

LEADERSHIP AND RESEARCH IN EDUCATION



THE JOURNAL OF THE OCPEA

*Leadership and Research in Education:
The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of
Educational Administration (OCPEA)*



*Leadership and Research in Education:
The Journal of the OCPEA*

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Associate Editor: Melissa Askren Edgehouse,
University of Mount Union

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Vision:

Organic. Creative. Professional. Engaging. Accessible.

Mission:

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA offers an academic forum for scholarly discussions of education, curriculum and pedagogy, leadership theory, and policy studies in order to elucidate effective practices for classrooms, schools, and communities.

The mission of the OCPEA journal is to not only publish high quality manuscripts on various political, societal, and policy-based issues in the field of education, but also to provide our authors with opportunities for growth through our extensive peer review process. We encourage graduate students, practitioners, and early career scholars to submit manuscripts, as well as senior faculty and administrators. We accept quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, and action research based approaches as well as non-traditional and creative approaches to educational research and policy analysis, including the application of educational practices.

The journal is indexed in the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) database.

Submitting to the OCPEA Journal

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Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA accepts original manuscripts detailing issues facing teachers, administrators, schools, including empirically based pieces, policy analysis, and theoretical contributions. Submissions must include a one hundred word abstract and five key words. Send one electronic copy of the manuscript to the editor using MS Word as well as a signed letter by the author(s) authorizing permission to publish the manuscript. Additionally, a separate cover page must be included containing the article title, author name(s), professional title(s), highest degree(s) obtained, institutional affiliation(s), email address(es), telephone and FAX numbers. Only the article title should appear on the subsequent pages to facilitate a triple-blind reviewing of the manuscript. Submissions should be approximately 15-20 pages including references. Submissions must align to the standards of the *APA Manual* (7th ed.). Submissions must be double-spaced, 12 point Times New Roman font with one inch margins on all sides, each page numbered.

Deadline for Volume 6 Issue 1 (Expected in Fall 2021) submissions is **June 30, 2021.**

To submit materials for consideration, send one electronic copy of the manuscript and additional requested information to:

OCPEA Journal Editors at
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This Call for Papers for the 2021 Journal is posted on the OCPEA website, <https://education-human-services.wright.edu/leadership-studies-in-education-and-organizations/ohio-council-of-professors-of-educational-administration/leadership-and-research-in-education>

General Submission Guidelines

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA accepts original manuscripts detailing issues facing teachers, administrators, schools, including empirically based pieces, policy analysis, and theoretical contributions.

General Areas of Focus:

Advocacy

We seek manuscripts identifying political issues and public policies that impact education, as well as actions that seek to dismantle structures negatively affecting education in general and students specifically.

Policy Analysis

We seek analysis of policies impacting students, teachers, educational leaders, schools in general, and higher education. How have policy proposals at the state or national level, such as the introduction and adoption of national and state standards, affected curriculum, instruction, or assessment of leadership preparation and administrative credential programs?

Preparing Educational Leaders

We seek manuscripts that detail effective resources and practices that are useful to faculty members in the preparation of school leaders.

Diversity and Social Justice

We seek manuscripts on issues related to diversity that impact schools and school leaders, such as strategies to dismantle hegemonic practices, recruit and retain under-represented populations in schools and universities, promote democratic schools, and effective practices for closing the achievement gap.

Technology

We seek manuscripts that detail how to prepare leaders for an information age in a global society.

Research

The members of OCPEA are interested in pursuing the following: various research paradigms and methodologies, ways to integrate scholarly research into classrooms, ways to support student research and participatory action research, and how to use educational research to influence public policy.

For more information, contact OCPEA Journal Editor: Yoko Miura at ocpeajournal@gmail.com

***Leadership and Research in Education:
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A Note from the Editorial Board

Yoko Miura, Editor
Wright State University

Welcome to the Volume 5, Issue 2 of *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration* (OCPEA). In the tradition of the International Council of Professors of Educational Leadership (ICPEL), we offer this venue to regional researchers and practitioners to bridge the divide between them, providing research that is relevant, regional, and relatable and from a grassroots perspective. The collegial work and growth that produced this publication foreshadows our continued success both for the journal and OCPEA in general.

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA) is peer reviewed by members of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Leadership (OCPEA) and their colleagues. OCPEA is honored to bring forth this important and timely publication and hope not only to inform readers with our work, but also to inspire practitioners, graduate students, novice and seasoned faculty members to write for our journal. Part of our mission is to mentor beginning scholars through the writing and publishing process. We would appreciate if our readers would pass on our mission, vision, and call for papers to graduate students and junior faculty as well as to colleagues who are already experts in their fields.

OCPEA is pleased to present an eclectic mix of research and theoretical articles in this issue that are both timely and thought provoking for scholars and practitioners alike in the fields of education, curriculum and instruction, and educational leadership. The manuscripts in this issue detail many of the current controversies in the field of education as we currently experience them, including legal issues impacting school leaders, issues of funding inequities for public schools, and the intersection of schooling and politics.

We would like to acknowledge the many who have helped to shepherd *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration* (OCPEA) into a living entity. First, we thank our authors for submitting their work. Second, we thank our board of editors who worked tirelessly to create the policies and procedures and who took the idea of an ICPEL journal for the state of Ohio to fruition. Third, we wish to express gratitude to our esteemed panel of reviewers. Each manuscript goes through an extensive three-person peer review panel, and we are quite proud of the mentoring that has resulted as a part of this process. Fourth, we give a special thanks to the

Board of OCPEA who has supported the vision and mission of *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration* (OCPEA). The support and guidance of the Board throughout the process of publishing this issue has been inestimable.

Finally, OCPEA is indebted to Brad Bizzell of ICPEL Publications for their direction and support. On behalf of the Board of *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration*, the OCPEA Board, and the general membership of OCPEA, we collectively thank the readers of this publication. We hope the information provided will guide readers toward a deeper understanding of the many facets of the fields of education, curriculum and instruction, and educational leadership. OCPEA hopes to continue to provide readers with insightful and reflective research.

Relation of Social Justice Leadership with Students' School Alienation and School Burnout¹

Ece Özdoğan Özbal
Ankara University

Abstract

This research aimed to determine whether there is a relationship between school alienation and school burnout, and “social justice leadership”, and to identify the nature of this relationship and structure. In this research, a relational screening model was used. In order to analyse the relationship between “social justice leadership”, school alienation, and school burnout through data collection tools, correlation analysis, multiple regression modelling, and multiple linear regression analysis were made. Three hundred eighty two high school students studying in Ankara, Turkey participated in the research and data were obtained in April and May 2019. The results obtained from the data show that there is an inverse relationship between social justice leadership and school alienation and school burnout, and that the increase in social justice leadership in school may decrease school alienation and school burnout. It is recommended that high school administrators promote a social justice culture in school to reduce variables such as school alienation and school burnout.

Keywords: social justice leadership, school alienation, school burnout, leadership, high school

Introduction

Considering the fact that inequalities in society and the need for social justice increase day by day, and this is an international problem. For this reason, regulations on social justice begin to attract attention. In the Social Justice Index report (Hellmann, Schmidt & Heller, 2019), it is stated that many countries have deficiencies (health, education, labor market access etc) in terms of social justice. Turkey is fortieth out of 41 among countries in the ranking index of social justice. Increasing population mobility, rising pluralism in schools and knowing the effects of socioeconomic differences on students' academic achievement caused discussions on social justice practices (Rapp,

¹ This paper's abstract was published in 14. International Congress of Educational Administration Abstract Book, İzmir, 2-4 May 2019.

2002; Furman & Shields, 2005). The problem of social justice, which is a concern for the entire world, also necessitates “social justice leadership” practices, especially in schools where social inequalities are reproduced (Mills, 2008).

Providing “social justice leadership” in schools serves as an important success for groups from various socio-economic statuses, ethnicities, and cultures at school as well as in society (Furman, 2012; DeMatthews & Mawhinney, 2014). “Social justice leadership” is to provide equality in education for all children of various racial, cultural and ethnic backgrounds (Gerwurtz & Ball, 2000). It gives opportunity to fill the achievement gap and supply the essential resources to disadvantaged students (DeMatthews, 2015), and to reformat, organize and expand the curriculum to meet the needs of a particular student community. It is expected from social justice leaders to focus on equality in education in schools (Brown, 2004) and create the necessary structure to meet the needs of children and families with different racial, cultural, linguistic and economic backgrounds (Dantley, 2005; Dantley & Tillman, 2010). Considering that the change in the world is very rapid, in many countries there is a significant learning gap among disadvantaged students and this gap continues to grow through adulthood (OECD, 2017), deficiencies that may arise in the absence of social justice leaders are of great importance. “Social justice leadership” has effects on many aspects such as attitude towards school, school engagement (Özdemir, 2017), and school belonging (Gören, 2019). Creating models of social justice by evaluating these effects is likely to prevent the increase in the occurrence of many negative situations in terms of access to education, notably school dropout, as well as the reproduction of inequalities at school. School alienation (Calabrese & Poe, 1990) and school burnout (Bask & Salmela-Aro, 2013), which have critical roles in

school dropout, are accepted as important variables, especially in disadvantaged groups. Hascher and Hadjar (2018) defined school alienation as “a specific set of negative attitudes towards social and academic domains of schooling comprising cognitive and affective elements” (179). Therefore, the consequences of these negative attitudes such as decreasing enjoyment of school (Morinaj et. all, 2019), academic failure (Osler & Hill, 1999), and not feeling the need for education (Newmann et al., 1992) can cause school dropout. In another dimension when we consider concept of alienation, social isolation, powerlessness stands out (Brown et. al, 2003; Hascher & Hagenauer, 2010). This concept of powerlessness is directly related to social justice and expected to show its effects more in the lack of social justice. When we consider school burnout, it is related to emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and depersonalization (Wallburg, 2014). Salmela-Aro and others (2009) described school-related burnout as sarcastic and neutral attitudes towards the school and a sense of inadequacy as a student. It is seen that school burnout also leads to negative attitudes, like alienation from school. School burnout causes, inappropriate behaviors (Dyrbye et al., 2010), and diminished academic performance (Salmela-Aro et. al, 2009). Therefore, within the scope of this research, it was aimed to specify whether there is a relationship between variables and to identify the nature of this relationship if there is any.

Literature Review: Social Justice Leadership

While some researchers stated that a clear definition of social justice cannot be made (Bogotch, 2002), other researchers defined the common features of social justice for fair education (Larson & Murtadha, 2002; Marshall & Oliva, 2010), and focused on the analysis of points such as race, marginalization, diversity, sexual orientation and

gender (Dantley & Tillman, 2010). Miller (1999), one of the contemporary philosophers of social justice, explained it based on how good (advantage) and bad things (disadvantage) should be distributed among members of society. In this distribution-based assessment, rather than the good and the bad being in favour of or against certain groups, it is expected that these groups are exposed to the good and the bad equally. Ensuring equality for good and bad also means equalizing opportunities and converging to social justice. Inequality for good and bad widen the gap between good and bad. Especially when evaluated in terms of socio-economic conditions, the unequal distribution of the existing accumulation among the members of the society also disrupts the equality between people.

Social justice is possible primarily through being concerned with positively equalizing hopes and opportunities for the different members of society in terms of social limitations such as gender, nationality, race, social class, culture, ethnicity, age, and disability (Miller, 1999). Social justice refers to the understanding that increases economic prosperity for all members of society, and that all institutions of society act in the light of this responsibility (Mansfield, 2013). When daily life experiences are evaluated in this respect, many situations can be exemplified. In the provision of social justice, we can define the “*social justice leader*” as a person who creates practices that ensure equality in the educational environment, supports groups that are subject to inequality and aware of inequalities.

Social justice leaders were expected to raise a high level of critical awareness against repression, exclusion, and marginalization (Brooks & Miles, 2008). Social justice leaders also carry out the process of ensuring justice in terms of the groups they support.

In other words, social justice leaders need to analyze whether their organizational practices support certain groups (Boske & Diem, 2012). Researchers supported that educational leadership can positively affect social justice (Garratt & Forrester, 2012; Ryan, 2006; Jean-Marie, 2008). Especially in school life, school dropouts arising from inequalities may occur, and students may become alienated from school. Students may feel marginalized. This is because schools are places where situations such as the exclusion and separation of disadvantaged social groups are reproduced (Mills, 2008; Batruch, 2018). Theoharis (2007) discussed marginalization in “social justice leadership” and according to him it can be achieved through taking deliberate, egalitarian and justice-oriented steps to change the school.

It is seen that in educational environments where social justice was not provided, inequality is maintained and marginalization occurs, students were affected in terms of many aspects such as attitude towards school, school loyalty (Özdemir, 2017), quality of school life and belonging to school (Gören, 2019). Especially in an environment where the person is marginalized for external reasons, students can become alienated and experience burnout.

School alienation is an important problem for the school and needs to be addressed. In-depth examination of its causes is important in terms of reducing the problems it creates at school. Considering the concepts that Seeman (1975) discovered the concept of alienation by Karl Marx, it is seen that he emphasized many points such as individual weakness, meaninglessness, normlessness, cultural alienation, and social isolation. The fact that any one's own truths do not coincide with the general truths of the society in the decision-making process reflects the meaninglessness, while the

normlessness indicates that the social norms that regulate individual behaviors are destroyed (Seeman, 1959). All of this consists of perceptions of self-alienation due to meaninglessness, normlessness, cultural alienation and social isolation (Hascher & Hadjar, 2018). In all dimensions of alienation, there is a distancing of the student from the school and the school becoming meaningless and reasonless for him/her. Although many different definitions of alienation from school (Hascher & Hadjar, 2018) have been made, in general, it can be said that it expresses many negative situations such as increased school absenteeism (Angell-Olsen, 2017), and low academic achievement (Morinaj., Hadjar, & Hascher, 2019). Besides these conflicts that students have with their friends and teachers throughout their education can cause students to stay away from school (Walker & Graham, 2019). Alienation from the school, which has negative consequences that even hinders the enjoyment of the right to education, should not be ignored and what kind of variables it is related to should be examined.

Another negative situation experienced by students is the sense of burnout. Yang (2004) defines school burnout as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization tendency and low personal accomplishment as a result of stress caused by excessive student course load and other problems experienced in the school environment. It is possible to evaluate school burnout in terms of students' feelings of inadequacy, feeling of cynicism towards the school and emotional burnout (Salmelo-Aro, Kiuru, Leisken & Nurmi, 2009). Students who experience burnout increase their absenteeism at school, there are problems in fulfilling the duties and responsibilities assigned to the student related to the course, and the motivation of the students decreases (Yang & Farn, 2005). School burnout creates many obstacles for students and achieving school goals. Seeing school as a source

of stress (Kiuru, et. al, 2008) dropping out of school (Yang & Farn, 2005), alienation from school (Loughrey ve Harris, 1992) can be listed as some of them. It is noteworthy that there may be problems resulting in school dropouts (Basque & Salmela-Aro, 2013). For all these reasons, an in-depth study of school burnout is needed.

Considering that social inequalities increased the occurrences of many negative situations, their relationship with school burnout is also a curious topic. Since it is thought that these types of inequalities had an impact on shaping one's future, especially during adolescence, which is a period characterized by various psychological, physical, social and socio-cultural changes (Caspi, 2002), it is important to put excessive significance on social justice.

Methods

This research aimed to determine whether there is a relationship between school alienation and school burnout, and “social justice leadership”, and to identify the nature of this relationship and structure. For this reason, the research seeks answers to the following research questions;

Research Question 1. Is there a relationship between social justice leadership and school alienation?

Research Question 2. Is there a relationship between social justice leadership and school burnout?

Research Question 3. Is there a relationship between social justice leadership, school alienation and school burnout?

Research Question 4. Does the model produce an estimated population covariance matrix that is consistent with the sample (observed) covariance matrix? If yes “what is the path coefficient for specific path?”

This study designed as quantitative research, the structural equation modelling was used in the development of the data collection tools of the research, and relational screening model was used for the analysis of the data obtained. In relational research where the relationship between two or more variables is examined (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008), the model that aims to decide the presence and degree of co-variation between variables rather than the cause and effect relationship (Karasar, 2014) is called a relational screening model and it is used in this research. “Social justice leadership”, “school burnout” and “school alienation” levels of high school students were described, and whether there was a relationship between the variables, and if there was, the direction of this relationship was determined.

Scales for the data collection created for the research and Structural Equation Modelling used for the content validity analysis of the scales, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Population and Sampling

Two samples were created in the research. The first of these samples aimed the development of data collection tools. In the scale development process, there are opinions that state a sample of 200 people will be sufficient as an absolute criterion to extract reliable factors in factor analysis (Kline, 1994) or the number of samples can be determined in scale development by multiplying the number of items by five or ten (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). Since the draft scales prepared in line with these opinions

consisted of 19 to 21 items respectively, it was decided that it would be sufficient to evaluate the scale items on a scale of 210, and the first sample was determined as 210. Random sampling model used for the first sample. Data for the data collection tools were collected from 210 high school students in Ankara in April 2019.

The second sample was the one where the data collection tools would be applied. Purposive sampling method used for second sampling. Especially it is aimed to select students from regions with social justice deficiency. The target population (Toker Gökçe, 2018), in which the researcher could choose the sample, was defined by the researcher because the population was quite large (74,157) in determining the sample to which the data collection tools would be applied. The target population of the research was high school students in Mamak, Sincan, and Keçiören districts in Ankara. The reason behind choosing these districts was that in Ankara Development Agency's Ankara Regional Plan (2014-2023) rates. In regional plan it is stated that Ankara's poverty rate is 7.3% and Mamak's 10.3%, Sincan's rate is 5.9% and Keçiören's rate is 6.7%. These three districts' rates are close to Ankara's average. However, these districts were considered not only because they are close to Ankara average, but also because they differ from each other in terms of poverty rates according to the poverty levels within the district. District poverty rate shows people whose poverty levels are different from each other in a district. That is, it reveals the proportions of poor and wealthy households. The higher the rate, the higher the gap in terms of very poor and high figures. As it decreases, comments can be made by looking at the general average. When the district poverty rates of districts are examined, Mamak's 1.1%, Sincan's rate is 47.3 % and Keçiören's rate is 14.3 %. This means that

while the general population of Mamak is poor, there is a gap between the poor and the wealthy in Sincan.

According to the data obtained from Ankara Provincial Directorate of National Education for the 2018-2019 academic year, 74, 157 high school students, 22, 857 of which are in Mamak, 28, 805 of which are in Keçiören, and 22, 495 of which are in Sincan, receive education in the official high schools located in the districts that constitute the target population. Due to the difficulty of reaching all students who make up the research population, the research was conducted on the sample that represented the entire research population. In order to determine the sample, the sample formula of Cochran (1977, 75) was used in the process by considering the 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error, and the sample was determined as 382 students.

$$n = \frac{t^2(PQ) / d^2}{1 + \frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{t^2 PQ}{d^2} - 1 \right)}$$

N : Universe Size (number of units)

n : Sample size (number of units)

d : Acceptable error level (.05)

t : The table value of trust level (t: 1.96)

P : Possibility of realizing the desired situation

$Q = 1 - P$ $PQ = (.50) \cdot (.50) = \text{Maximum value of } 0.25 \text{ variance}$

Data collection from determined samples was carried out in April and May 2019. Out of the 382 students included in the assessment process as a part of the research, 152 of them were receiving education in Sincan, 128 of them were receiving education in Mamak, and

102 of them were receiving education in Keçiören. The number of female students was 98, and the number of male students was 283. When we examine the distribution of students by class, 96 of them 9th-grade, 127 of them 10th-grade, 109 of them 11th-grade, and 49 of them 12th-grade. One of the reasons for the low percentage of 12th-grade students was that the data were collected in May and that these students did not respond due to the national higher education transition exam.

