TENNESSEE EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

A Peer-Reviewed Journal of the TASCD

INVITATION TO SUBMIT MANUSCRIPTS

Tennessee Educational Leadership (*TEL*) is a peer-reviewed journal intended to communicate information, ideas, theoretical formulations, and research findings related to leadership, supervision, curriculum, and instruction. Starting with Volume 43, *TEL* will appear in an online format with national open availability. Distribution will include Tennessee Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (TASCD) members and others with an interest in supervision/leadership, curriculum development, and instruction at both the university and school-based levels. The journal is nonthematic and aims to promote discussion of a broad range of concepts, theories, issues, and dissemination of the knowledge base for professionals in education.

STYLE

Authors should format their manuscripts according to the APA (7th edition). Number all pages, but please do not include a running head. Authors should use the tab key instead of spaces to standardize the format of paragraphs. Use the hanging indent feature of Word on your references page rather than using tabs or spaces. Finally, place tables, charts, and figures at an appropriate place in the body of the text rather than at the end of your document.

LENGTH

Manuscripts, including references, tables, charts, and figures should not exceed 15 pages; however, we recognize that the length of articles varies according to topics.

COVER PAGE

Include the title of the manuscript, date of submission, author's name, email address, biographical information that identifies the author's title, institutional affiliation, and areas of research interest (30 words per author) as well as a statement indicating the manuscript is not under consideration nor has it been published elsewhere.

ABSTRACT

A concise, 100-word, double-spaced narrative should be included at the beginning of the manuscript.

REVIEW PROCESS

Authors will receive acknowledgment regarding receipt of their submission. Manuscripts that meet TEL specifications will be peer-reviewed. Except for the cover page, TEL requires that you omit any identifying information to ensure a blind review.

SUBMISSIONS

Authors should email a Microsoft Word version of the manuscript to Dr. Joanna Zimmerle, zimmerlej@apsu.edu. In the subject line, include TEL Journal Submission.

Table of Contents

Rural Preservice Teachers' Perceptions of Twitter as a Professional Tool — Page 5
Joanna C. Zimmerle

Summarizing the High School Department Chair's Role — Page 16
Adam I. Attwood

Professional Development: Implications for Title Teachers — Page 22
Rachel Martin & Aarek Farmer

Time, Patience, and Acculturation: Essential Elements for Working With Culturally and Linguistically Diverse and Immigrant Students and Their Families — Page 36
Eric Lopez

Spanish Immersion School at Barksdale Elementary: A Proactive Response to the Majority Language Shift in America — Page 41
Nicolette Rougemont

Book Review: Marietta, G., & Marietta, S. (2020). Rural education in America: What works for our students, teachers, and communities. Harvard Education Press — Page 51
Clifford Davis Jr.

The *TEL* Journal is a peer-reviewed publication of the Tennessee Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The mission of the *TEL* Journal is the communication of information, ideas, theoretical formulations, and research findings related to leadership, supervision, curriculum, and instruction. The authors' points of view are not necessarily reflective of the association or journal editors. Authors are responsible for the accuracy of the information and legal use of all materials within their manuscripts.

Rural Preservice Teachers' Perceptions of Twitter as a Professional Tool

Joanna Zimmerle Austin Peay State University

The growing teacher shortage, relatively high new teacher attrition rates, and challenges of teaching in rural schools call for innovative methods of preparing rural preservice teachers to work in rural schools. Twitter has demonstrated potential as an innovative professional tool in teacher education, yet Twitter use with rural preservice teachers is relatively unstudied. This paper investigates the professional use of Twitter by rural preservice teachers ($N = 36$) in three sections of an instructional technology course taught by the author. At the end of the semester, participants completed an optional and anonymous survey on the utility of Twitter. The majority of participants rated Twitter as useful for accessing educational resources, directing professional development, and finding a supportive community, and most indicated they intended to continue using Twitter as a professional tool in the future. Guidelines for teacher educators who wish to use Twitter with rural preservice teachers are also presented.

There is a growing teacher shortage in the United States as fewer students complete teacher preparation programs (Garcia & Weiss, 2019). Adding to the teacher shortage, about one in five new teachers quit the profession within the first five years of teaching (Gray, Taie, & Rear, 2015). Rural schools are particularly struck by new teacher attrition; work stress from inadequate curricular resources, professional development, and support can be more pronounced in rural than urban and suburban areas (Aud et al., 2011; Ingersoll et al., 2014).

Rural schools have their share of strengths as well as challenges. On the one hand, rural schools offer small class sizes (Monk, 2007), high levels of autonomy and work satisfaction (Quirk & Spiegelman, 2018), and high levels of parent involvement (Chalker, 2002; Droe, 2015). On the other hand, rural schools face significant challenges such as limited resources and funding (Knoblauch & Chase, 2015; Miller, 2012) as well as difficulties meeting diverse students' needs, including English language learners and students with special needs (Lowe, 2006).

Preparing rural preservice teachers for the realities of rural education falls on teacher educators. As a teacher educator of instructional technology courses, the author has searched for innovative ways to better prepare rural preservice teachers for the work that lies ahead. The purpose of this study was to understand the potential of Twitter as a professional tool and how it might be incorporated into teacher education for rural preservice teachers. During one semester, the author developed several Twitter assignments in three instructional technology courses. Following these assignments, participants took an optional and anonymous survey. The author analyzed survey data and considered how rural preservice teachers viewed the utility of Twitter as a professional tool and participants' intentions to use it for professional purposes in the future.

Literature Review

Rural education scholars assert preparing preservice teachers to work in rural schools is not the focus of most education preparation programs (EPPs) (Barley, 2009; Barley & Brigham, 2008; McDonough, Gildersleeve, & Jarsky, 2010). Moffa and McHenry-Sorber (2018) advocate for teacher educators to closely examine and question the narratives of rural teaching in the literature in order to effectively train rural preservice teachers, yet literature concerning rural teaching and learning is often focused

only on the challenges of or exaggerates and reinforces stereotypes in, rural schools (Burton et al., 2013). Social media such as Twitter offers rural preservice teachers a chance to explore the narratives of rural teaching in real-time as they communicate with and learn from rural educators and rural education supporters.

Theoretical Perspective

Communities of Practice (CoP) afford opportunities for groups of people who are interested in a topic to deepen and extend their knowledge in that area by interacting on an ongoing basis (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Twitter allows for the formation of CoPs that specialize in educational topics. For example, preservice teachers can tweet or direct message rural educators and rural education supporters to ask questions, seek help, and share information on rural education matters. In addition, popular hashtags such as #MyRuralAdvantage and #IAmARuralTeacher can be followed, shared, and discussed by members of the CoP, allowing rural preservice teachers an opportunity to engage in professional learning in ways that might not be possible in traditional teacher education settings where they mostly interact with their instructors, classmates, and one or two cooperating teachers. Thus, CoP via Twitter has the potential to provide rural preservice teachers with a large and diverse professional learning community that will offer insights into teaching and learning in rural schools.

Twitter in Teacher Education

A review of the literature concerning professional Twitter use in teacher education shows a profound gap in the area of preparing rural preservice teachers to teach in rural schools. To date, just one study reported on using Twitter with rural preservice teachers. Luo et al. (2016) studied the perceptions of 46 preservice teachers at a rural university in the Midwest who used educational Twitter chats as a means of developing their personal learning networks (PLNs). In a post-survey, a majority of participants reported the chat experience to be enjoyable and rewarding. Students also reported they gained access to a plethora of resources, information, and advice from other educators during the chats. Over half of the participants considered Twitter chats useful and intended to continue participating in them in the future (Luo et al., 2016).

Previous findings in which preservice teachers' perceptions were studied without specifying their geographical classification or preference indicate Twitter is an effective way to access resources such as links to websites and curricular materials such as lesson plans and other online activities (Carpenter, 2015; Krutka, 2014; Young & Kraut, 2011). Similarly, Mills (2014) found preservice teachers held positive attitudes about using Twitter as a professional development tool in a teacher education course. Over 90% of the 35 participants reported the following tweets related to pedagogy, classroom management, and other educational topics of interest that were either somewhat or extremely helpful as a professional development tool.

In addition to providing access to resources and professional development, Twitter supports preservice teachers by strengthening connections with classmates, instructors, and other educators and offering opportunities for reflection and collaboration (Benko et al., 2013; Johnson, 2016; Krutka, 2014; Lin et al., 2013; Wright, 2010). Wright (2010) further demonstrated Twitter use during student teaching helped mitigate feelings of isolation and stress for preservice teachers.

Although these findings have demonstrated positive outcomes, researchers have noted some participants were skeptical or dismissive of Twitter as a tool for professional learning and support (Carpenter, 2015; Kruta, 2014). Thus, teacher educators must take care in

scaffolding and implementing Twitter in teacher education. This study seeks to provide guidance for using Twitter with rural preservice teachers who will likely teach in rural schools based on the author's experience using Twitter with participants in three instructional technology courses.

Context

The context for the study was a liberal public university located in an urban city in the southeastern United States. The university has a moderately diverse student population with more than 11,000 total students who identify as Caucasian (63%), African American (20%), Hispanic (6%), two or more ethnicities (6%), unknown (3%), or Asian (2%).

Many teacher education students at this university are local and plan to obtain jobs in the same or a nearby partner district. Although the university is located in an urban area of the county, other parts of the county are rural; additionally, five of the university's eight surrounding partner districts are rural, and the state in which it is located is considered rural. Thus, many preservice teachers enrolled in education programs at the university attended rural schools themselves and are receptive to teaching in rural schools.

Method

The participants were 36 rural preservice teachers enrolled across three sections of a required instructional technology course for education majors at a public university in the southeastern United States. Participants indicated they had attended rural K-12 schools and were receptive to teaching in rural schools. Of the 36 participating students, 61.1% indicated they preferred to teach elementary grades, 16.7% preferred to teach middle school, and 27.8% preferred to teach high school. Students were required to complete assigned coursework related to using Twitter but were informed of the voluntary and anonymous nature of the post-survey they could elect to take outside of

Purpose

Given that the current teacher shortage (Garcia & Weiss, 2019) and high levels of new teacher attrition (Gray et al., 2015) exacerbate the difficulty rural districts already have in retaining effective teachers (Aud et al., 2011; Ingersoll et al., 2014), preservice teachers must be well-prepared for the challenging work of teaching in rural schools. A literature review demonstrates that using Twitter with rural preservice teachers may be one effective tool in rural teacher preparation. The purpose of this survey-based study was to understand rural preservice teachers' perceptions of the usefulness of Twitter and was guided by two research questions:

1. What are rural preservice teachers' perceptions of the usefulness of Twitter as a professional learning tool?
2. Do rural preservice teachers plan to continue using Twitter for professional purposes when it is no longer a course requirement?

class in order to help the author determine the usefulness of the Twitter assignments.

A five-item, researcher-developed Google Forms survey was constructed based on the literature review of the usefulness of Twitter as a professional tool for preservice teachers. The first item captured data regarding preservice teachers' preferred grade level to teach. The following three items addressed the professional utility of Twitter using a Likert scale, with a rating of 1 corresponding to *not useful* and 5 corresponding to *very useful*. The final item addressed how often participants planned to use Twitter after the course ended and included four choices: not applicable, often (at least once a day or several times a week), occasionally (once a week or once a month), or rarely (less than once a month).

The author, who was the instructor of the courses, scaffolded Twitter use with students and required participation in Twitter assignments as part of the course throughout the semester. Students were shown how to create professional Twitter accounts; find users who are educators, educational organizations, vendors, or other supporters; tweet and retweet content, search for information using popular educational hashtags, and participate in educational Twitter chats. Students were required to do the following:

- Create a Twitter account with a professional username, bio, and profile photo.
- Follow at least 20 Twitter accounts related to education, such as in-service educators or educational supporters.
- Participate in three Twitter chats hosted by the course instructor. A minimum of five original tweets and two replies to classmates were required.
- Participate in one Twitter chat not hosted by the course instructor. A minimum of two tweets (one original post and one reply to another user) was required.
- Write a reflection about their experience in the Twitter chat in which they participated that was not hosted by the course instructor.

Although these activities were required for the course, students were informed that participation in the survey at the end of the semester was completely anonymous, voluntary, and not for a grade. Students who previously self-identified as having been taught in rural K-12 schools and were receptive to teaching in rural schools themselves were emailed a link to the survey and asked to participate in order to help the instructor determine the usefulness of the Twitter assignments. Survey responses were analyzed using descriptive statistics via Google Forms analysis metrics.

Findings

The first research question sought to determine rural preservice teachers' perceptions of the usefulness of Twitter as a professional learning tool (see Table 1). Respondents rated the usefulness of Twitter to the following items:

1. How useful was Twitter in giving you access to resources such as links to educational websites, lesson plans, or other materials that could help you plan for better instruction and assessments?
2. How useful was Twitter in helping you develop new knowledge and skills related to teaching and learning?
3. How useful was Twitter in helping you feel supported by classmates, teachers, or other education professionals on Twitter?

Overall, participants responded positively regarding the usefulness of Twitter: 30 (83.3%) respondents rated Twitter as moderately to very useful for both accessing resources and helping them direct their own PD. Positive responses were also given by 35 (97.2%) respondents who rated Twitter as moderately to very useful for being supported by the education community while using Twitter.

Table 1
*Rural Preservice Teachers' Perceptions of the Usefulness of Twitter (*N = *36)*

Item	% (n)
How useful was Twitter in giving you access to resources such as links to educational websites, lesson plans, or other materials that could help you plan for better instruction and assessments?	
5 — very useful	
4 — quite useful	11.1 (4)
3 — moderately useful	38.9 (14)
2 — somewhat useful	33.3 (12)
1 — not useful	11.1 (4)
	5.6 (2)
How useful was Twitter in helping you develop new knowledge and skills related to teaching and learning?	
5 — very useful	8.3 (3)
4 — quite useful	36.1 (13)
3 — moderately useful	38.9 (14)
2 — somewhat useful	11.1 (4)
1 — not useful	5.6 (2)
How useful was Twitter in helping you feel supported by classmates, teachers, or other education professionals on Twitter?	
5 — very useful	36.1 (13)
4 — quite useful	38.9 (14)
3 — moderately useful	22.2 (8)
2 — somewhat useful	2.8 (1)
1 — not useful	0 (0)

The second research question sought to determine rural preservice teachers' intentions for the future use of Twitter as a professional learning tool after its use was no longer required by the course instructor. Respondents rated the likelihood of their continued use of Twitter as a professional tool by responding to the following question: After this course ends, how often do you estimate you will use Twitter for professional purposes?

As shown in Table 2, three-quarters of all respondents indicated they planned to use Twitter occasionally or often even after the course ended, and participation was no longer required for a grade. Nine respondents (25%) indicated they rarely or never intended to use Twitter in the future. Despite these optimistic intentions, one year after the course ended, only 12%, or just three students, continued using their Twitter accounts for professional purposes.

