Implementing Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging in Educational Management Practices

Abeni El-Amin
Fort Hays State University, USA & Shenyang Normal University, China

A volume in the Advances in Educational Marketing, Administration, and Leadership (AEMAL) Book Series

IGI Global
PUBLISHER of TIMELY KNOWLEDGE

Published in the United States of America by
IGI Global
Information Science Reference (an imprint of IGI Global)
701 E. Chocolate Avenue
Hershey PA, USA 17033
Tel: 717-533-8845
Fax: 717-533-8661
E-mail: cust@igi-global.com
Web site: http://www.igi-global.com

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: El-Amin, Abeni, 1974- editor.
Title: Implementing diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging in educational management practices / Abeni El-Amin, editor.
Description: Hershey, PA : Information Science Reference, 2023. | Includes bibliographical references and index. | Summary: "This book provides an interdisciplinary perspective of how issues and challenges pertaining to Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging Management (DEIB) affect organizational performance"-- Provided by publisher.
Identifiers: LCCN 2022012770 (print) | LCCN 2022012771 (ebook) | ISBN 9781668448038 (hardcover) | ISBN 9781668448045 (ebook)
Subjects: LCSH: School management and organization. | Universities and colleges--Administration. | Diversity in the workplace
Classification: LCC LB2805 .I433 2023 (print) | LCC LB2805 (ebook) | DDC 371.2--dc23/eng/20220503
LC record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2022012770
LC ebook record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2022012771

This book is published in the IGI Global book series Advances in Educational Marketing, Administration, and Leadership (AEMAL) (ISSN: 2326-9022; eISSN: 2326-9030)

British Cataloguing in Publication Data
A Cataloguing in Publication record for this book is available from the British Library.

All work contributed to this book is new, previously-unpublished material. The views expressed in this book are those of the authors, but not necessarily of the publisher.

For electronic access to this publication, please contact: eresources@igi-global.com.

Advances in Educational Marketing, Administration, and Leadership (AEMAL) Book Series

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ISSN:2326-9022
EISSN:2326-9030

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May your light and service shine forever…Bilal Najjar El-Amin, Gerald Best, bell hooks, and others who inspire diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging philosophy.

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The Merits of a Chief Diversity Officer (CDO): Enterprise Training Program Strategy 1
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Developing an enterprise training program requires a commitment to cultivating diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) organizational initiatives while providing alignment to the organizational mission, vision, and ethos. With this knowledge, enterprise training programs benefit organizations by fostering authentic cultures to resolve persistent issues of bias, implicit bias, and offenses of corporate policies. As a value, organizational leadership must lead and champion diversity initiatives to ensure stakeholders understand the importance of complying with organizational policies. The problem is that effective DEIB initiatives need implementation or an overhaul. Institutional DEIB initiatives fail because they have yet to identify the rationale for program development, provide financial investment, indicate specific and measurable program improvements, identify appropriate stakeholders to achieve institutional goals, and ensure implementation of streamlined program processes so that facilitators have needed administrative, instructional, and professional support.

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As a consequence of their multiple identities, underrepresented leaders often navigate both racialized and gendered pathways to leadership in the U.S. education industry. Nevertheless, relatively little is known about the impact of their intersecting identities and the structural barriers in this sector. To deepen our collective understanding of this phenomenon, the author reviews existing theories and research related to the intersection of race and gender within the educational leadership sphere. More specifically, the author highlights the individual and compounding effects of gender and race on the professional realities of current and aspiring leaders in education at the Central Office (i.e., the Ivory Tower). This chapter concludes by proffering future research propositions, theory development, and policy in this arena.

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This study analyses some implications of the organizational justice, leadership styles, identity, and psychological contract as organizational citizenship behaviors. It begins assuming that there are positive, predictive, and mediating relationships between organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational justice, identity, leadership behaviors, and the psychological contract. The methods employed are the analytical and descriptive leading to a reflective inference based on the previous review of the theoretical and empirical literature on these issues. It is concluded that there are predictive, positive, and mediating relationships between the different variables considered in organizational citizenship behaviors, organizational justice, identity, leadership styles, and psychological contract.

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This chapter discusses the importance of a 'sense of belonging' to student success among students participating in three different programs: first-year composition at a private 4-year university, supplemental instruction at a private 4-year university, and non-credit coursework at a community college. These program examples connect the program purpose and operation to a sense of belonging. Suggestions are also included to improve a sense of belonging within the programs. Finally, special factors within each program are addressed through the lens of a sense of belonging.

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This chapter presents a comprehensive 50-year history of diversity in STEM interventions and lessons learned from diversity professionals in institutional university settings. Recommendations include developing professional identity, communities of practice, and formal credentialing of this specific skill set. Colleges of engineering have been leaders in the creation of effective STEM interventions, commonly called multicultural engineering programs (MEPs), with a focus on the graduation of African American, Hispanic, American Indians, and Alaska Native students. America's history sparked a movement of the adoption and the implementation of MEP offices at predominantly White institutions (PWIs). Institutionalizing such programs and activities became a challenge for MEP administrators over the years, which led to the forming of the National Association of Multicultural Engineering Program Advocates, Inc. (NAMEPA). This leading professional organization serves as a repository of best practices learned through the transferable MEP model to broaden the participation in all STEM fields.

