23 questions were used to examine teachers' and professors' attitudes towards students' writing preparedness. Collected demographics determined whether the participants teach in high school or college and, in bands of years, the number of years they have been teaching.

Data Collection and Analysis

To provide a narrower discussion focus, data analysis will only include statements 1-18 and will not include the section answered only by teacher educators. We collected 87 responses (58 first-year composition instructors; 27 12th grade high school English teachers; 12 instructors of Teacher Education) from a variety of institutions-private, public, high achieving, average achieving, and low-achieving. Gathering evidence from various institutions gave a more accurate representation from this cross section.

The IBM SPSS platform exposed patterns through hypothesis generation. The hypothesis was that the three groups (first-year composition instructors; 12th grade high school English teachers; instructors of Teacher Education) would not be aligned in terms of their writing instruction attitudes and practices and that there would be differences in the responses among the three groups of participants. To facilitate the SPSS analysis and to provide more meaningful findings, we grouped questions based on theme. For example, questions 7 and 8 both focused on writing conventions, so we grouped them together. A statistician assisted one of the lead authors with studying and analyzing data through comparison both of percentages for each response and of means via ANOVA. The analysis searched for a difference of mean responses on the questions by instructors of composition vs. professors of teacher educators vs. high school teachers.

We created charts and bar graphs to represent the data. In addition, some participants provided feedback to the last, open-ended question though which participants could provide narrative responses. We analyzed all data, quantitative and qualitative, for categories and patterns (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). We also ran regressions to determine if there was an influence of independent variables:

(a) type of position, (b) number of years taught, or (c) whether instruction was at a public or private school on the following dependent variables: writing frequently and for meaning, creating research papers, performing research, knowledge of writing conventions, emphasis on the writing process, using standards of writing, use of formative/standardized assessment, and writing to develop cognition.

Results

ANOVA results indicated significant statistical differences among the three groups in three areas: (a) emphasis on the writing process, (b) emphasis on curricular design/writing standards, and (c) emphasis on writing as a method to develop cognition and to instruct. Regressions indicated that the following dependent variables were affected by the independent variables: (a) type of position, (b) number of years taught, or (c) whether instruction was at a public or private school. The only significant independent variable was type of teacher/instructor.

A level of significance (?=.05) was used for emphasis on the writing process (p=.013). First-year composition instructors emphasize the writing process significantly more (p=.024) than 12th-grade high school English teachers. In terms of using standards of writing, teacher instructors of Teacher Education (p= .011) and 12th grade high school English teachers ($p < .001$) emphasize standards of writing education significantly more than first-year composition instructors.

Discussion

The data indicate a need for better communication among public school teachers and instructors of teacher education. The field needs a common language regarding what constitutes good writing, the varying writing process definitions (NCTE, 2011), and how to institute the writing process into classrooms. These discussions need to include high school English teachers, instructors of English composition, and education professors, as well as content area teachers who include writing in their classrooms. In this way, all stakeholders can be included in a variety of ways. For example, NYS has recently begun an initiative called WriteOn NY through which the State Education Department could include all stakeholders in workshop discussions. In addition, the NYS English and LI Language Arts Councils could hold workshops with teachers in the three groups as leaders of the forum. Individual colleges and universities could institute forums under their PD programs. For example, Molloy College has an advisory committee that could act as a catalyst. Hofstra University and Long Island University have had one-day and multi-day forums that could be used as models for PD programs.

Conversations among faculty may lead to work that will help align expectations among the education sectors which at this point are not consistent and uniform. For example, Campbell (2020) pointed out that the perception of College Ready is different for high school teachers and college instructors, and what students learned in high school to prepare for standardized tests hinders their progress in college. In fact, it has been argued that state exams and standardized tests do not determine if students are college ready (National Center for Public Policy, 2010). According to Fanetti et al. (2010, as cited in Campbell, 2020), "Secondary teachers feel compelled to teach to the test, and college instructors wish students hadn't learned so well in high school that an essay is five paragraphs and a thesis statement can appear only as the first or last sentence in the first of those five paragraphs" (p. 18).

If the instructors of education are spending more time than the other two groups using the NYS Writing Standards and Understanding by Design (UbD), then why are our English teachers showing a lower emphasis in both these areas? A possibility is that our methods classes may be emphasizing UbD and the standards, but their utilization is not internalized enough by our preservice teachers prior to their student teaching. In addition, since student teachers are working with their cooperating teachers daily and see their professors only once or twice a week, logic indicates that student teachers are more influenced by cooperating teachers than professors of education. We might conclude that the use of standards-based instruction and UbD might also not be emphasized in earlier education classes. Perhaps, professors of education should emphasize both standards-based instruction and UbD in all education classes by modeling both. In addition, if both of these organizing principles are not internalized and expected by cooperating teachers, then those district employees should be educated by the universities and colleges. Perhaps free seminars offered to cooperating teachers would help. These seminars could be offered for free or for in-service credit, benefiting both the preservice teachers, the cooperating teachers, and the staff of public schools that accept student teachers.

Another disparity between what is important in teacher preparation programs and high school classrooms is the use of writing as a teaching tool that promotes critical thinking skills. Professors of teacher education use writing as a tool more than both teachers of college composition and teachers of 12th grade English. This indicates once again that preservice teachers have more of an opportunity to use writing as a teaching tool, while classroom teachers do not. Once again, what is happening in teacher preparation classrooms may not be transferring to the high school classroom. Yet, Shanahan (2019) tells us that "Students who engage in writing about reading usually improve their reading and writing skills" (p. 328).

It seems that a better understanding of the many facets and means of using the writing process, using writing to learn across the disciplines and across both high school and college classrooms, and a deliberate ongoing collaboration between and among institutions of higher learning and secondary schools would contribute to preparing students for college writing.

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Leveraging School District-Wide Achievement through the Use of Technology

By Craig Markson, Ed.D. and Kenneth Forman, Ph.D.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among technology use, per pupil spending and school district-wide student achievement. The setting of this study was 94 school districts from New York State's Nassau and Suffolk counties, a suburban region adjacent to New York City. The results of this study showed that technology use had statistically significant and positive correlations with a range of variables that measured student achievement across the school districts' grade levels and subjects. The strongest correlations were with technology use and student achievement on the New York State Grades 3 - 8 English Language Arts and Mathematics assessments. Technology use did not have a strong correlation with per pupil spending, as it only accounted for 7.95 percent of the variance on spending. If the results of this study remain consistent with future studies, school district leaders should continue to leverage student achievement through the use of technology, particularly at the elementary and middle school levels.