Table 2
*Rural Preservice Teachers' Intentions to Use Twitter in the Future (*N = *36)*

Item	% (n)
After this course ends, how often do you estimate you will use Twitter for professional purposes?	
Often: At least once a day or several times a week.	22.2 (8)
Occasionally: Once a week or once a month.	52.8 (19)
Rarely: Less than once a month.	11.1 (4)
Not applicable: I do not plan to continue using Twitter for professional purposes.	13.9 (5)

Discussion

According to the results of the survey, rural preservice teachers perceived Twitter as useful in providing them with access to teaching resources, professional development, and support. Participants were not limited to their existing networks but interacted with educators in rural areas worldwide. This study's results are consistent with previous findings (Benko et al., 2013; Carpenter, 2015; Johnson, 2016; Krutka, 2014; Lin et al., 2013; Luo et al., 2016; Mills, 2014; Wright, 2010; Young & Kraut, 2011), suggesting Twitter is not only effective with preservice teachers who do not specify a geographical classification or preference but those who specifically wish to teach in rural communities as well. EPPs that utilize Twitter in coursework may improve rural preservice teachers' access to resources, PD opportunities, and feelings of support, which may arguably help alleviate some of the issues causing high new teacher attrition.

The most significant finding from this study is preservice teachers feel supported by the online community found on Twitter. All but one respondent rated Twitter as moderately to very useful in helping them feel supported by classmates, teachers, or other education professionals on Twitter. This support may be beneficial in helping reduce feelings of work stress related to isolation and lack of support when preservice teachers obtain licensure and transition to their teaching placements (Aud et al., 2011; Ingersoll et al., 2014).

Although most participants intended to continue using Twitter after the course ended, most did not. Anecdotally, a lack of time is the reason preservice teachers abandon their professional social media accounts. This finding aligns with Krutka and Damico's (2020) findings, indicating social media use tends not to persist among preservice teachers after it is no longer a course requirement, despite participants' initial acknowledgment of its apparent professional utility.

Table 3

Limitations

The limitations of the study include sample and context, which limit generalizations. It is also important to acknowledge the author was the instructor of the participants in this study, which may have influenced the participants' perceptions and their responses to the survey. In addition, the study did not include qualitative data, which could improve understanding of rural preservice teachers' perceptions of the usefulness of Twitter for professional purposes.

Another limitation of this study is the fleeting popularity of social media that may influence the utility of Twitter as a professional tool for rural preservice teachers in the future. This study should be examined as a snapshot of Twitter use by rural preservice teachers during a brief window of time.

Implications

Despite the limitations of this study, the findings support rural preservice teachers' use of Twitter while in EPPs. Teacher educators may find Twitter to be an innovative, effective tool for preparing rural preservice teachers for the challenges of teaching in rural schools. It is free and easily accessible from any Internet-connected device. Twitter is already popular among young adults (Perrin & Anderson, 2019).

Instructors who design Twitter assignments for rural preservice teachers should focus on scaffolding Twitter use, as shown in the guidelines offered for teacher educators in Table 3 (Zimmerle & Lambert, 2019). These guidelines include activities for finding and sharing online curricular resources, engaging in self-directed PD, and connecting with other educators for support.

Guidelines for Using Twitter to Support Rural Preservice Teachers

Model for Preservice Teachers	Actions to Take	Examples
Find and share online curricular resources according to your desired content area(s) and/or grade level.	Check your news feed regularly for new content that is applicable to your desired subject(s) and grade level.	• Research interesting resources that others have tweeted. • Like or retweet relevant professional content.
	Create Twitter lists to curate news feeds according to different topics in which you are interested.	• A list of rural educators and supporters. • A list of content area experts related to your desired field. • A list of educational technology experts. • A list of community businesses in your desired teaching location.
Engage in self-directed professional development to develop pedagogy and keep current.	Search for specific keywords or hashtags.	• Popular rural education hashtags include: ○ #RuralEd ○ #RuralEdChat ○ #MyRuralAdvantage ○ #IAmARuralTeacher • Content-area-specific hashtags, such as #Math or #Reading. • Grade-level hashtags, such as #fourthgrade or #4thgrade. • Educational technology, such as #edtech.
	Tweet your questions to other users. Use @ in front of their Twitter username so they will be notified of your tweet.	• Ask rural teachers and principals questions about their communities, curriculum, students, etc., to learn more about teaching in rural areas.
	Create or take a poll.	• Create a poll on a topic of interest to you, such as, "How many Internet-connected devices do students have access to in your #ruraled classroom?" • Participate in polls generated by other users to provide your input.
	Tweet content from other sources.	• Blogs or other websites. • Pinterest, Instagram, or other social media. • Podcasts.
Connect with other educators for mentorship and support.	Develop your Personal Learning Network (PLN).	• Follow classmates, instructors, and administrators in your Teacher Education program. • Follow users related to rural education, such as: ○ @IAARTCampaign, I Am a Rural Teacher. ○ @NREA, National Rural Education Association. ○ @Rural_Schools, Rural Schools Collaborative. ○ @RuralEd, John White, Former Deputy Assistant Secretary for Rural Outreach at U.S. Department of Education. ○ @RuralEdCenter, National Center for Research on Rural Education. ○ @RuralEdNews, Twitter Account of the Rural Education SIG of AERA.

	• Examine the Following lists of users whom you admire and determine if they include other users you would like to follow.
Participate in or start your own Twitter chats.	• An official Education Chats list may be accessed at https://sites.google.com/site/twittereducationchats/education-chat-calendar. • There is one currently active chat focused on rural education. #RuralEdChat is held on Tuesdays at 4:30 PM PST/8:30 PM EST and is currently moderated by Matt McKee, @try_rebooting. • There is one currently active chat for preservice teachers. #FutureTchat is held on Tuesdays at 6:00 PM EDT and is currently moderated by preservice teachers using the handle @chat_future.
Tweet and retweet other users' professional content.	• When you develop or find a good idea or resource, share it through a tweet. • Include relevant hashtags and usernames to enable other users to find your tweets. • When you retweet, give credit to the original user by including RT in front of their username.
Use Twitter as a networking tool.	• Tweet or direct message users such as principals with your requests for interviews and job opportunities. • Tweet or direct message users with whom you would like to collaborate on research, grants, publishing, or presenting.

Note. *Adapted from "Globally Connected: Using Twitter to Support Rural Preservice Teachers,"* by Zimmerle & Lambert, 2019, *Theory & Practice in Rural Education*, *9*(1), 91-104.

As the findings of previous studies, the majority of the preservice teachers were positive regarding Twitter coursework, and most intended to continue using Twitter for professional purposes in the future (Krutka, 2014; Wright, 2010; Young & Kraut, 2011). Although instructors who assign Twitter usage often believe or hope preservice teachers will continue to utilize Twitter after the course ends, this is not often the case (Krutka & Damico, 2020). In fact, just one year after the course ended, only three participants from the present study were still using their Twitter accounts for professional purposes. Krutka and Damico (2020) advocate for teacher educators to design Twitter activities that directly pertain to preservice teachers in the present and not assume they will continue using Twitter when it is no longer assigned.

Future research should examine what causes rural preservice teachers to continue or discontinue using Twitter when they graduate and begin their first few years of teaching. Other studies may also focus on how maintaining a Twitter CoP impacts work stress and new teacher attrition among rural educators. Research might also follow rural educators who utilize Twitter for professional purposes to determine how those experiences impact their teaching effectiveness.

Conclusion

The challenge of teaching in rural schools necessitates preservice teachers who are prepared for limited resources and support. Teacher educators should consider utilizing Twitter with rural preservice teachers to equip them with free, convenient access to curricular resources, professional development, and support from rural educators and others.

Given the growing research suggesting its effectiveness as a professional tool, Twitter benefits rural preservice teachers who plan to teach in rural communities. Rather than relying upon college coursework and limited clinical experiences alone, Twitter's ability to connect rural preservice teachers with materials and

rural educators and supporters recommends it as a professional tool for rural preservice teachers with great potential.

References

Aud, S., Hussar, W., Kena, G., Bianco, K., Frolich, L., Kemp, J., & Tahan, K. (2011). The Condition of Education 2011. U.S. Department of Education. Washington DC: National Centre for Education Statistics.

Barley, Z. A. (2009). Preparing teachers for rural appointments: Lessons from the mid-continent. *Rural Educator, 30*(3), 10-15. https://doi.org/10.35608/ruraled.v30i3.444.

Barley, Z. A., & Brigham, N. (2008). Preparing teachers to teach in rural schools (Issues & Answers Report, REL 2008-No. 045). Institute of Education Sciences website: http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs/regions/central/pdf/REL_2008045.pdf

Benko, S. L., Guise, M., Earl, C. E., & Gill, W. (2016). More than social media: Using Twitter with preservice teachers as a means of reflection and engagement in communities of practice. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education, 16*(1), 1-21.

Burton, M., Brown, K., & Johnson, A. (2013). Storylines about rural teachers in the United States: A narrative analysis of the literature. *Journal of Research in Rural Education, 28*(12), 1-18. http://sites.psu.edu/jrre/wpcontent/uploads/sites/6347/2014/02/28-12.pdf

Carpenter, J. (2015). Preservice teachers' microblogging: Professional development via Twitter. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education, 15*(2), 209-234. https://www.learntechlib.org/p/147418/

Chalker, D. M. (2002). *Leadership for rural schools: Lessons for all educators*. Lanham, MD: The Scarecrow Press.

Droe, K. L. (2015). Investigating parent and teacher perceptions of school, family, and community connectedness. *Contributions to Music Education, 40*, 57-70.

Garcia, E., & Weiss, E. (2019). U.S. schools struggle to hire and retain teachers. https://www.epi.org/publication/u-s-schools-struggle-to-hire-and-retain-teachers-the-second-report-in-the-perfect-storm-in-the-teacher-labor-market-series/

Gray, L., Taie, S., & Rear, I. (2015). *Public school teacher attrition and mobility in the first five years: Results from the first through fifth waves of the 2007-08 beginning teacher longitudinal study.* (NCES 2015-337). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Ingersoll, R., Merrill, L., & Stuckey, D. (2014, April). *Seven trends: The transformation of the teaching force*. Consortium for Policy Research in Education, University of Pennsylvania. http://www.cpre.org/sites/default/files/workingpapers/1506_7trendsapril2014.pdf

Johnson, K. (2016). Professional Twitter for preservice teachers: Getting started with a professional presence on social media. In *Proceedings of EdMedia 2016—World Conference on Educational Media and Technology* (pp. 761-763). Vancouver, BC, Canada: Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE).

Knoblauch, D., & Chase, M. A. (2015). Rural, suburban, and urban schools: The impact of school setting on the efficacy beliefs and attributions of student teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 45*, 104–114.

Krutka, D. G. (2014). Social media as a catalyst for convergence culture: Immersing preservice social studies teachers in the social media terrain. In W. B. Russell (Ed.), *Digital social studies* (pp. 271-302). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Krutka, D. G., & Damico, N. (2020). Should we ask students to tweet?: Perceptions, patterns, and problems of assigned social media participation. Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education, 20(1), 142-175. https://www.learntechlib.org/primary/p/210431/

Lave, J., & Wegner, B. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation.* Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Lin, S. Y., Isernhagen, J., Scherz, S., & Denner, P. R. (2014). Rural educator perceptions of parent involvement in public schools: Perspectives from three states. *Rural Educator, 26*(1), 40-56.

Lowe, J. M. (2006). Rural education: Attracting and retaining teachers in small schools. *Rural Educator, 27*(2), 28–32.

Luo, T., Sickel, J., & Cheng, L. (2017). Preservice teachers' participation and perceptions of Twitter live chats as personal learning networks. *Tech Trends 61*(3), 226-235. doi: 10.1007/s11528-016-0137-1

McDonough, P. M., Gildersleeve, R. E., & Jarsky, K. M. (2010). The golden cage of rural college access: How higher education can respond to the rural life. In Schafft, K. A., & Jackson, A. Y. (Eds.). Rural education for the twenty-first century: Identity, place, and community in a globalizing world (pp. 191-209). State College, PA: Penn State Press.

Miller, L. C. (2012). Situating the rural teacher labor market in the broader context: A descriptive analysis of the market dynamics in New York state. *Journal of Research in Rural Education, 27*(13), 1-31. http://jrre.psu.edu/articles/27-13.pdf.

Mills, M. (2014). Effect of faculty members' use of Twitter as informal professional development during a preservice teacher internship. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education, 14*(4). https://www.citejournal.org/volume-14/issue-4-14/current-practice/effect-of-faculty-members-use-of-twitter-as-informal-professional-development-during-a-preservice-teacher-internship/

Moffa, E. D., & McHenry-Sorber, E. (2018). Learning to be rural: Lessons about being rural in teacher education programs. *Rural Educator, 39*(1), 26-40.

Monk, D. (2007). Recruiting and retaining high-quality teachers in rural areas. *The Future of Children, 17*, 155–174.

Perrin, A., & Anderson, M. (2019). Share of U.S. adults using social media, including Facebook, is mostly unchanged since 2018. https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2019/04/10/share-of-u-s-adults-using-social-media-including-facebook-is-mostly-unchanged-since-2018/

Quirk, A., & Spiegelman, M. (2018). Public school principals' perceptions of influence by school level and community type. National Center for

Education Statistics. https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2018/2018014.pdf

Wright, N. (2010). Twittering in teacher education: Reflecting on practicum experiences. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open and Distance Learning, 25*(3), 259-265.

Young, C. and Kraut, N. (2011). Proceedings of Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference 2011: *Repurposing social networking tools for the classroom: An examination of Twitter's potential for enhancing ELA content knowledge.* Chesapeake, VA: Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education.

Zimmerle, J. C., & Lambert, C. (2019). Globally connected: Using Twitter with rural preservice teachers. *Theory and Practice in Rural Education, 9*(1), 91-104. https://doi.org/10.3776/tpre.2019.v9n1p91-104

Dr. Zimmerle is an associate professor and coordinator of the instructional technology master's program at Austin Peay State University. She serves as an editor of the TEL Journal.

Summarizing the High School Department Chair's Role in Teacher Leadership

Adam I. Attwood Austin Peay State University

Department leaders are crucial to the effective operation of the instructional mission of high schools. While there appears to be a consensus on the primary role of a high school department leader/chair as an instructional leader, there are many variations on how that primary role is implemented and supported depending on the local context of the school administration.

The high school department chair—lead teacher, team lead, department coordinator, or similar teacher leadership title—is often in a position that is more than a teacher ("first among equals") but often not classified as an administrator. Their management responsibilities can overlap with an assistant principal. The role of a high school department chair, then, is often an in-between position with "growing expectations for distributed leadership practice in schools" (DeAngelis, 2013, p. 107).

There is wide variability in the official responsibilities of high school department chairs depending on the school. Some may have official evaluation authority over their teacher colleagues and write an annual evaluation that goes in their personnel file. Additionally, some have a budget that they have the authority to manage. Some have the authority of department curriculum, while others may advise but not have the authority to change curriculum. The list goes on about how much responsibility a high school department chair is delegated from the school administrators. Such a role, then, is situated as a potential first step toward the administrative track—but this varies by school depending on the definition of responsibilities given to a department lead. At some schools, the department chair has considerable authority as an instructional leader over their department and operationally mid-level managers under the principal, while at other schools, the department chair has more of a communications and advisory role. The roles and conceptualizations of the high school department chair are summarized and discussed in this paper to provide a concise discussion of this important teacher leadership position that needs current additions to the literature on this topic when considering the changes schools have faced since 2020.