Instruments

In the literature, “social justice leadership” scales developed on a national scope by Özdemir and Kütküt (2015), and Beycioğlu and Kesik (2014) were found. It was determined that in terms of school alienation, mostly teacher-oriented scales were prepared, but a student-oriented school alienation scale was developed by Şimşek, Abuzar, Yegin, Şimşek and Demir (2015). As school burnout scale, the student scale created by Aypay (2011) was determined. Because of the researcher's desire to add different items on “social justice leadership”, alienation, and burnout to the determined scales, the fact that level of reliability of some of the scales was low (0.65), and that one of the determined scales was created for elementary-level students, three scales exclusive to this research were developed for data collection. In the research data collected with these scales were assessed. As for the content validity analysis of the scales, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and followed by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were made, and for content reliability, “Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient” was calculated. Explanations about developing scales are presented below.

“Social Justice Leadership” Scale

In order to prepare the “social justice leadership” scale, firstly, a pool of 21 items was prepared. In order for it to be examined in terms of content validity and evaluation, the draft scale was submitted to the opinion of three experts. Two experts were from the field of educational administration, one expert is from the field of assessment and evaluation. Following the suggestions made by the experts, six items were changed, two items were removed, and 19 items were determined in draft scale. In addition, according to the opinions of the experts, a 5-point Likert scale that included the statements of “totally agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and totally disagree” was prepared. The prepared 19-item draft was applied to the students.

Firstly, EFA was applied to the scale. The aim was to reveal the connection between observed variables and latent through EFA (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu & Büyüköztürk, 2016). For EFA, firstly, evaluations regarding sample size, missing value, normality, and linearity were made. As a result of the Barlett test performed before the factor analysis of the scale ($p = <.05$), it can be stated that the variables included in factor analysis provided the multivariate normality assumption, and therefore the relationship between the variables was linear. Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) value was determined to be 0.97. Since the value is greater than 0.50 (Çokluk et al., 2016), and above 0.80, it can be interpreted to be good for the size of the sample (Tavsancil, 2005). About missing value, since a scale is not evaluated if there are missing data after the implementation of the draft scales, the missing data analysis was not performed. In terms of normality, kurtosis and skewness values were checked and the values of skewness (.320) and

kurtosis (-.782) between -1 and +1 were evaluated as a proof that the distribution did not deviate excessively from normal (Çokluk et al., 2016).

When deciding the number of factors within the scope of EFA, it was checked if the eigenvalue was 1 and above, and while deciding the fit of an item, it was checked if the factor load value of the item was 0.45 and above. Although there is a view in the literature that the item load value should be over .30, Tabachnick and Fidel (2007) evaluate the value of .32 as weak, and the value .45 as moderate. Therefore, items with a load value of .45 and over were intended to be included in the scale. It was also noted that each item was under a single factor and that there was a difference of at least 0.10 between the factor loading values of the items in the two factors (Büyüköztürk, 2010; Tavşancıl, 2005).

EFA results show that the total variance rates that were found to determine how many factors the scale consisted of were examined, and it was found that only one item had a value above 1. When the contribution of this factor to total variance was examined, it was determined that it was quite high with 71.42%. When the scree plot is analyzed, it is seen that there is a sharp slope in the first factor, and the slope from the 2nd factor is plateaued. In this respect, it was decided that the number of factors should be one. Büyüköztürk (2010) states that when a sudden fall is observed after the first factor in the line graph of eigenvalues, the decrease in the slope may be evidence of one-dimensionality. Factor number was determined as one, and the analysis was repeated. The load values of the 19 items on the scale exceeded 0.45. The distribution of the item loads in the scale is given in Appendix A.

CFA is performed to determine the emerging structure of the developed scale and to test the fit of the model. For CFA, all of the items were modelled as single-factor, and the data were analyzed in the LISREL 8.7 program. Firstly, no problems were observed with the t -values of the items and the items themselves. Then the error variances of the items were checked. It is seen that the error variances of the items ranged between 0.23 and 0.40 (Appendix B), and there were no problems.

In the examination of model fit values, it is stated that when the ratio of X^2/df value is smaller than 2.5 in small samples, it indicates a perfect fit (Kline, 2005), when the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is less than 0.08, it indicates a good fit (Sumer, 2000), and when GFI, NFI, and CFI are more than .90, it indicates a good fit (Sumer, 2000). If the RMR value is less than 0.05, it indicates that there is an acceptable fit (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). Confirmatory factor analysis' results show the values of the "social justice leadership" scale were determined as follows ($X^2/df=2.09$, RMSEA = 0.072, RMR = 0.025, GFI = 0.86, NFI = 0.98, CFI: 0.99, IFI = 0.99,). In this context, it can be stated that the "social justice leadership" scale has been confirmed as a model with a 19-item, one-factor structure. Cronbach's alpha value was 0.97 and the scale was found to be reliable according to the value.

School Alienation Student Scale

"School Alienation Student Scale" was aimed to be developed to determine the alienation level of students. For the development of the scale, relevant literature was viewed, and an item pool of 23 items was prepared. In order for it to be examined in terms of content validity and evaluation, the draft scale was submitted to the opinion of three experts. Two experts were from the field of educational administration, one expert is from the field of

assessment and evaluation. Following the suggestions made by the experts, eight items were changed, two items were removed, and there were 21 items in the draft scale. In addition, according to experts' views, a 5-point Likert scale that included the statements of "totally agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and totally disagree" was prepared. The prepared 21-item draft scale was applied to the students. 7 of these items consist of positive statements, and 14 of them consist of negative statements. Therefore, the responses to positive statements were reversely-coded.

In order to apply EFA to the data obtained with the draft scale, firstly, assessments regarding sample size, missing value, normality, and linearity were made. As a result of the Barlett test performed before the factor analysis of the scale ($p = <.05$), it was determined that there was a relationship between the variables included in factor analysis. KMO value was found 0.94. Since the value is higher than 0.50, the appropriate interpretation of the sample can be made. About missing value, since a scale is not evaluated if there are missing data after the implementation of the draft scales, the missing data analysis was not performed. In terms of normality, kurtosis and skewness values were checked and the values of skewness (.477) and kurtosis (-.346) between -1 and +1 were evaluated as a proof that the distribution did not deviate excessively from normal (Çokluk et al., 2016).

When determining the number of factors within the scope of EFA, it was checked if the eigenvalue was 1 and above, and while deciding the fit of an item, it was checked if the factor load value of the item was 0.45 and above. It was also noted that each item was under a single factor and that there was a difference of at least 0.10 between the factor load values of the items in the two factors (Büyüköztürk, 2010; Tavsancil, 2005). As a

result of the EFA, the total variance rates that were found to determine how many factors the scale consisted of were examined, and it was found that three items had a value above 1. However, when the found total variance and the scree plot are analyzed, it is seen that scale's first factor explains 44.78% of the total variance, and other factors have very low percentages. Also, when the scree plot is analyzed, it is seen that there is a sharp slope in the first factor, and the slope from the 2nd factor is plateaued. The number of factors was determined as 1, and the procedure was repeated. It was determined that all items had a load value higher than 0.45 under this factor. The distribution of the load values of the scale items is given in Appendix 1.

CFA is performed to determine the emerging structure of the scale in EFA. For CFA, all of the items were modelled as single-factor, and the data were analyzed in the LISREL 8.7 program. Firstly, the t-values of the items were examined. No problems were seen in any of the items (Appendix 3). Then the error variances of the items were checked. It is shown that the error variances of the items ranged between 0.43 and 0.74 and there were no problems. As a result of the CFA, the values of the “school alienation” scale are as follows ($\chi^2/df=2.10$, RMSEA = 0.073, NFI = 0.95, CFI: 0.98, IFI = 0.98, RMR = 0.05, GFI = 0.85). In this context, it can be stated that the alienation scale has been confirmed as a model with a 21-item, one-factor structure. Cronbach's alpha value was found to be 0.93. The scale was determined to be reliable.

School Burnout Student Scale

Related literature was examined for the creation of the scale, and a 22 item pool on school burnout was prepared based on the dimensions of students' feelings of inadequacy and emotional burnout introduced by Salmela-Aro, Kiuru, Leskinen, &

Nurmi (2009). In order for it to be examined in terms of content validity and evaluation, the draft scale was submitted to the opinion of three experts, two of whom were from the field of educational administration, and one of whom was from the field of assessment and evaluation. Following the suggestions made by the experts, nine items were changed, three items were removed. In addition, according to experts' views, a 5-point Likert scale that included the statements of "totally agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and totally disagree" was prepared. The prepared 19-item draft was applied to the students. 2 of these items consist of positive statements, and the remaining 17 of them consist of negative statements. Therefore, the responses to positive statements were reversely-coded.

First of all, EFA was applied to decide the factor number of the scale. As a result of the Barlett test performed before the factor analysis of the scale ($p < .05$), there was a relationship between the variables included in factor analysis. KMO value was 0.78. This value is acceptable because it is over 0.50 and is at a medium level (Tavsancil, 2005). When determining the number of factors within the scope of EFA, it was checked if the eigenvalue was 1 and above, and while deciding the fit of an item, it was checked if the factor load value of the item was 0.45 and above. Since item 9, item 10, item 15, item 18 and item 19 had a value below 0.45, they were excluded from the scale. EFA's results, the total variance rates that were found to determine how many factors the scale consisted of were examined, and it was found that five items had a value above 1. However, when the found total variance and the scree plot are analyzed, it is seen that scale's first factor explains 35.87% of the total variance, and other factors have very low percentages. Also, when the scree plot is examined, there is a sharp slope in the first and the second factor,

and the slope from the third factor is plateaued. The number of factors was determined as 2, and the procedure was repeated. The component matrix was examined, and it was determined that item 1, item 11 and item 16 were below the acceptance level for factor load value. These items were excluded. All other items had values over .45, and no overlap was observed. Total variance related to the two factors of the scale was explained by 44.15%. The distribution of the load values of the scale items is given in Appendix A.

CFA is performed to determine the emerging structure of the scale in EFA. For CFA, all of the items were modelled as two-factor, and the data were analyzed in the LISREL 8.7 program. Firstly, the t-values of the items were examined. No problems were seen in any of the items (Appendix C). Then the items' error variances were checked. The error variances of the items ranged between 0.23 and 0.81, and there were no problems. CFA results show, the model fit values of the "school burnout" scale were specified as follows ($\chi^2/df = 1.29$, RMSEA = 0.037, RMR = 0.04, GFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.92, CFI = 0.98, IFI = 0.98,). In this context, it can be stated that the burnout scale has been confirmed as a model with an 11-item, two-factor structure. Items 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 12 and 13 are related to the first factor, whereas items 14 and 17 are related to the second factor. Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the scale was determined as 0.76.

Data Analysis

Within the scope of the research, data collection tools were developed, and data analyses were performed with the developed data collection tools (scales). During the development of scales, firstly, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were carried out. SPSS 20.00 program was used for EFA, and LISREL 8.7 package program was used for CFA. In order to analyse the relationship between "social

justice leadership”, school alienation, and school burnout through data collection tools, correlation analysis, multiple regression modelling, and multiple linear regression analysis were made with SPSS 20.0 package program.

Findings

Descriptive findings obtained from three scales regarding “social justice leadership”, “school alienation” and “school burnout” are presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

Descriptive statistics on “social justice leadership”, school alienation, and school burnout

Variables	<i>n</i>	Arithmetic Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum scores	Maximum scores
“Social justice leadership”	382	55.24	16.35	19	95
School alienation	382	58.15	13.10	21	105
School burnout	382	32.47	7.98	11	55

As shown in Table 1, data obtained from 382 high school students were evaluated, it was observed that the closest average to the highest score that can be obtained from the scale belonged to school burnout. To test relation between “social justice leadership” and students' alienation and school burnout, Pearson correlation analysis was conducted. Correlation analysis results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2.

Correlation values related to “social justice leadership”, school alienation and school burnout

Variables	Social justice	School alienation	School burnout
Social justice leadership	1.00	-.451*	-.434*
School alienation		1.00	.514*
School burnout			1.00

* $p < .01$

In Table 2, it is seen that school administrators' displaying “social justice leadership” behaviour and students' school alienation and burnout has a relationship, as well as between alienation of students to school and their school burnout.

Firstly, when the relationship between school alienation and “social justice leadership” is examined, it is noteworthy that there is a moderately significant and negatively moderate-level relationship between these two variables ($r = -.451; p < .01$). This means that, according to student opinions, a positive increase in the “social justice leadership” behaviours of the school administrators reduces the alienation of the students from the school. As it is shown in Table 1, there is a moderately significant and negative relationship between school burnout and “social justice leadership” ($r = -.434; p < .01$). Therefore, it can be interpreted that the school principal's behaviour of “social justice leadership” would decrease the level of alienation and burnout of the students at a moderate level.

Another remarkable relationship in Table 2 is a moderately significant and positive relationship between “school alienation” and “school burnout” ($r = .514, p < .01$). It is expected that as the level of alienation from school increases, school burnout also increases, and similarly, alienation will increase with the increase in school burnout.

Based on these answers, multiple regression model applications were carried out to determine the relationship between “social justice leadership”, school alienation, and school burnout. In the research conducted, in order to examine to what extent the school alienation and burnout predict “social justice leadership”, multiple linear regression analysis modelling method was used. The results of the multiple regression modelling method are given in Table 3.

Table 3.

Multiple linear modelling results of “social justice leadership”, school alienation, and school burnout

<i>r</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
0.509	0.25	66.105	0.00

According to this model, there is a significant relationship between independent variables and dependent variables. It can be said that “social justice leadership” has a significant and moderate relationship ($r = 0.509$; $p < .01$) with school alienation and school burnout. Findings related to multiple linear regression analysis are given in Table 4.

Table 4.

Regression analysis results of “social justice leadership”, school alienation, and school burnout

Variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SH</i>	β	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>	Binary <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
Constant	96.003	3.621		26.514	0.00		
School Alienation X ₁	-0.386	0.064	-0.309	-6.00	0.00	-0.295	-0.265
School Burnout X ₂	-0.563	0.106	-0.275	-5.33	0.00	-0.264	-0.236

Dependent Variable: “social justice leadership”

$$\hat{Y} = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2$$

In the equation, Y refers to “social justice leadership”, X₁ refers to school alienation, and X₂ stands for school burnout. Multiple regression analysis results are given in Table 4. “social justice leadership” = 96.003- 0.386 X₁ -0.563X₂ . According to the results of multiple regression analysis, it is seen that there is a significant relationship between the variables of “school alienation”, and “school burnout”, and “social justice leadership”.

When bilateral and partial correlation coefficients are analyzed, it is seen that “social justice leadership” has a weak and negative relationship with school alienation (r

= -0.295) and school burnout ($r = -0.264$). According to standardized regression coefficients (β), the relative importance order of independent variables on “social justice leadership”, which is a dependent variable, is listed as school alienation and school burnout. As a result, it was determined that “social justice leadership” is affected by school alienation (-0.309) more. This finding is important. In educational environments where social justice was not provided, inequality is maintained (Özdemir, 2017), quality of school life and belonging to school (Gören, 2019) decrease. Considering the alienation concept, it can be said that it expresses many negative situations such as increased school absenteeism (Angell-Olsen, 2017), and low academic achievement (Morinaj., Hadjar, & Hascher, 2019).

Discussion

The starting point of this research, which aimed to determine whether there is a relation between school alienation, school burnout and “social justice leadership”, and to identify the nature of this relationship if it exists, was that like everywhere in life, in organizations (Wasonga, 2010) and in schools (Hay & Reedy, 2016) the circumstances of inequality are being reproduced, that this situation may cause negative occurrences for students, and determining to what extent “social justice leadership” will be effective in reducing these occurrences to the minimum.

Considering that the structure of the school system has an impact on inequalities (Dupriez & Dumay, 2006), it can be expected that the arrangements to be made in the system will reduce inequalities to some extent. At least, the reproduction of relationships of inequality at schools, or the impact of it on the education process can be reduced. One of the best ways to do this is to enable leaders to participate in the process and build a

different school management system. It is also important to determine what effects social justice leaders, who will act on inequalities (Normore, 2006) and restructure political, social and economic inequalities in school (Brooks, Jean-Marie, Normore, & Hodgins, 2007), have on groups exposed to inequality.

When the student responses in the research are evaluated, it is seen that “social justice leadership” has a significant and negative relationship with school alienation and school burnout. This means that increasing practices related to the social justice leader reduce the school alienation of students and school burnout. When alienation is evaluated in terms of individual weakness, meaninglessness, normlessness and social isolation (Seeman, 1975), the application of social justice at high schools may help create supportive environments where individual weaknesses are being reduced, and socializing through leaving social isolation takes place. Considering that the concept of social justice leader is not only a limited practice with the school and that s/he carries out activities in cooperation with the society (Kondakçı, Kurtay, Oldaç, Şenay, 2016), it is important to strengthen this impact. It is not enough to achieve equality through leaders alone. If all participants of the process are included in the process, more permanent social justice will be achieved. The contribution of teachers to achieve this equality cannot be ignored as well as the behaviors of the school leader to ensure social justice. Effective leaders alone are not enough to ensure social justice, so they cooperate with teachers (Matthews & Mawhinney, 2014). When it is evaluated that the conflicts that students have with their friends and teachers cause them to alienate from school and stay away from school (Walker & Graham, 2019), the importance of teacher behavior becomes clear. Creating a classroom climate that will keep social injustice out of the classroom by teachers and

providing a communication environment that will make students feel themselves as valuable individuals at school. Thus, negative situations such as school alienation and school burnout are expected to decrease.

The fact that “social justice leadership” had a negative relationship with school burnout in the research also draws attention. If a long-term imbalance occurs between the energy that people consume for a job and the energy they recover, burnout occurs (Salmela-Aro & Tynkkyen, 2012). One of the main factors of burnout is that people work hard for a job, but cannot get the award for their effort in return due to different inequalities (socioeconomic, cultural, etc.). This is also true for the school. Considering that the “social justice leadership” is a leadership style that advances activism in an individual's administration practice to change situations into spaces where all flourish in any event, when apparently a condition is hopeless (Fraser, 2012), it is expected to create environments where students will be safeguarded in terms of alienation and burnout, and where students will not be dragged into alienation and burnout arising from inequalities.