I. Purpose

There has been considerable disagreement among the findings of studies in the research literature when it comes to the efficacy of technology in improving student achievement. Older studies have trended toward results that have suggested that the use of technology did not significantly improve student achievement (Angrist & Lavy, 2002; Rouse & Krueger, 2004). However, more recent studies have suggested the opposite (Rashid & Asghar, 2016; Harris et al., 2016). The dissention among these findings might have stemmed from the advancement of technology, devices, and the software that drive them over time. Additionally, the student populations from these studies varied by grade levels and subjects. As a result, one of the purposes of this study was to examine the relationships between the use of technology and student achievement by various subjects and grade levels throughout school districts across Long Island's Nassau and Suffolk counties.

Similar to the relationships between technology use and student achievement, there were contrasting findings among the studies that examined the relationships between per pupil spending and student achievement. These studies also varied over time by student populations, subjects, grade levels, and their results or findings (Cobb-Clark & Jha, 2016; Pugh, Mangan & Gray, 2011; Wenglinsky, 1997). As such, another purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between per pupil spending and student achievement in various subjects and grade levels throughout school districts.

According to the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (2015), effective educational leaders needed to strategically manage school resources, budgets, and finances for the ultimate goal of promoting student achievement (National Policy Board for Educational Administration [NPBEA], 2015, pp. 17-18). This posed the question as to how technology use impacted school finances and student achievement. As a result, the final purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between the use of technology and per-pupil spending.

II. Theoretical Framework

Technology and Student Achievement

Angrist and Lavy (2002) assessed the short-term consequences of increased computer technology in Israeli elementary schools. Results from a survey of Israeli schoolteachers showed that the influx of new computers increased teachers' use of computer-aided instruction (CAI). Although many of the estimates were imprecise, CAI did not appear to have had educational benefits that translated into higher test scores. The researchers found that insertion of computer technology had a clear impact on the use of computers in elementary school instruction, with a much weaker effect on teaching methods in middle schools. The results reported did not support the view that CAI improved learning, at least as measured by pupil test scores. Using a variety of estimation strategies, Angrist and Lavy found a consistently negative and marginally significant relationship between the use of computers and 4th grade Math scores. For other grades and subjects, the estimates were not significant, though also mostly negative.

Rouse and Krueger (2003) found that although schools across the country have invested heavily in computers in the classroom, there has been little evidence that this actually improves student achievement. The researchers presented results from a randomized study of a well-defined use of computers in schools: an instructional computer program known as Fast ForWord, which was designed to improve language and reading skills. Rouse and Krueger assessed the impact of the program on students having difficulty learning to read using four different measures of language and reading ability. Their estimates suggested that while use of the computer program may have improved some aspects of students' language skills, it did not appear that these gains translated into a broader measure of language acquisition or into actual readings skills.

Lowther, Ross, and Morrison (2003) examined the impact of laptops on classroom activities, and on student use of technology and their writing and problem-solving skills. Results also showed significant advantages for the laptop group on five of the seven components of the problem-solving task. Laptop classes were compared to control classes that did not have extraordinary access to computers. Results indicated greater use of student-centered teaching strategies in the laptop classes, such as project-based learning, independent inquiry, teacher as coach, and cooperative learning. Overall, laptop classes were busier and engaged in more active learning environments. Most revealing was laptop students' superiority in using the computer as a learning tool. More importantly, consistent across both years of the study was laptop students' more frequent use of the computer as a learning tool. The researchers found that laptop students demonstrated superior writing skills as well. In their survey responses, nearly 75% of the laptop students and 100% of the teachers felt that use of laptops improved student writing skills.

Dynarski et al., (2007) in a national study on the effectiveness of reading and mathematics software on achievement found test scores were not significantly higher in classrooms using selected reading and mathematics software products. Test scores in treatment classrooms that were randomly assigned to use products did not differ from test scores in control classrooms by statistically significant margins. For reading products, effects on overall test scores were correlated with the student-teacher ratio in first grade classrooms and with the amount of time that products were used in fourth grade classrooms. For math products, effects were uncorrelated with classroom and school characteristics.

Barrow et al. (2009) primarily assessed computer assisted instruction (CAI) in high school Algebra classes by targeting pre-algebra and algebra skills. Students randomly assigned to CAI classes scored significantly higher on a pre-algebra and algebra tests than students randomly assigned to traditional instruction. The authors hypothesized that this effectiveness arose from increased use of computers for individualized instruction.

Fairlie (2012) found that the achievement gap and resulting earnings gap might have been caused by the underinvestment in educational technology among minority populations. Although financial constraints might have caused a major hindrance for low-income minority students, technical and informational constraints resulting from having less previous experience with computers might be important.

Kiger et al. (2012) found that students using mobile devices (laptops and tablets) outperformed comparison students on a post-intervention multiplication test controlling for prior student achievement and several other covariates. This finding suggested that coupling "business as usual" curriculum with a mobile device may be a cost-effective lever to improve student achievement. Likewise, the researchers found that in-class mobile device involved learning may foster and sustain productive student-teacher learning interactions.

Rashid and Asghir (2016) examined relationships of the number of computer devices in an identified school district with several factors, including per pupil spending and student achievement as exemplified by student graduation rate, English Language Arts (ELA) and Geometry New York State Regents results, and ELA/Math achievement scores grades 3 - 8. We further looked at districts' per pupil spending to determine whether there was a further relationship.

The literature examined did not fully support the relationship of computer devices with achievement. Studies were contradictory. Rashid and Asghir (2016) detailed several sources that supported positive outcomes of student use of technology, where they were able to achieve a greater level of direct engagement with the proposed content, which in turn improved overall achievement. The researchers indicated that technology was highly correlated with student motivation, and also found a significant correlation between technology use and academic achievement.

Additionally, Rashid and Asghir (2016) found that students' long-term knowledge retention in a technology enhanced classroom subsequently influenced learning outcomes. Students who used technology outperformed in both engagement and achievement. This research confirmed the relationship of technology-enhanced student learning with educational outcomes. These findings revealed that compared to non-technology users, students using technology showed significantly higher achievement and had higher scores on criterion referenced standardized tests. These researchers also reported that high school students' intelligent use of electronic devices improved academic performance as measured by GPA.