Department Leadership

The high school department chair has been characterized as a teacher leader, not as an administrator. This important distinction communicates how department chairs are a designated authority within the department but not beyond that department. However, role ambiguity can increase when the reporting structure is itself ambiguous. While the high school department chair may technically report to the principal, it may be the case that the principal has delegated oversight to an assistant principal to lead the department chairs (Ghamrawi, 2013). This may be more likely at larger high schools and if the assistant principal is deemed highly effective in their role and seen as a potential successor to the principal or on the internal promotion track (Bartanen, Rogers, & Woo, 2021). Frequently, the principal's perception of which teachers are most likely to be effective as department leaders is based on evaluations of teaching and perceived collegiality with administrators (Lomascolo, 2016). Authority over more than one department would suggest an administrator

designation, and so, the term *teacher leader* is often used to categorize the role of the department chair, but at a rank below the administrator category. This in-between, ambiguous status can present challenges and opportunities unique to the role of the department chair (Gaubatz & Ensminger, 2015; Mayers & Zepeda, 2002; Zepeda & Kruskamp, 2007).

The high school department chair has some unique opportunities given its in-between status. As Peacock (2014) noted: "Department chair leadership is highly context-dependent and is influenced by chairs' experience and personal qualities, teacher characteristics, departmental cohesion and shared vision, leadership approach, subject-related issues, school administration, school and community contexts." (p. 37). This is consistent with what most scholars of school leadership conclude. According to Peacock (2014): "Across more than a century of scholarship, there is apparent consensus among administrators, chairs, and teachers that instructional leadership and school improvement should be the chair's primary role" (p. 41). Although there has been consensus about the primary role of the department chair, the implementation of that role varies widely and is largely dependent on the principal.

The department chair is often in the messenger role in that they communicate the principal's agenda to their department colleagues and are tasked with ensuring their colleagues meet the expectations of their principal. To accomplish this, effective department chairs must be comfortable with what can be called diplomatic ambiguity. Having the skill of diplomatic ambiguity is especially important whenever attempting to implement a change in teacher colleagues' curriculum or related items that affect teachers' workload, self-efficacy, professional identity, and related evaluation measures. The effective department chair needs to find a way to lead teacher colleagues while collectively implementing the principal's instructional agenda. For example, if the administration implements a new teacher evaluation process, the department chair may seem like an ambassador when representing their teacher colleagues to the principal regarding questions or concerns about a change implemented by the principal. This can also be vice versa when the department chair can be in a representative role for the principal to their teacher colleagues.

Being a "change agent," according to Gaubatz and Ensminger (2015, p. 15), is one of the opportunities for some department chairs, especially when they are in their first year. A question that arises about what changes a department chair can lead was raised by Gaubatz and Ensminger (2015): "The reality that secondary school department chairs hold a middle-leadership position and are expected to, or at least have the potential to, convert policy into action despite their lack of power prompted the overarching research question …: how do department chairs lead successful education change?" (p. 2). While they found that department chairs can lead successful change when their departments want to change, they also suggested that if the department does not want the department chair to lead change, then the status quo will remain. Interestingly, department chairs' ambiguous roles can allow them to focus their "actions as change chaperones [while simultaneously having] little authoritative power" (Gaubatz & Ensminger, 2015, p. 16). The department chair's lack of substantial authoritative power provides for what might at first appear a surprising platform for being a change agent. However, the department chair's role also can allow them to advocate for changes if they have the support of their departmental colleagues because they will see any potential failure to produce change as more the fault of the principal or assistant principal rather than blaming the department chair.

This could lead to an emboldening of the department chair or the opposite. If the department chair does not support their departmental colleagues, then the reverse could be the case in which the chair is blamed for any perceived failure in producing changes that most of the department say they want. Hence, the perplexing ambiguity of department chairs' role and how to assess their effectiveness when they are asked to be messengers for the administrators to tell the department what to do while also being messengers for their teacher colleagues to the administrators.

The department chair takes on more of an administrator role when they conduct official teaching evaluations of their teacher colleagues and manage a department budget. When department leaders have delegated this authority to their school, then they are very close to that entry-level administrator position (Gaubatz & Ensminger, 2015; Turner, 2019). These more authoritative department chairs can have more role ambiguity and usually do not receive professional development for having substantially more responsibilities as department managers. According to Mayers and Zepeda (2002), the department leaders in their study "reported being frustrated with the reduced released time, the increased clerical work . . . and the resulting intrusion of their departmental work time into their teaching duties. Moreover, finding shortcuts and taking more work home to keep up with the increased demands" (pp. 59-60). Sometimes, department chairs were not given any release time, and they had to use their regular planning period to catch up on department chair responsibilities, including using their planning period to evaluate teacher colleagues. As noted by Mayers and Zepeda (2002), "Although participants were paid stipends … they did not believe that they were adequately compensated for the time required to complete their [department chair] work" (p. 60). However, these issues were offset by the department chair's increased influence. While the increase in influence and prestige that a department chair has can offset the limitations noted by Mayers and Zepeda (2002), those limitations or tradeoffs are part of the tension of what DeAngelis (2013) called "distributed leadership practice" (p. 107). The distribution or delegation of certain leadership tasks to department chairs is necessary given the complexity of schools. How those responsibilities are balanced with the teacher's workload is highly variable.

Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership is consistently part of the department chair's function and responsibility (DeAngelis, 2013; Klar, 2012, 2013; Kelley & Salisbury, 2013; Peacock, 2014; Zepeda & Kruskamp, 2007). How instructional leadership is implemented depends on the principal's delegation of that authority. Department chairs are "uniquely positioned to play an important role in instructional effectiveness" (Kelley & Salisbury, 2013, p. 287). When they have evaluation authority over their departmental colleagues, the department chair is essentially in the mid-level manager role above their colleagues. However, how this authoritative role is presented by the department chair to their colleagues is important for maintaining collegiality so that their department maintains morale and, by extension, effectiveness. Evaluative authority can situate department chairs in the administrator track should they decide later to assume a principal assistant position. Characteristics of effective department chairs, as suggested by DeAngelis (2013), often include many factors that may be summarized as a combination of having a collaborative team approach, being a problem-solver, and having diplomatic skills. This combination is important for fulfilling each of the responsibilities placed upon department chairs, such as maintaining or increasing standardized test scores, evaluating teacher

colleagues, ensuring understanding and implementation of the principal's goals within and across the department at each grade level, and supporting teacher colleagues in their work (Turner, 2019).

Collaborative leadership is generally necessary for department chairs, especially those with evaluative authority over their colleagues, since the role is not necessarily administrator-designated. As department chairs rarely have much—if any—course reassignment time, they remain full-time teachers and, as such, are at the forefront of instructional practice with their teacher colleagues (DeAngelis, 2013). As instructional leaders, according to Peacock (2014, p. 36), department chairs need to be highly proficient in four capabilities: (1) content knowledge, "(2) negotiating context and solving problems, (3) building a collegial learning environment," and (4) advocating for their content area and, by extension, their department. Leading instructional improvement while being motivational is a complicated process of negotiating various stakeholders' expectations. The department chair needs the support of both the principal and most of their departmental colleagues to be effective (Kelley & Salisbury, 2013).

Principals are the crucial component of the leadership framework that defines what a department chair can and cannot do within their roles (Klar, 2012, 2013). Department chairs tend to be far more effective when they are actively supported by their principal (Klar, 2012, 2013). The principal defines the role of department chairs; therefore, the role of department chair can vary widely from school to school (Brent, DeAngelis, & Surash, 2014; Klar, 2013). As principals leave one school for another, this also tends to mean a redefining of the role of the department chair when the new principal starts at the school (Bartanen, Rogers, & Woo, 2021). The changes to the delegation of authority from one principal to another can cause substantial shifts in ambiguity that can take a year or two to clarify. Principals who see the department chairs as partners in instructional leadership and acknowledge their content area expertise as well as their position as teacher leaders are more likely to foster a collaborative approach (Brent, DeAngelis, & Surash, 2014). Principals who structure leadership as rigidly hierarchical with little input from teachers tend to have department chairs who mirror this approach, though this is context-dependent on the dynamics of the department (Bartanen, Rogers, & Woo, 2021; DeAngelis, 2013; Ghamrawi, 2013).

The high school department chair's typical role can be summarized as comprising three components: instructional leader (that can potentially include conducting evaluations of teacher colleagues), communications liaison, and content area representative to internal and external stakeholders. That third component, content area representative to internal and external stakeholders, tends to receive little discussion in the extant literature insofar as explaining the department chair's unique role in representing the content area to students' families. For example, a social studies department chair may represent the department at a back-to-school night event or a weekend curriculum fair to showcase what the department does at each grade level, how the curriculum is scaffolded to engage students in learning social studies, and how the learning targets are meaningful for students and, by extension, their families. The department chair must be both a content area expert and representative knowledgeable of each of their teacher colleagues' courses and curriculum, each grade level, any advising system in place, and any clubs or other organizations that students can participate in related to social studies. If the high school has a Model United Nations Club, for example, the department chair needs to be able to market that or explain it to families and explain its value as an educational extension

activity in conjunction with a world history class in the ninth or tenth-grade level or an Advanced Placement or general education history class at the eleventh or twelfth-grade level. The department chair will also represent the department at all-school assemblies, awards assemblies, and graduation ceremonies, so the department leader has a wide-ranging representative role for the department to internal and external stakeholders.

Conclusion

High school department leaders are primarily instructional leaders, though that role can include many additional important components that can include having evaluative authority to assess teacher colleagues and lead instructional improvement plans at the discretion of their principal. The role of the department chair, then, is an in-between or mid-level managerial role, but this is highly variable from school to school, depending in large part on the principal's leadership style and system. As such, the department chair is a teacher leader. There seems to be a consensus in the literature that the high school department chair/leader has a primary role as an instructional leader. This responsibility requires the department chair to be a content area expert, an effective teacher, and a colleague who can organize the department to achieve common instructional goals that can include motivating teachers to improve their practice in alignment with the principal's goals.

References

Bartanen, B., Rogers, L. K., & Woo, D. S. (2021). Assistant principal mobility and its relationship with principal turnover. *Educational Researcher, 50*(6), 368-380. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X21993105

Brent, B. O., DeAngelis, K. J., & Surash, B. M. (2014). Secondary school department chair roles: Principal expectations. *Journal of School Leadership, 24*(5), 882-917. https://doi.org/10.1177/105268461402400503

DeAngelis, K. J. (2013). The characteristics of high school department chairs: A national perspective. *The High School Journal, 97*(2), 107-122. https://doi.org/10.1353/hsj.2013.0027

Gaubatz, J. A., & Ensminger, D. C., (2015). Secondary school department chairs leading successful change. *International Journal of Education Policy and Leadership, 10*(6), 1-21. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1138584

Ghamrawi, N. (2013). In principle, it is not only the principal! Teacher leadership architecture in schools. *International Education Studies, 6*(2), 148-159. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1067164

Kelley, C., & Salisbury, J. (2013). Defining and activating the role of department chair as instructional leader. *Journal of School Leadership, 23*(2), 287-323. https://doi.org/10.1177/105268461302300204

Klar, H. W. (2012). Fostering department chair instructional leadership capacity: Laying the groundwork for distributed instructional leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 15*(2), 175-197. https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2011.577910

Klar, H. W. (2013). Principals fostering the instructional leadership capacities of department chairs: A strategy for urban high school reform. *Journal of School Leadership, 23*(2), 324-361. https://doi.org/10.1177/105268461302300205

Lomascolo, D. J. (2016). Principals' perceptions of the Tennessee teacher tenure law: A concurrent mixed methods study [Doctoral dissertation, The University of Tennessee]. Tennessee Research and Creative Exchange.

https://trace.tennessee.edu/utk_graddiss/3717
Mayers, R. S., & Zepeda, S. J. (2002). High school department chairs: Role ambiguity and conflict during change. *NASSP Bulletin, 86*(632), 49-64. https://doi.org/10.1177/019263650208663205
Peacock, J. S. (2014). Science instructional leadership: The role of the department chair. *Science Educator, 23*(1), 36-48. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1034762
Turner, R. A. (2019). *Reflecting on the roles of the high school department chair: A descriptive study* (Publication No. 27547472). ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.
Zepeda, S. J., & Kruskamp, B. (2007). High school department chairs — Perspectives on instructional supervision. *The High School Journal, 90*(4), 44-54. http://www.jstor.org/stable/40364192

Dr. Attwood is an assistant professor in the Eriksson College of Education at Austin Peay State University.

Professional Development: Implications for Title Teachers

Rachel Martin Freed – Hardeman University
Aarek Farmer Freed – Hardeman University

An effective classroom teacher can improve his or her skill set through intensive, focused, and relevant professional development. With teacher retention being at the forefront of issues in education today, it is important to investigate how training can improve experiences and retain successful teachers with a high population of low-income students. Data from this research study showed that, though teachers generally had high perceptions of efficacy and responsibility beliefs, the specialized training they had received did not significantly impact those beliefs. Overall, the research study indirectly addressed the problem that school districts face concerning high teacher turnover, especially within Title 1 schools, and contributes to the literature on factors that might improve the retention of effective teachers. Because the field of education is so dynamic, ongoing, relevant professional development is important to assure that Title I educators are up to date on policies and strategies that will help them be successful in serving students from low socioeconomic backgrounds. It is vital to understand how training can be improved in order to positively impact Title I teachers.

While research has shown that effective teachers are the number one predictor of student success (Blazar & Kraft, 2017), nearly 40% of teachers leave the profession within the first five years (Strauss, 2017). With turnover rates being up to 50% higher in Title I schools (Strauss, 2017), it is crucial to understand the factors that lead to teacher retention in Title I schools. Title I schools have both high turnover rates and a high percentage of relatively new teachers because more experienced teachers, who have options to teach in more desirable positions, tend to go elsewhere. Darling-Hammond and Sykes (2003) argued that teacher turnover compounds in Title I schools. The Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act (FESA) requires state education departments to submit a plan that ensures poor children are not taught at higher rates by inexperienced or uncertified teachers than are other children. The students with the highest need are, in many cases, getting the least effective teachers (Hanushek, 2010).

Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) promoted high-quality professional development to improve the teaching of academic subjects to help all children meet student performance standards. However, an evaluation brief published by Kirby et al. (2002) stated that only half of the teachers surveyed believed they would change their teaching practices due to their professional development training. This study reported that less than 10% believed that the training was not beneficial at all, while 40% believed the training confirmed what they were already doing. Similarly, Loyalka et al. (2019) listed two primary reasons that professional development lacked impact: (a) the training was overly theoretical, making it hard for teachers to implement; and (b) the delivery of PD content is rote and passive, making it difficult for teachers to remember and relate. These studies suggest that we have to take a much closer look at factors that make professional development relevant and advantageous for Title I teachers.

Teacher Retention

Teacher retention is one of the most prevalent problems in education today (Sutcher, Darling-Hammond, & Carver-Thomas, 2019). Many factors that account for teachers leaving the classroom, such as large class sizes, few resources, and lack of support for discipline, are compound in Title I schools (Mulvahill, 2018). Similarly, teacher quality is one of the most important indicators of student success (Kraft,

Marinell, & Lee, 2016). Schools located in economically disadvantaged geographical locations perform lower in both academic achievement and student growth (Considine & Zappala, 2002); therefore, it is imperative to understand how to hire and retain effective teachers who are specialized to work in this particular setting.