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Research provides evidence that there are various barriers such as socioeconomic status, family, backgrounds, parent involvement, student-teacher relationships, and school experiences that hinder students from successfully navigating high school from 9th grade through 12th grade. Failing students lack the social ties, knowledge, and understanding of the norms that are evident in the prominent culture. Upward Bound specifically serves students who are low-income and backgrounds without a family history of a college education. They face the same barriers that other similar students face, yet they consistently overcome them to graduate from high school. What is not known is how these students overcome the barriers to high-school graduation.

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This chapter presents an example of a diversity educational change initiative at a medical school. A novel premedical program for enlisted members of the U.S. military services was implemented based on mission requirements, analysis of existing data, and evidence-based strategies. The U.S. physician population suffers from a lack of diversity. This has been a long-standing problem which has a significant impact on the health of the nation. Educational leaders have been given a mandate to address this challenge, and efforts have been made over the past decades – with varying levels of success. This chapter discusses the realities of the diversity challenges facing the health professions workforce and highlights elements of programs which have produced successful diversity outcomes. The military's premedical program is described in detail, including the theoretical perspectives for student persistence and how leaders collaborated to create the conditions for student success.

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This chapter explores school suspensions and the extent to which perceptions of racism or differential treatment are held by African American adolescents with multiple school suspensions occurring between August 2018 to present, as well as the perceptions of families and community members. Racism in school exclusionary suspensions (RISES) is a mixed-methods study that addresses the long-standing phenomenon of out-of-school suspensions and school pushout resulting in African American elementary, middle, and high school adolescents dropping out of school before graduation and entering the school-to-prison pipeline. The importance of parental, teacher, and administrator advocacy, as well as community engagement are further explored as the researchers make the case for African American male adolescent suspensions.

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Hany Zaky, Hudson County Community College, USA

Teachers are exposed to a highly stressful job because of the dynamic organizational and societal changes experienced in the educational sector. To deal with these daily challenges, they need to develop high-level emotional competencies such as emotional intelligence (EI) to support their professional development (PD) for adequate teaching and schooling. Developing EI capitalizes upon the harmonious relationships among the various school aspects: student's academic achievement and effective instruction. To this point, it fosters in-class diversity and inclusion understanding. This chapter highlights the strong connection between emotional intelligence and teachers' professional development toward positive professional and organizational changes. It reports PD's correlation with teachers' self-direction, leadership skills, and teaching effectiveness. It also addresses some easy-to-follow pedagogical implications.

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Giovani Lopez Lopez, Fort Hays State University, USA
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This chapter discusses instructor motivation for the inclusion or exclusion of linguistic diversity in the Spanish as a foreign language classroom at the college level. Through a study that included classroom observation as well as groups interviews, this paper shows that a series of traditional language attitudes and ideologies that favor the propagation of a standard language or of a variety that is considered prestigious relegate and ignore in instruction other Spanish varieties, which many times represent the language spoken by nearby Hispanic communities. This study encourages modern language program directors and instructors to use their agentive position to deviate from traditional language attitudes that undermine the value of nonstandard and underrepresented language varieties and to resist implicit or explicit language policies that influence the exclusion of linguistic diversity in foreign language instruction.

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Cynthia Maria Montaudon-Tomas, UPAEP Universidad, Mexico
Anna Amsler, Independent Researcher, Mexico
Ingrid N. Pinto-López, UPAEP Universidad, Mexico

This chapter analyzes the phenomenon known as the great resignation or the big quit, which entails the massive voluntary resignations or mass exodus of workers that have been taking place in different organizations across the globe. Although the notion has acquired relevance during the COVID-19 pandemic and is connected to reassessing or revaluating work and the fragility of life, it was first developed in 2019 by Professor Antony Klotz of Texas A&M University. Different factors associated with this phenomenon are described, along with changes that will occur in the world of work in order to deal with The Great Resignation.

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This research provides an analysis of Kentucky State University's (KSU) Athletic Departmental Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging (DEIB) training series based on Wolfe's leadership competencies. Utilizing Wolfe's competencies of leaders profile to measure DEIB training effectiveness provided a framework to evaluate the program. Wolfe's four domains are Domain 1: Vision, Values, and Culture; Domain 2: Personal Skills, Mindsets, and Values; Domain 3: Capacity Building for Innovation and Continuous Improvement; and Domain 4: Shared Responsibility and Structures for Continuous Improvement, Innovation, and Assessment. It was found that leaders must focus on the internal complexities of leadership and organizational development, as well as operations. The goal of this chapter is to illuminate areas of growth as well as proficiency in DEIB training. Described is the execution of the DEIB training and development program in an intercollegiate athletic setting at a Historical Black College and University (HBCU).