Harris et al. (2016) set out to determine whether 1:1 technology truly impacted and affected students' academic achievement. The researchers found that 1:1 technology could be a factor in student academic achievement and motivation to be in school. The authors postulated that

with increasing students' technology exposure and concomitantly great teachers' professional development in implementing technology-teaching methodology, 1:1 technology may be the catalyst needed for school districts to help their students achieve at higher levels.

School District Per Pupil Spending and Student Achievement

Wenglinsky (1997) found that per-pupil expenditures for instruction were associated with achievement because the resultant reduced class size raised achievement. Specifically, instructional spending influenced the number of teachers hired per student. Cobb-Clark and Jha (2016) analyzed the relationship between student achievement and schools' budget allocations. The researchers found the opposite, per-pupil expenditure had no apparent link to improvement in students' standardized test scores. However, the allocation of the budget mattered for student achievement in some grades. Ancillary teaching staff were linked to faster growth in numeracy and literacy in primary and middle schools.

Condron and Rosogno (2003) analyzed unique within-district variations in spending and achievement among 89 public elementary schools in a large Ohio urban district. Their analyses revealed considerable disparities in spending within the district, which were linked to local patterns of racial and class stratification and concentration. They showed how these locally driven inequalities and their links to specific school resources had consequences for achievement in five distinct subject areas.

Pugh et al. (2011) examined the effects of school expenditures on school performance in England over the period 2003-07 during which per pupil expenditure increased rapidly. The researchers found a generally significant but small effect of expenditure on school performance, but the effect varied between specialist and non-specialist schools with the effect on the latter being larger.

Gigliotti and Sorenson (2018) found that achievement gains of approximately 0.047 standard deviations in math and 0.042 standard deviations in English corresponded to $1,000 in additional per-pupil spending, strengthening the case that school resources matter and that sustained financial investments can help districts maintain and improve quality of public education.

III. Data Sources

The primary source of data for this study was the New York State Education Department's Data Site for the 2018-2019 school year. Data on 94 school districts located in Nassau and Suffolk Counties, New York were included in this study. It should be noted that there are more than 94 school districts in this region. Several school districts were excluded for having unusually small populations of students. The researchers excluded school districts that had less than 100 students in either their high schools or their elementary schools. Also, not all of the school districts in this region were K - 12 school districts. The 94 school districts in this study only included K - 12 school districts because it was the researchers' intentions to measure student achievement through a variety of New York State student assessments that spanned elementary school, middle school, and high school.

The other major source of data for this study was based on each school district's reporting of their 2016 - 2019 technology plan: "Per Part 100.12 of Commissioner's Regulations, all New York State public school districts are required to develop and maintain instructional technology plans" (*New York State Education Department, 2018*).

IV. Method

The researchers sought to measure student achievement through a variety of variables across the school districts' grade levels and subject areas. These achievement variables included the following: (a) the percent of students receiving a New York State Regents Diploma with Advanced Designation (Advanced Regents Diploma) by school district; (b) the percent of students receiving a passing score on the New York State high school English Language Arts Regents Examination (ELA Regents Exam) by school district; (c) the percent of students receiving a passing score on the New York State high school Geometry Regents Examination (Geometry Regents Exam) by school district; (d) the percent of students obtaining Levels 3 to 4 on the New York State Grades 3 - 8 English Language Arts (ELA) examinations by school district; and (e) the percent of students obtaining Levels 3 to 4 on the New York State Grades 3 - 8 Mathematics (Math) examinations by school district (*New York State Education Department Data Site,* 2020).

The researchers measured technology by the amounts of technological devices available divided by the total student population by school district and stated as a percent. These devices typically included PCs, laptops, tablets, and Chromebooks. The variable which measured per pupil spending was the expenditures per pupil by school district that included federal, state, and local spending (*New York State Education Department Data Site*, 2020). A Pearson Product-Moment correlation analysis, with a two-tailed test of significance with alpha set at .05, was used to analyze the relationships between the variables.

V. Results

Table 1 illustrates the results for the correlations with the school district student achievement variables. The percent of devices by school district student population had a statistically significant and positive correlation with all of the variables used to measure student achievement, $p < .05$. The percent of devices had the strongest correlation with the percent of students achieving Level 3 or 4 on the grades 3-8 Mathematics assessments, accounting for 24.4 percent of the variance. As the percent of devices by student population increased, the percent of students achieving Level 3 or 4

achievement on the Mathematics assessments increased. The second strongest correlation among devices and student achievement was with the grades 3 - 8 ELA assessments, accounting for 19.01 percent of the variance.

Devices accounted for 17.47 percent of the variance on the percent of students graduating with a Regents Diploma with Advanced Designation. As devices increased, so did graduation rates. Devices had a statistically significant and positive correlation with the percent of students receiving passing scores on the high school Geometry Regents examinations, accounting for 14.29 percent of the variance. Devices similarly had a statistically significant and positive correlation with the percent of students receiving passing scores on the high school ELA Regents examinations, accounting for 11.29 percent of the variance.

The percent of devices by student population had a statistically significant and positive correlation with per pupil spending, $p < .05$. However, the correlation was weak, accounting for only 7.95 percent of the variance.

Similar to devices by school district student population, per pupil spending had a statistically significant and positive correlation with all of the variables used to measure student achievement, $p < .05$. As per pupil spending went up, student achievement went up. In rank order from strongest to weakest correlations were as follows: Per pupil sending

Table 1 *Correlations with School District Student Achievement Variables* (N = 94)

		Regents Diploma w/ Adv. Designation	HS ELA Regents Exam	HS Geometry Regents Exam	ELA Grades 3 - 8 Exams	Math Grades 3 - 8 Exams	Per Pupil Spending
HS ELA Regents Exam	r	0.811					
	r^2	65.77%					
	p	0.000					
	N	86					
HS Geometry Regents Exam	r	0.857	0.736				
	r^2	73.44%	54.17%				
	p	0.000	0.000				
	N	86	93				
ELA Grades 3-8 Exams	r	0.83	0.745	0.694			
	r^2	68.89%	55.50%	48.16%			
	p	0.000	0.000	0.000			
	N	86	94	93			
Math Grades 3-8 Exams	r	0.832	0.773	0.726	0.953		
	r^2	69.22%	59.75%	52.71%	90.82%		
	p	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		
	N	86	94	93	94		
Per Pupil Spending	r	0.425	0.349	0.393	0.468	0.455	
	r^2	18.06%	12.18%	15.44%	21.90%	20.70%	
	p	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	86	94	93	94	94	
Devices	r	0.418	0.336	0.378	0.436	0.494	0.282
	r^2	17.47%	11.29%	14.29%	19.01%	24.40%	7.95%
	p	0.002	0.009	0.003	0.001	0.000	0.031
	N	52	59	58	59	59	59