Instead of hiring and retaining specialized teachers, districts are often under duress to get a person placed in the classroom. According to Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2017), districts often respond to teacher shortages by placing inexperienced teachers in the classroom or increasing class sizes. Title I schools have a 50% higher turnover rate than non Title I schools (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond). A study by Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) found the following:

> The costs of teacher turnover are disproportionately borne by students in hard-to-staff schools, typically those serving primarily students of color and students in poverty, which are more likely to rely upon uncertified teachers who are often hired as a last resort when fully certified teachers are not available. (p. l)

According to most studies, Title I schools are 3 to 10 times more likely to have unqualified teachers than students in more affluent schools (Alshurfat, 2016). Regardless of these alarming trends in turnover rates, there are effective teachers in poverty-stricken schools (Alshurfat, 2016). More research is needed to understand how professional development training can encourage teachers to stay in high-poverty schools.

Challenges of Title I Schools

According to Duncombe (2017), Title I schools face challenges such as less experienced instructors, lower state and local spending levels, and less access to advanced classes. Duncombe further noted that heightened funding in Title I schools benefits students more than in low-poverty schools because a higher number of students lack basic resources. Similarly, Olson (2003) noted that urban schools face the greatest gap between expectations for students and available resources. Likewise, Gehrke (2005) found that the equalization of education and the opportunities for students were among the strongest factors that negatively impacted high-needs schools.

Garcia and Weiss (2019) reported that children's social class is the single most important predictor of educational success. The achievement gap in social classes begins at a very early age·and rarely narrows; therefore, children who "start behind, stay behind." The reason that students from low-income homes start so far behind is that they often lack the early educational support that is critical for development. These students tend to come from less educated homes, are more stressed, and void of financial resources (Lamy, 2013). On average, children from low-income families scored far below their peers from higher-income families in early vocabulary and literacy development, early math, and the social skills they need to succeed in their classrooms (Lee & Burkham, 2002). The delay in early academic progress predicts a lifelong deficiency in test scores, thereby widening the achievement gap for low-income students (Burchinal et al., 2011).

Logan and Will (2017)stipulate that schools in rural America are disproportionately white, yet they are like urban schools, and disadvantaged relative to suburban schools, in terms of poverty and test performance. Clotfelter (2004) reported that American public schools remain highly segregated despite major changes in the 1970s when court orders and new expectations eliminated de jure segregation. There is strong evidence that a higher number of minority children attend higher poverty schools, partly because they are more concentrated in central cities (Saporito & Sohoni 2007).

Rural schools further complicate the story because rural areas in most of the United

States are disproportionately white, yet at the same time, they suffer high poverty rates (Lichter and Brown 2011). Although researchers are familiar with the disadvantages of urban schools, especially for blacks and Hispanics, research shows that rural schools are in some ways equally disadvantaged, especially for whites and Native Americans (Logan & Will, 2017). Findings from the study by Logan and Will reinforce the existence of continuing segregation in metropolitan schools, inequalities between urban and rural schools, and disparities between relatively advantaged white and Asian students in comparison to black and Hispanic students. However, the main finding from their study is that issues of concentrated poverty and poor test performance are similar in both urban and rural areas.

Teacher Characteristics

Gehrke (2005) identified the characteristics related to teacher effectiveness in low- income schools as follows: teachers knowing themselves, teachers knowing their environment, and teachers maintaining high student expectations. Dyson (2003) contributed personal beliefs and energies regarding school discipline to dramatic improvements in Title I schools. Dyson's study found that teachers who possessed a willingness to learn about their students' backgrounds and cultures were able to better connect to students, while Haberman (1995) noted that a key factor in teacher success was setting and holding students to high expectations.

According to White et al. (2010), some teachers viewed poverty with a deficit approach, focusing on what they lacked in resources rather than building on existing strengths. In order to be successful in teaching students in poverty, education must (a) be meaningful, (b) challenge stereotypes, (c) promote understanding about poverty, (d) build on students' strengths, (e) foster hope, (f) sensitive to cultural heritage, and (g) address multiple skill levels (White et al., 2010).

Haycock and Crawford (2012) indicate that good teachers, counselors, and social workers matter most to students living in poverty because they are crucial resources to help them overcome the obstacles that they face. Johnson (2013) noted that effective educators of children who live in poverty acknowledge the unique challenges of poverty situations. Children who live in these environments struggle with language, reading, writing, and mathematical skills and may have minimal exposure to content, as noted by Johnson. Furthermore, according to Johnson, the only opportunity that some of these students have to move forward are highly qualified educators who are trained and prepared to take the student to the next academic level.

Izard (2016) additionally noted that schools are often the safest place for a poverty-stricken student who has to overcome great barriers. According to Van der Kolk (2015), the greatest hope for a child living in trauma, abuse, or poverty is a good education where they are seen and heard. Kolk noted that a good education would allow the student to learn self-regulation and become a predictor of success in later life. According to Izard, turnover among educators and staff is high at schools in low socioeconomic status neighborhoods because of the burnout that results from working with students carrying the pain of poverty and trauma in their lives, thereby perpetuating the cycle of poverty. By not addressing the stressors of poverty, low socioeconomic communities are at a great disadvantage of not graduating students with the proper training and life skills necessary to rise from poverty (Izard, 2016). If teachers are not knowledgeable about the trauma and impact of poverty that many students are dealing with, the teacher is at an extremely high risk of burnout.

Efficacy and Responsibility Beliefs

Mok and Moore (2019) defined teacher self-efficacy beliefs as beliefs teachers hold about their capacity to affect student performance. Multiple studies support the idea that self-efficacy has a positive correlation between a range of educational outcomes, including student achievement, student motivation, teacher work satisfaction, and teacher effectiveness (Klassen et al., 2010; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014).

In recent years, self-efficacy has gained an important role because of the positive correlation between student achievement and teacher effectiveness (Klassen & Tze, 2014). Therefore, understanding the main characteristics of self-efficacy and what factors may impact self-efficacy may hold important implications for student and school achievement (Barni et al., 2019). Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory states that improved teacher efficacy can result in better job satisfaction and student achievement. Bandura (1986) developed the concept of self-efficacy as part of his social cognitive theory. According to Bami et al., it becomes increasingly relevant to understand what affects teacher efficacy as it relates the one's professional role. Additionally, Bami et al. study determined that teachers' personal values were an important predictor of teachers' self-efficacy. Likewise, according to Klassen and Tze (2014), teachers with high levels of self-efficacy experience high levels of job satisfaction. According to Lauermann and Karabenick (2014), a teacher's sense of responsibility is important because people who feel responsible rather than accountable tend to be more determined. Lauermann and Karabenick further defined different realms of responsibility beliefs in the context of a teacher's perceived social role. Teachers may feel certain responsibilities due to the accountability systems set in place at their schools; however, teachers may be guided by internal responsibility beliefs regardless of the systems set in place at their schools (Lauermann & Karabenick, 2014). Bovens (1998) provided five different frames of reference for responsibility beliefs: (a) hierarchical responsibility, which refers to the employee's loyalty to the organization, (b) personal responsibility, which refers to personal ethics, (c) social responsibility, which refers the employee's loyalty to the organization, personal responsibility, which refers to personal ethics, to norms regarding coworkers, (d) professional responsibility, which refers to professional ethics, and (e) civic responsibility, which refers to loyalty towards civic values to norms regarding coworkers, (d) professional responsibility, which refers to professional ethics, and (e) civic responsibility, which refers to loyalty towards civic values.

In the Teacher Responsibility Scale (TRS), Lauermann and Karabenick (2013) identified four dimensions of teacher responsibility, which included: (a) responsibility for student achievement, (b) responsibility for student motivation, (c) responsibility for positive relationships with students, and (d) responsibility for the quality of their teaching. Furthermore, Lauermann and Karabenick determined that contextual factors such as school climate, leadership, and self-perception shaped the teacher's professional responsibility beliefs.

Research Design

This quantitative study used a causal-comparative design to investigate the impact of training (i.e., related to specialized training dealing with students in poverty) and experience on teacher efficacy and responsibility beliefs. The following research questions guided the study to collect data that were analyzed using Intellectus Statistics (2020) Software.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in the efficacy beliefs of a teacher in a Title I school according to the training they received?

2. Is there a significant difference in the responsibility beliefs of a teacher in a Title I school according to the training they received?

After all IRB and district approvals were obtained, the Teacher Responsibility Scale (TRS), created by Lauermann and Karabenick (2013), was sent electronically to a convenient sample of teachers from one Tennessee school district. Teacher efficacy beliefs were measured using questions 19-31 and were scored from 1 to 5, with 1 being the lowest belief and 5 being the highest. Teacher responsibility beliefs were measured using questions 6-18 and scored from 1 to 5, with 1 being the lowest belief and 5 being the highest. Demographic questions were also included in determining the type of training teachers had received.

Findings

The first research question explored the efficacy beliefs of teachers in Title I schools according to the training they received. An ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in efficacy by specialized poverty training. Data indicated that there was rejected. The ANOVA was examined based on an alpha value of 0.05, as presented in Table 1. The results of the ANOVA were not significant, F *(l,* 213) = *0.96,* p = .329, indicating the differences in efficacy beliefs among teachers with various types of training were all similar with no significant difference in efficacy by training; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected (Table 4). The main effect, training, was not significant, *F(l,* 213) = *0.96,p* = .329, indicating there were no significant differences in efficacy beliefs among the groups. There were no significant effects in the model; thus, post hoc comparisons were not conducted. The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 2.

Table 1

Analysis of Variance Table for Efficacy by Training

Variable	ss	*DJ*	*F*	*p*	
Training	0.43		0.96	.329	0.00
Residuals	96.72	213			

Table 2

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for Efficacy by Training

Combination	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Training	4.00	0.77	75
No Training	3.91	0.61	140

The second research question explored the responsibility beliefs of teachers in Title I

schools according to the training they received. An ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in responsibility beliefs by specialized poverty training.

Overall, teachers had high responsibility beliefs, but the training that the teachers had received did not impact these beliefs. The data indicated that there was no significant difference in the responsibility beliefs by training; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The ANOVA wasspe examined based on an alpha value of 0.05. The results of the ANOVA were not significant, $F(l, 213) = 0.64, p = .426$, indicating the differences in Responsibility among the levels of Training were all similar (Table 3). The main effect, Training, was not significant, $F(l, 213) = 0.64, p = .426$, indicating there were no significant differences in Responsibility by Training levels. The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 4. There were no significant effects in the model. As a result, post hoc comparisons were not conducted.

high self- efficacy beliefs prior to receiving specialized training.

These results mimic findings by Yoon

Table 3

Analysis of Variance Table for Responsibility by Training

Variable	SS	*df*	*F*	*p*	
Training	0.35		0.64	.426	0.00
Residuals	117.85	213			

Table 4

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Sample Size for Responsibility of Training

Combination	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Training	4.01	0.88	75
No Training	3.92	0.66	140

Discussion of Research Question 1

This research question examined whether differences existed among the efficacy beliefs of teachers according to the specialized training they received regarding students in poverty. An ANOVA test was conducted to determine if there were differences between the efficacy beliefs of Title I teachers who had received specialized training and those who had received no specialized training. The findings from this question indicated that there were no significant differences in the efficacy beliefs of Title I teachers according to the specialized poverty training they received. The

findings indicated that teachers had high efficacy beliefs regardless of the specialized training they had received. This result indicated that the teachers hired already had et al. (2007) in that training (i.e., advanced degrees and professional development programs) had no significant effect on the student achievement in reading and math of a sampling of fourth-eighth graders. Yoon et al. concluded that it might not be that training had no impact, but, rather, teachers might not have been participating in enough training. Furthermore, Yoon et al. suggested that training must exceed 14 hours per year in order to boost student achievement. Furthermore, when training was increased to 49 hours per year, student scores on standardized tests were boosted by 21 percentile points.

Fostering collective teacher efficacy is a timely and important issue if we are going to realize success for all students (Donohoo, 2017). According to Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (2011), the intent of teacher professional development is to improve instructional practices and develop positive attitudes (efficacy) in teachers, all of which have positive associations with student achievement. However, a study by Loyalka et al. (2019) failed to show any evidence of the effectiveness of teacher training. Even with the positive intentions of professional development programs, there are many variables that can cause the training to be ineffective. These include (a) poor quality, (b) limited relevance, (c) ineffective delivery, (d) lack of follow-up, and (e) a lack of accountability in putting practices into action (Ganser 2000; Villegas-Reimers,2003).

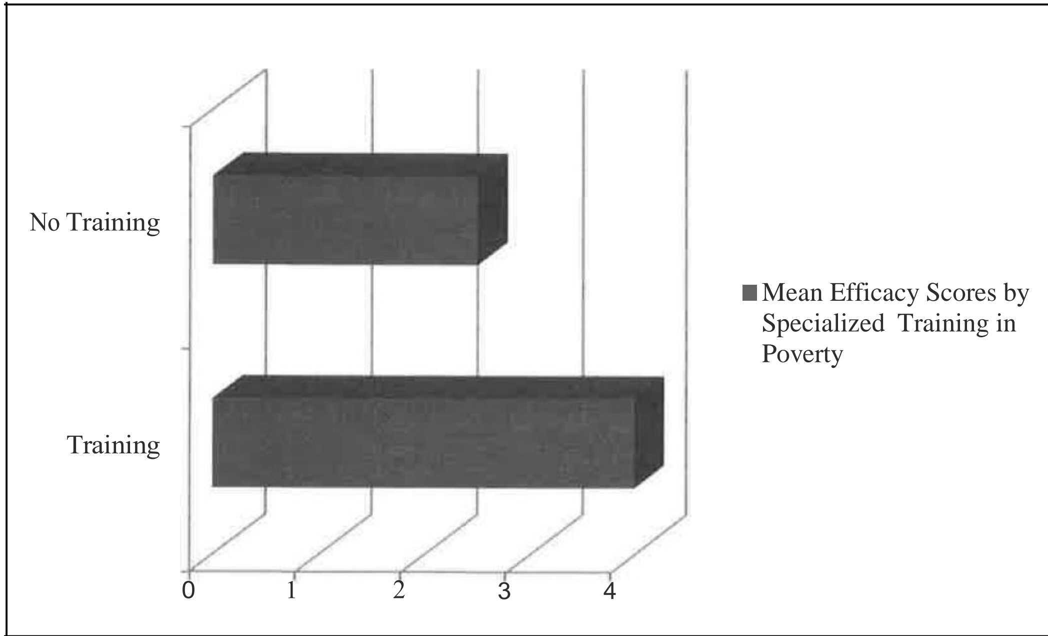
Loyalka et al. (2018) reported that since professional development required teachers to take time and resources away from students, the programs could actually have a negative effect. Key findings from Loyalka's study included the following: (a) teacher professional development had no significant impact on student achievement after one year (regardless of follow-up), (b) there were no impacts on a wide range of secondary outcomes that would suggest impacts on student achievement could arise in the longer term, (c) there were no effects of achievement on students whose teachers did not receive professional development, (d) professional development lacked impact, and (e) the effects of teacher professional development and post-training components may vary by the teacher but not student characteristics. Furthermore, professional development at times has small, positive, and marginally significant impacts on the achievement levels of students taught by less qualified teachers. On the other side, professional development has larger, negative, and more significant effects on the achievement levels of students taught by more qualified teachers (Loyalka et al., 2019). Therefore, professional development may slightly help the least qualified teachers, but for more qualified teachers, the net effect of being out of the classroom more is ultimately negative (Loyalka et al., 2019).