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The results of in-depth meta-analyses of diversity training outcomes reveal that cognitive learning is the strongest effect from diversity training, while smaller effects were behavioral and attitudinal change. Further results of the analysis suggest that successful diversity training occurs when learning is the goal, not impact from behavior or attitude changes. An adapted version of The Kirkpatrick Training and Evaluation Model is highlighted to demonstrate how to design an evaluation that measures actual learning, rather than perceived learning. In addition, the Plus/Delta feedback tool is introduced as an effective evaluation tool to identify what is going well and what needs to change or improve within a training program covering several topics over multiple sessions with a cohort. The chapter concludes with a recommendation that the success of diversity training is evaluated on the degree of learning that occurs in each session, rather than the impact on university diversity initiatives and post-training attitude changes.

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This chapter will examine the importance of mitigating bias in training and development, which provides internal and external scanning, thus mitigating bias in selection, promotion, compensation, information sharing, and implicit biases. Further, bias in training and development arises when training participants are intentionally or unintentionally targeted because of individual aspects of the "Big 8," consisting of race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender identity, ability, religion/spirituality, nationality, and socioeconomic status. Akin to research, information bias results from misleading training participants by providing incomplete information or showing imaging that is not representative of a diverse group of people. Additionally, DEIB training and development leadership and risk factors are addressed.

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Lidia Kos, Florida International University, USA
Christine Dome, Florida International University, USA
Helena Mariella-Walrond, Bethune-Cookman University, USA
Gwen Lee-Thomas, Quality Measures, LLC, USA

This chapter presents an overview and a conceptual approach of culturally relevant mentoring at an institution of higher learning from the lens of the authors. There are various types of mentoring approaches that demonstrate the opportunity for institutional leaders to align their strategic initiatives with the academic and career success of dissertators, postdoctoral researchers, and early career faculty. This work places a focus on culturally relevant mentoring as a tactical approach for creating strategic dialogue of critical consciousness to produce core values, institutional commitments, and strategic plans that reflect the culture of all stakeholders. Culturally relevant mentoring promotes active acknowledgement of cultural contributions, inclusive social context, and equitable and just strategies for institutional climate change that will differentiate an institution from its peers in higher education.

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Robert Currey, Christian Brothers University, USA
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COVID-19 is a major inflection point in the civilizational development of the contemporary society as it passes through various phases of industrial revolutions. Pre-COVID-19, the technological realm was ready to trigger a major disruption, but the societal realm was putting pauses upon it. The wrath and fury that ensued as COVID-19 became a global pandemic in the span of a few months meant that there was no choice but to embrace the digital in all its ramifications. Certain industries underwent this transformation organically, albeit quickly. This chapter attempts to portray the digital transformation of education just before and during COVID-19 and then goes on to discuss how the cultural shift into the digital-dominant, post-COVID-19 world could lead to disruption in the educational industry, potentially displacing "old school" models with new technologies and practices.

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Preface

AN OVERVIEW OF THE SUBJECT MATTER

Implementing Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging in Educational Management Practices is an indispensable reference source that provides an interdisciplinary perspective of how issues and challenges pertaining to DEIB affect organizational performance and educational management practices. It shares the experiences of leaders when DEIB issues arise and seeks areas of improvement. Covering topics such as diversity and inclusion leadership, culturally relevant mentoring, and STEM education, this premier reference source is a critical resource for directors, executives, managers, human resource officers, faculty and administrators of education, government officials, libraries, students of higher education, pre-service educators, researchers, and academicians.

Moreover, Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging (DEIB) leadership must own the process. Educational leaders must retain staff, retrain staff as needed, and terminate staff that do not fulfill DEIB requirements (Unit, 2011). Aligning the business process to objectives is necessary to ensure profitability. Managers must lead with clarity (Birkinshaw et al., 2005). Where there is no vision, the people perish: but he that keepeth the law, happy is he (Proverbs 29:18, KJV). DEIB managers must follow through on business needs and innovate instead of business-as-usual tactics. Consequently, strategic management drives great cultures, innovation, and organizational effectiveness (Hitt et al., 2020).

Likewise, DEIB leadership development programs provide employees with vital leadership skills to be effective managers (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011). Leadership skills needed in execution are communication skills, motivation, enthusiasm, elevated strategic decision-making skills, and accountability. Characteristics and abilities of great managers are integrity, the capacity to delegate, communication, self-awareness, appreciation, learning responsiveness, authority, and compassion (Riggio, 2008). Often, there is a difference between leadership development and management training. Leaders provide context, and practicality, imbue a growth mindset and use data analytics to measure results. As an outcome, leaders need to motivate subordinates to thrive with daily tasks. Developing others is a true mark of leadership. Leaders must embrace change, be open to new paradigms, and communicate for understanding.