Another point observed in the research is that there is a positive correlation between school alienation and school burnout. It is one of the expectations that burnout experienced for different reasons may lead to alienation, and alienation to burnout. Some of these negative attitudes are likely to be caused by inequality. From an egalitarian perspective, students are expected to have a positive attitude towards school and to have a low level of alienation and burnout towards a school environment where social justice is provided. Since it is not possible to turn schools into homogeneous groups, efforts can be made to minimize inequalities with “social justice leadership”. In this way, the system can be tried to be synchronized from bottom to top, not from top to bottom.

Limitations and Implications for Future Research

This research has some limitations. In the research, data were collected from the regions of Ankara where the socio-economically disadvantaged people and migrant groups live. It was not intended to highlight the situation in different geographical regions or any different kinds of disadvantageous circumstances. Future research can share the experiences of groups who need “social justice leadership” (sexual identity, ethnic group, etc.) by receiving their detailed opinions on the matter. This research is also limited in that it receives students' opinions through questionnaires. The opinions of teachers and school principals on social justice, alienation from the school and school burnout can be included in future studies. This study can be considered with its qualitative dimension, and a deepening of the views of the participants can be suggested for future studies.

Despite the research limitations described here, I believe this research provides important information by analysing the relationship between “social justice leadership”, school alienation, and school burnout. More research is needed to evaluate this relationship in different dimensions. In addition, there is a need for more research as to what kinds of variables in schools are affected by “social justice leadership”, the level of awareness of school leaders to implement their leadership role, and the creation of more egalitarian environments in schools.

Conclusion

As a result of analyses performed, it was observed that “social justice leadership” has a significant and negative relationship with school alienation and school burnout, and “social justice leadership” was more affected by alienation from school. While it is thought that they will have a much bigger impact within the scope of the research,

according to the findings, a negative moderate level of relationship of “social justice leadership” with school alienation and school burnout was found. This is a very important result. Increased “social justice leadership” moderately reduces students' alienation from the school and school burnout. Of course, students experience alienation from school (Polat & Özdemir, 2018) and school burnout (Dahlin, Joneborg & Runeson, 2007) not only because of inequality but also for different reasons. However, the fact that moderate “social justice leadership” is effective reveals the findings regarding how to approach such problems systematically.

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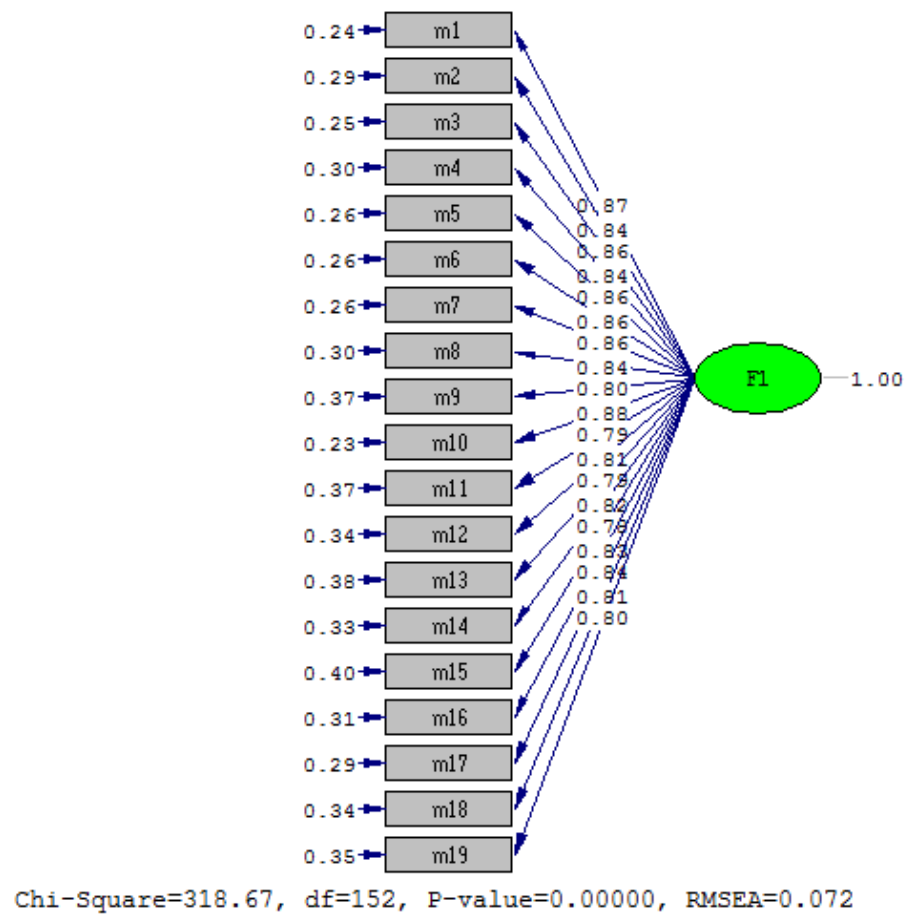
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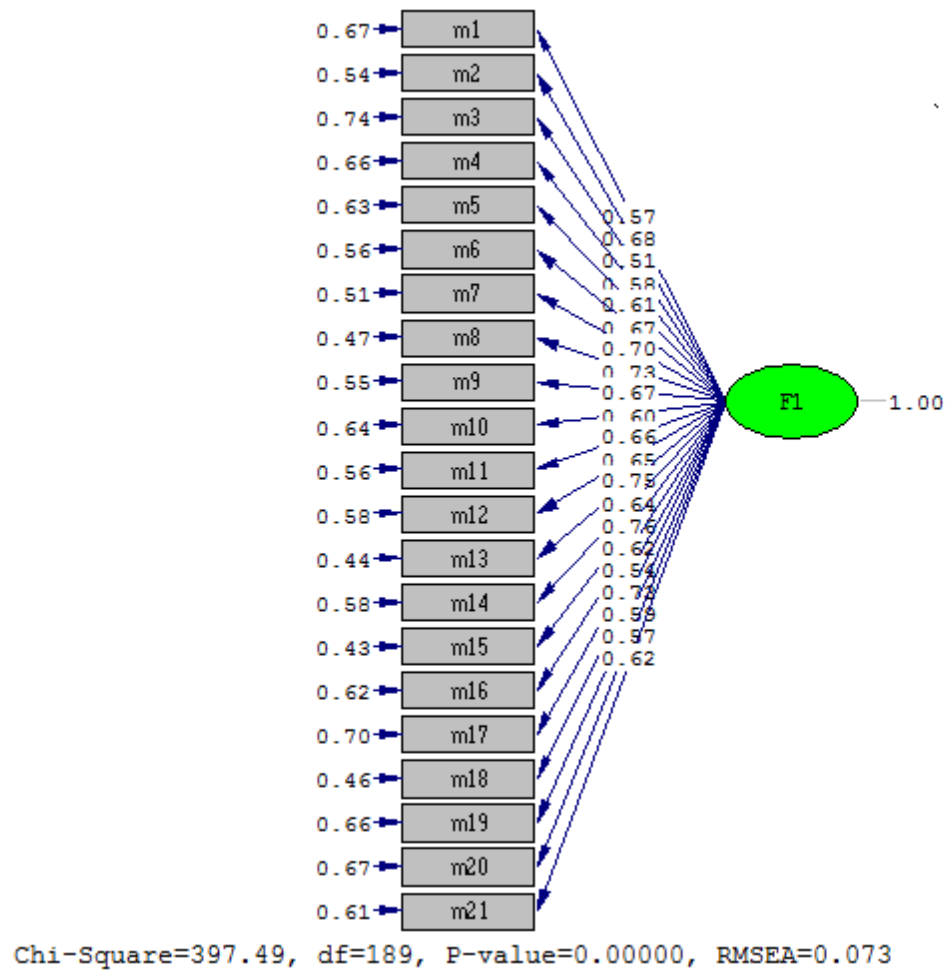
Appendix A. Scale's item factor loads values

Social Justice Leadership Scale Item Factor Load Values		School Alienation Scale Item Factor Load Values		School Burnout Item Factor Load Values		
Item	Item Factor Load Values*	Item	Item Factor Load Values*	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
1	.873	1	.621	2	.672	
2	.857	2	.703	3	.633	
3	.873	3	.547	4	.648	
4	.846	4	.604	5	.516	
5	.882	5	.631	6	.594	
6	.871	6	.688	7	.580	
7	.873	7	.723	8	.453	
8	.849	8	.753	12	.582	
9	.813	9	.688	13	.536	
10	.889	10	.630	14		.894
11	.806	11	.688	17		.890
12	.833	12	.666			
13	.803	13	.764			
14	.831	14	.677			
15	.790	15	.781			
16	.845	16	.647			
17	.857	17	.571			
18	.835	18	.748			
19	.823	19	.618			
		20	.601			
		21	.643			
Total variance explained = % 71,42 KMO = .97 Bartlett Sphericity Test= (X ² =4178,952, p <.000)		Total variance explained = % 44,78 KMO = .94 Bartlett Sphericity Test = (X ² =2162,461, p <.000)		Total variance explained = % 44,158 KMO = .78 Bartlett Sphericity Test = (X ² =462,983, p <.000)		

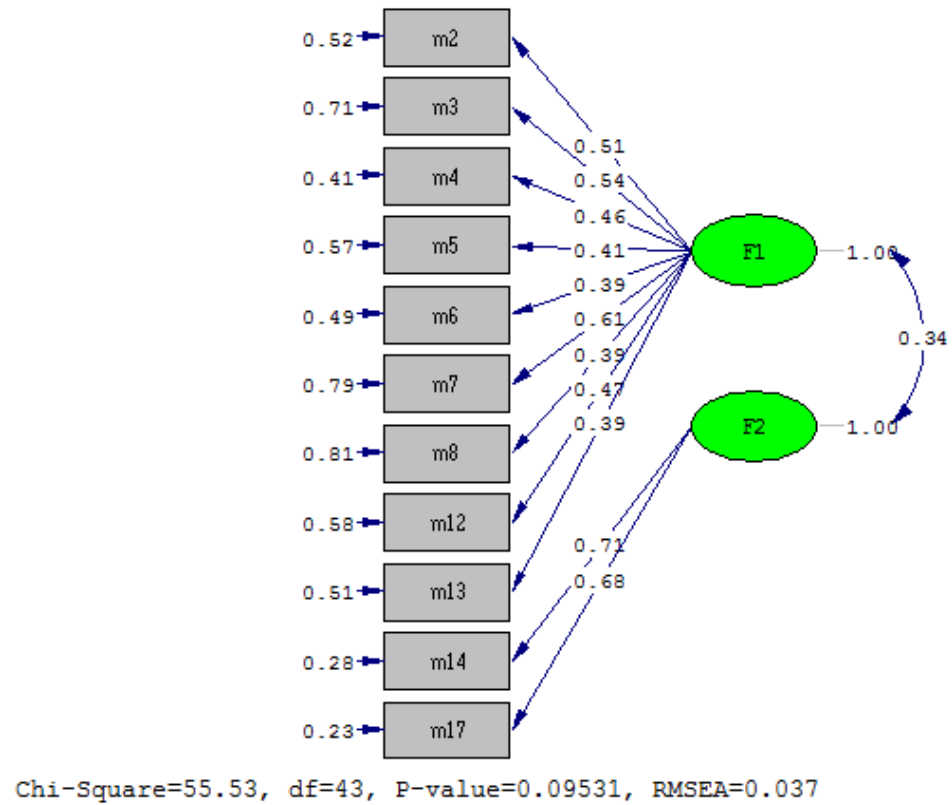
Appendix B. CFA of Social Justice Scale



Appendix C. CFA of School Alienation Scale



Appendix D. CFA of School Burnout Scale



**Cyberbullying and Ohio Schools:
A Social Justice Framework to Understand and Create Change**

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Abstract

In 2019, 36.5% of students, age 12-17, reported that they were cyberbullied at some point in their life. Cyberbullying is a growing problem within Ohio. Self-mutilation, attempted suicide, and death have been linked to victims of cyberbullying. Within Ohio, there are also legal implications for schools to consider. Using Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems framework, different types of cyberbullies, bullying practices, and proposed solutions for cyberbullying can be addressed in a more comprehensive manner within the schools. Ultimately, schools can be the vanguards for social justice, creating the cultural shift to end cyberbullying and its devastating effects on victims.

Keywords: cyberbullying, school administration and faculty, adolescents, social justice, ecological model

Cyberbullying, also known as e-bullying or digital harassment, has grown from a technological possibility to a universal problem among communities of young people within the past two decades. Adolescent populations have both high rates of victimization and potentially severe consequences to their mental and physical health. Hinduja and Patchin (2019) indicated that 36.5% of adolescents ages 12 to 17 in the United States reported being cyberbullied at least once. Further, according to Pacer's National Bullying Prevention Center (2019) only 33% of adolescent victims were willing to acknowledge their victimization. Despite unprecedented prevalence and serious symptoms, there is a dearth of research on cyberbullying and how to effectively address it. School administrators, teachers, parents, and school counselors need to be more informed about

what specifically underlies cyberbullying, its effects, and the consequences of letting it continue unopposed.

If school personnel consider only the symptoms and statistics regarding cyberbullying, then they may fail to consider that a greater need for social justice can only be served by making informed, systemic changes in the environments of their students. Bullies and victims are formed by the various layers of social systems surrounding them. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) Ecological Systems Theory models these systemic influences on cyberbullying in a way which can allow for comprehensive understanding and change. By attending to these layered systems, this article will attempt to show how Bronfenbrenner's model can be applied to help schools reduce cyberbullying. First, this article provides background information on a social justice framework and an ecological model, definitions of cyberbullying, specific types of cyberbully behaviors, risk factors for potential victims, and the specific effects of cyberbullying on victims. This article will then propose strong measures against cyberbullying that school administrators should implement to alter the ecological environment of all students and raise awareness of, and adherence to, social justice.

Social Justice Framework

Social justice theory continues to emerge as increasingly integral to many disciplines within education and human services. Some argue that social justice ought to be the *fifth force* of counseling approaches, after psychodynamic, behavioral, humanistic, and multicultural paradigms (Ratts et al., 2004). The core principle of justice is that the world ought to operate justly and that each person has a role to play in carrying out this goal (Erford & Hays, 2018). It involves directly speaking against systems of oppression

and a refusal to perpetuate systems of privilege. One of the keyways that justice is promoted is by equitable distribution of resources and opportunities for all people. Counselors and educators play a significant role in advocating for social justice in the lives of their students.

To understand social justice theory, one must also look at oppression. Prilleltensky and Gonick (1996) defined oppression as: “a state of asymmetric power relations characterized by domination, subordination, and resistance, where the dominating person or groups exercise their power by restricting access to material resources and by implanting in the subordinated persons or groups fear or self-deprecating views about themselves” (pp. 129-130). Oppression can either be activated by using force (actively inflicting physical or psychological pain) or by deprivation (passively hindering physical and psychological well-being) (Erford & Hays, 2018). Oppression by force often takes the form of abuse or harassment, both online and/or in person. Oppression by deprivation involves neglect or denial of basic needs, such as food and rest, or by being ignored or unrecognized for accomplishments.

In addition to these two modalities, oppression has three specific levels (Erford & Hays, 2018). Primary oppression involves overt and intentional actions against an individual. Secondary oppression is passive in nature. While the secondary oppressor may not be using physical or psychological mechanisms to exert dominance over another individual, they benefit from someone else’s primary oppression, or choose to remain silent while observing it. Tertiary oppression occurs when those who are oppressed live as if the lies and propaganda that primary oppressors spread are true.

Cyberbullying

Pacer's National Bullying Prevention Center (2019) defined cyberbullying as the use of digital technology that entails transmitting data that resembles harassment, harmful rumors, posts of personal information, demeaning materials, etc. Methods of transmitting the information could include: the internet, email, texting, instant messaging, or social media, with the use of a computer, tablet, or cell phone. Examples of digital harassment included: a post containing mean or hurtful comments or pictures, daring kids to commit suicide, or posing as someone else to extract personal information to be used against the victim. Adolescents could even create their own webpage as a vehicle for posting hateful comments, accusations, hear-say, and defacing images (Hinduja & Patchin, 2019). Per Statista (2020), the most popular social media sites used among U.S. students ($N = 8,000$) were Snapchat and Instagram. However, adolescent social media preferences shift quickly, so numerical data may be outdated within a few years.

Feinberg and Robey (2009) identified six categories of cyberbullying: flaming, harassment and stalking, denigration, impersonation, outing and trickery, and exclusion. The psychological pain inflicted directly by the oppressor in the first five categories utilized a modality of force. The sixth category, exclusion, showed how cyberbullying could also utilize a modality of deprivation. Hinduja and Patchin (2019) reported surveys which suggested that modalities of force were more common among reported cases of cyberbullying. In those surveys, U.S. adolescents ages 12–17 ($N = 4,972$) reported that they had been cyberbullied in their lifetime (36.5%), received mean comments online (24.9%), or were victimized by online rumors (22.2%). Within that sample, 38.7% of the victims cyberbullied in their lifetime were female versus 34.1% who were male; 24.9%

females versus 24.7% males received mean comments; and 24.8% females versus 19.4% males were victimized by online rumors.

Cyberbullies

Students have engaged in digital harassment for any number of reasons: jealousy of the victim, to make themselves more socially accepted with their peers, to feel dominant and powerful, a lack of empathy towards their victim, or because they were victims themselves (Robinson & Segal, 2019). Other reasons why adolescents cyberbullied included: vengeance, belief that the victim earned it, boredom, or perception of it as a norm (Gordan, 2019). Most adolescents preferred to hide their identity when e-bullying. Anonymity guaranteed that the perpetrator neither had to face the individual nor the consequences of being caught. Not witnessing the pain, they inflicted on their victim, the bully could minimize the damage by thinking their actions were humorous or believing they had done nothing wrong.

Wood (2018) identified ten types of cyberbullies, defined by their specific target or bullying practice: racist, body shaming, LGBTQ+, ableism, socioeconomic status, loser, overt, *trust me I am your friend*, sport or athlete, and *older*. The first five identified a particular characteristic of the victim which the cyberbully would try to emphasize and then denigrate. The next two described the cyberbully approaches reinforcing the insecurity of being *a loser* or using exaggerated aggressive language. The *Trust me, I am your friend* cyberbully built a false relationship with the victim, and then used that trust to systematically dismantle the victim's authentic friendships. The *sport or athlete* cyberbully exerted power over other athletes perceived to be weaker. The *older* cyberbully chose targets younger than themselves. Each type of bully exploited

differences their target had from the normative group in ways which caused emotional and physical distress (Wood, 2018). The cyberbully, as the primary oppressor, was attempting to exert dominance and superiority over the victim.

Despite their belief that they escaped their bullying without consequences, evidence pointed to long term adverse outcomes for e-bullies. Adolescent cyberbullies have shown greater risk for future patterns of substance abuse, destructive behaviors, property defacement and quitting school (Robinson & Segal, 2019). They were twice as likely to be convicted of a crime, four times more likely to be repeat offenders, and were at a higher risk to be abusive to their future partners or children. These findings provide an urgent need for a social justice approach to defeating cyberbullying: cultures of oppression are destructive for the oppressors and pursuing social justice is in the interest of both bullies and their victims.