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

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

accounted for 21.9 percent of the variance on the grades 3 - 8 ELA assessments; 20.7 percent of the variance on the grades 3 - 8 Mathematics assessments; 18.06 percent of the variance on the percent of students graduating with a Regents Diploma with Advanced Designation; 15.44 percent of the variance on the percent of students receiving passing scores on the high school Geometry Regents examinations; and 12.18 percent of the variance on the high school ELA Regents examinations.

VI. Conclusions

The use of technology, as measured by the availability of devices by student population, had the greatest impact on student achievement at the elementary and middle school levels. Per pupil spending also had the greatest impact at these school levels. Technology spending was not a big driver of per pupil spending, as it only accounted for 7.95 percent of the variance on per pupil spending. School district leaders can leverage student achievement through the use of technology without significantly increasing per pupil spending in their school districts. There is a relatively strong correlation with the number of devices and achievement on the Mathematics assessments and English Language Arts assessments, grades 3 - 8. The implication here is that a one-time cost purchasing computers in K - 8 schools, had a multiplier effect on student achievement, accounting for over 24 and 19 percent of the variance respectively.

VII. Implications of the Research

Future studies should conduct a more detailed investigation on the various budgetary items that constitute per pupil spending. These studies should further probe how to increase student achievement without dramatically impacting per pupil spending. There needs to be more research on why devices had the greatest impact on student achievement for elementary and middle school-aged children. Perhaps teachers at those levels, who have less core content specific training than at the high school levels, are more reliant upon the use of technology and apps for their students. Or, perhaps there are more apps that are more aligned with the curriculum at these grade levels. In any event, future studies should examine the reasons for this trend.

This study was conducted prior to the COVID-19 crisis in education. There needs to be a post COVID-19 follow-up study to investigate the relationships between technology, spending, and district-wide student achievement. Technology spending during the COVID-19 crisis might have amplified or altered the relationships among the variables in this study. Finally, if the results of this study remain consistent with future studies, school districts should continue to make devices available to their student populations, particularly at the elementary and middle school levels, as a means to increase student achievement without significantly increasing spending.

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Social Media and Online Gaming with Friends:
Implications for Children's Academic, Social, and Emotional Experiences in Third- through Sixth-Grade Students

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Abstract

This hypothesis-generating research study provided insight into the impact that social media and online gaming with friends play in the lives of students in third- through sixth-grade during the COVID-19 pandemic. Initially this study began in February 2020 before the pandemic impacted school closures in New York the following month. However, the study was put on hold until late July, four weeks before children were to return to school in person. Researchers sought to understand the role that social media and online gaming with friends now played during the pandemic, when individuals were quarantined and advised to avoid social interactions. Thirteen parents and eight students participated in this mixed methods study. Data were collected in the form of a student survey and parent/guardian survey; responses were both multiple choice and anecdotal. Concerns pertaining to student behaviors, emotions, academics, and parent-child communication emerged from data analysis. Findings suggest work is needed to help children transition from the online to offline experience, to help parents better understand how literacy is enacted in social media and online gaming, and to increase parent-child communications about expectations and safety in these online spaces.

Introduction

The purpose of this hypothesis generating research study was to determine how social media and on-line gaming with friends impact academic, social, and emotional experiences of children in third- through sixth-grades. The study sought to help teachers and parents/guardians further understand how early adolescents' behaviors, academics, and interests are shaped by these on-line platforms. With the intent of adding to the quality of educational practices and student learning, this study provides further insight into the role that social media and online gaming play in children's lives. As educators, we hope findings shed light on pedagogical approaches, foster parent, teacher, and child connections, and help early adolescents navigate digital citizenship and multimodal literacy.

Research Questions

The following questions served as catalysts for research:

1. How might the use of social media and video games impact children's academic, social and behavioral and emotional experiences?

2. In what ways might social media and online gaming with friends highlight student sense of identity and interest?

3. In what ways might teachers' pedagogical approaches be impacted from an understanding of student sense of identity and interest using social media and online gaming with friends?

4. In what ways might parents/guardians benefit from further understanding of a child's sense of identity and interest surrounding social media and online gaming with friends?

Theoretical Framework

Researchers have continuously recognized that language and literacy are not simple acts. There are cognitive, social, cultural, and experiential influences that impact the acquisition of language and literacy (Tracey & Morrow, 2017). When youngsters participate in online gaming and social media platforms, language and literacy are mediated by their online experiences. While meaning and understanding come from print on the screen, players also interact with multimodal literacies such as images, videos, conversation, and movements (Gee, 1996; Gee, 2003). Likewise, players participate in interpersonal interactions requiring language specific to the domain of those online forums (Selfe et al., 2007). Researchers have observed the implications of bridging the practice of home gaming and pedagogy that implement multimodal literacy instruction and assessment (Clark et al., 2018; Fjørtoft, 2020; Strømman, 2021; Walsh, 2010). The technological skills that students exercise outside of the classroom are deemed transferable skills for twenty-first century communication (Arduini, 2018; Gee 2007; Selfe et al., 2007).

Much research has examined the causal relationships between violent digital games and youth aggression (Anderson et al., 2010; Ferguson, 2015; Kühn et al., 2019; Lemmens et al., 2011; Prescott et al., 2018; Verheijen et al., 2021; Verheijen et al., 2018), interpersonal relationships and online experiences (Nesi et al., 2018; Verheijen et al., 2019), and cognitive self-regulation and time spent gaming (Gabbiadini & Greitemeyer, 2017; Walker et al., 2018). As youngsters navigate interpersonal relationships during gaming and social media interaction, friendships are being formed, negotiated, and regulated. It is important to consider not only student and parent perceptions about these platforms but also ways in which youngsters might be supported when learning to navigate on-line experiences.