Further, to remain competitive, leaders must analyze their business's internal and external environments. Internal environments exist as independent elements inside a complex system comprised of an internal environment of diverse internal stakeholders (Hitt et al., 2020). Stakeholders encompass departments, internal clients, and providers (Birkinshaw et al., 2005). The external environment is comprised of clients, providers, and entrants into marketplaces. The overall quality of these competitive environments shapes the firm's opportunities. Additionally, company leadership is dependent on forecasting and planning for competitive forces. DEIB leaders must maintain clear sight of the firm's performance by consistently analyzing the internal and external environments.

The most reliable predictors for DEIB leaders to succeed are servant leadership, motivation, collaborating, compliance, and supporting organizational goals (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011). Assessing leadership is necessary to ensure the integrity of the leadership ranks, understand the landscape, and mitigate issues. For example, a leadership development assessment based on the Systemic Leadership Development Needs Hierarchy model represents six levels of leadership aptitude: Personal, Relational, Team/Group, Skills, Organizational and Global (Walsh, 2021). The Systemic Leadership Development Needs Hierarchy model aims to identify leadership development needs and chart areas of growth, opportunity, and possibilities (Walsh, 2021). Managers may focus on confidence, the ability to lead others effectively, DEIB leadership knowledge, collegiality, respect, excellent communication skills, critical thinking, providing objective feedback, open-mindedness, appreciation, and respect for diversity of thought and individuals. Determining the attributes of DEIB leaders is situational based on the internal and external environments (Hitt et al., 2020). For instance, leaders must analyze metrics focusing on improving bottom-line human resource performance, attracting, and retaining talent, driving strategic execution, and navigating change. Understanding DEIB leadership frameworks and factors provides a perspective of how DEIB leaders perform. Notwithstanding, analytical factors necessitate auditing DEIB leadership performance (Lin et al., 2020). The overall significance of analyzing leadership performance is a major factor in developing DEIB leaders.

ORGANIZATIONS MUST BE WILLING TO CHANGE

Based on the key aspects of Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Laws, the history, formation of these laws, and their purpose highlight three ways these policies affect current hiring practices. Considered are the positive and negative impacts these policies have on work environments.

The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is responsible for enforcing federal laws that make it illegal to discriminate against a job applicant or an employee because of the person's race, color, religion, sex (including pregnancy, transgender status, and sexual orientation), national origin, age (40 or older), disability or genetic information. (EEOC, 2021a, p. 1)

HISTORY OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AND EQUAL EMPLOYMENT LAWS

In 1961 President John F. Kennedy's Executive Order (E.O. 10925) provided affirmative action and authorized federal contractors to take affirmative action to guarantee that applicants experience equality without respect to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (AAAED, 2021). In doing so, President Kennedy formed the Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity. Three ways Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Laws policies affect the hiring process indicate employers must comply with EEOC mandates and are obligated to treat all people equally irrespective of national origin, race, religion, color, sex (including pregnancy and sexual orientation), disability or genetic information (EEOC, 2021b). Regardless, a candidate for hire or an employee may file a record or proof of claim to determine a burden of proof if they feel the employer violated the law. Likewise, Type 1 and 2 thresholds apply in consideration of unlawfulness. For instance, the EEOC (2021b) indicated that proof of claim includes employee prima facie of protected classes, which cause adverse action, create an inference of intentional discrimination, and execute legitimate and, from an employer's perspective, non-discriminatory policies. Employee litigation is often challenging because of the burden-shifting method. For example, the burden of proof shifts from employee to employer versus employer to employee. The threshold concept refers to unwelcome conduct based on Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC, 2021b) protected classes.

The EEOC (2021) indicates two types of thresholds. There is type 1, where it is highly likely the employer is guilty in case of harassment and strict liability. There is evidence of a tangible job consequence such as the supervisor did the harassing or again tangible job consequences. Type 2 thresholds indicate a hostile work environment, severe and pervasively, create an abusive and hostile work environment, and determine if the accuser or the accused behaved as reasonable persons. The employer's defense then encompasses that the report ended treatment and if the employee failed to report.

A POSITIVE: WORKPLACE DIVERSITY INITIATIVES

Workplace diversity initiatives promote individuality within organizations, acknowledging that each person can contribute with different, modern, and innovative ideas and solutions (Herring & Henderson, 2015). Employees with distinctive backgrounds and experiences supply a collective range of views on matters that provide productivity, performance, and profitability. Diversity incorporates a distinct array of competencies, providing a standard for exceptional abilities that increase organizational retention and efficiency (Herring & Henderson, 2015).

Diversity Training Programs

Diversity programs must motivate high-quality intergroup collaboration, reduce partiality and separation, and promote principles of humanity (Herring & Henderson, 2015). From the company's viewpoint, diversity training elevates inclusion and individuality within the work environment (Noe, 2017). Further, training during onboarding and employment improves the way people cooperate while at work. Issues of Affirmative Action (A.A.), Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), and sexual harassment are significant concerns yet provide a massive opportunity for diversity, inclusion, equity, and belonging practices (Herring & Henderson, 2015).