Victims

Several factors could make the impact of cyberbullying on victims even more devastating than in-person school bullying. Unlimited posting online creates a broader audience (Feinberg & Robey, 2010). Further, screenshots could recirculate harmful posts, even after they have been removed. In addition, the target witnessed this circulating slander in real time yet had no control over it, thereby intensifying feelings of helplessness (Hinduja & Patchin, 2019).

Symptoms

While cyberbullying was often hidden by both the perpetrator and the victim, victims could experience its harmful effects through actual physical and/or emotional symptoms (Hurley, 2018). Physical symptoms could include stomach issues, headaches

that could elevate into migraines, feeling tired or lethargy, changes in food consumption, complaints that the victim does not feel well, and sleep disturbances. Emotional and social changes, such as feeling nervous, being easily provoked, exclaiming frequently, and feeling uneasy, could signal the onset of anxiety in the victim. Social changes could include disinterest in activities with friends and increased isolation. Additional behaviors could include a fear of going to school resulting high absenteeism record, unwillingness to participate in outdoor activities, anxiety, and perturbation while on the computer and afterward, as well as unwillingness to discuss their agitation, changes in weight, poor sleeping habits, and making passing statements about suicide (Hartung, 2018). The following signs of clinical depression could appear in a victim: uncontrollable crying spells, severe melancholy, feelings of emptiness and hopelessness, deteriorated self-worth, feelings of being a failure, low self-esteem, and belief that there is no end in sight (Mayo Clinic, 2019).

Risk of Suicide

Cyberbullied students may engage in self-harm, think about suicide, or even attempt suicide. Indicators of suicide should always be taken seriously by those responsible for the well-being of adolescents. While non-suicidal adolescents might joke about suicide from time to time, it has also been common for adolescents to veil their suicidal thoughts or ideations with jokes. Their joking may be a disguised cry for help against some hidden turmoil, such as cyberbullying. Suicide attempts ranged between 5% and 8% for U.S. adolescents, making it one of the highest causes of worldwide adolescent death (Gould, Greenberg, Velting, & Shaffer, 2003). Resources for identifying suicide

risk among adolescents may be obtained from the American Association of Suicidology (American Association of Suicidology, 2020).

Empirical research confirmed that cyberbullying may lead to destructive behaviors among its victims. A meta-analysis of 34 case studies found consistent evidence for peer victimization resulting from cyberbullying to be a strong risk factor for suicidal behavior (Van Geel et al., 2014). The Megan Meier Foundation (2020) reported that 18% of cyberbully victims engaged in self-mutilation (1 in 4 girls; 1 in 10 boys) and were twice as likely to attempt suicide than adolescents who did not report being cyberbullied. Further, Cook (2020) noted that among students who are cyberbullied, males are more likely to complete suicide than females. This aligns with the national findings, not controlled for cyberbullying, that males tend to complete suicide at a higher rate than females; the National Institute for Mental Health (2020) reports 22.7 male completions compared to 5.8 female completions for every 100,000 persons ages 15-24. However, female high school students are more likely to attempt suicide than males, with one study finding the rates at 11% and 6.6% respectively (Ivey-Stephenson et.al., 2020). These gender differences in suicide attempts versus completions has been attributed to the typically more violent and lethal manner and means males use.

Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems: Understanding Cyberbullying and Creating Change

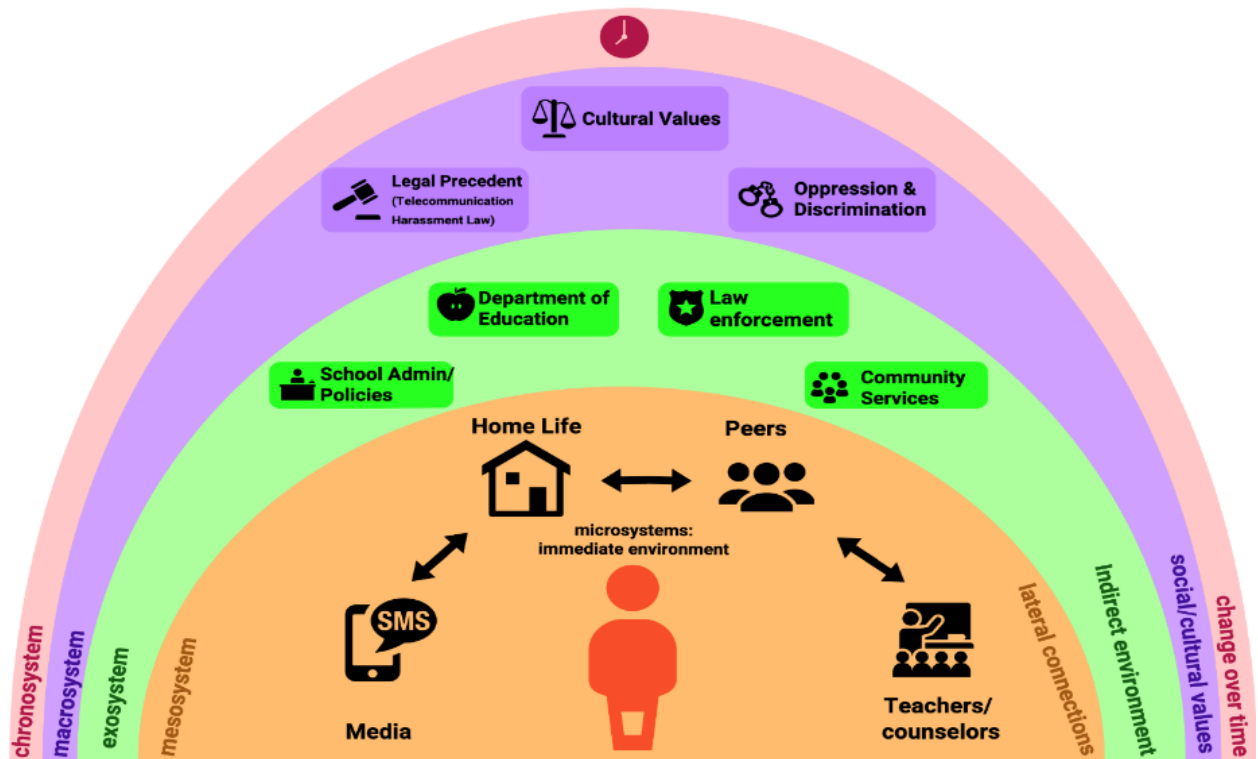
Bronfenbrenner's (1979) well-known ecological systems theory and ecological approach to examining persons in relationship to their environmental systems has provided a deeper understanding of problems in both education and human services settings. Having presented the problem of cyberbullying, in its varied and common

expression among today's school age persons, we present Bronfenbrenner's socio-ecological systems theory as a model to further understand how the individual student, their various relationships, and oppression, work throughout their ecosystems. We will also offer suggestions for how cyberbullying can be addressed within each system, mindful of the influencers and forces within each system that shape the student.

Figure 1 below illustrates an ecological look at a hypothetical adolescent, using Bronfenbrenner's five systems. Examples of various forces and groups in an adolescent's life have been assigned to their respective systems. A child is most readily impacted by their microsystem, meaning the face-to-face interactions they have with immediate family and events. As illustrated, this may include these four microsystems: home life, peers, the media, and their teachers and counselors. The mesosystem is how those microsystems interact with one another. The exosystem, or the child's community that indirectly impacts them, may contain school administrators, the policies they make, the Department of Education, law enforcement, and community services. The macrosystem, which encompasses societal and cultural values, involves legal precedence, cultural values, and discrimination and oppression in the culture. Finally, the chronosystem is a conceptual awareness of the fact that growth and change could occur over time rather than all at once. At each level, the culture of oppression with cyberbullying should be challenged and defeated by knowledge and direct action.

Figure 1

Ecological Typology of Adolescents and Cyberbullying



Note. Examples listed above are based on factors commonly associated with cyberbullying, yet do not necessarily represent every adolescent's unique ecosystem. Figure created by authors.

Microsystem

Students can be educated and empowered to change their own microsystems. By learning new behaviors and developing resilience, adolescents with one or more dysfunctional microsystems can work through their experiences in a healthy way. Parents, educators, school counselors, and bystanders all have direct influence on the adolescent and can provide the direct assistance and advocacy needed to end bullying. An individual student's microsystem is not directly controlled by school administrators or policies.

Parents

As the primary caregivers, parents play a vital role in protecting and educating their children whether they are victims or perpetrators. While some adolescents may view it as an invasion of privacy, parents can help to prevent cyberbullying by monitoring their child's online presence through checking the browser's cache, monitoring cellphone apps, adjusting privacy settings, friending their child on social media, and knowing all their usernames and passwords (Stop Bullying, 2019).

Parents of cyberbullies can also assist in identifying when their child may be a perpetrator. In 2019, Stomp Out Bullying recommended seven questions parents could ask in order to identify whether digital harassment was occurring:

- 1) Does your child have a record of bullying or been a victim themselves?
- 2) Does she or he avoid talking about their use of their electronic devices?
- 3) Does the child possess multiple online accounts?
- 4) Does she or he close-down windows on the computer when you are present?
- 5) Do they overindulge in the use of their computer, tablet, or cell phone?
- 6) Do they become upset if they are not allowed to use their electronic devices?
- 7) Do they become hostile when restrictions are put in place on the longevity of usage?

There may be other causes or explanations for any one of these behaviors. However, if a student practices several on a recurring basis, a parent/guardian should seriously question whether that student is practicing cyberbullying.

Educators

Hinduja and Patchin (2018) provided ten guidelines that educators and school counselors can follow in order to prevent e-bullying:

- 1) Strictly evaluate the problems students are experiencing using formal interviewing and questionnaires. Then implement strategies for educating the students.
- 2) Inform students that cyberbullying will not be tolerated either on or off school grounds, especially when it creates a harmful school environment. Students need to know that every student has the right to feel safe at school.
- 3) Promote a positive school environment for all students.
- 4) Publicize clear rules and specific standards that will be upheld by the school district regarding electronic devices (i.e., cell phones, computers, tablets). Clearly display rules and consequences on signs and posters.
- 5) Contact the school district attorney prior to an incident to ensure the school is taking proper action with its prevention and safety efforts.
- 6) Create an inclusive formal agreement in the school policy manual, including examples of various cyberbullying incidents.
- 7) Instruct students on how to master appropriate social and emotional skills, which will help their self-awareness, self-regulation, and with interpersonal conflict.
- 8) Use older students or peer supporters to share experiences and guide younger students.
- 9) Assign a “Cyberbully-Master” who is responsible to educate themselves on current issues and research in order to educate students.

10) Educate the community which includes parents, guardians, students, and school staff, and raise awareness (p.1).

School Counselors

While counselors may not be able to prevent every instance of cyberbullying, they can teach students about appropriate online communication. First, instruct them to be polite, encourage them never to post anything that they do not want their peers to see, and remind them to never share their passwords (Robinson & Segal, 2019). School counselors can run sessions, targeted at the students' developmental level, that assist with growing capacity and skills for resilience in the face of cyberbullying (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012). This curriculum can be implemented by a school counselor, other school staff, and responsive services. Responsive services entail prevention and/or intervention campaigns with a specific focus on cyberbullying (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012). Resources and tools available to school counselors for preventing cyberbullying include counseling sessions, parent meetings, educator consultations, referrals within the school or community, peer assistance, psychoeducation, and advocacy (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012).

Bystanders

Bystanders, or spectators, could have the opportunity to either break or perpetuate the cycle of destructive cyberbullying. Bystanders do nothing when they see "what is happening to the victim, but believe someone else will report it, stand-up for the victim, or report it to an adult" (Academy 4SC, 2020, p. 1). Since they have a peer relationship to the victim, their actions often carry more weight than those of adults (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012). By doing nothing, they empower the bully, leaving the victim to feel abandoned (ICDL Arabia, 2016) and become participants in secondary oppression. However,

bystanders can greatly assist in ending cyberbullying by posting positive content and reporting to adults when they see cyberbullying occur. As they lead by example, more students will report incidences of cyberbullying (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012).

Mesosystem

Often, the most productive work to cultivate change in an adolescent's situation occurs when microsystems work in conjunction with one another at the mesosystem level. For example, the resiliency skills curriculum used by school counselors can also be integrated into the classroom and/or used to empower parents at home (Hinduja & Patchin, 2020).

Exosystem

Since most online harassment takes place off school grounds, educators are limited with their schools' anti-bullying policies. However, school administrators and school policies form an important part of a student's exosystem. The student may never interact with or even read these policies directly, but they form the rules and expectations for student conduct at school. Carefully crafted policy, with clear expectations and consequences, is a necessary part of creating a socially just culture which promotes the inherent value of its students. Unexpected recent events, such as COVID-19, have undoubtedly changed the nature of the classroom, peer interaction, and classroom management; therefore, protecting students online is paramount for the law and policy makers.

School Policies and Administrators

School administrators play a pivotal role in shaping the culture of their schools. According to the Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), there are four factors

that school administrators should consider when seeking to create a culture of connectedness: adult support, belonging to a positive peer group, commitment to education, and the school environment (CDC, 2019). A focus on respectful peer relations cultivates a safer and healthier environment: physically, emotionally, and socially (Laursen, 2014). When making policies for the school, administrators should reflect on how the policies shape the culture of the school. Does this policy enable or stifle oppression? Does this policy create a spirit of cohesion or deepen relational divides? What does this policy say about how we treat and think about one another? According to Bronfenbrenner's theory, one must consider the entirety of an adolescent's systems when seeking to make change.

The Anti-Defamation League made recommendations to include the following in a prevention plan for cyberbullying:

- 1) Define clear guidelines for Internet use.
- 2) Teach students about ethical and legal standards for online activities.
- 3) Update policies to include guidelines for internet and cell phone use, and consequences for cyberbullying and online cruelty.
- 4) Make reporting of cyberbullying and online hate incidents a requirement.
- 5) Establish confidential reporting mechanisms.
- 6) Devise supervision and monitoring practices of students' Internet use on school computers.
- 7) Educate students about cyberbullying and discuss strategies for reacting to cyberbullying as targets and as bystanders.
- 8) Promote empathy, ethical decision-making skills, and respect among students.

9) Increase awareness of Internet safety strategies among students and their families (Johnson, 2011, p. 4).

With the pervasiveness of cyberbullying, no prevention plan will be foolproof.

When instances do occur, Hinduja and Patchin (2012) recommended a seven-step intervention:

- 1) Have an educational discussion with the cyberbully and with the cyber-bystander.
- 2) Immediately inform cyberbullies and cyber-bystanders about the consequences for bullying or cyberbullying in school.
- 3) Be sure that a victim has a Safety and Comfort Plan.
- 4) Inform all relevant adults – teachers, coaches, counselors, and bus drivers – about the situation between all the children involved.
- 5) Have a plan for less structured areas, such as buses and lunchrooms.
- 6) Follow-up with parents, especially parents of victims.
- 7) Consider creating a “response team” to implement all these responses (pp. 150-152).

School Police Officers

Though there are usually police officers on school premises, there is little awareness on how to handle cyberbullying. When surveyed in 2010, more than 80% of school-based officers admitted to lacking training on how to handle cyberbullying (Patchin, 2014). About one-quarter of law enforcement officers were not fully educated on what state laws existed regarding cyberbullying (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012). There is no indication that officer education has changed in any substantial way since these

surveys. If an officer is on the premises, it is crucial that they be aware of student lingo, the school's policy, and the laws that are established by the state regarding cyberbullying. When a staff member, school counselor, or principal is informed of off campus harassment, and they fail to act, the school can be held accountable. If the harassment occurs via the use of a school computer, the school needs to enforce their anti-bullying rules (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012). According to Steiner (2020), Ohio law mandates that all schools have anti-bullying-policies, which also includes cyberbullying. The regulation is outlined in Ohio Revised Code (2012) 3313.666: *District policy prohibiting harassment, intimidation, or bullying required*. Further, the Electronic Act defines cyberbullying in terms of activity performed via the use of a cellular telephone, computer, pager, personal communication device, or other electronic communication device, which may result in physical or mental harm. This regulation is applied when students are on school grounds or any school sponsored event (Steiner, 2020).

Macrosystem

Broad cultural beliefs funnel themselves into both policy and behavior. Legal precedents in the U.S. constitute the most relevant aspect of the macrosystem. While these laws provide tools for fighting oppression, their immediate impact must reach the local school system.

Legal Consequences

Though there is no federal law in place concerning cyberbullying, nearly every U. S. state has anti-bullying laws which at least require school districts to prohibit bullying, including cyberbullying (Union of Professionals, 2011). However, Cyberbully Research Center (n.d.) concluded that only fourteen states' statutes denote *cyberbullying* or *online*

harassment, and include specific legal criteria, such as criminal sanction for cyberbullying or electronic harassment, school sanction for cyberbullying, and school policy that includes off-campus accountability (p. 1). Considering Ohio is not yet among these fourteen states (AR, CA, CT, FL, IL, LA, MA, NJ, NY, PA, SD, TN, TX, VT) cyberbullying continues to be addressed in school policies and/or applied to the existing general criminal statutes (i.e., Telecommunication Harassment and Menacing and Stalking laws).

Administrators should inform parents of the potential legal consequences if their child practices cyberbullying. “Negligent supervision” is a legal principle which holds parents or guardians responsible for the neglectful or intentional behavior or actions of their adolescent (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012). Electronic correspondence leaves a trail which can provide the victimized adolescent with ample evidence. The instigating student can be prosecuted under a civil action lawsuit and criminal charges can also be implemented. In a civil action lawsuit if the cyberbully is found guilty the parents will be responsible for monetary damages. Informing a parent or guardian that they are financially obligated to pay restitution could provide leverage to a school district when educating parents about their student’s unwarranted activities.

In Ohio, communities became desperate for lawmakers to make cyberbullies legally accountable after several suicides by cyberbully victims in 2014 (Steiner, 2020). Further, according to Steiner, cyberbullying can now be prosecuted and charged under the Ohio’s Telecommunication Harassment Law and Menacing and Stalking Law. Under the Telecommunication Harassment Law, a first-time offense is considered a misdemeanor, in which the perpetrator can be charged a up to \$1000 in fines and up to

six months in jail or both. If there is a second offense, the offense is considered a lower-level felony with fines of up to \$2500, jail time of six months to a year, or both the fine and jail time. The Menacing and Stalking Law punishment is more severe. This law considers the first offense a misdemeanor but can escalate to a felony with fines up to \$5000 and/or six to eighteen months in prison. Both parents and adolescents in the state of Ohio need to know there are specific laws and penalties for cyberbullying.

Ethical and Legal Duties of Schools

It is critical that school administrators and staff take cyberbully claims or complaints seriously. According to the U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights, there are obligations by which a school must abide with regards to bullying (U.S. Department of Education, 2010) and the American School Counselor Association proclaims that faculty and administration have an ethical duty to fight cyberbullying and its harms. Hinduja and Patchin (2012) noted:

School officials must also be mindful of potential liability for failure to respond to situations involving cyberbullying. Although there are no cases that have specifically addressed situations involving the harmful impact of the combination of off- and on-campus harmful actions, these situations clearly can result in the creation of a hostile environment at school for the student who has been targeted. If these interactions have created a hostile environment for a student, there appears to be a potential for district liability (p. 47).