Loyalka et al. (2019) listed two primary reasons that professional development lacked impact: (a) the training was overly theoretical, making it hard for teachers to implement; and (b) the delivery of PD content is rote and passive, making it difficult for teachers to remember and relate. This data helped the researchers to understand that many variables exist in training; therefore, the lack of impact training has on efficacy could be due to a number of factors involving the quality of training, length of training, and even the quality of the teacher. Districts could use this data to explore the quality, relevance, and effectiveness of professional development programs. Professional development is necessary to fill in the gaps in the skill sets of new teachers and to continue to develop the expertise of teachers (Evers et al., 2016). However, if the training itself lacks effectiveness, then more research should be done to understand what types of training or programs are meant for teachers. Some studies noted that the long-term impact of professional

development has to do with developing greater confidence or efficacy in the teacher's instructional practices (Buczynski & Hansen, 2010; Harris & Sass, 2011). Further research should be performed to determine other factors positively impacting teacher efficacy. Figure 1 presents a comparison of efficacy scores for teachers according to specialized training when dealing with students in poverty.

Figure 1

Mean Efficacy Scores for Teachers According to Specialized Training in Poverty



Note. The bar chart shows the mean efficacy scores for teachers with specialized training compared to teachers with no specialized training. Scores ranged from 1-5, with the highest efficacy score being a 5 and the lowest efficacy score being a 1. Efficacy beliefs were high among both groups, with no significant differences in mean scores.

Discussion of Research Question 2

This research question examined whether differences existed between responsibility beliefs among teachers according to the specialized training they received regarding students in poverty. An ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences between the responsibility beliefs of Title I teachers who had received specialized training and those who had received no specialized training.

The finding from this question indicated that there were no significant differences in the responsibility beliefs of a Title I teacher according to the training they received. The findings indicated that teachers had high responsibility beliefs regardless of the training they had received.

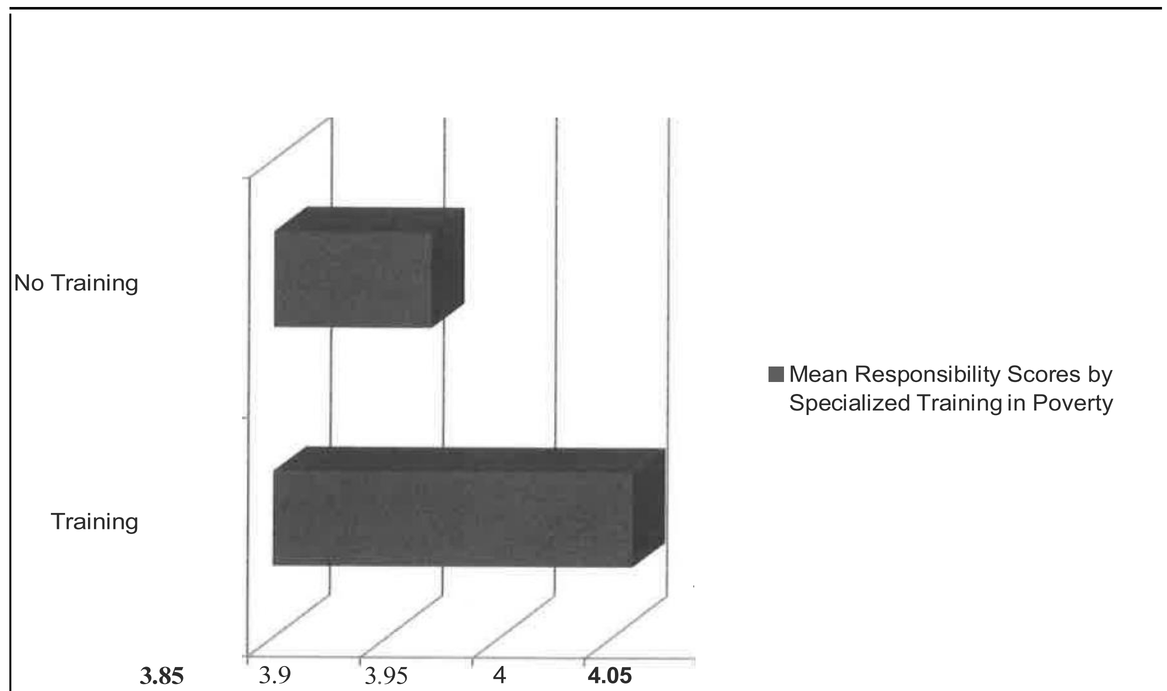
According to Rocane (2015), a teacher's belief system has a significant impact on the learning process. Teachers' beliefs can influence the way knowledge is acquired, the student's actions, and their way of thinking and behavior (Borg, 2001). Effective teachers have high responsibilities for being problem solvers, role models, and reflective thinkers (Hill et al., 2015). Therefore, it is important for districts to understand factors that would impact responsibility beliefs in Title I teachers. If training does not impact responsibility beliefs, then further research is needed into which factors would have positive connections to improved responsibility beliefs. Lauermann and Karabenick (2013) conceptualized personal responsibility "as a sense of internal obligation and commitment to produce or prevent designated outcomes, or that these outcomes should have been produced or prevented" (p. 135). According to Hill et al. (2015), a significant portion of a teacher's role

in the classroom is mental; therefore, responsibility beliefs play an important role in effective teaching. Based on this data, the researcher looked at other factors that might be responsible for the overall high responsibility beliefs of participants surveyed. A study by Ramos (2019) explored how responsibility traits could be influenced genetically. This study found that while positive parenting was associated with their children being more responsible and conscientious, those associations were stronger in more closely related siblings, therefore suggesting that responsibility traits are partially genetic (Ramos, 2019). Ramos determined that both genetics and parenting could have an effect on responsibility characteristics. Ramos noted that the way children act is due partly to genetic similarity and parents' responses to those child behaviors; therefore, those behaviors are influenced by the children's social responsibility and conscientiousness (Ramos, 2019).

Based on this data, the researcher concluded that many variables exist when determining responsibility levels. Although specialized training did not significantly impact the responsibility beliefs of Title I teachers, it would be important to look into variables such as upbringing, the extent that a person's faith might play in determining how responsible they felt for others, and traditional gender roles as they relate to demographics and leadership characteristics to determine how these variables may impact responsibility beliefs. Figure 2 presents a comparison of responsibility scores according to specialized training for teachers.

Figure 2

Mean Responsibility Scores for Teachers According to Specialized Training in Poverty



Note. The bar chart shows mean responsibility scores for teachers with specialized training when compared to teachers with no specialized training. Scores ranged from 1-to 5, with the highest responsibility score being a 5 and the lowest responsibility score being a 1. Both groups' responsibility beliefs were high, with no significant differences in mean scores.

Professional Development

According to Holt and Garcia (2017), teachers typically lack the experience to understand the socioeconomic culture of families in poverty. Ruby Payne, in *A Framework for Understanding Poverty* (1995), described the need for a specific profile of knowledge, skills, and dispositions required in teachers who work with children in poverty. Payne found through interviews with teachers that many did not possess the knowledge and experiences required for success in these challenging environments. Payne suggested that district administrators needed to understand the broad and complex nature of the culture of communities in poverty through intensive training. This training allows teachers to cultivate skills and dispositions that are successful in the schools that serve their children. With a clearer understanding of the context of poverty, teachers are able to develop an aptitude to approach classroom issues related to poverty.

Kannapel and Clements (2005) noted that public schools had been historically more successful in educating middle to upper-class students than they have been in educating low-income students. According to Kannapel and Clements, highly effective schools use all available resources to cultivate and train employees. Likewise, Kannapel and Clements noted that effective schools used teachers' strengths to determine placement in order to fit the needs of students best. Furthermore, Kannapel and Clements reported that effective schools viewed teaching as a collaborative effort rather than a solitary effort. Additionally, an Evaluation Brief published by Kirby et al. (2002) said that more than 40% of teachers who participated in common planning time and formal mentoring relationships perceived these experiences to impact their teaching practices positively. This report further established a link between duration and perceived effectiveness. Teachers reported greater improvement in teaching practices for ongoing professional development training.

It is ultimately important for districts to take a closer look at the quality of the professional development programs currently in place. Despite high levels of formal education and advanced training among teachers, many teachers still exhibit weak cognitive skills and ineffective classroom practices (Bruns & Luque 2015; Bold et al. 2017). Many factors exist that could alter the effectiveness of a professional development plan, such as lack of relevance, poor delivery, and a lack of follow-up (Ganser, 2000; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Loyalka et al. (2019. similarly noted that poor professional development programs could even have negative impacts as they take away from time and resources.

Teachers in the highest-poverty schools appear to be receiving more ongoing, multi-year professional development experiences than teachers in areas of lower poverty, which could account for differences in the beneficence of training (Department of Education, 2002). This Evaluation Brief went on to state that teachers who engaged in certain activities for a longer duration were more likely to report that it changed their teaching practice than teachers who had engaged in the activities for a shorter period of time.

Conclusion

Title I teachers face many challenges that teachers in higher-income areas do not encounter. Districts need to understand that poverty creates many impediments to learning. Because of this, teachers working with this special population need explicit and ongoing training. Although studies are conflicted on exactly which factors make professional development successful, many agree that relevance, time, and follow-up are some of the most important factors.

Studies in this research have reported that the duration of programs and consistent follow-up are important factors in successful professional development. School leaders should encourage dialogue to find out the specific needs of their teachers and help

teachers feel like they have autonomy in the training choices that were made. Hammond et al. (2017) reported effective professional development must include seven elements: (a) content-focused, (b) active learning, which includes collaboration, (d) uses modeling, (e) provides coaching, (f) offers feedback and reflection, and (g) sustained in duration. Districts must examine their current professional development methods in light of these components.

Furthermore, school leaders must be willing to get rid of training that is simply not working. This could be advantageous to the school because teachers may feel like their time and wishes were being respected, translating to higher morale, a more positive culture, and improved attrition rates. School leaders should focus on the quality of the content being delivered, and they should make certain that topics are revisited and followed through.

References

Alshurfat, S. (2016). Teachers application of the national professional standards in three northern Jordanian provincial schools. *International Journal of Education, 8(1)*, 59-77.

Blazar, D., & Kraft, M. (2017). Teacher and teaching effects on students' attitudes and behaviors. *American Educational Research Association, 39(1),* 146-170. https://doi.org/10.3102/0162373716670260

Bruns, B. & Luque, J. (2015). *Great teachers: How to raise student learning in Latin America and the Caribbean.* World Bank. http://hdl.handle.net/10986/20488

Bold, T., Filmer, D., Martin, G., Molina, E., Stacy, B., Rockmore, C., Svennson, J., & Wane, W. (2017). Enrollment without learning: Teacher effort, knowledge, and skill in primary schools in Africa. *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 31*(4), 185-204.

Burchinel, M., Kainz, K., & Cai, Y. (2011). *How well do our measures of quality predict child outcomes? A meta-analysis and coordinated analysis of data from large-scale studies of early childhood settings.* In M. Zaslow, I. Martinez-Beck, K. Tout, & T. Halle (Eds.), *Quality measurement in early childhood settings* (p. 11-31). Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.

Carver-Thomas, D., & Darling-Hammond, L. (2017). *Teacher turnover: Why it matters and what we can do about it.* Learning Policy Institute.

Clotfelter, C. (2004). *The rise and retreat of school desegregation.* Princeton University Press.

Considine, G., & Zappala, G. (2002). The influence of social and economic disadvantage in the academic performance of school students in Australia. *Journal of Sociology, 38(2),* https://doi.org/10.1 1 77/144078302128756543

Darling-Hammond, L., Bums, D., Campbell, C., Goodwin, A. L., Hammemess, K., Low, E. L., McIntyre, A., Sato, M., & Zeichner, K. (2017). *Empowered educators: How high- performing systems shape teacher quality around the world.* Jossey-Bass.

Darling-Hammond, L., Hyler, M., & Gradner, M. (2017). Effective teacher professional development. *Research Brief Learning Policy Institute.* https://1eamingpolicyinstitute.org/sites/default/files/product-files/Effective_Teacher_Professional_Development_ BRIEF.pdf

Darling-Hammond, L. & Sykes, G. (2003). Wanted, a national teacher supply policy for education: The right way to meet the "highly qualified teacher" challenge. Education Policy Analysis Archives, https://doi.org/10.14507/epaa.vl ln33.2003

Duncombe, C. (2017). *Unequal opportunities: Fewer resources, worse outcomes for students in*

schools with concentrated poverty. The Commonwealth Institute.

Dyson, A. (2003). "Welcome to the jam": Popular culture, school literacy, and the making of childhoods. *Harvard Educational Review,* 73(3), 328-361. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.73.3. d262234083374665

Ganser, T. (2000). An ambitious version of professional development for teachers. *NASSP Bulletin,* 84(618), https://doi.org/10.1177/019263650 008461802

Garcia, E., & Weiss, E. (2019). *The teacher shortage is real, large and growing, and worse than we thought.* Economic Policy Institute. https://files.epi.org/pdf/163651.pdf

Gehrke, R. (2005). Poor schools, poor students, successful teachers. *Kappa Delta Pi Record,42(1)* 14-17.

Haberman, M. (1995). Selecting "star" teachers for children and youth in urban poverty. *Phi Delta Kappan, 76(10),* 777-781.

Hanushek, E. (2010). *Education production functions: Developed country evidence.* International Encyclopedia of Education. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-044894-7.01231-8

Haycock, K. & Crawford, C. (2008). Closing the teacher quality gap. *Educational Leadership: Journal of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, 65(7),* https://www.researchgate.net/publication/234768322_Closing_the_Teacher_Quality_Gap

Holt, C. & Garcia, P. (2005). Preparing teachers for children in poverty. *School Administrator,62(11)*, 22.

Izard, E. (2016). Teaching children from trauma and poverty (ED594465). ERIC.

https://e1ic.ed.gov/?id=ED594465

Johnson, C. (2013, Nov/Dec). Leading learning for children from poverty: Six effective practices can help teachers help students from poverty succeed. *Association for Middle Level Education Magazine.*

Kannapel, P. J., Clements, S. K. (2005). *Inside the black box of high-performing high-poverty schools.* Prichard Committee for Academic Excellence.

Kirby, S., Naftel, S., McCombs, J., Berends, M., & Murray, S. (2002). *Teacher professional development in Title I schools: Recent evidence from the national longitudinal survey of schools.* U.S. Department of Education.

Kraft, M., Marinell, W., and Yee, D. (2016). School organizational contexts, teacher turnover, and student achievement: Evidence from panel data. *American Educational Research Journal, 53(5),* https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831216 667478

Lamy, C. (2013). How preschool fights poverty. *Educational Leadership,* 70(8), 32-36.

Lee, V., & Burkam, D. (2002). *Inequality at the starting gate.* Economic Policy Institute.

Lichter, L. & Brown D. (2011). Rural America in an urban society: Changing spatial and social boundaries. *Annual Review of Sociology, 37,* 565-592.

Logan, J. & Burdick-Will, J. (2017). Social segregation and disparities in urban, suburban, and rural areas. *Ann American Academy of Political Science, 67*(1), 199-216.

Loyalka, P., Popova, A., Li, G., & Shi, Z. (2019). Does teacher training actually work? Evidence from a large-scale randomized evaluation of a national teacher program.

American Economic Journal, 11(3), 128-154.

Mulvahill, E. (2018). *Understanding intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation in the classroom.* We Are Teachers. https://www.weareteachers.com/understanding-intrinsic-vs-extrinsic-motivation-in-the-classroom/

Olson, L. (2003). The great divide. *Education Week, 22(17),* 9-10, 13-14, 16, 18. Payne, R. (1995). *A framework for understanding poverty* (4th ed.). Process Inc.