A Negative: Diverse-Reverse

Indeed, if DEIB initiatives are to work, leadership must support and implement them. Unfortunately, DEIB implementation is not always supported by upper management, which is due to the following: inadequacy of Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Laws policy knowledge; biased recruiting and hiring practices in selecting a human resource director/staff/managers, unwillingness to implement diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) corporate ethos, and failure to lead and inspire others from groupthink behavior (Robbins & Judge, 2018). Further, the absence of strategic leadership, duty of care from the Board of Directors, and a corporate culture that embraces diversity prompts a lack of diversity, employee disengagement, potential lawsuits, and decreased staff retention (Herring & Henderson, 2015; Mensi-Klarbach & Risberg, 2019).

Trauma-Informed Leadership

There are ways to improve Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Laws policy implementation by developing an organizational ethos respectful of the diverse range of stakeholders' organization's interface. Training programs must express company policy and include a no-tolerance policy to mitigate trauma in the workplace (Mensi-Klarbach & Risberg, 2019; Noe, 2017). Trauma-informed leadership provides training initiatives that initially begin in nature but incorporate periodic in-person, computer-based training (CBT), and hybrid training. Some training modules must relate to equal-pay-for equal work regardless of diverse affiliation(s) or intersectionality.

Training on how to accomplish promotion explains the diverse range of support programs and services the organization provides. Most importantly, CBTs do not replace human interaction. Some aspects of training require a human interface. Likewise, diversity increases high-quality intergroup collaboration, reduces partiality and separation, and promotes humanity (Herring & Henderson, 2015). Further, these distinctions either restrain or enhance the way people cooperate within society. Issues of Affirmative Action (A.A.), Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), and sexual harassment are significant concerns yet provide a massive opportunity to improve diversity, inclusion, equity, and belonging practices.

Intentional Change Theory (ICT)

Intentional Change Theory (ICT) is intrinsic when incorporated into organizational development and performance measures (Boyatzis & Boyatzis, 2006). ICT is an innovative framework that also speaks to the responsibility of organizations to be more intentional about building diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) programs and program-centered training while supporting human resources in learner-centered training delivery. ICT seeks to address the phenomenon that we've always done things a certain way, so we must continue in this vein (Boyatzis & Boyatzis, 2006). To improve Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Laws organizational policies, companies must incorporate an innovator mindset (empathetic, problem-finders, risk-takers, networked, observant, creators, resilient, reflective) to mitigate and eliminate issues of bias, microaggressions, microaggressions, and discrimination.

In the Gap: Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging Training Curriculum

Discussed is the curriculum design most preferred for Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging (DEIB) training. There are three basic types of curriculum design: Subject-centered design, Learner-centered design, and Problem-centered design (Vass, 2020). The preferred method is a combination of each linked with collaborative curriculum design. Collaboration in curriculum development is often time-consuming but well worth it because of the value of gaining knowledge and expertise from other facilitators when developing a curriculum. In higher DEIB training, facilitators may develop their courses or receive a course shell to facilitate facilitation and learning. Facilitators must determine what is appropriate for their unique DEIB training setting. The collaborative strategies utilized to support developing a curriculum are based on developing the overall course outline to map content to learning goals, encompassing how to develop a course plan and build the course. All learning goals must describe assessment strategies, tasks, course content, expert analysis, and immersive activities (Kuo & Fitzpatrick, 2020).

Sprigg HR (2020) indicated strategies for implementing effective diversity training include DEIB training as an ongoing endeavor utilizing a calendar for events. Clarity of training goals is an essential facet of diversity training. Support for diversity training must begin at the top, from the Board of Directors down. Civility is an aspect of diversity training that promotes teamwork and is vital in hostile work environment mitigation. A key principle of IEPT is that training materials must be diversified and speak to the intended audience (El-Amin, 2021). Diversity is exciting; therefore, diversity training should be exciting. Interactive videos, storytelling, group interaction, gaming, surveys, or music provide embodiment. The evaluative diversity and inclusion training component provides Kaizen (continuous, micro, or macro changes) and improves ongoing DEIB training. To ensure a commitment to enterprise-wide diversity initiatives, DEIB training must receive the same recognition as annual strategic planning. Diversity training must metrically increase awareness of various cultures by going beyond surface-level training to include cultural facts. Improving organizational culture through diversity training requires commitment, endurance, and patience. Developing and fostering DEIB training initiatives, employee resource groups (ERGs), ally groups, mentoring, DEIB events, DEIB strategic communication and marketing, employee development plans, and recruitment and retention processes build trust and increase belonging for organizational stakeholders (Sprigg HR, 2020).