If anti-bullying and anti-cyberbullying policies are not completely followed, it could result in a violation of the victim's civil rights and a lawsuit. A student and parent can sue a school for negligence and request a full investigation.

While ethically bound and legally obligated to act against cyberbullying, school administrators must remain aware and respectful of all their students' rights to include protection from unjustified search and seizure and freedom of speech. School administrators must be clear on what is considered a warranted search and seizure. Based on the rights in the Fourth Amendment, search of desks and lockers is permissible, but there are greater stipulations on searching the content of students' electronic devices. (Hinduja & Patchin, 2012). In cases where there is probable cause, school administrators and law enforcement officers may obtain a search warrant to conduct search and seizure of any personal or district owned devices. To respect U.S. First Amendment rights, it is always best to get a parent's consent form on file before searching and seizing their adolescent's electronic device, or administrators can relay to the student that their privacy is restricted while on school grounds. Even with these in mind, the school district can potentially be held liable.

Recommendations to School Administration and Staff

Ultimately, we believe schools can be vanguards for social justice, creating the cultural shift to end cyberbullying and its devastating effects on victims. In addition to the guidelines already cited by other sources in this article, we recommend the following for Ohio's schools:

1) Support Teachers: Schools can encourage venues, such as teacher conferences, workshops, and guest speakers. Additionally, an online competency course could test teacher and school counselor knowledge to ensure that all the staff are familiar with state laws, school district policy, student civil rights, and potential penalties.

2) Support Students: The school curriculum can address proper etiquette that the student body should be using while they are online. Support groups could be offered to any student. For students identified as high risk (students of color, LGBTQ+, etc.) develop approaches to meet their specific needs.

3) Dialogue with Parents: Education for parents/guardians can occur at parent-teacher conferences or Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) awareness meetings. Request that the parent/guardian sign a consent form indicating they have read and understand the school's anti-cyberbullying policies, as well as their responsibilities therein; include the consent/option to allow search and seizure of a student's cell phone or computer usage history. Include a second consent form for students to sign also.

4) Share Resources: School networks should share available resources for helping administrators, parents, and students. Reinforce that when in doubt, dial 911. Table 1, *Cyberbullying Helplines*, lists available helplines to contact in situations involving cyberbullying, suicide, and LGBTQ+ issues. Table 2, *Cyberbullying Online Resources*, lists and describes specific organizations which advocate for ending cyberbullying and other related forms of oppression.

Table 1*Cyberbullying Helplines*

Resource	Contact Information
Teen Line	1-855-201-2121; 741741 (Text)
National Suicide Prevention Hotlines	800-273-TALK; 1-888-628-9454 (En Espanol)
The Trevor Project	866-4-U-TREVOR (488-7386)
HelpChat, LGBT National Youth Talkline	1-800-246-PRIDE (1-800-246- 7743)

Table 2*Cyberbullying Online Resources*

Organization	Description	URL
Stomp Out Bullying	National nonprofit committed to ending bullying culture.	www.stompoutbullying.org
Teens Against Bullying	Website created by teens for teens needing support against bullying.	https://pacerteensagainstbullying.org/
Organization for Social Media Safety	Consumer protection organization making social media safer.	https://ofsms.org/
StopBullying.gov	Provides government agency information on bullying and cyberbullying.	https://www.stopbullying.gov/
Cyberbullying Research Center	Research organization supplying up-to date information on cyberbullying.	https://cyberbullying.org/
Anti-Defamation League	Organization fighting against oppression and discrimination.	http://www.adl.org
Parental Phone App	Provides the National Suicide hotline phone number along with other resources for parent reference.	

5) School Policy Recommendation: Schools should collect incident data on cyberbullying and social emotional health and include these in annual evaluations (e. g., the school district and statewide report card). Schools are not currently required by law to provide cyberbullying or socioemotional data in their annual reports. Including these data in the Ohio School Report Card (Ohio Department of Education, n.d.) increases public awareness and accountability within the school, community, families, and minds of individual students.

Conclusion

Recognizing that teachers, administrators, and counselors know their students and community better than we ever could, our strongest recommendation is for them to champion students victimized by cyberbullying and to actively advocate for needed change. First, educators need to critically review the strengths, limitations, and overall impact of current Ohio laws on their school's capacity to effectively address cyberbullying. Second, using supporting evidence, school staff should arrive at an informed opinion. Third, educators must make the personal choice to advocate. For example, Ohio Education Association's (OEA) annual Lobby Day provides an empowering opportunity for educators to meet directly with their legislators and help stimulate changes to Ohio laws affecting schools. Based on our recommendations, we implore all educators to make the systemic changes needed to end cyberbullying.

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Secondary School Principal Perceptions of Multi-Optional Response Programs as a School Safety Measure

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Abstract

The phenomenological research investigates the perceptions of principals on the use of multi-option response plans before, during, and after active shooter drills. The study discovers three central themes from eight Secondary principals. Active shooter drills in public schools are mandated by state legislation and create school culture challenges for stakeholders. Secondary school principals are required to prepare students and faculty for these potential risks. In individual states, school districts may direct principals to use a multi-option response plan for active shooter drills.

Keywords: Multi-option response, lockdown, principal perceptions, active shooter drills, school culture

Mass school shootings and media attention motivate school leaders to implement safety plans to minimize casualties in case a school shooting takes place on campus (King & Bracy, 2019). Most states require school administrators to implement and practice active shooter response plans (Musu, Zhang, Wang, Zhang & Oudekerk, 2018). Since 2004, multi-option response plans for active shooter drills have increased by 13 percent (Musu et al., 2004).

The purpose of this qualitative study is to explore the perceptions of eight secondary school principals in using multi-option response plans for active shooter drills. Research interviews were conducted to collect statements from participants about the use of multi-option response plans for active shooter drills. The findings from the secondary

principal interviews revealed three central themes expanding across different stages of an active shooter drill (before, during, and after).

The phenomenological research investigates the perceptions of principals on the use of multi-option response plans before, during, and after active shooter drills. The study discovers three central themes from eight secondary principals. Active shooter drills in public schools are mandated by state legislation and create school culture challenges for stakeholders. Secondary school principals are required to prepare students and faculty for these potential risks. In individual states, school districts may direct principals to use a multi-option response plan for active shooter drills

Across America, secondary educational leaders are concerned about school violence (Cuellar, 2018). According to Musu, Zhang, Wang, Zhang, and Oudekerk (2019), "37 active shooter incidents" took place in K-12 schools from the years 2000 to 2017. Also, approximately "one to two percent or 20 students" of all youth murders are committed on elementary, middle, and high school campuses (Rogers, 2019, p. 23). Media coverage of mass school shootings such as Columbine, Sandy Hook, and Marjory Stoneman Douglas have roused more than two-thirds of schools to practice active shooter drills in preparation for a possible school shooting (Campbell, 2018). The U.S. Department of Homeland Security (2008) defines an active shooter as a person who is "actively engaged in killing or attempting" to murder individuals in a "confined and populate area" and typically uses guns.

As the media attention increased on school shootings after Columbine, school districts were motivated and directed by state officials to perform active shooter drills with faculty, students, and police (Jonson, 2017). School districts have evolved in the

type of response for active shooter drills ranging from a traditional lockdown or shelter-in-place to a full-fledge multi-option response, such as Run-Hide-Fight (King and Bracy, 2019). School officials will commonly adopt one of two active shooter response plans to train staff and students. The first plan or option schools will use for an active shooter drill is a "traditional lockdown" (Jonson, Moon, & Hendry, 2018). In a traditional lockdown approach, school leaders will train staff and students to lock the door, turn the lights off, hide in the corner of the classroom, and wait until the administrator or police to give an all-clear sign (Trump, 2011). Another method or response to an active shooter is a multi-option plan. In a multi-option response, school leaders defer to classroom teachers and faculty to determine what action to take based on the location of the shooter. School faculty may select a traditional lockdown, evacuate, or possibly barricade the classroom door (Jonson et al., 2018). Regardless of the school safety plan a building leader decides to implement, the leader must consider the impact multi-option response plans for an active shooter drill has on school culture. Also, building principals play a significant role in active shooter drills and training faculty and students in a multi-option response plan (Rogers, 2019). Principal leadership is essential to the success or failure of any initiative that can impact school culture (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996). Limited research exists exploring the impact of multi-option response plans for active shooter drills has on the principal position and school culture.

Conceptual Framework

Throughout the years, scholars have examined the relationship between school culture and principal leadership (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996). Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) define school culture as a "framework that a group can use to solve problems and

pass them down from one generation to the next" (p. 6). School principals place forth great effort to foster a positive school culture, and at times they have to navigate a complex existing system that includes various stakeholder groups. One scholar claims, "school culture is one of the most complex and important concepts in education" (Stoll, 2000, p. 9). Due to the multifarious nature of school culture, scholars have attempted to examine the dynamic relationships among the school principal and educational stakeholders such as faculty, students, parents, and District Administrators in a school district (Getzels, Lipham, & Campbell, 1968). Hallinger & Leithwood (1996) explored the influence school culture has on a building principal, as well as how the principal's leadership impacts school culture.

Furthermore, the researchers believed that events and changes in society "influence principal leadership" and subsequently impact the school culture (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996). Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between the principal and educational stakeholders as well as the possible role that society has on school culture. As the fear of mass shootings increases among educational stakeholders, principals are left with facilitating active shooter drills. To explore how school administrators can foster a positive building climate and incorporate a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill, the study uses Hallinger and Leithwood's (1996) Framework, Locus of Leadership within the School and Culture to interpret the findings. Hallinger and Leithwood's Framework (1996) relates to this research because school principals are expected to create a safe and secure learning environment within a culture that is vulnerable to societal fears as well as pressure from Superordinates (central office), students, staff, and parents. School principals are essential in planning, training, and

communicating active shooter drills with limited discussion on the effect of multi-option response plans for active shooter drills have on their roles as cultural leaders.

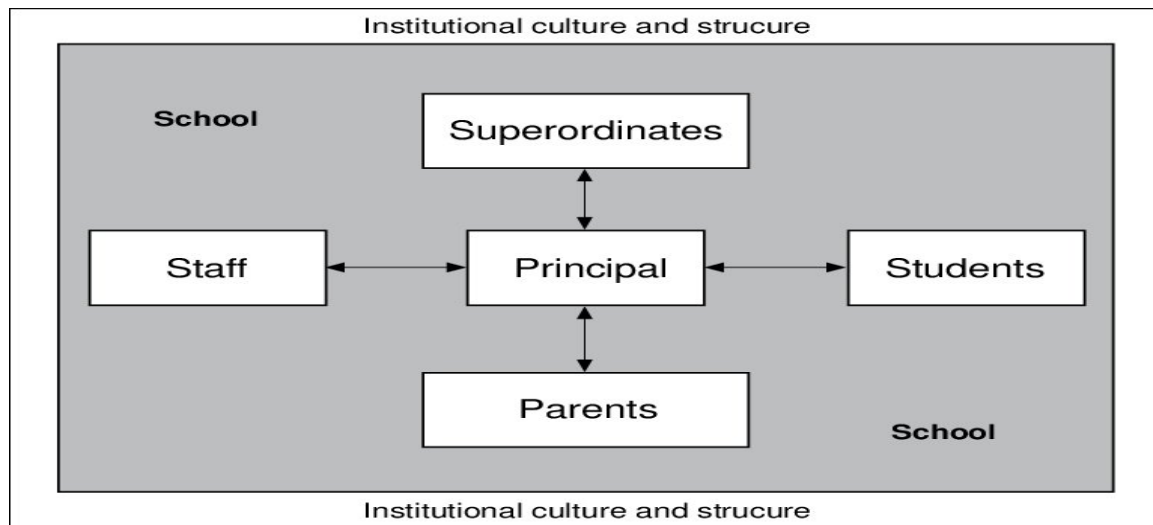


Figure 1. Locus of Leadership Within the School and Culture: Institutional Culture and Structure

Method

A qualitative study was used to conduct this research by focusing on the primary research question, what were the perceptual changes of principals who have implemented multi-option response plans for active shooter drills?

Research Design

The phenomenological analysis was performed as a way to capture the "lived experiences" of principals about the "phenomena" of multi-option response plans for an active shooter drill (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Phenomenology research was used because all school principals in this study share the same experiences of using multi-option plans for active shooter drills (Creswell & Cresswell, 2018). I developed a semi-structured interview process with three primary questions and an additional broad question to gather "direct information from study participants" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005,

p. 1279). Focusing on the various stages (before, during, and after) of multi-option response plans for active shooter drills, I asked building principals three primary questions and one additional overarching question:

- 1) How has the implementation of multi-option response plans changed your perceptions on school safety and response before an active shooter drill or event? Are there any perceptual changes with students, faculty, parents, and other patrons?
- 2) How has the implementation of multi-option response plans changed your perceptions on school safety and response during an active shooter drill or event? Are there any perceptual changes with students, faculty, parents, and other patrons?
- 3) How has the implementation of multi-option response plans changed your perceptions on school safety and response after an active shooter drill or event? Are there any perceptual changes with students, faculty, parents, and other patrons?
- 4) What other things would you like to share about your (principal) perspective on multi-option response plans for active shooter drills? What other things would you like to share about your (principal) perspective on school safety?

Researcher Description

I served as a school administrator for 20 years serving as an elementary and middle school principal for a combined total of seven years, as well as a high school Dean, Assistant Principal, and Athletic Director for a combined 13 years. My school administrator experience was located in an urban, diverse school district with close to

18,000 students in K-12th grades. As a school leader, I would coordinate and facilitate active shooter drills and faculty school crisis meetings. During my final two years of service as a middle school principal, I trained building faculty in the Alert, Lockdown, Inform, Counter, and Evacuate, otherwise known as (A.L.I.C.E.) (U.S. Department of Homeland Security, 2016). Also, I would communicate with parents, central office administrators, and the local police department before and after an active shooter drill. Furthermore, I have experience facilitating and training teachers, students, and support staff with applying A.L.I.C.E. at the middle and high school levels. This current research is enhanced because of my principal experiences with multi-option response plans for active shooter drills in an urban setting. On the other hand, my experience and thus perspective were from a different Midwest state as well as schools with entirely different cultures. I did not have previous relationships or interactions with the participants of this study. As a former building principal, I believe when District Administrators adopt policies and practices with limited feedback from building principals, they are unaware of the impact initiatives play in school culture. Superordinate positions, known as District Administrators, are defined as Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, Special Education Directors and Chief School Business Official. Thus, this study attempts to provide building principals a voice in sharing their perceptions of how multi-option response plans for active shooter drills influence the building leader's position. I had previous training with interviewing teachers, students, and faculty members. Typically, field notes were taken during these interviews and discussed among stakeholders if necessary.

Participants and Recruitment Process

This study took place in a Midwest U.S. state and was stratified based on secondary schools that use a multi-option response for an active shooter drill. I used pseudonyms to keep participants and their schools confidential. I solicited over 25 school district superintendents in Kentucky, Illinois, and Ohio through email, who used multi-option response plans for active shooter drills. I secured six district superintendents between Illinois and Ohio that agreed to have building principals participate in the study, contingent upon principal participation approval. The other 19 superintendents either declined or did not respond to the inquiry. Next, I emailed 33 building principals in the six districts, and eight principals at the secondary levels agreed to be interviewed for the study. I used purposive sampling to secure school principals using a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008).

Table 1 illustrates the school demographics, where principals serve as leaders. The overall sample of eight principals consisted of two high school principals serving students from 9th through 12th, two middle school principals serving students from 6th through 8th grades, and four junior high school principals serving students in 7th and 8th grades. All eight principals in this study ranged from having five years of principal experience at their current school to 1 year as the principal. Also, three of the principals were female and five were male. All eight principals lead schools that use a multi-option response for an active shooter drill, but differences exist among schools' implementation ranging from partial to full adoption.

Table 1*Secondary School Building Demographics*

	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	School 5	School 6	School 7	School 8
Grade Levels	9-12	9-12	7-8	7-8	7-8	7-8	6-8	6-8
State	OH	OH	OH	OH	OH	OH	OH	OH
Student Enrollment	1840	481	288	633	805	1015	1915	658
% of Students with Disabilities	9.1	21.2	16.1	12.2	10.6	9.1	13.8	12
Total Faculty	135	51	24	43	76	65	110	44
% of staff with Disabilities	0	0	.24	0	0	.65	0	.44
% of Caucasian	90.6	68	61.5	85.9	64.9	89	86.6	64.1
% of African-American	1.7	16.5	16.6	1.8	8.6	2.1	2.7	2
% of Hispanic	2.7	10.1	17.2	4	6.9	3.3	4	19
% of Asian/Pacific Islander	0	0	0	4.1	0	0	0	0
% of multiracial	3.4	4.8	4.4	4.2	6.8	3.2	3.7	3.2
% of Free-Reduced Lunch	15.9	66.9	76.3	16.4	13.9	17.5	34.1	12
% of EL Learners	0	2.6	4.5	0	2.8	0	0.8	3
# Years Principal at School	5	2	3	1	5	4	1	5

Data Collection

I scheduled the principal meetings and coordinated a date and time to interview in their office at school. Principal interviews were scheduled for January and February of the year 2020. I sent all school principals a recruiting script and an informed consent letter. Next, the principals informed me of possible dates and times to conduct the interviews. I scheduled each principal interview by using Microsoft Outlook and sent an email calendar invitation. Only one principal had to reschedule and preferred to conduct a phone interview due to a school cancelation for inclement weather. The other seven principals were interviewed at their school office. Principal interviews ranged from 45 to 90 minutes, with an average of 60 minutes. As previously stated, principals were asked three central open questions, and then time was allocated for principals to elaborate on their responses or share any other insights. I received permission from each principal to audio record the interview and take field notes. Next, I asked the administrators if they would like me to provide them with a copy of the audio recording, field notes, and the transcription. All eight secondary principals declined a copy of any data. After concluding all eight recorded interviews, I transcribed each interview.

Analysis

I coded the data using Tesch's eight steps in the coding process and generated eight themes (Tesch, 1990). The Eight Steps include:

1. I got listened to all interviews at least three times, which took approximately four to five hours per interview.

2. As I listened to each interview, I typed the statements of each principal interview for all four questions and added any additional comments from the principals that were outside the four questions.
3. I placed the principal interview comments into possible topics or main ideas.
4. Next, I placed the primary topics or main ideas at the top of column using Microsoft Excel.
5. Next, I reviewed the topics of the column and reviewed the transcribed principal statements and wrote down an abbreviated code next to each statement.
6. Then, I reviewed my topics and grouped them together to create three primary themes or categories.
7. Next, I reviewed the themes and categories and performed an initial examination.
8. My final step was to review and recode any data if the statements were not appropriately placed.