Saporito, S., & Sohoni, D. (2007). Mapping educational inequality: Concentrations of poverty among poor and minority students in public schools. *Social Forces*, *85*(3), 1227-1253.

Strauss, V. (2017, November 27). Why it's a big problem that so many teachers quit-And what to do about it. *The Washington Post.* https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/answer-sheet/wp/2017/11/27/why-its-a-big-problem-that-so-many-teachers-quit-and-what-to-do-about-it/

Sutcher, L., Darling-Hammond, L., & Carver-Thomas, D. (2019). Understanding teacher shortages: An analysis of teacher supply and demand in the United States. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 2* 7(35), https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1213618.pdf vander Kolk, B. (2015). *The body keeps the score: Brain, mind, and body in the healing of trauma.* Penguin.

Villegas-Reimers, E. (2003). Teacher Professional Development: An International Review of the Literature. UNESCO. International Institute for Educational Planning.

White, M. Hill, I., Kemp, S., MacRae, J., & Young, L. (2010). Poverty and education: A teacher's perspective. *BCTF Research Report.* https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED538370.pdf

Dr. Rachael Martin is the SPPDG Coordinator in McNairy County Schools. She is a former middle school English teacher. Her research includes studies of factors that impact responsibility and efficacy beliefs in Title I teachers.

Dr. Aarek Farmer is the Director of the Ed. D in Instruction Leadership at Freed-Hardeman University. He is a former middle school Science teacher.

Time, Patience, and Acculturation: Essential Elements for Working With Culturally and Linguistically Diverse and Immigrant Students and Their Families

Eric Lopez Texas A&M University-San Antonio

The following will discuss the acculturation process and the elements for current and future educators and administrators regarding the importance of time and patience during the acculturation process for culturally and linguistically diverse and immigrant students and families. Implications for these elements to be integrated into preparation programs and professional development are shared. Implications for future research and practice are also discussed.
Keywords: acculturation, time, patience, immigrant, culturally and linguistically diverse, students, families

As indicated in recent current affairs and ongoing world developments, schools are and will be enrolling recently immigrated culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students into their schools and families in their communities (Hessen, 2021; Bandyopadhyay & Guerrero, 2016). Wicks (2018) further noted that nearly twenty-five percent of current students in our schools come from immigrant families, and the numbers continue to rise. Although each child will respond uniquely to a new environment and community, it is crucial to be mindful of the change both the student and family may be experiencing, both individually and systemically. As future educators and administrators, it is essential to understand not only the constructs associated with students who may or may not be adjusting to a new school environment but also to support the student and their families. The following will discuss the acculturation process and the significance of allowing for time, incorporating patience, and infusing these concepts into educator and administrator academic preparation.

The Need

This topic is necessitated by the ever-growing population of immigrant students and students from CLD backgrounds. Herrera, Cabral, & Murry, (2020) illustrated that from 2000, the number of immigrants in the U.S. increased by over 12%, demonstrating a continued increasing trend upward, with Tennessee witnessing rapid increases with this group (Tennessee Immigrant & Refugee Rights Coalition, 2022). The percentage of languages other than English spoken at home increased by over 150% from 1980 to 2010 (Salvia, Ysseldyke, & Witmer 2017). Yet, the current educator and administrator practitioners do not reflect the increasing diversity of the population (Vázquez-Montilla, Just & Triscari., 2014). This requires future and current practitioners to understand what their students and families may be experiencing and be able to understand, advocate, intervene and refer in a respectful and culturally responsive manner.

Acculturation and the Process

All students entering school experience change from their home culture to the new school culture. This becomes more complex when immigrant students, CLD students, and their families enter the school system. This phenomenon is known as acculturation and "refers to a process an individual goes through in adapting to a new culture and often depends on an individual's particular set of background experiences and opportunities to

learn in both formal and informal educational settings" (Salvia et al., 2017, p. 245). It is important to note that educational settings include family and community. In addition, acculturation can occur at the individual level and/or at the family/systemic level (Sue, Neville & Smith, 2019).

Recently, Herrera et al. (2020) summarized the process students and their families might be experiencing as the following: Euphoria, culture shock, anomie, and adoption/adaptation (p. 81). Euphoria is best described as the excitement associated with interacting with a new environment/setting and experiencing new language(s), cultural norms and traditions, and interactions with individuals different from those in their home environment, and occurs when coming into contact (Lakey, 2003) with a culture different than their own. Culture shock, also referred to as acculturative stress (Sue et al., 2019), is the potential negative response to differences and struggles with the new language, cultural norms, and expectations.

Anomie is when the individual or family experiences marginalization (Jasinskaja-Lahti, Horenczk, & Kinunen, 2011), not feeling that they fit into either the new culture or their native culture. Furthermore, individuals or families may reject and/or withdraw from interacting with the new culture completely (Jasinskaja-Lahti et al., 2011). Adoption/adaptation is where integration of the native and cultural traits and behaviors occur, or new cultural traits/behaviors are adopted to succeed in the new environment and culture (Lakey, 2003). Ward and Geeraert (2016) indicated that individuals and family members might acculturate differently, adding additional stressors and family dynamics within the home environment. They further discuss how school and work institutions also serve as powerful influencers and/or discouragers individuals or families to acculturate. Understanding these concepts may explain some of the attitudes, behaviors, actions, or lack of action or participation in academic, interpersonal, extra-curricular activities, interactions, and involvement of students and their families. It may also help explain the lack of active involvement in these same expected school and non-school activities and relations.

Time and Patience

When students and their families enter the school environment/culture in the U.S., they enter a Western world view of schooling and development (Carjuzaa & Ruff, 2010). One valued component and adhered to the concept in our society is time. So much so that "…we divide it into seconds, minutes, hours, days, weeks, months and years" (Sue et al., 2019, p. 158). As with current popular developmental theories in education and clinical settings, there are time frames associated with reaching particular stages and/or milestones (Sattler, 2018), which seem to also adhere to the dominant world view of time. This is important to understand because we cannot expect individuals and/or families to acculturate to the new school environment and/or culture within a particularly quick time frame. Findings from some studies looking at time and acculturation indicate this is truly on an individual basis and can occur or not occur (Fuligni, 2001; Jasinskaja-Lahti et al., 2011; Murray et al., 2014). The implication is that we cannot expect students and/or their families to learn, understand, and/or adhere to new cultural norms and expectations within a particular time frame.

Patience should also be practiced by the educator and administrator. By understanding the acculturation process your students and their families may be experiencing, as well as considering that it may be a struggle for them to experience the potential steps in the process if they choose to even proceed with

the process at all (Herrera et al., 2020). By having patience, respect is being demonstrated, as the students may not realize what they and their families are experiencing, as many may be only trying to endure their situation.

Implications

As can be seen, these elements are essential in successfully working with diverse students and their families. Implications for educator and administrator preparation programs include integrating the knowledge and skills associated with acculturation, the process, time, and patience elements within the entire curriculum. This is initiated by bringing awareness of each of these concepts to preservice and practicing educators and administrators, discussing how each construct may be experienced by students and families in a variety of ways, and being able to recognize this in the classroom, that can then be incorporated into the specific subject matter within training and degree programs. Attitudes and behaviors associated with culture shock, for example, could manifest themselves differently within each academic instructional area (e.g., reading/literacy, mathematics, science, social studies, etc.). This could then be scaffolded to then be operationalized through case study assignments that integrate the elements and where individuals then reflect on how they can be identified and operationalized in working with CLD students and their families in more advanced courses and/or training. There are inferences for potential negative educational outcomes from educators and administrators that need to be recognized and addressed, such as behavioral concerns and lack of academic success that could impact a student's schooling, which could have been prevented if educators and school leaders recognized and intervene in a functional and respectful manner, early on. These types of experiences can then carry into field experiences for both educators and administrators, where listening and communication skills can be further developed and practiced with students and their families.

For example, a valued behavior in schools is student and family involvement. It behooves educators and administrators to develop respectful strategies to engage students, parents, and families, to encourage engagement and active participation of students and their families. This may be enhanced through the practice of cultural humility, which calls for committing to working with individuals and continually working on self-improvement through analyzing one's self after interactions and situations when working with diverse individuals and families (Mortier, Brown, & Armburo 2021). This could begin with an awareness of how acculturation, time, and patience may actually be coming into play and/or affecting the student, parent, and family system. By listening to them and getting to know students and their families, educators and administrators are better able to understand the situation and respond in a culturally responsive and respectful manner. Being mindful of community resources that could be used to assist with developing and maintaining these types of fruitful and successful interactions and relationships will benefit students, their families, and the educational setting. Cultural brokers (Mortier et al., 2021), such as community health workers (CHW), can assist students, families, educators, and administrators understand each other. They can serve as the liaison to communicate and educate both systems (home & school; Matthew et al., 2017; Pérez & Martinez, 2008). Thus, training future and practicing educators and administrators on not only the importance of this community asset but also on how to effectively utilize such a resource in assisting both the community and school setting in understanding and addressing the potential negative responses to culture change and the

importance of time and practicing patience, as individuals and families may respond differently.

Future research for these elements associated with culture change, time, and patience, should also include investigating knowledge, skills, and potential short and long-term outcomes from all that may be involved for the student, family, as well as current and future educators and educational leaders. Furthermore, the research should be both qualitative and quantitative as well as longitudinal, providing rich information and research-based results for effective interventions that may be new or further developed.

Conclusion

It is important that these elements not just be added to the diversity class/training and/or be perceived as the add-ons to coursework or continuing education training opportunities. Instead, they should be incorporated and become what training programs and professional development programs do for all students and practitioners to ensure academic attainment and success beyond the classroom as well as past the school/formal educational experience. In addition, for current practitioners, professional development regarding these elements should be ongoing. The training should include respectful strategies and provide continuing opportunities for self-reflection and opportunities to process with other educators, administrators, and community members (Mortier et al., 2021).

References

Bandyopadhyay, S. & Guerrero, R. (2016, October 3). *Immigrants to the U.S.: Where they are coming from, and where they are headed.* Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. https://www.stlouisfed.org/publications/regional-economist/october-2016/immigrants-to-the-us-where-they-are-coming-from-and-where-they-are-headed

Carjuzaa, J. & Ruff, W. G. (2010). When western epistemology and an indigenous worldview meet: Culturally responsive assessment in practice. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 10*(1), 68-79.

Fuligni, A. J. (2001). A comparative longitudinal approach to acculturation among children from immigrant families. *Harvard Educational Review*, *71*(3), 566-578.

Herrera, S. G., Cabral, R. M., & Murry, K. G. (2020). *Assessment of culturally and linguistically diverse students* (3rd ed.). Pearson.

Hessen, T. (2021, August 26). *Explainer: Who are the Afghan refugees coming to the U.S. and what happens when they arrive?* Reuters. https://www.reuters.com/world/who-are-afghan-refugees-coming-us-what-happens-when-they-arrive-2021-08-26/

Jasinskaja-Lahti, I., Horenczyk, G., & Kinunen, T. (2011). Time and context in the relationship between acculturation attitudes and adaptation among Russian-speaking immigrants in Finland and Israel. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies, 37*(9), 1423-1440. doi: 10.1080/1369183X.2011.623617

Lakey, P. N. (2003). Acculturation: A review of the literature. *Intercultural Communication Studies, 12*(2), 103-118.

Matthew, R. A., Willms, L., Voravudhi, A., Smithwick, J., Jennings, P., & Machado-Escudero, Y. (2017). Advocates for community health and social justice: A case example of a multisystemic promotores organization in South Carolina. *Journal of Community Practice*, *25*(3-4), 344-364. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705422.2017.1359720

Mortier, K., Brown, I. C., & Aramburo, C. M. (2021). Cultural brokers in special

education. *Research and Practice for Persons with Severe Disabilities, 46*(1), 3-17. doi: https://doi.org/10.1177/1540796920975386

Murray, K. E., Klonoff, E. A., Garcini, L. M., Ullman, J. B., Wall, T. L., & Myers, M. G. (2014). Assessing acculturation over time: A four-year prospective study of Asian American young adults. *Asian American Journal of Psychology, 5*(3), 252-261. doi: 10.1037/a0034908

Pérez, L. M. & Martinez, J. (2008). Community health workers: Social justice and policy advocates for community health and well-being. *American Journal of Public Health, 98*, 11-14. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2006.100842

Salvia, J., Ysseldyke, J. E., & Witmer, S. (2017). *Assessment in special and inclusive education* (13th ed.). Cengage Learning

Sattler, J. M. (2018). *Assessment of children: Cognitive foundations and applications* (6th ed.). Jerome Sattler, Publisher, Inc.

Sue, D. W., Sue, D., Neville, H. A., & Smith, L. (2019). *Counseling the culturally diverse: Theory and practice*. John Wiley & Sons.

Tennessee Immigrant & Refugee Rights Coalition. (2022). *What is welcoming Tennessee?* Tennessee Immigrant & Refugee Rights Coalition. https://www.tnimmigrant.org/what-welcoming-tennessee

Vázquez-Montilla, E., Just, M., & Triscari, R. (2014). Teachers' dispositions and beliefs about cultural and linguistic diversity. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 2*(8), 577-587. doi: 10.13189/ujer.2014.020806

Ward, C. & Geeraert, N. (2016). Advancing acculturation theory and research: The acculturation process in its ecological context. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 8*, 98-104. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2015.09.021

Wicks, A. (2018, Winter). For the children, the immigrant experience begins in school. The Catalyst. https://www.bushcenter.org/catalyst/immigration/wicks-schools-and-immigrants.html

Dr. Lopez is a professor at Texas A&M University-San Antonio. He was an American Council on Education (ACE) Fellow, 2016-2017.

Spanish Immersion School at Barksdale Elementary: A Proactive Response to the Majority Language Shift in America

Nicolette Rougemont Clarksville Montgomery County School System

Various studies examined the benefits of bilingual programs that showed how secondary language acquisition showed improved reading abilities, leads to increased linguistic awareness, enriches language benefits that transfer between languages, and results in higher achievement on standardized testing. All of the proposed benefits of these studies led Clarksville Montgomery County School System (CMCSS) to collaborate with a third-party entity called Add.a.lingua to develop a bilingual immersion program within Barksdale Elementary School. Add.a.lingua has been developing a functional model that CMCSS was able to implement in the host school that strives to have students attain academic achievement equal to or greater than their monolingual peers, achieve a high degree of proficiency in the immersion language, and achieve cross-cultural sensitivity through the language acquisition process. The article explains the process by which students are accepted into the program. Finally, the assessments used to compare the students with their monolingual peers are explained.

From the inception of the democratic republic of America, our ancestors declared the importance of educating the masses. They saw educating the American public as a means to grow the country economically and create an informed populace who could participate in America's newfound democratic process. The ability to read, write, and do rudimentary math would at least give its citizens the tools to be informed. Communication between the colonists was also a necessity for success, so a common language was a consideration (Rougemont, 2022). According to Burton (2018), English became the majority language given the United States began as a British colony but has never technically been the language *de jure*. Currently, polarity towards the use of English as the native majority language is shifting. Immigrant populations continue to propagate and bring their native languages with them, thus influencing a shift toward the importance of second language acquisition.