The Innovator's Mindset

Herranen et al. (2018) indicated that learner-centered to learner-driven DEIB training initiatives indicate inclusivity, engagement, and sustainability. For instance, facilitators have perceptions about the nature of learner-centered/learner-driven DEIB training, the autonomy of thought, meaningfulness, acting and influence of the learning environment, the nature and ownership of sustainable development knowledge, the diversity of the learners, and pedagogical support as innovative strategies of training (El-Amin, 2021). These outcomes provide a basis for a more learner-centered and learner-driven approach, yet across categories, they are fundamentally different in heuristics.

Intentional DEIB Training Practice

The vision for curriculum innovation and the role of the innovator mindset is invaluable in curriculum design. From an innovative mindset perspective, the goal is to gain a diverse perspective from facilitators who encompass an array of instructional or administrative positions, DEIB training levels, facilitation experience in the workplace, academic disciplines, facilitation style preferences, racial and gender attributes. Intentional DEIB training Practice Theory (IEPT) is intrinsic for the individual facilitator, and this innovative framework also speaks to the responsibility of organizations to be more intentional about building DEIB programs and curricula (program-centered) while supporting facilitators in instructional delivery (learner-centered) (El-Amin, 2021). IEP is based on intentional change theory, which seeks to address the phenomenon that we've always done things a certain way, so we must continue in this vein (Boyatzis & Boyatzis, 2006). This kind of thinking is counter to the innovator mindset (empathetic, problem-finders, risk-takers, networked, observant, creators, resilient, reflective). IEPT helps administrators reduce fiscal challenges, advance stakeholder relationships, and improve institutional reputation (El-Amin, 2021). The impact of IEPT improves organizational culture because the integration of the process allows leadership to gain greater approval from institutional stakeholders. Additionally, IEPT programs enhance assessment protocols for facilitator and employee reviews. As a result, there is value in organizations investing in DEIB training for IEPT programs to improve organizational performance (El-Amin, 2021).

DEIB Training Systems Innovation

Regarding DEIB training systems innovation, the objective of Pre-12 is to prepare learners for higher DEIB training or more contextualized learning instead of decontextualized learning. DEIB training leaders impact the types of assessment, modalities, technology, and improvements made in the curriculum and institutional DEIB training and development endeavors (Firsova et al., 2020). For instance, DEIB training on innovative DEIB training curriculum design is practical at the department and unit levels, where impacts are made holistically due to the hands-on approach. Likewise, establishing DEIB training effectiveness is necessary and most impactful when organizations specifically indicate the pros and cons so facilitators can better comprehend the benefits of DEIB training systems innovation and, most importantly, how to apply it (Jones, 2018).

DEIB Training Curriculum Mapping

Curriculum Innovation occurs through curriculum mapping. Foundational knowledge focusing on curriculum objectives provides employees with a fundamental understanding and experience in solving real-world problems using a structured curriculum approach (Rawle et al., 2017). The goal is to provide a framework for employees to practice and solve industry-based problems. Additionally, aligning curriculum mapping to topics aligns with institutional and departmental objectives. An innovative strategy is to provide curriculum maps in a focused, visual format.

Curriculum Innovation, Alignment, and Assessment

Explained are ideas for mapping, analyzing curriculum from an innovator's mindset, and practicality of mapping. Mapping and analyzing an innovator's mindset improve learning and elevates facilitation (Epler, 2020). From a DEIB training perspective, explained are ideas for mapping and analyzing curriculum from an innovator's mindset, practical applications, and how mapping and analyzing this mindset changes or improves learning. Curriculum mapping establishes a baseline utilized to determine changes to improve effectiveness and productivity (Care et al., 2029). Cross curricula promote and develop applicable connections, where all disciplines work together to link curriculum. Specifically, defining all the steps in a strategic curriculum mapping process indicates who is responsible and identifies the outcomes. Considered is flow as a process and a puzzle, which prompts the development of flowcharts to illustrate the flow of a process, proceeding from the most macro perspective to the level of detail required to identify opportunities for improvement (Epler, 2020). Technology permits the curriculum to stay current and relevant. Measuring data requires measuring effectiveness, and reflective assessment, which is both data-driven and, at times, subjective. Subjective determinants based on accounts from facilitators and administrators highlight needed interventions. In this way, challenges are eliminated to resolve inefficiencies such as time or tasks that are not producing intended results.

Organizational Change Management

The changing dynamics of the DEIB training environment merge with innovation in daunting times. As administrators and facilitators have worked tirelessly to adapt and overcome the COVID-19 era, much still needs to occur regarding closing the achievement gap, dismantling the school-to-prison pipeline, equal pay-equal opportunity, increasing participation in Early College programs, aligning shrinking budgets while managing COVID-19 issues, brain drain as early retirees opt out of the school system, and retaining athletics and the arts. These are persistent issues that need to be resolved. And then, there is curriculum mapping to align the requirement of the national DEIB training plan, that of local school systems, and the external environment. Although there are gaps, technology increases the likelihood of closing gaps. Curriculum mapping ensures there are multi-modal ways for employees to learn the topical matter. Therefore, as employees matriculate, upskilling all facilitators and employees requires planning so when calamity occurs, such as COVID-19, DEIB training administrators can respond more effectively. The study of curriculum mapping provides a much-needed reflection on pressing issues related to risk management in a global crisis or normal day-to-day lesson planning and execution. In the end, facilitators must have a level of intrinsic motivation as the issues of DEIB training are more complex than ever before. Finally, leadership has a profound effect on the motivation of facilitators. As a result, the best recommendation for learning issues is to go to the source. Drafting an authentic introduction to a responsive survey asking stakeholders important questions, Pareto chart the feedback with the capacity to deliver in mind, share these results and the plan to fulfill the needs. Finally, executing recommendations influences intrinsic motivation.