Results

Table 2

Secondary Principals Multi-Optional Response Themes for an Active Shooter Drill for Different

Communication Theme 1	Culture of Fear Theme 2	Heightened Awareness among Faculty, Students, & Parents Theme 3
Principals must have proactive communication with all stakeholders (parents, faculty, students, and central office) before, during, and after the active shooter drill.	Principals observe increased anxiety levels among students & staff.	Principals state they have to deal with parents that bring social media concerns about other students, and the parents are anxious
Principals collaborate and communicate with school resource officers.	Principals state it is important to work through fears with faculty during an active shooter drill.	Principals share when students make flippant comments or posts threatening messages on social media, teachers or parents report it, and it is taken seriously.
	Principals claim that after the Parkland school shooting, parents were afraid to send their child to school.	

Table 2 provides three central themes in this research study: communication, culture of fear, and a heightened awareness among faculty, students, and parents. The first theme stated in the research was the importance of principal communication to educational stakeholders before, during, and after a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill. The second theme in this study was that all eight principals claimed active shooter drills created a culture of fear among students and faculty. The third theme disclosed in this study was the side effects of a fear-based culture: a heightened awareness among

parents, students, and faculty when a student makes a flippant comment in the classroom or on a social media platform.

All eight principals in the study stated communication before, during, and after an active shooter drill is paramount and expected from educational stakeholders. Principals have many levels of constituents that demand and need to know that an active shooter drill is taking place. Principals communicate with the district office, school resource officers, parents, adjacent organizations, faculty, students, and any other entity that would be possibly impacted by students evacuating through random doors, fake gunshots in the building, and other abnormal commotion that accompanies this type of response. The principal from School 1 in Table 1, which had full A.L.I.C.E. implementation as a multi-option response describes the first theme of communication and stated,

I have various tasks I need to complete. First, I have to check our school and district calendars to make sure we don't have any conflicts with testing, assemblies, etc.... Second, I have to coordinate with our school resource officer and his police department. Third, I schedule and facilitate a meeting with [the] police and my administration team. We talk through all the roles and what types of things need to get done. We need to know what boxes need to be checked. I do have a staff member in a motorized wheelchair that I notify before we run a drill. We don't announce all the drills but one staff member will stay home if she is aware of a planned drill. Also, I have to prepare my script in advance before the drill. I need my script so that I know what to say over the all school intercom, then teachers can decide what action needs to take place. The school resource officer will escort the person acting as the active shooter drill and it's quite

disturbing when you see students and staff fleeing. Teachers have to make quick decisions Also, I have to be very clear and concise with my script to make sure students understand it's only a drill (Principal, School 1).

The principal's response is essential to the study. It describes the numerous stakeholder groups a principal communicates with before, during, and after a multi-option response for an active shooter drill. It is common for school principals to interact with many stakeholders through various email lists for district, staff, parents, students, and community. Besides the routine principal correspondence of weekly newsletters, highlights, the itinerary of essential dates, fundraising, etc., school administrators have to make sure to communicate before, during, and after a multi-option response for an active shooter drill. According to a study completed by Klocko and Wells (2015) principals listed email communications as one of their primary job responsibilities and stressors. One of the many communication challenges for principals is to consider how to make sure the message of a vital safety drill is not a lost in the myriad of other principal emails, voice-blasts, and notifications delivered on a daily and weekly basis. Principal communication with "District Administrators, Staff, Students, and Parents" may determine the level of collaboration among the principal and the four groups declared in Figure 1 (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996, p. 209). Principal communication is an essential component of creating a positive school culture. Scholars claimed "schools can no longer function as fortresses that close out the surrounding community; instead, creating high levels of transparency through a constant flow of communication is critical" (Sanfelippo & Sinanis, 2016, p. 37). Principal communication is essential to a positive and safe

school culture. Still, it is paramount to alleviate the level of fear among faculty, students, and parents with multi-option response plans for active shooter drills.

The second theme in this study was that all eight principals claimed performing multi-option response plans for an active shooter drill creates a culture of fear among students and faculty. The principal from School 4 in Table 1 stated,

I had parents come to my school the morning after the Parkland shooting informing me they were afraid to send their child to school because of the possibility of a school shooting. Also, we have noticed an increase of kids with anxiety, phobias, and fear of coming to school after we have an A.L.I.C.E. drill. You should know that we've had to hire over a million dollars in mental health professionals to work with anxious, phobic students. I've even had staff members get unnerved by trainings and possibility of school shooters. They've asked me to purchase bullet proof vests (Principal, School 4).

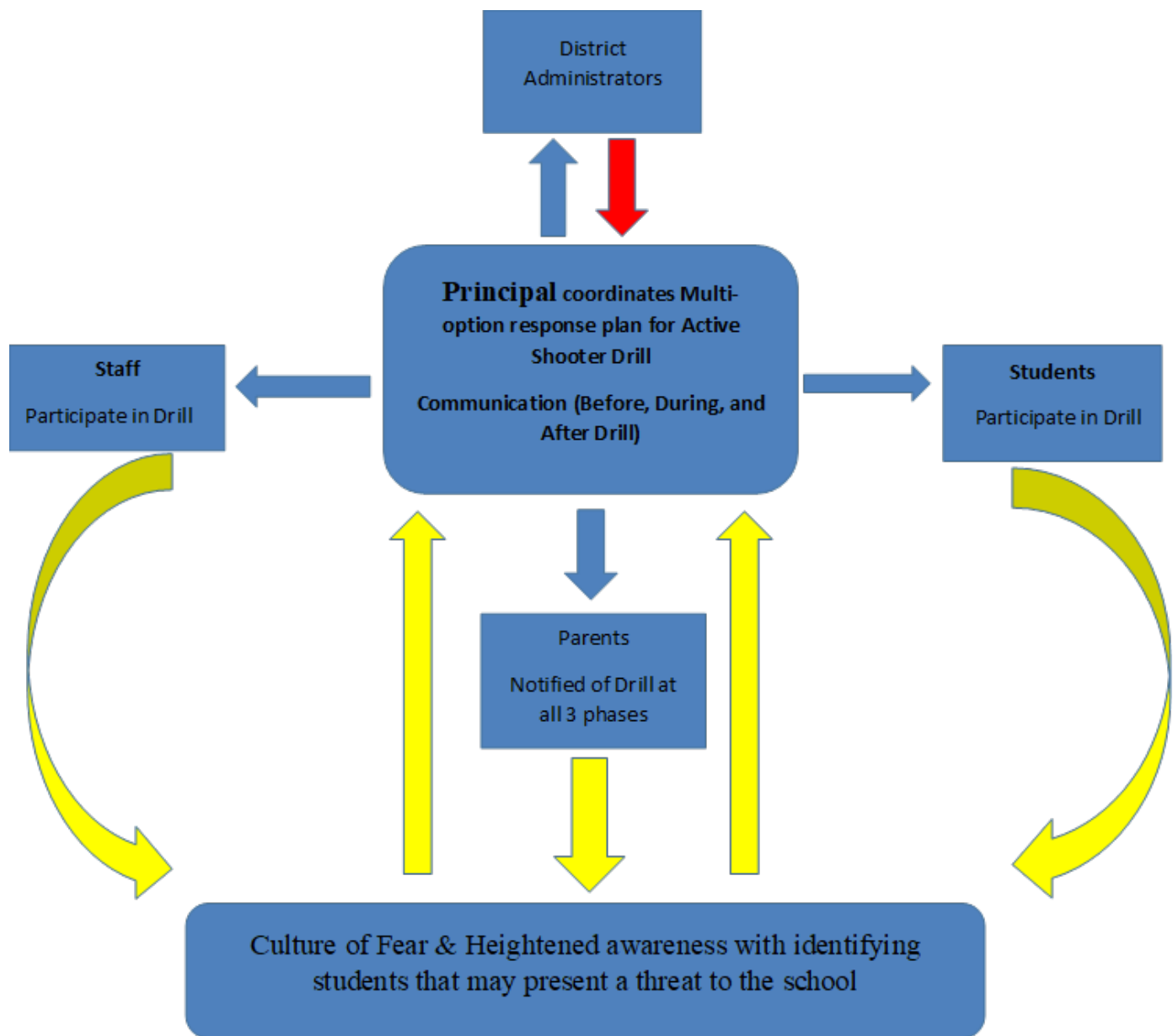
The principal's comments represent the culture of fear that exists among students, faculty, and parents. The culture of fear among faculty, students, and staff existed in every school. The levels of anxiety among educational stakeholders varied; however, every principal in this study expressed the fear of a school shooting was elevated after a multi-option response plan for an active shooter. As the secondary school leaders in this study attempt to create a positive school culture where students have an opportunity to thrive, the unintended consequences of performing active shooter drills may come at a cost. Hallinger & Leithwood's (1996) claimed, "culture has an impact on schools at the institutional level, on the community context, on the beliefs and experiences of administrators, administrative practice, and on a school's particular culture" (p. 109).

School communities living in a perpetual state of fear will foster an educational environment that is not necessarily conducive to the mission of educating students. The culture of fear in schools due to the potential of school shootings, as well as student drills that perpetuate preparing for a potential shooting, places building principals in the center of an organization that was not intended to address societal challenges, such as mass shootings. Thus, building principals have to formulate avenues to conquer this culture of fear among stakeholders to focus on their school's academic mission. Stoll (2000) posited that school leaders are "culture founders," and the primary way a school culture can change is by the leader "installing new values and beliefs" (p. 13). In this day and age, where the normalization of media coverage of mass shootings and states mandating school districts implement active shooter drills in schools, building principals are tasked to create a school culture that embraces this new normal. Although principals adhere to the board of education adopted policies with facilitating multi-option response plans for active shooter drills, teacher unions have started to dissent. Recently, teacher unions such as the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) (2017) and National Education Association (NEA) have begun to oppose or, at a minimum, demand drastic changes to active shooter drills and multi-option response plans in schools (Walker, 2020). The AFT and N.E.A. have argued that multi-option response plans for active shooter drills do not enhance school safety and create fear among students (Walker, 2020). In the best interest of all educational stakeholders, school superintendents and building principals will need to determine the most constructive and effective means to prepare for an active shooter without traumatizing faculty, students, and parents.

The unintended consequences of multi-option response plans for active shooter drills may be the catalyst with increasing numbers of students identified as potential school shooters. The third theme in this study was all eight principals claimed performing multi-option response plans for an active shooter drill is how principals have observed a heightened awareness among teachers and parents with identifying students that may present a threat to the school. A high school principal from School 2 in the study cited in Table 1 stated, "There is a heightened awareness of students making threats on social media or a feeling a staff has about a kid which requires me to investigate a student" (Principal, School 2). A junior high school principal from School 6 in Table 1 reiterated, "I have to deal with parents that bring social media concerns about other students, and the parents are anxious" (Principal, School 6). The same principal elaborated during the interview and expressed the investigations in these matters take a significant amount of time from other principal responsibilities. A different high school principal from School 1 in Table 1 directly stated, "When students make flippant comments or posts threatening messages on social media, teachers or parents report it, and it is taken seriously" (Principal, School 1). Another junior high school principal from School 5 in Table 1 reported, "When students make or post some flippant comments about shootings or guns, police get involve[d] and will investigate the student" (Principal, School 5). Hallinger & Leithwood's (1996) model coincides with the results from the third theme as it pertains to school culture. Hallinger & Leithwood (1996) posit that "values and normative expectations" have a significant role in educational leaders (p. 109).

Findings

As shown in Figure 2, building principals are an integral component in school safety as this significant aspect has the potential to impact the school culture. These school leaders oversee multi-option response plans for active shooter drills from start to finish and must address the various concerns of their stakeholders. Fear is a common thread among the stakeholders in Figure 2. The principal from School 5 in Table 1 states, "Some parents do not want their student to participate in our A.L.I.C.E. training and active shooter drills" (Principal, School 5). Building principal from School 7 addresses the fear among faculty and parents through a safety committee. School 7 principal states, "in our safety committee meetings, the teachers and parents will inform me about concerns and things to consider during drills... like what should we do if the shooter enters this section of the building?" (Principal, School 7). Despite communication efforts placed forth by building principals through safety committees, faculty meetings, and parent conferences, principals continue to work through these cultural challenges. The principal from School 6 claims, "when a child gets profiled by a school as a possible school shooter, their parents are concerned because they were profiled and didn't feel they will be treated fairly" (Principal, School 6). This statement provides evidence of an additional challenge a building principal must confront within the school culture.



Note: This model conceptualizes the numerous stakeholders building principals have to communicate (blue lines) with for a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill. The red line constitutes the relational hierarchy between “District Administrators” or District Administrators administration and the principal. Staff, students, and parents exhibit fear with active shooter drills, and that fear manifests itself with identifying potential school shooters, which is communicated back to the building principal.

Figure 2. Institutional Culture and Structure

Discussion

The eight school principals in this research were utterly mindful of the role multi-option response plans for active shooter drills may have on school culture. Building leaders shared that multi-option response plans for active shooter drills disrupted the normalcy of the school environment among parents, students, and faculty. However, school administrators influence on educational stakeholders in a school setting cannot be denied (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996). Principals are at the heart and center of school culture, and their effectiveness may determine if the handling of sensitive safety drills hinders or improves school culture (Sanfelippo & Sinanis, 2016; Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996).

Communication, Communication, and Communication

This study contributes to educational leadership by capturing the experiences of secondary school principals with multi-option response plans for an active shooter drill in the context of a school culture framework (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Secondary principals have a leadership opportunity by utilizing effective communication strategies when facilitating safety drills.

Principals in this study realize that active shooter drills may create an element of fear as an unintended consequence. One high school principal in this study revealed that practicing a multi-option response plan for an active shooter drill creates “fear of the unknown” (Principal, School 2). The high school administrator’s comment regarding this culture of fear that exists may have an impact on school climate. King and Bracy’s (2019) study highlights the “consequences of safety drills” in a school setting (p. 285). The investigators claim that when students and faculty are directed to engage in a multi-

option response plan for an active shooter drill that stakeholders have a “heightened sense of fear of being killed or harmed at school” (King & Bracy, 2019, p. 285). As school principals continue to lead and facilitate multi-option response plans for active shooter drills, they must consider solutions to mitigate the negative impact safety drills may have on the school culture.

Data from this study suggested that building principals may foster positive relationships when they consistently communicate with stakeholders before, during, and after active shooter drills. Principals that cultivate positive relationships may increase "trust" between parents, students, and teachers, fostering a favorable culture (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015, p. 72). Also, the data implies that as a result of principal communication, stakeholders are more willing to approach school leaders to express their fears and concerns, which may be a result of performing multi-option response plans for active shooter drills. The high school principal from School 1 in Table 1 states that during an active shooter drill, teachers "are paralyzed and fearful of making wrong decisions" (Principal, School 1). The same principal elaborated and shared the leader's role is to communicate with staff after the drill concludes in a debrief meeting or in conversation. The principal shared that the debrief meetings allow teachers to share their concerns as well as insights with the pros and cons of the active shooter drill. When a teacher shares their interests, the building leader communicates with faculty that there is "no perfect response and go with your instinct" (Principal, School 1). The interaction between the principal and faculty members may suggest that there is a certain level of trust among stakeholders embedded in the culture. According to Gruenert & Whitaker (2015), "in an effective culture, members are confident that they can share their professional struggles"

(p. 72). Teachers willing to confide in their principals in the spirit of making effective decisions in a multi-option response plan may explain the third finding.

As "national attention focusing on school shooting" increases among staff, students, and parents, principals are collaborating with stakeholders on school safety (Jonson, Moon, & Hendry, 2018, p. 154; Blad, 2018). Principals have observed more awareness among stakeholders recognizing students that may pose a potential risk. Secondary principals demonstrate they "value" and adhere to "normative expectations" established within the school culture by investigating students that exhibit signs of presenting a potential threat to the safety and well-being of faculty and students (p.109). Educational stakeholders (students, faculty, and parents) trust their school leaders to follow through with the information of a possible threat, which demonstrates the learning organization is "working together" to create a safe environment (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996, p. 109). Scholars have found a school culture in which stakeholders are willing to inform school administrators that a potential school shooter has formulated a plan to cause harm and is successful in preventing actual violence (Goodrum, Woodward, & Thompson, 2017, p. 215). Future and current school leaders may want to consider ways to connect with staff, parents, and students before facilitating school safety drills.

Limitations

This study explored principal perceptions about the phenomena of multi-option response for active shooter drills with several limitations. The sample size ($N= 8$) was small. Future research should expand the sample size, as well as consider private middle and high schools. All ($N= 8$) schools were from urban or suburban schools in the Midwest, and school principals in other regions may provide additional insight. Also, the

study was qualitative and based on interviews with secondary principals. It is difficult to ascertain that participants are honest as the topic of preparing for a school shooting has an elevated level of concern (McCarthy & Webb, 2000). Regardless of limitations, this research produced significant findings that illustrate principal leadership is at the center of school culture, and how they communicate, build trust, and foster relationships with stakeholders are paramount to their building.

My intention with this research is to provide future and current school principals with research that could assist them in understanding the professional complexity of multi-option response plans for active shooter drills and the potential impact their leadership may have on the school culture. School crisis preparation is unavoidable in society today. Effective school leaders must continue to pursue research and implement best practices to assist their effectiveness with a school crisis. From my investigation, I located one study that examined the efficacy of multi-option response plans for active shooter drills (Jonson, Moon, & Hendry, 2018). The research was experimental and did not involve children in a school setting but focused on adult participants in a multi-option response training (Jonson, Moon, & Hendry, 2018.).

Building principals are expected to implement and facilitate the board of education adopted policies, regardless of the potential benefits or consequences they may have on school culture. Sanfellippo and Sinanis (2016) claim, "school culture cannot be separated from school leaders, because the actions of the individual directly shape and influence the organization" (p. 35).

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Appendix A

Interview Script to School Administrator/Principal pertaining to multi-option response plans before, during, and after a drill or event.

Demographic Questions (Part A)

1. Name of Administrator: _____
2. Name of School: _____
3. What grade levels attend this school? _____
4. What is the enrollment size of this school? _____
5. What is the Racial Demographic of this school? _____
6. What percentage of students attending this school have IEP's? _____
7. How many teachers are employed at this school? _____
8. What percentage of staff members need physical or mental support during crisis drills (fire, tornado, active shooter, etc...)? _____
9. Does this school have a full or part time School Resource Officer? _____
10. Name of District: _____
11. Gender: _____
12. What is your racial background: _____
13. How long have you been at this school? _____
14. Your role: _____
15. Do you use a multi-option response for an active shooter drill or event? _____
16. How many years has your school/district utilized multi-option response? _____
17. Have you been trained in multi-option response plan? _____
18. Has your staff been trained in multi-option response plan? _____
19. What is the multi-option response plan your district has adopted? _____
20. Are your multi-option drills single, dual, or multi? _____ * think of A.L.I.C.E.