Method

Participants

Participants included students and parents/guardians of these individuals in the third-, fourth-, fifth-, and sixth grades at a small independent school located outside of New York City. All students and parents/guardians were invited to participate in this voluntary study. A total of eight-students and thirteen-parents/guardians participated.

The first student survey was administered in school at the end of February 2020. The parent/guardian survey was scheduled to be given mid-March. This study began before the COVID-19 pandemic presented itself as a concern on Long Island. However, on Monday, March 16, 2020, schools in New York state moved to remote, online learning until the end of the school year. Since families were grappling with implementing and learning remote instruction at home, we put our study on pause until mid-July 2020. Falling on the heels of the pandemic, students maintained connections with family members and friends via online gaming and social media. The timing of our study and interest in such topics seemed serendipitous. Therefore, surveys were restructured to include questions specific to the pandemic and administered again in mid-July.

Limitations

Due to the small sample size, findings may not be generalizable to the larger population. However, focus on this data set has the potential to generate areas for future research and conversations with parents and educators. Implications may apply to the general population as current research indicates issues pertaining to social media, on-line gaming with friends, as well as academic, social and emotional development while engaged in these on-line platforms are present in society and, therefore, also in the classroom.

Data Sources

The research design for this mixed methods study was hypothesis generating. Data included a student survey and a parent/guardian survey. The parent survey consisted of 22 multiple choice questions and 10 questions allowing open ended answers. For the student survey, 18 questions were multiple choice and six provided opportunity for anecdotal responses. Data were coded based on emerging themes.

Evidence and Analysis

Behavioral and Emotional Concerns

Social connectedness is a benefit of social media and online gaming, particularly during a pandemic. First, it must be noted that a majority of parents and students reported that their experience with online gaming specifically during the pandemic was mostly positive: 75% of students and 61.5% of parents. During the spring 2020 lockdown in the greater New York area, this became a primary way for children to stay socially connected safely. Outside of the pandemic, however, more generally speaking, it is notable that 70% of parents reported that social media use and online gaming have a negative overall impact on their child. Wolf (2018) expressed her concern about the "cognitive-developmental trajectories of children who are so constantly stimulated and virtually entertained that they rarely want to go off (screen) to discover their own ability to entertain themselves …" (p. 111). Echoing a similar sentiment, a parent respondent commented, "I feel video games and social media have distracted them from the enjoyment of reading or just being able to sit and relax." One parent specifically noted that the pandemic, "… forced me to be more lenient about my previously very strict rules about online gaming with friends." An additional parent commented, "… my child now has so much access to online gaming he is reluctant to play/ read do much." Finally, a parent participant highlights both the negative and positive sentiment during the pandemic stating, "I valued the connection my children were able to have with others during COVID, though now I'd like to dial it back a bit!"

Peer interaction issues that exist in real life tend to get replicated in online environments, or if we consider the transformation framework, essentially such interactions alter peer experiences of adolescents (Nesi et al., 2018). While both parents and students cited social connectedness as the most valued benefit of social media and online gaming, we can see that students also acknowledge behavioral complexity in online realms. For example, when students were asked what they enjoy most about social media or playing video games, 87.5% specifically identified connection with friends in their responses, with one student respondent indicating a willingness to play any game (not a personally preferred one) just to stay in touch with friends. Asked what they dislike about social media or online gaming, 37.5% respondents specifically indicated concern about friends getting mad or "rage quitting."

Parents much more directly expressed concerns about the behavioral impacts of social media and online gaming on their children-most notably as a result of the shift

Table 1 ***Participant Responses Regarding Child Behavioral Changes***
My children are genuinely happy and show excitement when I say they can play games with friends. I hear them yelling and laughing with multiple friends at a time. However, I've also seen my children become agitated, argumentative, and easily irritated once they get off their games. There have been moments of tears when I've said no to purchasing new skins for games.
Sometimes I feel like my children need to decompress and make a conscious effort to calm their body and behavior after playing games.
They just want more.
Negative behavior when it comes time to log off video games; when they get frustrated in the game it carries over into real life (hard for them to separate this out).
He becomes annoying.
Negative: too much in one day leads to negative emotions, temper flares, inability to focus on other things.
Too much time on a screen — in any context, educational or recreational - makes our child feel depressed.
Lacks incentive to do educational review for next grade
It becomes harder to get him to do other things.
If they spend too much time with devices them become irritable.

from the online to offline experience. Asked whether social media or online gaming use results in change in their child's behavior, whether positive or negative, 76.9% of respondents indicated yes. Further responses reveal, however, that the behavioral changes are not positive ones.

Ten respondents reporting behavioral changes in their child chose to share at least one brief example; nearly all indicate a concern regarding the online to offline transition. **Table 1** includes parent responses regarding behavioral changes.

Parental word choice raises powerful concerns: agitated, argumentative, easily irritated, frustrated, annoying, negative emotions, temper flares, inability to focus, depressed, irritable, lacks incentive, harder to do other things. These reports of the difficulty in transitioning, such as in getting their children to "focus on self-play or outdoor activities" or do something other than "get back on with his friends," raise concerns about how parents can help their children better manage the complex emotions that arise when transitioning from online experiences involving social media or online gaming to their regular offline experiences.

Academic Concerns

As educators, we are deeply concerned about literacy. This survey suggests that parents and students' perceptions are not closely aligned regarding children's enjoyment of reading in general, that is, reading that does not involve social media or online gaming. Seventy-five percent of student participants report their enjoyment of reading-either independently or being read to-as very much. In contrast, only 38.5% of the parents said their children enjoy reading very much, 15.4% indicated quite a lot, and 30.8% said their children have a moderate enjoyment of reading.

This is a marked difference, and we notice a similar parent-student gap in the reporting of how literacy skills of reading and writing are enacted in social media and online gaming. The parents and children are aligned with regard to the literacy skills of listening and speaking, with approximately 75% of both groups acknowledging that those skills are utilized in social media and online gaming. For reading, however, 75% of

Table 2 ***Parental Internet Safety and Security Concerns***	
On-line concern	**Percentage**
Exposure to sexually inappropriate content/contact	84.6%
Exposure to hateful, sexist, racist messages or activities	69.2%
Social isolation due to technology use	69.2%
Damage to their reputation now or in the future	46.2%
Access to content that encourages them to engage in self-harm	46.2%
Access to content that makes them feel bad about themselves	76.9%
Exposure to scammers/fraudsters	76.9%
None of the above	7.7%

students said they utilize those skills but only 53.8% of parents believe their children are using reading skills during social media use or online gaming. Similarly, 50% of students believe they use writing skills but only 30.8% of parents believe their children use this skill while engaged in these platforms. Such discrepancies indicate the need for increased parental awareness about what children are actually doing in these online spaces and ways in which multimodal literacy presents itself and impacts others.