The Center for Immigrant Studies points out that 67.3 million U.S. residents (native-born, legal immigrants, and illegal immigrants) spoke a language other than English at home (Zeigler & Camarotaon, 2019). This figure is based on 2018 Census Bureau data inclusive of all persons five years of age or older. The data indicate the number has tripled since 1980. Subsequently, Tennessee's population of residents speaking languages other than English at home has increased by 459%, making it a state with one of the largest percentage increases (Zeigler & Camarotaon, 2019).

Internationally, numerous countries have recognized the practicality, almost necessity, of second language acquisition to communicate in business and social confines (U.S. Department of Education, 1994). To become globally marketable, our students must have an education equivalent to their international counterparts.

Evolution of Bilingual Programs

Throughout the history of the United States, there has been a fluctuating sentiment toward bilingual education. Secondary language, as a communication tool, was considered a logical acquisition as the colonies were evolving. It seemed reasonable that bilingual education was considered a pursuit worthy of support. However, at times, bilingualism was suppressed through intentional assimilation practices. Initially, bilingual education was valued as a *means to an end* to speed the

process of English learning. Contemporarily, policymakers have begun to acknowledge the importance of bilingual education for majority language speakers as a 21st-century skill (The Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2009).

Current Stance on Bilingual Education

Bilingual education was not initiated with the intention of teaching English more efficiently. The original reasoning behind bilingual education was to enhance cross-cultural communication. Such programs taught English to non-native speakers and taught another language to native English speakers to support bi-literacy.

English acquisition programs teaching minority language speakers English add additional requirements to satisfy educational standards. Some educators understand and embrace the changing demographic of our nation. There are also districts, like Clarksville Montgomery County School System (CMCSS) that demonstrate the importance of offering the opportunity for parents to choose bilingual education once again.

Bilingual Immersion in Elementary School

It is pertinent to consider the facets that comprise fundamental language acquisition. A rudimentary understanding of these deconstructed elements is incorporated within the sociocultural theory. Students should begin secondary language (L2) acquisition when they have a conversational grasp of their primary language. It is much less of a challenge to incorporate additional language while they are expanding their primary language (L1) (Hernández-Cleveland, 2007).

Chomsky (1957) posited that humans are encoded with a universal grammar that provides a basic understanding of how communication is structured. Because all languages share similar characteristics, this *preprogramming* allows children everywhere to develop language rapidly, in a similar manner, and with little assistance (Joy, 2019).

Language acquisition begins at birth, or more technically, in utero, when infants are exposed to the sounds of the world and the voices of their loved ones while they grow. When they arrive, they begin to imitate the language of their parents and those around them, learning the norms and particulars of their native tongue (Kuhl, Tsao, & Liu, 2003).

Factors Influencing Secondary Language Acquisition

It is important to consider the factors that specifically relate to the acquisition of secondary language. Pronunciation skills may remain inadequately developed among adolescent learners (Cummins, 1984). For concept application, the context shifts when we consider factors influencing secondary language acquisition. Relationships manifest amongst various subskills depending upon the manner of acquisition (i.e., formal classroom environment versus real-life interactions; and bilingual education exposure in preschool with rudimentary literacy in the primary language versus adolescents who have well-developed literacy skills).

Additional dynamics that influence L2 acquisition include other cognitive and personality variables. Fillmore (1979) contends peer interaction can strongly influence secondary language acquisition (if students isolate, they will not progress as quickly). However, he indicates that cognitive skills may be more apt to predict classroom literacy skills for secondary language learners. Interpersonal communication skills tend to plateau after approximately two years. However, age-appropriate grade-level academic skills develop in approximately five years when exposure begins later (Cummins, 1984). An examination of the acquisition of primary language and how it influences secondary language acquisition leads us to consider how the U.S. has applied this knowledge in

bilingual education interventions and programs.

Supporting Academic Achievement

The ability to speak one or two languages proficiently has a direct correlation with success in general education content acquisition. As observed by The Language Research Centre of the University of Calgary (Archibald et al., 2006), exposure to a second language can enhance the complexity of the first-language syntax used. Secondary languages can also enhance language use skills (e.g., narrative strategies, reading and writing literacy skills in the first language, vocabulary score). Additionally, they can enhance non-linguistic skills (e.g., divergent thinking, metalinguistic skills, attitudes towards others, and mathematical scores & skills).

Improves Reading Abilities

Language learning is beneficial in the development and improvement of reading abilities (D'Angiulli, Siegel, & Serra, 2001). These researchers found a positive correlation between foreign language acquisition and reading enhancement in comprehension and fluency. In education found that adolescent bilingual children (English and Italian) scored higher than their monolingual peers on word-reading and spelling tasks. They also discovered similar results with a group of sixth-graders learning Latin. The students scored higher on standardized tests than students with no foreign language exposure.

Increased Linguistic Awareness

Demont (2001) indicated that immersion in a bilingual setting enhances children's ability to decode language. Consequently, bilingual children have a greater capacity than their monolingual peers to easily comprehend and interpret language. This allowed them to have the judgment of grammatical application and word recognition. Holobow, Genesee, Lambert, & Gastright (1987) and Pagan (2005) found that native English speakers achieved proficiency in speaking, reading, and writing Spanish after two years of bilingual education. This was achieved while simultaneously maintaining equal grade-level competence in English and mathematics with their monolingual counterparts.

Transfer Skills between Languages

Valdés (2006) examined the effects of Spanish immersion on students in grades 4-6, which showed comparable verbal ability between groups. The outcome supports that immersion students significantly outperformed the control group in cognate recognition. This suggests that it enriches language benefits with a positive transfer from Spanish to English receptive vocabulary. Cunningham and Graham (2000) found that students studying Latin as a foreign language significantly outperformed their counterparts in vocabulary acquisition.

Higher Achievement in Standardized Testing

Furthermore, there are studies that indicate a positive correlation between the length of exposure to a foreign language and verbal aptitude scores. There was a statistically significant difference in standardized testing scores of those participants who studied foreign languages for a year or more than those that were never exposed (Armstrong & Rogers, 1997; Cade, 1997; Cooper, 1987). The following section examines the implementation of the Spanish Immersion School in a southeastern district elementary school.

Program Conceptualization Research

Bilingual programs have been examined throughout their evolution in contemplation of their merit and how they support academic achievement. Researchers have examined the benefits and challenges. With a meta-analytic approach to the

investigation, the research indicates the growth of bilingual students exceeds that of their monolingual counterparts. Included below are various studies that share these conclusions that led to the initiation of a bilingual program in the CMCSS elementary school.

A focus on research-based effectiveness was pivotal in the decision to create a program that functioned well within the district. Two longitudinal studies by Thomas and Collier (1997, 2001) offer incontestable information with regard to the effectiveness of bilingual education. In the initial study between 1982 and 1996, over 700,000 students in a mixture of large urban and suburban school districts across the U.S were incorporated into the analysis. The findings indicate long-term well-implemented bilingual enrichment programs give the best support for academic success into the high school years. Willig (1985) calculated effect sizes from 16 studies and concluded that bilingual programs generally yield superior results to monolingual educational programs.

A longitudinal study by Ramirez, Yuen, and Ramey (1991) was one of the first to investigate the effectiveness of bilingual programs. The researchers found there was no difference in achievement level or growth rates in mathematics, language, or reading after the end of third grade between immersion students and their monolingual peers. Greene (1997) increased the rigor of the methodological criteria and estimated the effect sizes of 11 studies originally examined by Rossell and Baker (1996). Green's results were contradictory to Rossell and Baker's findings revealing that support in the primary language along with the secondary language was moderately beneficial to absolute immersion. However, bilingual students displayed greater rates of growth than their monolingual peers did (Cobb, Vega, & Kronauge, 2006).

Another key component that enticed the county to implement the bilingual immersion program is findings that indicate the benefits of content achievement gains as a result of secondary language acquisition. Rossell and Baker (1996) applied a categorical "vote-counting" method to synthesize 72 studies from 300 program evaluations nationwide comparing various forms of bilingual programs. The conclusion revealed higher achievement gains in structured immersion (where almost all content is provided in English) compared to all other forms of bilingual immersion (where the percentage of English content varies), though it did not include an examination of enrichment programs. In a study, Thomas and Collier (2001) included 200,000 enrolled students in five school districts between 1996 and 2001. The results reiterated that bilingual enrichment programs increase achievement levels. Results also maintained the more primary language support provided to maintain grade-level instruction, the higher the achievement in the secondary language. The results contend it takes four to seven years of dual language immersion for students to begin to outperform their counterparts in other bilingual program models. In addition, students who continue not to receive primary language schooling are not able to reach grade-level performance in the secondary language. Observation shows the achievement gap between secondary language learners cannot be closed with remedial programs.

Thomas and Collier (2001) contend that students who receive five to six years of dual language instruction reach par performance in the secondary language by the conclusion of grade 5 and maintain that level of performance. Similar patterns of results in academic achievement to those of Thomas and Collier were found in an additional large-scale study done by Lindholm-Leary in 2001 (as cited in Cobb et

al., 2006). This research is not exhaustive but provides a sound basis for the district's decision to implement a bilingual immersion program.

Add.a.lingua

A number of school systems, including the district host of the Spanish Immersion School, have collaborated with the organization Add.a.lingua in order to implement bilingual immersion programs across the United States. This company offers a model for instruction and L2 implementation that has been established and successfully applied in previous settings. Using a research-based intervention model supports the viable replication that does not require reinvention.

Threefold Goal of Quality Dual Language Immersion Education

According to Add.a.lingua, their objective is a "threefold quality goal" for dual immersion education. They declare their intention is to ultimately have students attain academic achievement equal to or greater than their monolingual peers. A second goal is to have students achieve a high degree of proficiency in the immersion language. Finally, students in their programs are meant to achieve increased cross-cultural sensitivity. Add.a.lingua desires to ensure the program is additive and not subtractive in nature. This goal proclaims quality guidelines are followed, and student outcomes are demonstrated that reflect grade-level literacy skills in two languages instead of one. The proficiency of the students in the secondary language is done in conjunction with their native language, not at the cost of it (Add.a.lingua, 2018).

Supported Program Models

Add.a.lingua attests they support *two* dual language, immersion models. Commitment to these models was based on longitudinal research released jointly by Rice University and the Houston Independent School District (Add.a.lingua, 2018; Dennis, 2017; Office of English Language Acquisition, 2019). It is pertinent to mention research supporting secondary language acquisition and its links to achievement. Evidence shows that some skillsets are enhanced with the acquisition of a secondary language, such as decoding and problem-solving strategies. These skill sets can be applied across content areas (Archibald et al., 2008).

There are well-documented advantages of bilingual or dual language (DL) education models. For example, accelerated academic progress heightened creative and critical thinking skills and narrowed proficiency gaps (Baker, 2011; Garcìa, 2009; Maxwell, 2014; Thomas & Collier, 2002, 2003, 2012). Former U.S. Secretary of Education Richard Riley (Oberg de la Garza, Mackinney, & Lavigne, 2015) called for an increase in DL programs. As a result, 260 programs in 2000 became 2000 programs in 2011 (Burton, 2018; McKay Wilson, 2011).

Spanish Immersion School

In an effort to prepare students for success in college and to become globally marketable, the CMCSS has recently created a bilingual immersion program that has since become its own entity, The Spanish Immersion School at Barksdale Elementary School. The implementation of this program was born of innovation in response to the majority language shift in our country as well as district stakeholder support. Extensive research on the benefits of early secondary language acquisition was reviewed to assess the viability and achievement benefits of a bilingual immersion program. To garner interest and support for this program, focus groups were held with district stakeholders. While the Spanish Immersion School is funded through a mixture of grants and district funds.

The program began as a pilot in Kindergarten and has now expanded through the third grade. Though currently only beginning the fourth year of the program, there is an expectation to expand through middle school. Additionally, plans call for another elementary host school within the district. There has also been consideration of an alternative secondary language when the program is implemented in another host school. However, Spanish was chosen for the first program since the statistical trend of census data indicates it will be comparable to English in the United States by 2025.

At Barksdale Elementary, the host school, there is a principal and an assistant principal. There is also the principal of the Spanish Immersion School, who acts as an additional assistant principal for the host school. There are two classes of 20 students apiece in each grade level (with the exception of Kindergarten, which now has three classes), two teachers in each grade (again with the exception of Kindergarten), four educational assistants (two for each grade level), and one Teacher Resident (works as a co-teacher with a professional teacher) in training for the immersion program. The desire is for students in the district to demonstrate a high success rate in their native language and gain fluency in a second language in primary grades.

The immersion program is a one-way dual language model (Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition, 2018). The program groups comprise native English speakers learning a target language, in this case, Spanish. The implemented program model does not serve Limited English Proficient (LEP) students. The rationale is that if the students' native language is Spanish, they will not begin English until second grade. A conflict could present during the transition towards 50% English and 50% Spanish, having no previous exposure to the English language.

The Spanish Immersion School uses a 90:10 Dual Language Immersion (DLI) Model (see California Association for Bilingual Education, 2017). In the 90:10 DLI model, the target language is used in Kindergarten for 90% of the structured instruction, and English is used in the non-instructional activities. As the student advances, the amount of English used during instruction increases by 20% in grade one, and 30% in grade two, stopping at 50:50. The intention is for the students to gain rudimentary literacy within the target language before formally developing English literacy.

The program has an application process with an allocation of 50% of students from the host school zone and 50% from the district's remaining school zones. Candidates for the program complete a preliminary language proficiency screener to ascertain an acceptable English proficiency level. The screener also verifies that no other language impediments are present that would add confounding variables to the program implementation (CMCSS, 2020).

Comparisons of reading, writing, and mathematical skills are being assessed with various formative assessments and writing portfolio data. Various instruments measure progress, some in English and some in Spanish. One of the primary assessments given to all incoming kindergarten students is the FastBridge Developmental Milestones (devMilestones). devMilestones is a criterion-based assessment designed to evaluate student performance in key areas of functioning during kindergarten. This is given as a pre-test to all incoming students to gain a baseline indicator of future aptitude. The scale on which the assessment is rated uses specific performance indicators relative to established milestones. These indicators are used to evaluate behaviors exhibited in early childhood, which students should achieve at different points in the kindergarten year. The

skills a student should display upon entry are considered *inquiring*; by fall *emerging*; by winter *incorporating*; and by spring *mastering*. This conceptual model is predicated upon developing skills across a number of domains. The examined areas include language, literacy & communication; cognitive development; social and emotional development; creativity & the arts; approaches to learning; and physical & motor development. devMilestones is be used to identify students who are at risk for general, social, academic, and emotional behaviors at least three times a year. By evaluating potential risks within the six domains, educators determine what type of support is most appropriate and should be prioritized through interventions (Paige, 2017).

FastBridge assessments are research-based assessments with peer-reviewed published articles that document the foundational support for all implemented tools, ensuring the reliability and validity of the instruments. Within the FastBridge platform, mathematics and reading are assessed with various instruments. All students in the district take FastBridge assessments, which are administered by an academic coach or classroom teacher three times a year: at the beginning of the year (BOY), middle of the year (MOY), and end of the year (EOY). However, since the bilingual students are learning some of the skill sets in the secondary language, there is a slight variation in some of the assessment items and scales due to the language component. The assessments given test the same skill sets, but some tests are given in Spanish to accommodate the language acquisition while still providing an indication of student performance aptitude (Christ, Riley-Tillman, Chafouleas, & Boice, 2010).