Principal Perceptions on multi-option response during active shooter drill (Part B)

1. How has the implementation of multi-option response plans changed your perceptions on school safety and response **before** an active shooter drill or event?
Are there any perceptual changes among students, faculty, parents, or other patrons?
2. How has the implementation of multi-option response plans changed your perceptions on school safety and response **during** an active shooter drill or event?
Are there any perceptual changes among students, faculty, parents, or other patrons?
3. How has the implementation of multi-option response plans changed your perceptions on school safety and response **after** an active shooter drill or event?
Are there any perceptual changes among students, faculty, parents, or other patrons?
4. **Research Question 4:** What other things would you like to share about your (principal) perspective on multi-option response plans for active shooter drills?
What other things would you like to share about your (principal) perception on school safety?

Resiliency and Academic Achievement Among Urban High School Students

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Abstract

This study investigated Resiliency for Academic Success factors and their possible impact on student achievement among urban high school students, focusing on multiracial students (Trueba, 2002). Educational researchers have investigated reasons for underperformance in academics among students of color. The finding indicates that some students, specifically students of color, have barriers that are often outside of their control, impacting learning. Barriers to student learning, such as poverty, child abuse, and drug and alcohol addiction, may explain some children's academic underperformance (Bernard, 1993). However, students may possess resiliency factors that protect them against adverse conditions (Trueba, 2002).

Keywords: Resiliency, academic achievement, multiracial, achievement gap, urban high schools

The National Commission in Educational Excellence (1983) issued *A Nation at Risk (ANAR)*, which provided an analysis of underperforming students in U.S. schools. The report claimed the current educational system in the United States was cultivating "mediocrity" among students and subsequently "threatening our very future as a Nation and a people" (National Commission in Educational Excellence, 1983, p. 33). *A Nation at Risk* was the first report that revealed public schools were dealing with challenges such as "deterioration with scholastic aptitude" among students (National Commission in Educational Excellence, 1983, p. 11). Also, *A Nation at Risk* established the federal government's interest in public education (National Commission in Educational Excellence, 1983). Following *A Nation at Risk*, the federal government implemented the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001. NCLB increased the federal government's

authority on public education, assuring states measure student progress by testing students (Bradley, Meyers, Curtis, & Kessinger, 2018).

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 guidelines requested educational leaders to examine achievement data according to students' gender, racial background, socioeconomic status, and (if applicable) disability. The NCLB Act encouraged school leaders to create and provide academic interventions to students not making Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) in reading and mathematics; otherwise, schools received sanctions (Dufour, Dufour, Eaker, & Karhanek, 2006). The possibility of sanctions from the state and the federal government intended to motivate school leaders to close the academic achievement gap between White students and those of color (Wasonga & Christman, 2003). After the NCLB Act of 2001, the federal government continued its influence in public education with a focus on the academic achievement gap between Black, Hispanic, and White students by adopting legislation initiatives such as the Race to the Top Act of 2009 and Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015. Scholars have found that Black and Hispanic students dwelling in urban areas may experience higher levels of the following adverse conditions: living below the federal poverty line, born in single-parent families, and residing in neighborhoods with high crime rates (O'Connor, Mueller, & Neal, 2014). One category that may endure adverse conditions compared to people of color are multiracial students (Howard, 2018). Multiracial is defined as an “individual that belongs to two racial groups” (Harris, 2003, p. 2). According to Howard, multiracial students may receive more infractions, repeat grades, and have lower school attendance than students belonging to one racial group. Howard's study found an overrepresentation of multiracial children in the area of school discipline. De Brey et al. (2019) found that

multiracial students had the third highest out of school suspension rate only behind Blacks and Native Americans. The population of multiracial students continues to increase in the U.S. and their educational experiences may be as challenging as students of color, which may inspire school leaders to examine resiliency in multiracial students (Rockquemore & Burnsma, 2008; Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1997). Scholars have theorized that students may mitigate adverse conditions if they possess resilience characteristics and apply them in their daily lives (Brooms, 2019; Trueba, 2004).

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to explore the six attributes of the Resiliency for Academic Success Framework (Trueba, 2002) and their relationship to academic achievement. Student achievement was based on the Prairie State Achievement Exam (PSAE) scores among urban high school students with a primary focus on multiracial students. PSAE is a statewide standardized exam for public high school students (Prairie State Achievement Examination, 2013).

Achievement Gap, Multiracial Students, and Resiliency for Academic Success

This section of the article addresses literature on the achievement gap, multiracial students, and Resiliency for Academic Success Framework. The researcher will provide an overview of the achievement gap, challenges of multiracial students, and the Resiliency for Academic Success Framework.

Achievement Gap

Educational researchers have been seeking ways to close the achievement gap between students of color and White students. According to Carnoy and Garcia (2017), "considerable evidence suggests race continues to be an important factor in explaining

the achievement gap" (p. 2). For example, de Brey et al. (2019) discovered a 26-point reading achievement gap between White and Black students in the 4th grade and a 23-point gap between White and Hispanic 4th-grade students. The same study found a comparable achievement gap between 8th grade White and Hispanic students of 26 points. Eighth grade White and Black students had a math achievement gap of 25 points (de Brey et al., 2019). There are severe long-term life consequences for students who fall behind academically. Barton & Coley (2010) noted that the achievement gap negatively impacts students of color over their lifetime. Students of color who are academically behind their peers are at risk of experiencing higher levels of crime, unemployment, and lower wages (Ladson-Billings, 2006). Gloria Ladson-Billings (2006) considers these indicators as the debt students pay for not receiving a quality "education." Education "debt" is more likely to occur when students of color attend school districts that receive fewer financial resources compared to White suburban students (Ladson-Billings, 2006). Desai (2017) discovered that students in the Chicago Public School, where 85 percent of the population are students of color, receive 34 cents less per student (\$500 million) when compared to students attending schools outside of Chicago where 58 percent of students are White. Scholars also posit that a correlation exists between the level of educational resources students receive and lifetime income levels (Hanushek, Peterson, Tapley, & Woessmann, 2019).

School leaders continue to pursue educational programs, such as culturally responsive teaching, to reduce the achievement gap between White students and students of color (Gay, 2000). Educators have used specific external conditions, such as living below the federal poverty threshold for a family of four, to rationalize lower academic

achievement among students of color (Morissey & Vinopal, 2018). Educational scholars have investigated protective indicators' research to minimize or substantially mitigate the achievement gap between White students and students of color (Brooms, 2019; O'Connor, Mueller, & Neal, 2014). Benard (1991) discovered certain resilient indicators or characteristics that might support students of color to triumph over the obstacles they face outside of school, thereby impacting their learning. According to Benard (1995), social competence is a resilient, protective factor for children. Benard (1995) defines social competence as the "ability to elicit positive responses from others," and resilient students have this ability to form healthy relationships with adults and peers (p. 45). Resilient students' ability to formulate positive relationships helps solidify a bond between "home, school, and community" (Benard 1991, p. 7).

Multiracial Students

Interracial marriages have increased among U.S. citizens since the Supreme Court Case of *Loving v. Virginia*, 1967, which legalized interracial marriages (Daniel, Kina, Dariotis & Fojas, 2014). As interracial marriages have increased, so has the number of multiracial children attending U.S. schools. As the multiracial student population increases, educators are trying to determine how to best meet the social-emotional and academic needs of these students (Howard, 2018). In 2011, 1.2% of all public school students classified their racial background as multiracial. However, within seven years, the multiracial student population increased to 3.1% for all public schools in the United States (de Brey et al., 2019). The increase in enrollment of multiracial students has caused some researchers to explore school experiences for this student population (Wallace, 2004). These students may experience challenges or hardships that are unique

compared to other students of color. Wardle and Cruz-Janzen (2004) state multiracial students received questions from peers or teachers such as, "What are you?" This question directed at a multiracial student may suggest that they have to reject or choose between their two racial groups (Wardle & Cruz-Jansen, 2004). Quillian and Redd (2009) discovered multiracial students might be isolated from their peer group when they solely identify with one racial group. For example, a multiracial student with one Hispanic and one Black parent identifies as only Black, may experience isolation from Hispanic peers. According to Quillian and Redd (2009), multiracial students have difficulty with identity formation, which may symbolize a lack of acceptance by peers or friends. The researchers examined friendship networks of multiracial students using a data set from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health from 1997. The sample size totaled 65,174 students from all races, which included 4,482 multiracial, 38,821 Whites, 10,101 Blacks, 3,390 Asians, 955 Native Americans, 6,089 Hispanics, and 976 other Non-Hispanic adolescents. According to Herman (2004), multiracial students may experience racism from both groups or deny one of their racial categories to gain acceptance among a single racial group. As previously noted, resiliency characteristics may support students of color with overcoming obstacles or hardships; however, limited research exists examining the possible impact resiliency characteristics have on multiracial students. In this study, Trueba (2002) delineates that resiliency is purposeful and advances based on an idea with intentional outcomes.

Resiliency for Academic Success

Resilience is the "ability to confront and resolve problems and the capacity to utilize personal or social resources to enhance limited possibilities" (Garza, Trueba, &

Reyes, 2004, p. 11). Trueba (2002) created a resiliency framework based on his personal and professional experiences as a poor Hispanic immigrant as well as a researcher. His life experiences became the catalyst for his resiliency research. Trueba focused his resiliency work on Hispanic students residing in Houston, Texas.

The first Resiliency for Academic Success concept, "intelligent planning in the pursuit of major goals, delaying gratification for the sake of future rewards," is the basis for all other resiliency characteristics in Trueba's framework (Trueba, 2002, p. 3). While studying academically successful Hispanic students in Houston, Trueba discovered that these students might become academically socialized. Scholars have defined academic socialization as "attitudes, values, goals, expectations, and beliefs about education as well as opportunities and activities" (Sonnenschein, Metzger, & Gay, 2018, p. 41). When students acquire academic socialization, they have the capacity and motivation to create "intelligent plans" to attain their "future goals" (Trueba, 2002, p. 3). For example, academically socialized students that have future goals may elect not to work a job while attending high school to focus on their homework. According to Duckworth (2016), "any successful person has to decide what to do in part by deciding what not to do" (p. 67).

The second Resiliency for Academic Success concept is a "willingness to learn a new language and culture" (Trueba, 2002, p. 3). During Trueba's research, he discovered that learning occurs when families experience social activities together, and these experiences may provide students with a learning framework to use in school. Students who are willing to learn a new language are more likely to learn new things, including school culture. Every student needs to learn and integrate into the school culture as it is "influenced by the school's pupils and their social class background" (Stoll, 2000, p. 10).

Students must first understand the normative culture of society and the school culture within the context of the dominant culture (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1996; Trueba, 2002). Trueba hypothesized that successful students could combine their native culture and communication with the school's culture and academic language, which may increase the student's social competence.

Another Resiliency for Academic Success concept is the "ability to use multiple personal identities in the process of communicating with others" (Trueba, 2002, p. 3). Trueba (2004) discovered through his ethnographic study of Hispanic students that students could increase their resiliency if they were able to understand the culture of the school and other racial groups. When Hispanic students in Trueba's study were able to accomplish this cultural understanding, they overcame challenges such as communicating in a different language during school. According to Wasonga (2004), students overcoming such challenges or barriers develop the "psychological flexibility necessary to pass for or assume different identities for the sake of survival" (p. 31). "Psychological flexibility" may help students, specifically underrepresented groups, increase their "resiliency and cultural capital" (Wasonga, 2004, p. 31). Many educators assume students possess "cultural capital" when they appear in school (Sullivan, 2001, p. 893). In Trueba's (2004) research, he examined a population of Hispanic students that attended white culturally normed schools in the Rio Grande Valley in South Texas. Trueba discovered in his study that students who were able to assimilate into the school environment had acquired cultural capital. Bourdieu (1977) defines cultural capital as knowledge of the dominant cultural conventions in an organization. Trueba (2004) revealed through his studies that Hispanic students possess a unique culture within their families, and acquire a

separate and different culture from their school experience. Trueba (2004) claimed when students of color combine their home and school culture; they learn "cultural capital," which provides them the necessary skills to navigate the school setting. Sullivan (2001) affirmed students of color gain cultural capital by understanding the dominant culture in school and society, which may lead to using an academic language in school.

The fourth Resiliency for Academic Success concept is the "ability to appreciate and use family support during crises" (Trueba, 2002, p. 3). Ferrer (2011) posits that most students, including students of color, academically and socially benefit from discussing school topics with their parents or family members. According to Wang, Haertel, and Wahlberg (1994), students of color that can have candid discussions about school and school-related activities with family members may overcome conflicts or trouble experienced at school. Trueba (2002) elaborates on the family support concept by claiming that family support for students provides a great source of stability and strength. Students learn to appreciate their family and share things in their life that are positive as well as negative.

Furthermore, students learn not only to receive help from their family, but they learn to help family members in need as well. Through this strong family bond, students transfer the skill of helping others to the academic setting. Students discover that in an educational environment, "learning is a social process" where students share and discuss learned aspects with others. Students' acquired ability to share, communicate, and help others makes their family bond as well as their capacity to deal with adversity stronger (Trueba, 2002).

Trueba's (2002) fifth element of the Resiliency for Academic Success Framework is loyalty to school and family and the wisdom to pursue academic excellence with the love and support of teachers. The premise of this resiliency factor is that students of color, like any students, will encounter "failures and difficulties" during their school experience, and they will need adults from school and home to provide "moral" support (Trueba, 2002). Smith and Carlson's (1997) research examined stress, coping, and resiliency among high school students. The researchers found that student relationships with one parent and one adult from an external system such as a teacher or school social worker promote resiliency (Smith & Carlson, 1997). Specifically, Smith and Carlson's research found that students of color may acquire resiliency when a parent and a school representative collaborate on the child's specific needs, such as self-esteem. The student-teacher link for students may create an additional level of resiliency that will contribute to their academic success (Trueba, 2002).

The sixth Resiliency for Academic Success factor is "spiritual strength based on religious, cultural, and linguistic values" (Trueba, 2002, p. 3-4). According to Trueba, spirituality supports resilient elements as spirituality provides students with a private premise that a deity will provide support and "take care" of all loved ones and the student. Spirituality will help the student stay healthy and "loyal" to educators, peers, and family as well as help the student make the best decisions (Trueba, 2002). Trueba claims that while spirituality is the basis for all other forms of resiliency, only when all six aspects come together, the student can reach "assisted performance and the Zone of Proximal Development" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 32) in realizing his/her "new self through resiliency" (Trueba, 2002, p. 4). Research produced by the National Study of Youth and

Religion revealed that a positive relationship exists among the influences of "religious practices, services, and attendance" (Regnerus, Smith & Fritsch, 2003, p. 14) and academic achievement. Vygotsky (1978) stated that the Zone of Proximal Development for students occurs when a student has knowledge that is not developed but is in the early stages of development.

Methods

A quantitative study was used for this research. The study focused on examining three null hypotheses.

Null Hypothesis 1: There are no relationships among Resiliency for Academic Success indicators as measured by Intelligent Planning, Delaying Gratification for the Sake of Future Rewards, Willingness to Learn a New Culture, using Multiple Personal Identities in the process of Communicating with Others, Ability to Appreciate and use Family Support During a Crisis, Loyalty to School and Family, the Wisdom to Pursue Academic Excellence with the Love and Support of Teachers and Parents, Spiritual Strength based on religious, cultural and linguistic values and academic achievement (PSAE Scores in Reading and Math).

Null Hypothesis 2: There are no differences in academic achievement (PSAE Scores in Reading and Math) among White, Black, Hispanic, and multiracial urban high school students.

Null Hypothesis 3: There are differences in Resiliency for Academic Success indicators as measured by Intelligent Planning, Delaying Gratification for the Sake of Future Rewards, Willingness to Learn a New Culture, using Multiple Personal Identities in the process of Communicating with Others, Ability to Appreciate and use Family Support

During a Crisis, Loyalty to School and Family, the Wisdom to Pursue Academic Excellence with the Love and Support of Teachers and Parents, Spiritual Strength based on religious, cultural and linguistic values among Whites, Blacks, Hispanics, and multiracial urban high school students.

Participant Characteristics

The researcher sent requests to 25 large school districts ($N > 1,000$) within a 50-mile radius of Chicago because student populations are racially diverse. Table 1 illustrates the demographics of the two school districts that agreed to participate in the study, as well as the 23 that declined participation. The researcher was able to secure the Prairie State Achievement Examination (PSAE) scores for all 11th and 12th-grade students from the 2012-2013 school year. Student scores were listed by state identification numbers to maintain their anonymity. The PSAE is a graduation requirement for students in the 11th and 12th grade in the state of Illinois and measures reading and math achievement. The racial backgrounds of total students were the following: White ($n = 136$), multiracial ($n = 85$), Hispanic ($n = 82$), Black ($n = 31$), and 23 students elected to not identify their racial group. The sample included 203 female and 174 male students. As part of this research, socioeconomic status was not controlled as the focus of the research pertained to student racial groups.

Table 1*Solicited School Districts for Research and Sample by Racial Group*

	Participant School District 1	Participant School District 2	Solicited School Districts (<i>N</i> = 23)
Total Enrollment, Grades 9-12	1,884	8,019	113,367
Student Demographics by Percent			
White	54.3	58.2	49.3
Black	14.5	11.1	9.3
Hispanic	12.3	22.0	26.9
Asian	15.2	9.5	9.4
Multiracial	3.3	3.5	4.8
Native-American	0.3	0.1	0.3

Note. (*n* = 25) school districts were solicited to participate in the study. (*n* = 2) school districts consented to participate in the study.

Sampling Procedures

Five of the high school assistant principals provided the Prairie State Achievement Examination (PSAE) results from the 2012-2013 school year in Reading and Math based on student identification numbers given to the researcher. The researcher received student roster sheets listed by state identification numbers for all junior or 11th graders and senior or 12th graders status from each high school. The researcher randomly selected (*n* = 200) 11th and 12th grade students from each school and provided the assistant principals with a list of students to inquire about participation (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). The sample size goal was to secure 1,000 total or 200 students from

each high school, but only 52% responded to the survey. Out of 521 survey respondents, only 377 students took the Resiliency for Academic Success survey. The researcher did not have PSAE results for 144 students, so their survey results were eliminated from data calculation. Students may not have PSAE results for a myriad of reasons, such as being absent due to an illness or attending a different school during the testing window.

Data Collection

The five assistant principals from each high school visited the students in their study halls, a non-academic course, and distributed an informational letter, parental permission form, and student assent and consent forms. Once the permission forms were collected, the school administrators coordinated an appropriate day in the study hall for students to take the survey. If the students were 18 years of age, they could sign the student consent form themselves. If they were under 18 years of age, students were asked to sign a student assent form, which was paired with the parent/guardian consent form. The Institutional Review Board approved all generated permission, consent, and assent forms from Northern Illinois University.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument had 36 questions requiring a set of two responses. The survey instrument is located in the Appendix section of this article. Part one of the tool had 29 questions about Resiliency for Academic Success indicators and used a four-point Likert scale response ranging from one to four. A pilot study was completed using a survey instrument with urban high school students ($n = 58$), and coefficient alpha indexes of internal consistency for the six Resiliency for Academic Success indicators ranged from 0.49 to 0.78. Typically, "validity coefficients of most instruments" are in the range

0.4-0.6 (Rocco & Hatcher, 2011, p. 186). However, this survey's reliability levels may provide insight into the lack of evidence substantiating the relationships and differences with Resiliency for Academic Success Indicators and academic achievement among student racial groups. Students were asked 29 questions about Resiliency for Academic Success. They used a four-point Likert scale response ranging from one to four, *strongly agreed* (4), *agreed* (3), *disagreed* (2), or *strongly disagreed* (1). Also, the investigator was able to place PSAE reading and math scores, as well as survey results into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences IBM SPSS (Version 22).