Parent-Child Communication Concerns

There are several points of discrepancy between parent and student perceptions regarding the impacts of social media and online gaming on the students. Specific to the pandemic, there seems to be a disagreement between parents and children with regard to the online nature of remote learning that took place from mid-March to June 2020. Student participants seem to strongly prefer in-person schooling; 50% reported they enjoyed remote learning just a little, 37.5% said moderately, and only one learner said enjoyed remote learning very much. Parents, on the other hand, perceived their children as enjoying the remote experience more than reported by students. A little more than half of the parents (53.8%) reported their children's enjoyment of remote learning as moderate to very much, in contrast to half of the students indicating they enjoyed it "just a little."

An important point on which parents and children seem relatively aligned is on internet safety. Parents expressed notable concerns about their children's safety with regard to social media use and online gaming. We surmise that parents have been actively communicating such concerns to their children, as the students' reported parental rules closely echoing the parent-reported rules. Two students wrote "my parents don't want me spending too much time playing video games," and another two mentioned a time limit of, "no more than two hours at a time" and "only two hours a day." Two students indicated they were only allowed to play with friends, and an additional two students commented on a similar parental safety rule, "don't give out any personal information" and "don't tell anyone my name or where I live or my age."

One student reported in a comment that if they see something inappropriate talk to an adult, which implies that parents have addressed the concept of inappropriate content online. Although we cannot tell how closely that may have been defined for the student, we see that such conversations have begun at this age. Since 63.6% of parents expressed concern about internet safety and security, it appears evident that further parent-child communication might be worthwhile. **Table 2** demonstrates areas of internet safety and security concerns with five of the eight items on the list having received a majority of parents indicating a concern.

Findings and Hypotheses Generated

The following three hypotheses were generated from the aforementioned data and analysis:

1. At times, children tend to struggle with behavioral issues pertaining to aggression, frustration, and agitation when transitioning from on-line to off-line experiences.

2. Parents need to better understand how multimodal literacy is enacted in social media and on-line gaming.

3. Increased parent and child communication regarding activity within on-line spaces may further clarify parental expectations and safety concerns.

Discussion and Implications

Most parents in our survey contend that social media and online gaming with friends negatively impacts children's behavior and interest in alternate activities, although they concede that social media and online gaming with friends provide positive social outlets especially when quarantining and social distancing during the COVID-19 pandemic. Also, given the significant concerns expressed by parents regarding safety and security in online environments-as well as a few points of divergence between parent and child perceptions-it seems evident that further communication between parents and children pertaining to internet safety and expectations is pivotal to helping early adolescents navigate social media and online gaming with friends. These findings are applicable to the home-life and also school occurrences, as peer discourse pertaining to on-line platforms and discussions carry over into the school day. Moreover, 21st century literacy skills are evolving to include more than the traditional form of written text. Understanding how multimodal literacy impacts children and students may provide pivotal insight into the mindset of digital natives and 21st century learners.

We conclude with the following implications:

1. Regarding behavior and emotional concerns:
   Further work is needed to help children with the on-line to off-line experience.

2. Regarding academic concerns:
   Parents, children, and teachers need to further understand literacy in the 21st century and ways in which multimodal literacy impacts and influences others.

3. Regarding parent-child communication concerns:
   Increased parent-child communications regarding activity within on-line spaces may further clarify parental expectations and safety concerns as well as address the gap in parent vs. child perceptions regarding both behavioral and academic issues.

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From the Field: Practical Applications of Research

Bullying and COVID19: How Teachers Deal with New Bullying Manifestations in Their Classes

- by Barry Edwards McNamara, Ed.D.

Abstract

Considerable time and effort has been expended in order to open schools safely during the pandemic. However, it may be difficult to implement bullying prevention programs during this crisis. We have seen new manifestations of bullying during the pandemic and it is important that anti-bullying programs continue to be implemented with fidelity and not be neglected or minimized. The purpose of this article was to understand how teachers were coping with this dilemma. In order to ascertain this information, 25 teachers from a graduate level seminar were provided with an opportunity to share their concerns, issues, and problems in meeting the social emotional needs of their students, and specifically bullying prevention. Information was gathered through Zoom meetings and written products. Recommendations were developed based on these discussions and a review of the related research literature.

INTRODUCTION

All 50 states and the District of Columbia have passed laws that deal with bullying and harassment. Yet, there is a dearth of research on the content of this legislation (Stickl Haugen et al., 2020) and the effectiveness of the implementation of these laws vary (Gale, 2019). In addition, teachers are charged with ensuring that all of their students can learn in a safe environment that is free from bullying and harassment.

Bullying can be defined as an imbalance of power, where the bullies repeatedly target their victims and hurt them in physical or emotional ways. Bullies are adept at identifying their most vulnerable classmates (Olweus, 1993). A great deal has been written about increasing anxiety among students prior to and during COVID 19. These students who are virtual or hybrid learners can become easy victims. Bullying and the unpredictable experiences of this school year make it challenging for teachers to strike the right balance between academic and social emotional learning.

There was a considerable body of research on bullying prevention programs that enable schools to identify bullying, identify victims and provide evidenced based interventions (Olweus, 1993; Garrity, et al., 2004; Hymel & Swearer, 2015). These interventions can be very effective, but the nature of bullying has changed during the pandemic and schools need to be aware of these changes. Cyberbullying has increased (Gordon, 2020) and new manifestations of bullying have emerged and will continue to do so (McNamara, 2020). This article will address these new concerns through the lens of the daily experiences of teachers in dealing with bullying during a pandemic. Recommendations will be provided for the 2021-2022 school year when there is an expectation that more students will return to in person classes. (See CDC recommendation of 1/29/21 for the return to in person schools).