Common Unit Assessments (CUAs) assessments administered throughout the school year measure content area progress towards grade level standard content proficiency. First and second-grade students are taking three district-level CUAs in mathematics and reading. The CUAs are administered in Spanish for the bilingual immersion students and in English for their monolingual peers. There are three proficiency levels: below proficient-70% or lower, proficient-71% to 80%, and mastery-81% to 100% (CMCSS, 2021).

Kindergarten students participate in the state writing portfolio model. This collection of student artifacts is used to determine student mastery and growth. Each piece of the writing portfolio contains what are called *Point A* and *Point B* work artifacts that measure the same standard. A comparison of the scores is made to determine overall growth in the standards-based collection. Levels 0, 1, and 2 indicate below grade-level expectations and are categorized as emerging. Performance Level 3 is considered at grade-level expectations. Levels 4 through 7 indicate the work has exceeded grade-level expectations and is categorized as advanced. The rubric scores are discussed with colleagues, and the final score is agreed upon through a triangulation process (CMCSS, 2021).

Conclusions

The CMCSS system has taken a proactive approach to secondary language acquisition, and it is yielding positive results. English has been prioritized, and secondary language acquisition has been more elective than necessary. Yet, with the influx of other cultures and languages becoming more prominent in society, acquiring additional communication skills is becoming more desirable than ever.

There are observable advantages for the inhabitants of the majority of other developed countries to speak at least one other language than their native one. Our children need opportunities to learn a secondary language in bilingual immersion programs nationally. American students need the

opportunity to be competitive in the global marketplace.

References

Add.a.lingua Organization (2018). *New study: Two way dual language programs best for English language learners*. https://addalinguablog.com/2015/09/29/new-study-two-way-dual-language-programs-best-for-english-language-learners/

Archibald, J., Roy, S., Harmel, S., Jesney, K., Dewey, E., Moisik, S., & Lessard, P. (2006). *A Review of the Literature on Second Language Learning* (2nd ed.). Language Research Centre. University of Calgary. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED498248.pdf

Armstrong, P. & Rogers, J. (1997). Basic skills revisited: The effects of foreign language instruction on reading, math, and language arts. *Learning Languages, 2*(3), 20-31.

Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* (5th ed.). Multilingual Matters.

Burton, J. (2018). *The most spoken languages in America*. https://www.worldatlas.com/articles/the-most-spoken-languages-in-america.html

Cade, J. (1997). The foreign language immersion program in the Kansas City, Missouri Public Schools, 1986-1996 [Abstract]. *Dissertation Abstracts International -A 58*(10), 3838.

California Association for Bilingual Education. (2017). *90:10 Model*. https://di.gocabe.org/get-started/program-and-implementation-models/di-program-models/9010-model/

Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition. (2018). *Definition of terms*. https://carla.umn.edu/conferences/past/immersion/terms.html. University of Minnesota

Chomsky, N. (1972). *Language and mind*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Christ, T., Riley-Tillman, T., Chafouleas, S., & Boice, C. (2010). Direct behavior rating (DBR): Generalizability and dependability across raters and observations. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 70, 825-843. doi:10.1177/0013164410366695

Clarksville Montgomery County School System. (2020). Barksdale Spanish immersion program. https://www.cmcss.net/immersion/

Clarksville Montgomery County School System. (2021). Testing and assessments. https://www.cmcss.net/testing/

Cobb, B., Vega, D., & Kronauge, C. (2006). Effects of an Elementary Dual Language Immersion School Program on Junior High School Achievement. *Middle Grades Research Journal*. *1*(1). 27-47.

Cooper, T. (1987). Foreign language study and SAT-verbal scores. *Modern Language Journal, 71*(4), 381-387.

Cummins, J., Krashen, S., Legarreta-Marcaida, D., Terrell, T., & Thonis, E. (1984). *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework.* (pp. 16-82, Rep. No. FL014597). Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED249773)

Cunningham, T. & Graham, C. (2000). Increasing native English vocabulary recognition through Spanish immersion: Cognate transfer from foreign to first language. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*(1), 37-49.

D'Angiulli, A., Siegel, L., & Serra, E. (2001). The development of reading in English and Italian in bilingual children. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 22*(4), 479-507. PsycINFO database.

Demont, E. (2001). Contribution of early second-language learning to the development of linguistic awareness and learning to read/Contribution de l'apprentissage précoce d'une deuxième langue au développment de la conscience lingustique et à l'apprentissage de la lecture. *International Journal of Psychology, 36*(4), 274-285.

Dennis, T. (2017). Eight language program models: Four linguistic roads. *In-Sight.*

Fillmore, C. (1979). On fluency. In Fillmore, C., Kempler, D., & Wang, W., (Eds), *Individual Differences in Language Ability and Language Behavior* (pp. 85–101). Academic Press.

García, O. (2009). Education, multilingualism & translanguaging in the 21st century. In Skutnab-Kangas, T., Phillipson, R., Mohanty, A., & Panda, M., (Eds.), *Social Justice Through Multilingual Education*. (pp. 140–158). Multilingual Matters. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/312265592_Bilingual_Education_in_the_United_States

Greene, J. (1997). A meta-analysis of the Rossell and Baker review of bilingual education research. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *21*(2-3), 103–122. https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.1997.10668656

Hernandez, A., Martinez, A., Wong, E., Frank, L., & Buxton. R. (1997). Neuroanatomical correlates of single- and dual-language picture naming in Spanish–English bilinguals. *MIT Encyclopedia of Cognitive* Sciences, (pp. 80-81). MIT Press.

Holobow, N., Genesee, F., Lambert, W., & Gastright, J. (1987). Effectiveness of partial French immersion for children from different social class and ethnic backgrounds. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 8*(2), 137-151.

Joy, R. (2019). Born this way: Chomsky's theory explains why we're so good. Healthline. https://www.healthline.com/health/childrens-health/chomsky-theory

Kuhl, P., Tsao, F., & Liu, H. (2003). Foreign-language experience in infancy: Effects of short-term exposure and social interaction on phonetic learning. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*. *100*(15), 9096-9101.

Maxwell, L. (2013). Push under Way to Standardize ELL Definitions. *Education Week*, *32*(22)1-2. http://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2014/10/15/08dual.h34.html

McKay Wilson, D. (2011). Dual language programs on the rise: 'Enrichment' model puts content learning front and center for ELL students. *Harvard Education Letter*, *27*(2), 1-8. http://hepg.org/hel-home/issues/27_2/helarticle/duallanguage-programs-on-the-rise

Oberg de la Garza, T., Mackinney, E., & Lavigne, A. (2015). Dual language instruction and achievement: A need and a void in the Midwest. *Mid-Western Educational Researcher,* *27*(4), 363-382. http://www.mwera.org/MWER/volumes/v27/issue4/v27n4-Oberg-FEATURE-ARTICLE.pdf

Paige, P. (2017). *Fastbridge Research Foundations*. FastBridge. https://www.fastbridge.org/2017/03/fastbridge-research-foundations/

Pagan, C. (2005). English learners academic achievement in a two-way versus a structured English immersion program. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *66*(5A), 1603-1604. https://www.actfl.org/center-assessment-research-and-development/what-the-research-shows/academic-achievement.

Partnership for 21st Century Skills (2009). A framework for twenty-first century learning. http://www.p21.org/

Ramírez, J., Pasta, D., Yuen, S., Ramey, D. & Billings, D. (1991) *Final report: Longitudinal study of structured English immersion strategy, early-exit and late-exit bilingual education programs for language-minority children*. (Vol. II) (Prepared for U.S. Department of Education). San Mateo, CA: Aguirre International. No. 300-87-0156.

Rougemont, N. (2022) *The effects of bilingual immersion on elementary school achievement* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Austin Peay State University.

Rossell, C. & Baker, K. (1996). The educational effectiveness of bilingual education. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *30*(1), 7–74.

The Partnership for 21st Century Skills. (2009). P21 framework definitions. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED519462.pdf

Thomas, W. & Collier (1997). Two languages are better than one. *Educational Leadership, 55*(4), 23-26.

Thomas, W. & Collier, V. (2002). *A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement*. Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence

Thomas, W. & Collier, V. (2003). The multiple benefits of dual language. *Educational Leadership*, *61*(2), 61-64.

Thomas, W. & Collier, V. (2012). *Dual language education for a transformed world*. Fuente

U.S. Department of Education (DoE). (2019). *Title III-Language instruction for English learners and immigrant students*. https://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/essa/legislation/title-iii.html

Valdés, G. (2006). Making connections: Second language acquisition research and heritage language teaching. In Salaberry, R. & Lafford, B., (Eds.), *The Art of Teaching Spanish* (pp. 193-212). Georgetown University Press.

Willig, A. (1985). A meta-analysis of selected studies on the effectiveness of bilingual education. *Review of Educational Research*, *55*(3), 269–317. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543055003269

Zeigler, K. & Camarotaon, S. (2019). *67.3 million in the United States spoke a foreign language at home in 2018*. https://cis.org/Report/673-Million-United-States-Spoke-Foreign-Language-Home-2018

Portions of this article were derived from her ongoing doctoral dissertation.

Nicolette Rougemont Ed.S is an English as a Second Language Teacher Clarksville Montgomery County School System Doctoral Fellow Austin Peay State University.

Book Review

Marietta, G., & Marietta, S. (2020). *Rural education in America: What works for our students, teachers, and communities*. Harvard Education Press.

Reviewed by Clifford Davis, Jr., University of West Georgia

In their book, *Rural Education in America: What Works for Our Students, Teachers, and Communities*, authors Geoff and Sky Marietta emphatically refute the premise that rural educational systems are unable to positively impact student achievement because of their population size, density, or distance from a major city center. It is no coincidence that the authors' unique perspective on rural education is directly connected to their roles as parents, community members, practitioners, and academics who have chosen to live and work in rural communities. By challenging commonly held presumptions about education outside urban centers, Marietta and Marietta (2020) marry their passion for rural America with research that advocates for place-based educational approaches that are tailored to the needs of rural students and communities.

This book contradicts decades of social science research supporting out-migration from rural America by students seeking to achieve professional success, asserting instead that rural communities have value as educational environments and that policymaking should focus on strategies that do not promote out-migration. By developing a framework to challenge the false presumptions supporting out-migration, Marietta and Marietta (2020) debunk the myth of the social conservative, White, and low-income rural monolith, arguing that the educational challenges faced by rural communities are more complex and diverse than the current literature suggests. According to the authors,

> …rural communities are diverse and face all different kinds of circumstances. We believe that rural life has value and that supporting rural communities should not involve pressuring individuals to move to access career opportunities. Instead, rural education should be seen as a way to build rural communities into thriving places that create opportunity-including the opportunity to stay or go. (Marietta & Marietta, 2020, p. 185).

This book provides a pioneering perspective on rural education and prompts the reader to rethink their preconceived notions, positing that the challenges in rural education cannot be solved using one-size-fits-all approaches. Furthermore, researchers, educational practitioners, and community members will all benefit from the book's plain English approach, as well as the practical tools provided by the authors that serve to identify both challenges and their corresponding solutions in rural educational practice.

Rural Education in America begins with an introduction that lays the groundwork for the nine subsequent chapters, which are organized into three sections: "The Rural Context," "Meeting the Needs of Rural Students," and "Moving to Action."

Part one of the book first focuses on a novel definition of the term "rural." Marietta and Marietta (2020) argue that rural communities cannot be delineated by a census tract or county border and posit that being rural is a daily lived experience. This

perspective on rural life undergirds the major economic and structural forces, including population stability, economic vitality, and community leadership, that shape rural education.

Next, chapter one provides an overview of the educational challenges faced by rural communities that contribute to out-migration. It tackles the concept of brain drain and considers whether rural people are moving to urban areas to gain more professional opportunities. Chapter two is centered on the strengths of rural communities, such as social and economic mobility, whereas chapter three identifies some of the forces that shape the educational opportunities and needs of rural communities.

Part two of the book discusses in greater depth the educational needs of early childhood, college, and students in vocational training in rural areas. Chapter four addresses the quality of early childhood education and identifies best practices. Chapter five addresses literacy and language development, including for students who speak a language other than English at home, whereas chapter six focuses on science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) education in rural settings. Finally, chapter seven discusses college and career models that have been applied to narrow achievement gaps for students from rural communities.

Part three concludes the book and includes a call to action for readers. Chapter eight suggests resources and tools, as well as an educational self-assessment framework that readers in rural communities can use to identify place-based problems in their town or region. Chapter nine examines how educational initiatives are rolled out in the United States to better understand how educational disadvantages affecting rural communities might be exacerbated on a macro level.

Marietta and Marietta (2020) identify three purposes for the book: (1) to provide a broad survey of rural education that examines and explains challenges faced in rural communities across the nation, (2) to empower rural practitioners to embrace evidence-based solutions and tailor their efforts to maximize their effectiveness, and (3) to equip rural educators and those who work with them (e.g., community leaders, policymakers, and funders) with a deep understanding of rural schools and the educational strategies that work best in such contexts. Much of this review focuses on the first and third purposes of this book. The first purpose was met. Throughout the text, the authors presented several challenges facing rural education and the communities they serve. These include a struggling economy, unequal funding, lagging infrastructure, and poor health outcomes. The third purpose was also met because the content in each of the chapters was relevant to those interested in rural education and provided a decent amount of information for those looking to deepen their knowledge of the subject.

Although the authors use empirical research to support their arguments and achieve their purposes, the data is presented in a fantastically descriptive manner. The authors draw on a blend of rural and non-rural educational research that aims to ensure that children educated in rural communities achieve results that are comparable to their peers. For example, the authors present findings that children from rural communities have a better chance of upward mobility than their urban and suburban counterparts. Another finding showed that students in rural schools consistently outperform those in urban and suburban schools on state-level and national tests. Although these statistics are publicly available, the author's presentation of the data encourages readers to rethink their preconceptions about rural education. It is this unique perspective that distinguishes this work.

Overall, this book provides a novel perspective on the definition of rural education,

as well as its constructs and inputs. I am appreciative of the argument that rural education cannot be reformed using a one-size-fits-all approach. Further, identifying problems and solutions using the assessment tools in the book is a worthwhile exercise, providing those who live, work, or otherwise engage with rural communities with a framework for addressing educational challenges. Marietta and Marietta's (2020) insights are highly credible because they have chosen to live, raise a family, and work in a rural community. The information in the book is presented clearly and accessible, and practitioners, community members, and researchers who are genuinely interested in strengthening the educational outcomes of all students will obtain valuable insights from this work.

References

Azano, A. P. (2017). [Review of the book *Serving gifted students in rural settings* by Stambaugh, T., & Wood, S. (Eds.)]. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, *32*(2), 1–3.

Jakubowski, C. T. (2016). [Review of the book *Self-studies in rural teacher education* by Schulte, A., & Walker-Gibbs, B.]. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, *31*(1), 1–3.

Krugman, P. (2019, March 18). Getting real about rural America. *The New York* Times, 27. https://www.nytimes.com/2019/03/18/opinion/rural-america-economic-decline.html

Marietta, G., & Marietta, S. (2020). *Rural education in America: What works for our students, teachers, and communities*. Harvard Education Press.

Templeton, N. R. (Ed.). (2020). *Voices from the field: Building capacity for leadership and social change in rural schools*. ICPEL Publications.

Dr. Clifford Davis is an assistant professor at the University of West Georgia.