Innovative DEIB Training Trends

Based on the research of national and international practices, emerging trends are developed to meet the demands of business and international DEIB training. Implications for curricular changes will become more frequent as technology and applications are developed. DEIB training trends are inspiring as they allow employees to access information easier, faster, and hopefully with more clarity. For instance, the practice of Heutagogy is the study of self-determined learning (Hase & Kenyon, 2000). Indeed, Illuminated is the Charmazian qualitative technique, which provides a grounded theory approach to curriculum design where research and evidence-based frameworks are utilized to collect and analyze data. In research-informed curriculum development, there are several differences between qualitative and quantitative research analysis (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Similarly, each research method provides a general outlay of the research problem, such as who, what, how, where, and other aspects germane to the curriculum standards and focus (Druzhinina et al., 2018). Ascertaining answers to these complex questions requires due diligence. Thus, this requires performing research, data analytics, collaborative meetings, and thinking methodically about how the work will make a wider impact (Frich et al., 2019). Given research-informed curriculum development, its findings, and implications, benchmarking consideration may help improve DEIB training gap alignment by incorporating a strategy to improve effectiveness (Winstone et al., 2020). Additionally, benchmarking in successful school districts is an excellent way to ensure organizations perform well. Benchmarking permits administrators to identify satisfactory practices, prioritize opportunities for improvement, and enhance workforce productivity. As a result, benchmarking happens in many organizations and is used to broaden efficiency and reap competitive advantages.

Research-Informed Curriculum Development

Considered is how to research, trends, and data are used to reform curriculum concerning innovation. Explained are how facilitators can use research, trends, and data to innovate curricula. Shared examples and ideas for innovating a curriculum are numerous, and facilitators must decide which they will execute. Regarding research-informed curriculum development innovation, the objective of Pre-12 is to prepare learners for higher DEIB training or more contextualized learning as opposed to decontextualized learning. DEIB training leaders impact the types of assessment, modalities, technology, and improvements made in the curriculum and institutional DEIB training and development endeavors (Firsova et al., 2020). For instance, DEIB training on research-informed curriculum development is practical at the department and unit levels, where impacts are made holistically due to the hands-on approach. Likewise, establishing DEIB training effectiveness is necessary and most impactful when organizations specifically indicate the pros and cons so facilitators can better comprehend the benefits of research-informed curriculum development and, most importantly, how to apply it (Jones, 2018).

Evidence-Based Curriculum

Assessing DEIB training curriculum design resources is beneficial when developing an innovative curriculum. Research-informed, the evidence-based curriculum is innovative when balanced, rigorous, coherent, vertically integrated, appropriate, focused, and relevant (Wiliam, 2013). Areas of improvement are needed to meet requirements for DEIB training curriculum design. Appropriate literature sources are a component of DEIB training curriculum design research, development, and execution. Further, grey literature materials and research developed by entities external to that of typical publications or academic publishing channels must also be considered in the DEIB training curriculum design (Okoroma, 2011). Further, various grey literature publication sources are unpublished reports, government documents, working papers, white papers, and study assessments. While grey literature is useful, evidence-based, peer-reviewed academic sources should be used to validate preliminary suppositions.

Leading Curriculum Innovation

Leading curriculum innovation and strategies hinge on an open DEIB training model, universal design, and participant curriculum engagement. The most innovative idea for mapping and analyzing curriculum from an innovator's mindset is to use a project management planning approach (Nadelson et., 2018). Practical implementation for analyzing curriculum is to engage employees in curriculum design (Capp, 2017). Further, mapping and analyzing this mindset change improves learning because facilitators can gain insights from employees. For instance, Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is often an inclusive facilitation framework for engaging all employees within multi-diverse extant classrooms. This is accomplished by proactively and intentionally planning that encompasses the potential needs of employees (Capp, 2017).

Additionally, employees provide a current perspective of innovative modes, technology, and terminology for consideration in curriculum planning. Numerous tools are available to support the various phases of mapping and analyzing curriculum as it can be overwhelming, especially if mapping for an entire system, district, or program. Further, mapping and analyzing curriculum identifies outcomes, which often become widely used when launched. Mapping and analyzing curricula are associated with successful DEIB training management because of the complexity of mapping and analyzing curriculum. As a result, leading curriculum development and innovation from a project management perspective are necessary to control for (scope, cost, and time) (Chipere, 2017). Mapping and analyzing curricula are based on research response data to determine the best methods and make decisions about the content of the curriculum.