HOW TEACHERS ARE COPING

A mere perusal of articles in lay publications and the professional literature indicates that schools need to be more attentive to the social emotional needs of students during the pandemic. Families are experiencing economic, health and social crises, all of which have increased anxiety and vulnerability among students. One of the hallmarks of bullying is to target the most vulnerable (Olweus, 1993). In order to explore the daily concerns of teachers dealing with the specific issue of bullying, I focused on the problems/issues/concerns that they must grapple with on a daily basis. This enabled a convenient sample of teachers to share their experiences, collaborate with their peers and implement interventions with support.

Twenty-five participants were enrolled in a Student Teaching Seminar and a Research Seminar that are the capstone experiences in an M.S. Ed program in Childhood/Special Education. They were employed in a large urban school district, with a culturally and linguistically diverse population. All participants reviewed their schools' bullying/harassment policies and procedures, as well as their responsibilities for implementation.

Through the use of Zoom discussions and written products the following major issues emerged. They were:

- Difficulty identifying the signs of bullying victimization, especially with limited internet access for some students
- Difficulty in establishing relationships with students, both virtually and in person due to COVID 19 protocols
- Difficulty interacting with Mental Health staff
- Inability to collaborate with colleagues
- Difficulty implementing a consistent program due to absences, frequent schedule changes and switching back and forth from in person and virtual learning
- Difficulty in establishing relationships with students and overburdened families

SEARCHING FOR SOLUTIONS

Many of the participants felt the need to focus on the social-emotional connections with and among their students and to be vigilant dealing with bullying more so than academic skill acquisition. They addressed all three issues, but their concern for the basic needs of their students was paramount. In order to address their concerns they engaged in the following:

- They developed rituals and established routines
- They "checked in" with their students at least once per day
- They collaborated with their students' families to understand what they could do to help them deal with this difficult school year
- They alerted parents to services available to them through the school and/or other agencies
- They increased the on-going assessment of students' social emotional needs through self- regulation checklists, questionnaires, exit cards, and a Mood Meter to look for signs of bullying/harassment
- They modified their assignments so that students would have a platform to share their concerns
- They found ways to contact and interact with mental health professionals in their schools
- They researched the professional literature for evidenced based interventions in their classrooms during this difficult time and shared this information with their colleagues
- They searched for effective ways to provide support for parents and shared this with their colleagues
- They modelled empathy, kindness and caring to their students and colleagues
- They validated their colleagues' concerns

It is easy to become overwhelmed by all that must be done during this pandemic. School administrators need to listen to those who deal with social and emotional issues among their students on a daily basis and provide an opportunity to share their concerns and collaborate to identify effective interventions. As previously noted, there is ample evidence regarding effective bullying prevention programs. What is lacking is how to do this in the current environment. The participants in this seminar found useful solutions to some of their concerns. However, this needs to be done in a more formalized manner if we are to address bullying/ harassment in the 2021-2022 school year.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE 2021-2022 SCHOOL YEAR

Based upon the input from the teachers in the seminar and a review of the professional literature the following recommendations were formulated.

- Evaluate your current bullying prevention program. A periodic review of your bullying prevention program is always advisable. However, at this point in time it is critical. The school environment has changed dramatically, both in the classroom and virtually. Students are more vulnerable now because of the many consequences of COVID 19. It should be no surprise that bullying would increase in such an environment. Victims are typically the most vulnerable students and bullies are able to readily identify them. Schools need to ensure that the bullying intervention program is districtwide and that all staff members receive training. The training should be on-going and help to identify new manifestations of bullying.

- Survey the students. Prior to implementing a bullying prevention program there must be an assessment of the current state of bullying in your school or district. There are innumerable surveys and questionnaires available online that should include information regarding the frequency and types of bullying experienced by students and places where bullying occurs and how victims attempt to get help.

- Infuse social-emotional skills into the curriculum. A common thread that emerged from the participants' discussion was the difficulty finding time to deal with social-emotional learning, including bullying. Forgan & Gonzales-DeHass (2004) provide specific ways in which teachers can infuse these skills into their curriculum. They provide ways to teach social skills and academic skills. Their recommendations are efficient and provide more time than is typically given to social-emotional learning while allowing for transfer of skills.

- Be aware of new manifestations of bullying. As previously noted, cyberbullying has increased during COVID 19. Teachers need to keep abreast of the current literature on cyberbullying (see Cyberbullying.US, the website for the Cyberbullying Research Center). More students are online and are uncomfortable with sharing their home

environment with their classmates. Students have been bullied about their lack of specific possessions, the clothing there are wearing or comments regarding the type and quality of their tech devises or lack thereof. Recently the Boston Public Schools mandated that students must appear on screen when they are learning virtually. Many criticized the action for the reasons cited above. Some students reported that they are being shunned by their peers and bullied when they find out they or their family members have the virus. The same can occur for in-person learning when other students target the student who they think had COVID 19.

The use of masks also has also made some students vulnerable. Clothing has always been a high frequency target of bullies and masks are merely a new item. Students may be bullied for wearing (or not wearing) masks, the types of masks they wear, the quality of the masks, etc. This is particularly true for students with disabilities who may find wearing masks intolerable due to sensory or medical issues. Students with disabilities are victimized at a much higher rate than other students and we need to ensure that the bullying prevention program is modified and adapted to their needs also (McNamara, 2013).

- Provide professional development. All participants noted that their schools had bullying prevention programs, but the pandemic made it difficult, if not impossible to implement as it is designed. Professional development should include ways to identify bullies and victims, how to make a referral, best practices for interventions and support for victims. Schools should create or add to a library of books on bullying that can be found online. (See www.best-childrens-book.com/childrens-books-about-bullying.)

  Additionally, in order to keep informed on best practices and research teachers and school leaders should consult stopbullying.gov, the US Department of Education website. Finally, all paraprofessionals should be provided with professional development. Most bullying occurs in unstructured settings with many students and fewer adults. This is the environment where most paraprofessionals spend most of their day. (See nea.org/neabullyfree/ for excellent information for paraprofessionals.)

- Involve families and the community. Families must be provided with easily accessible information about bullying and harassment. Districts need to provide frequent meetings, either in person or virtual and develop a district or school wide committee that include families and community members with a family-friendly website. The website should provide information on referrals to the appropriate school personnel if they feel their child is being bullied and useful books and websites that are geared towards families.