Results

The first null hypothesis was examined for White, Black, Hispanic, and multiracial students. As shown in Table 2, the null hypothesis for multiracial students ($n = 85$) is rejected for the independent variable, Ability to Use Family Support During Crises and the dependent variable, PSAE Math, ($r(83) = .308, p = .016$). The effect size for this correlation was ($d = .09$). A weak positive relationship existed between the two variables. Also, the first null hypothesis was rejected for the independent variable, Loyalty to School and Family and Wisdom to Pursue Academic Excellence and dependent variables PSAE Math ($r(83) = .324, p = .011$) with an effect size of ($d = .10$) and PSAE Reading ($r(83) = .326, p = .010$) with an effect size of ($d = .10$). A weak positive relationship existed between the two variables.

As shown in Table 2, the first null hypothesis was accepted among multiracial students ($n = 85$) for the independent variables (Intelligent Planning, Delaying Gratification for the Sake of Future Rewards, Willingness to Learn a New Culture, using Multiple Personal Identities in the process of Communicating with Others, the Wisdom to

Pursue Academic Excellence with the Love and Support of Teachers and Parents, Spiritual Strength based on religious, cultural and linguistic values) and the dependent variables (academic achievement as measured by the PSAE in Reading and Math).

As shown in Table 3 and Table 4, the first null hypothesis was rejected among Whites ($n = 136$) and Hispanics ($n = 82$) that there are weak positive correlations between Resiliency for Academic Success indicators (Intelligent Planning and using Multiple Personal Identities in the process of Communicating with Others) and the dependent variables (academic achievement as measured by the PSAE in Reading and Math). Whites ($n = 136$) also had a weak positive correlation between Resiliency for Academic Success indicator (Loyalty to School and Family). The null hypothesis was accepted among Whites ($n = 136$) for the remaining Resiliency for Academic Success indicators and the dependent variables (academic achievement as measured by the PSAE in Reading and Math).

As shown in Table 5, the first null hypothesis was rejected among Blacks ($n = 31$) for the independent variable, Intelligent Planning Delaying Gratification for the Sake of Future Rewards, and the dependent variables, PSAE Math, ($r(29) = .345, p = .067$) with an effect size of ($d = .12$) and PSAE Reading, ($r(29) = .504, p = .017$) with an effect size of ($d = .254$). The first null hypothesis was accepted among Blacks ($n = 31$) that there are no significant correlations between Resiliency for Academic Success indicators (Willingness to Learn a New Culture, using Multiple Personal Identities in the process of Communicating with Others, Ability to Appreciate and use Family Support During a Crisis Loyalty to School and Family, the Wisdom to Pursue Academic Excellence with the Love and Support of Teachers and Parents, Spiritual Strength based on religious,

cultural and linguistic values) and the dependent variables academic achievement (PSAE Scores in Reading and Math).

Table 2

Correlation of Resiliency for Academic Success Variables for Multiracial Students (n = 85)

Resiliency character- istics	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	(RM) Math	(RP) Reading	RA	SS	LFS	FS	MP	WL	IP
Math PSAE	85	160.42	14.3									
Reading PSAE	85	162.85	13.9	.713**								
RA	85	3.02	.38	.262	.249							
SS	85	2.68	.79	.193	.154	.814**						
LFS	85	3.21	.49	.324**	.326*	.732**	.435**					
FS	85	3.24	.47	.308*	.277*	.791**	.607**	.640**				
MP	85	2.88	.46	.001	.012	.569**	.341**	.195	.192			
WL	85	2.98	.49	.175	.211*	.634**	.336**	.395**	.290**			
IP	85	3.31	.48	.197	.180	.643	.462**	.599**	.500**	.237*	.417**	1.0

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed) *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed). IP= Intelligent Planning; WL=Willingness to learn; MP=Multiple personal identities; FS=Family support; LFS=Loyalty to family and school; SS=Spiritual strength; RA=Resiliency average; RP=Resiliency Reading PSAE; RM=Resiliency Math PSAE

Table 3*Correlation of Resiliency for Academic Success Variables for White Students (n = 136)*

Resiliency character- istics	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	(RM) Math	(RP) Reading	RA	SS	LFS	FS	MP	WL	IP
Math PSAE	136	162.38	14.8									
Reading PSAE	136	164.33	14.5	.804**								
RA	136	2.97	.34	.150	.167							
SS	136	2.51	.79	-.052	.052	.580**						
LFS	136	3.18	.55	.181	.184*	.596**	.110					
FS	136	3.32	.44	.091	-.002	.466**	-.004	.420**				
MP	136	2.77	.55	.142**	.160**	.739**	.328*	.180*	.040			
WL	136	2.89	.57	.144	.132	.674**	.115	.221**	.098*	.700**		
IP	136	3.39	.43	.197*	.184*	.541**	.166	.616**	.287*	.213*	.366*	1.00

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed) *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed). IP= Intelligent Planning; WL=Willingness to learn; MP=Multiple personal identities; FS=Family support; LFS=Loyalty to family and school; SS=Spiritual strength; RA=Resiliency average; RP=Resiliency Reading PSAE; RM=Resiliency Math PSAE

Table 4*Correlation of Resiliency for Academic Success Variables for Hispanic Students (n = 82)*

Resiliency Character- istics	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	(RM) Math	(RP) Reading	RA	SS	LFS	FS	MP	WL	IP
Math PSAE	82	156.66	14.4									
Reading PSAE	82	157.68	13.5	.685**								
RA	82	3.10	.46	.050	.063							
SS	82	2.72	.75	-.181	-.102	.602**						
LFS	82	3.13	.54	.081	-.012	.724**	.428**					
FS	82	3.27	.46	.107	-.005	.731**	.216	.496**				
MP	82	3.10	.34	.087	.194	.679**	.139	.253**	.349**			
WL	82	3.17	.44	.128	.201	.510**	-.089	.108	.210**	.666**		
IP	82	3.24	.49	.198	.128	.535**	.231*	.548**	.422**	.250*	.167*	1.00

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed) *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed). IP= Intelligent Planning; WL=Willingness to learn; MP=Multiple personal identities; FS=Family support; LFS=Loyalty to family and school; SS=Spiritual strength; RA=Resiliency average; RP=Resiliency Reading PSAE; RM=Resiliency Math PSAE

Table 5*Correlation of Resiliency for Academic Success Variables for Black Students (n = 31)*

Resiliency Characteri stics	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	(RM) Math	(RP) Reading	RA	SS	LFS	FS	MP	WL	IP
Math PSAE	31	158.63	11.7									
Reading PSAE	31	157.27	13.3	.652**								
RA	31	3.13	.34	.040	.007							
SS	31	3.03	.62	-.164	-.018	.761**						
LFS	31	3.29	.39	-.278	-.236	.682**	.344					
FS	31	3.31	.49	.056	.051	.824**	.671**	.452*				
MP	31	2.74	1.4	.290	.127	.687**	.303	.331	.337			
WL	31	3.02	1.1	.129	-.150	.129	.110	.562**	.170	.562**		
IP	31	3.40	.46	.345*	.504*	.491**	.411*	.199	.599**	.270	-.126	1.00

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed) *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed). IP= Intelligent Planning; WL=Willingness to learn; MP=Multiple personal identities; FS=Family support; LFS=Loyalty to family and school; SS=Spiritual strength; RA=Resiliency average; RP=Resiliency Reading PSAE; RM=Resiliency Math PSAE

Prior to conducting one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), statistical assumptions were checked. The requirements of random sampling and mutual exclusivity of independent samples were met. Students in the sample were drawn from a distributed population from the five urban high schools in the study. As shown in Table 6, the second null hypothesis was rejected as there were differences in PSAE reading scores [$F(4, 271) = 3.80, p = .005$] but failed to be rejected for Math PSAE ($p > .05$). There was a significant difference among racial groups in Reading PSAE, but not in Math PSAE.

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations and One-Way Analyses of Variance in Academic Achievement for Racial Groups

Racial Groups	<i>White</i>		<i>Multi-racial</i>		<i>Hispanic</i>		<i>Black</i>		<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Reading PSAE	164.33	14.5	162.58	13.9	157.68	13.5	157.27	13.3	3.80	0.005	0.053
Math PSAE	162.38	14.8	160.42	14.3	156.66	14.4	158.63	11.7	1.80	0.129	0.025

*** $p < .05$

The null hypothesis for five Resiliency for Academic Success indicators were rejected: Intelligent Planning [$F(4, 345) = 2.94, p = .02$], Willingness to Learn a New Language and Culture [$F(4, 345) = 7.63, p = .00$], Ability to Use Multiple Personal Identities [$F(4, 345) = 10.73, p = .000$], Spiritual Strength [$F(4, 345) = 3.79, p = .01$], and Overall Resiliency [$F(4, 345) = 4.1, p = .00$]. However, the null hypothesis was failed to be rejected for two Resiliency for Academic Success indicators: Ability to Use Family Support During Crises [$F(4, 345) = 0.71, p = .59$] and Loyalty to Family/School [$F(4, 345) = 1.21, p = .32$].

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviations and One-Way Analyses of Variance in resiliency characteristics for Racial Groups and Academic Achievement

Racial Groups	<i>White</i>		<i>Multi-racial</i>		<i>Hispanic</i>		<i>Black</i>				
Resiliency Characteristics	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
Intelligent Planning	3.39	.43	3.31	.48	3.24	.49	3.4	.46	2.94	.02	.03
Willingness to Learn a New Language and Culture	2.89	.57	2.98	.49	3.17	.44	3.02	1.1	7.63	.00	.08
Ability to Use Multiple Personal Identities	2.77	.55	2.88	.47	3.10	.46	2.74	1.4	10.73	.00	.10
Ability to Use Family Support During Crises	3.32	.44	3.24	.47	3.27	.46	3.31	.49	0.71	.59	.01
Loyalty to Family/School	3.18	.55	3.21	.49	3.13	.54	3.29	.39	1.21	.32	.01
Spiritual Strength	2.51	.79	2.68	.79	2.72	.75	3.03	.62	3.79	.01	.04
Overall Resiliency	3.05	.30	3.02	.38	3.10	.34	3.13	.34	4.10	.00	.06

*** $p < .05$

Discussion

Resiliency for Academic Success indicators had limited impact on academic achievement among student racial groups. Based on the results from the data, there were three major findings in this research. First, White ($n = 136$) students in this study had significant differences in PSAT reading scores, and the Resiliency for Academic Success indicators of Ability to Use Multiple Personal Identities, and Willingness to Learn a New Language and Culture compared to Hispanic ($n = 82$) students. Second, White students ($n = 136$) had significant differences in Spiritual Strength compared to Black students ($n = 31$). A post hoc Tukey alpha analysis was used to determine if results were significantly

different. Post hoc Tukey is important because it may help find the mean differences among various groups (Allen, 2007). The third and final finding of this study is that multiracial ($n = 85$) students were not significantly different in academic achievement and resilience characteristics when compared to other student racial groups. It is essential to state there were differences that were excluded from this study based on the sample size of other student racial groups. Respondents identified as Native-Americans ($n = 17$) and Chinese Americans ($n = 23$) had too small a sample size to provide valid results because a sample size of 30 is sufficient or a standard rule in research (Pinelis, Carter & Wojton, 2018).

White ($n = 136$) students in this study had significant differences in PSAT reading scores, the Ability to Use Multiple Personal Identities, and Willingness to Learn a New Language and Culture when compared to Hispanic ($n = 82$) students. Trueba (2002) found Hispanic students may adapt and assimilate into a dominant white school culture by forming a new self-identity. This new identity provides them with the aptitude to achieve academically with the support of their family. The differences in the mean scores between White and Hispanic students are rational because White students had the highest mean scores in PSAT reading among all student racial groups, and the most significant difference was with Hispanic students. The reading achievement gap between White and Hispanic students begins in elementary school. As early as fourth grade, White fourth grade students score 19 points higher than Hispanics at the same grade level (de Brey et al., 2019).

The second important finding of the study was the difference between White and Black students with the resilience characteristic of Spiritual Strength. Scholars have

found that 87 percent of African Americans belong to a religious group, and 53 percent attend church at least once a week and pray once or more a day (Sahgal & Smith, 2009). According to this research, religion and spirituality are likely to play a role in the life of African Americans.

The third relevant finding of the research discovered that multiracial students were not significantly different from other student racial groups. This study did not investigate the hardships urban high school students endure, specifically Blacks, Hispanics, and multiracial children. The literature in this study provided research examining the adversity multiracial students may experience in a school setting (Howard, 2018). The investigator made an assumption based on personal, professional, and existing research that multiracial students experience unique challenges in school because of racial ambiguity (Howard, 2018). Also, it was assumed that multiracial students would overcome this adversity by applying Resiliency for Academic Success indicators in their daily school experiences. In this research, students identified their specific racial groups. Specifically, students self-identified their race, as well as the racial group of their parents and grandparents. The research revealed the majority, 74 out of 85, or 67 percent of multiracial students in this study had one parent who identified as White. Also, multiracial students were the only student group to have weak positive correlations between “loyalty to school and family and the wisdom to pursue academic excellence with the love and support of teachers and parents” and PSAT reading and math scores (Trueba, 2002 p. 3). Based on the academic performance data of multiracial students ($n = 85$) in this study, it appears these students may not experience some of the challenges highlighted in the literature. These include racism, bigotry, or racial identity questions.

Furthermore, if multiracial students ($n = 85$) have experienced these adverse hardships or experiences, they may have formed a "psychological resilience," which supports them in overcoming any negative experiences in school (Binning, Unzueta, Huo, & Molina, 2009, p. 44).

It is possible to infer that multiracial students in this sample may possess "cultural capital" similar to White students (Trueba, 2004, p. 87). Research by Wallace (2004) provided a real insight into multiracial families and the school experiences of students identifying with two or more racial groups. Wallace (2004) suggests that multiracial students may come from stable and "comfortable" families that provide their children with activities and opportunities more consistent with the "dominant culture" (p. 66). Wallace's (2004) research demonstrates multiracial students may experience favorable school and life outcomes when they are from a family with resources and social capital. Families and communities having resources for their children may foster increased levels of social capital for students (Firestone & Riehl, 2005). Herman's (2004) study states multiracial students may have "differential opportunities" or more advantages when compared to single-race students of color. Multiracial students may gain acceptance with peers belonging to two different racial groups, which may allow them to socialize with other diverse students (Herman, 2004; Quillian & Redd, 2009). Research by Binning, Unzueta, Huo, and Ludwin (2009) found when multiracial students identify with both racial groups, they are typically more positive, social, and emotionally adjusted.

Implications.

This study provides insight that Resiliency for Academic Success may support students from all racial backgrounds, but does not guarantee any transference to academic

achievement. This study did not measure specific challenges urban high school students ($N = 377$) endure daily, as well as what external indicators challenge their well-being and school experiences. However, research demonstrates that 46% of children experience at least one negative or adverse experience (Sacks, Murphey, & Moore, 2014). These Adverse Childhood Experiences are outlined below:

1. Reside with a divorced or separated parent
2. Experienced a parent or guardian death
3. Reside with parent or guardian that went to jail or prison
4. Reside with an adult that is mentally ill or depressed
5. Reside with a person with an alcohol or drug addiction
6. Observed adult to adult violence (hitting, punching, slapping, biting)
7. Experienced some sort of financial hardship, which resulted in a loss of food or shelter (Sacks, Murphey & Moore, 2014).

Educational leaders and legislators continue to pursue solutions to the challenges students encounter that may impact their academic achievement. The achievement gap remains a consistent theme in our nation's schools, and the research suggests resiliency characteristics may benefit all students regardless of race or ethnicity. Resiliency characteristics may not directly close the achievement gap among high school students, but teaching students how to overcome risk indicators such as "poverty, limited access to supportive services," and/or abusive relationships will improve life outcomes (Fenzel & Richardson, 2019, p. 5). Urban school principals may consider collaborating with

teachers to create professional development opportunities focusing on strengthening staff and student relationships. Brooms (2019) found in his study that teacher-student links are critical to academic success. Furthermore, Brooms (2019) states that a positive relationship increases students' perceptions of their "academic ability and trajectory" of academic performance. Principals that create a collaborative culture and provide opportunities for staff and students to communicate and build trust may not only foster resiliency but change the trajectory of a student's life (Leithwood, 2005; Trueba, 2002).

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Appendix

All survey questions are based on Trueba's (2002) Emic Model of Resiliency for the Transformation of the Self Framework.

Resiliency Survey for Academic Success	SA	A	D	SD
Directions: For each of the statements below, please circle one answer to show whether you: Strongly Agree (S/A), Agree (A), Disagree (D) or Strongly Disagree (SD) *** Student School I.D. Code _____				
1. I am a high achieving student				
2. I am committed to learning about a culture different than my own				
3. I am able to understand and relate to other people				
4. When depressed I am able to get help from someone in my family				
5. I am loyal to my school				
6. I trust that a higher power has a plan for my life				
7. I desire to be successful in school				
8. I am able to effectively communicate verbally with people from a different culture				
9. I am able to interact with people from a culture different than my own				
10. I consider myself mentally strong				
11. My family regularly attends religious ceremonies together				
12. I am able to make rational decisions and plan for my future				
13. I am able to speak a language other than my own				

14. I have participated in other cultural group(s) in a social setting or classroom				
15. I have a supportive network of friends				
16. My teachers care about me and want me to succeed in school				
17. My family spiritual beliefs enhance my loyalty to friends, school, and teachers				
18. I am motivated to accomplish major and long term life goals				
19. I have friends from a different culture that speak a different language				
20. I interact with others by speaking a language other than my native (own) language				
21. My family and friends support me in a crisis				
22. My parents want me to succeed in school and care about me				
23. My spiritual beliefs help me make the right decisions				
24. I am willing to wait for things that I want				
25. . My peers believe that I have effective communication skills				
26. My family practices cultural traditions in our home as well as speak our native language				
27. My family has honest conversations about our lives				
28. I am a dedicated and excellent student				
29. I help my family members when they are in a crisis				

Part II. Student/Family Information Background

30. Was your father born in the U.S.?	Yes	No			
31. Was your mother born in the U.S.?	Yes	No			
32. Describe your <u>father's</u> racial background. (You may circle more than one race).	White	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Hispanic	Native- American
33. Describe your <u>mother's</u> racial background. (You may circle more than one race).	White	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Hispanic	Native- American
34. Describe your <u>grandfather's</u> racial background. (You may circle more than one race).	White	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Hispanic	Native- American
35. Describe your <u>grandmother's</u> racial background. (You may circle more than one race).	White	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Hispanic	Native- American
36. Describe your racial background (You may circle more than one).	White	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Hispanic	Native- American