- Create an empathetic classroom. Bullying prevention programs must include ways to engage in acts of kindness and caring. As we approach more in person classes during the 2021-2022 school year, it is important to establish an empathetic classroom. In the rush to try to bridge the inevitable learning gap students experienced during school closing and virtual classes, vigilance on identifying bullying behaviors and victims and the emphasis on social emotional learning must continue to be emphasized. Creating an empathetic classroom will be even more important next year. Students can flourish in such a classroom when they are reinforced for their kind, caring and empathetic behaviors and respect for all is modelled and valued.

Some things that all teachers can do are:

- Write positive statements about every student in the class
- Keep a kindness journal (students should also do this)
- Display a "kind words" list in your classroom
- Model kind and caring behaviors
- Treat students with respect
- Use high rates of verbal and nonverbal praise
- Make a list of things that people who are kind do
- Do not use sarcasm
- Keep track of acts of kindness and caring in your class
- Reward acts of kindness and caring
- Teach specific social skills that support a sense of belonging for all students

CONCLUSION

Dealing with bullying during COVID 19 is difficult. Acknowledging that fact will enable schools to develop and implement interventions that will address the new manifestations of bullying. All teachers involved in this seminar recognized the need to address social emotional needs during this difficult time. Clearly, anticipating and dealing with new manifestations of bullying is not equivalent to the life and death situations too many have encountered this year. However, know that many victims suffer from depression and in a number of instances they see no other option than to take their own lives. Helping teachers to recognize and seek help for troubled students is even more important during this pandemic crisis.

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Book Review:

Global Education Reform: How Privatization and Public Investment Influence Education Outcomes

- By Frank Adamson, Bjorn Astrand, and Linda Darling-Hammond

POLICY DECISIONS GROUNDED IN SAND OR ANCHORED IN VALUES?

- Reviewed by Richard Bernato, Ed.D.

There probably aren't any reasons to justify why someone would wear full deep-sea diving gear to withstand the temperature in the Sahara. It is the wrong solution to survive in such climes.

To liken the prospect of using deep-sea diving equipment in the Sahara to "surviving" policy-based efforts to improve education can be a logical stretch, yet sometimes, efforts to make education "better", often are the wrong solutions to education's challenges.

In this book, the authors examine how six countries, Chile, Sweden, Finland, Canada, Cuba, and the United States have evolved, and then sometimes reversed national and local policies about how to craft systems best suited to meet their society's educational needs.

Using the anagram, GERM, Global Educational Reform, the authors study reform efforts in countries that have made decisions across the spectrum from full scale privatization to government, public investment in their students' education. The authors examine the reasons behind the reform efforts and the consequences of pursuing these policy choices.

Market choices characterized by school choice and competition, high-stakes testing, narrowing of curriculum, high stakes testing and the use of under-or unqualified and therefore less expensive teachers drive the school privatization movement. Stahlberg viewed decisions to opt for market-based approaches as stemming, on the one hand, from disappointment with the performance of some public education systems and beliefs about what may lead to better learning.

The authors argue strongly that the shift to privatization is grounded in Milton Freidman's economic ideas that favored choice in a market economy and competition. They pose that Keynesian economics which endorses among other things, governmental support of public services is the foundation of modern public education.

While simplifying somewhat, they categorize Chile, Sweden, and the United States as countries that have either gone full-scale privatized or have made room for it in national and local practices. Ontario Canada, Cuba, and Finland fall into government support and investment models.

The researchers, find that the market-based privatized systems have largely missed the mark. This is especially so in how diverse, lower socioeconomic students have fared. They offer many examples in each country where poorer students have either been excluded from schools purported to be excellent, shunted to other, lower performing ones, or prevented from attending so-called better schools by their inability to pay additional tuition to be enrolled there.

In contrast, the authors make a case that government supported schools showed commitment to public education for all students. These schools were characterized by valuing different mechanisms for improving education: well-prepared teachers; commitment to equity, appropriate school funding, high-quality infrastructure; and emphases on whole-child curriculum and pedagogy. They noted particular emphasis on high levels of investment in teachers' professional growth practices.

Of interest to the reviewer was that Cuba stood out as an exemplar in these regards. Its rank in Latin America was very notable. Its commitment to national curriculum that was uniformly consistent for all students seemed to be a distinction public schools in Cuba enjoyed.

Where New Orleans' post Katrina efforts to restore education to its youngsters was described as inequitable and inadequate in its charter school academy approaches, the states of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Jersey were singled out for their successful transformation of their public education systems based on equity and extensive government support.

The research and findings in this book describe the history behind both private voucher schools and public

funded schools. The results cited are presented as clear-cut conclusions. Deeper cultural analyses of the schools seem warranted before any sweeping conclusions could rise to the top.

What seems apparent however, in terms of the lenses that the researchers have used, is that the fundamental difference between the school choice countries with their private management teams and local public schools expose clashes of values. The former privatization modelers seem to espouse a law of the jungle with a Darwinist value mindset while the public community school group invest in a collaborative model that stresses equity, tolerance and service.

Those who opt for investment in quality public school educational systems appear to recognize that merely having schools "public" is not enough. Rather, their success to reach the needs of all students in a democratic society requires deep, research-based thinking in how to restructure, modify, or recreate sound school systems. The authors conclude that there are no quick-fixes to this goal without an unshakeable value system committed to all children.

The authors remind readers that policy formulation and more importantly policy articulation and implementation require that decision makers avoid solutions that are grounded in ideology and that they seek to imbed the deeper values and purposes of a twenty first century community school with educational purpose of enabling all students to prepare for active citizenship, personal development and service to one's community.

This book's value lies chiefly with policy makers. Practitioners would benefit most from its content by understanding the policy conflicts in their society and deciding how they can contribute to supporting to policy makers and practices that reflect their basic beliefs, assumptions, and values.

Authors: Frank Adamson, Bjorn Astrand, and Linda Darling-Hammond

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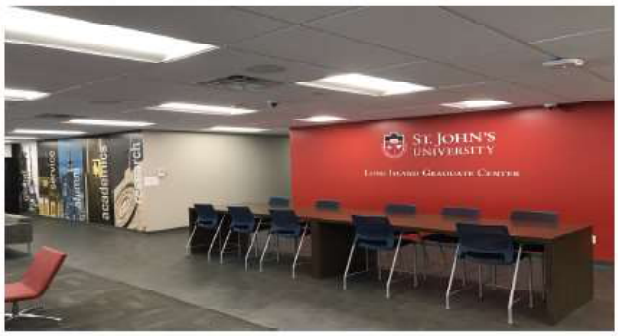

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