Maximize Diversity and Inclusion Initiatives

Based on the research of national and global practices, diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) as an emerging trend meets the demands of business and global training environments. Implications for programmatic changes will become more frequent as technology and DEIB applications emerge. DEIB trends are inspiring as they provide a way for organizations to access information easier, faster, and hopefully with more clarity. For instance, the practice of Heutagogy is the study of self-determined learning. Indeed, a grounded theory approach to training and development design where research and evidence-based frameworks highlight the use of data collection and analysis. There are several differences between qualitative and quantitative research analysis in research-informed training and development.

Becoming a Learning Organization

Transformational learning premises of single and double-loop learning from Heorhiadi et al. (2014) explain how learning organizations are constructed. Further, the situational leadership model as a leadership framework and organizational change theory considers leadership performance in developing and supporting a learning organization promoting DEIB. Further, organizations support their diverse stakeholders by training their employees, which allows for organizational and transformational learning. A large part of leadership is supporting others, emphasizing the significance of forming relationships. Further, this is especially essential because leadership recognizes that continuous enrichment of one's competence drives organizational performance (Bodinson, 2005). Bodinson (2005) also indicated that supporting others through mentoring helps colleagues tremendously in their work.

Transformative Learning: Open and Double Loop Learning

There are dualistic types of learning, informative and transformative (Kegan, 2000). As a result, informative learning permits individuals to learn more about stimuli that fit their mental frameworks, while transformative learning is changing mental frameworks (Heorhiadi et al., 2014). Indeed, mental frameworks convey a set of beliefs that engenders individual assumptions and values and apprises their motivations. Mental frameworks and belief systems are necessary components when developing a learning organization that fosters DEIB. Heorhiadi et al. (2014) provided the resulting tasks that are elemental for developing a learning organization: foster a culture that supports transformative learning on the individual level as single-loop and double-loop learning on the collective level; develop and promote stakeholders who support the new culture and transformation process; develop and promote stakeholders who are truly receptive to the feedback and risk-taking connected with deep level self-reflection and change. This may necessitate mentoring for organizational leaders. As employees transform, they develop critical thinking skills and become more likely to challenge authority. Thus, leaders must be open to new challenges, encourage, and provide opportunities for stakeholders to participate in critical contemplation of self-behaviors and apply the double-loop learning framework.

Transformative Learning Theory (TLT)

Transformative learning (TLT) is often a foreboding and poignant experience in which individuals must become aware of the expectations providing the foundation of ideas and those accompanying emotional reactions to the need for change, especially when it involves subjective reframing as with organizational DEIB transformation. Subsequently, the individual must complete the four fundamental steps of analytical contemplation of self-behavior; connection with the principal's values or assumptions of the principal the behavior; changes in principal values or assumptions; and behavior transformation (La Venture, 2013).

Based on the foundations of Heorhiadi et al. (2014), ways that transformative learning is distinguished from informative learning in organizational development are discussed. Transformative learning benefits organizational development practices and, based on Mezirow's (1997) transformational learning theory (TLT), is the process of impacting a trainee's frame of reference while also incorporating their being, experiences, and reflections, as does Heutagogy, which is the study of self-determined learning. Practical examples illustrate applying transformative learning in the staff recruitment and hiring processes. For instance, organizations invest resources into training and development to enhance DEIB organizational performance and profitability (Cusumano, 2010). Transformative learning benefits staff recruitment and hiring practices by critically assessing organizational opportunities to propose appropriate actions in organizational development-related contexts (Robbins & Judge, 2017). Analyzing organizational structure and leadership characteristics enhance a performance-based yet transformative organizational culture. Adapting transformative strategic management techniques in finance, marketing, human capital, DEIB, and operational performance to make decisions in targeted organizational development is necessary for high-performing organizations. Organizational development strategies must be formulated and delivered based on appropriate planning and communication - encompassing verbal, scripted, and virtual mediums to communicate requirements, goals, and organizational performance for recruitment strategies. Further, Heorhiadi et al. (2014) indicated that transformative learning, double-loop learning, and the relationship to the learning organization are achievable, yet only with consistent actions of employees and at the organizational level. Additionally, to help employees achieve comprehension of training topics, organizational development professionals must be cognizant of the different learning preferences of aural, visual, tactile, in-person, virtual, and hybrid learning environments (Duncan & Fiske, 2015).

Indeed, with double-loop learning, when individuals face a problem, they must reflect on their behavior, identify, and challenge the underlying assumptions that drive behavior (Heorhiadi et al., 2014). The individuals' underlying assumptions, which previously remained implied or unchallenged, are now visible through this process. Transformation may feel unsafe at first, as individuals then learn by reflecting on the entire belief system that led to the problem. This learning expands opportunities for behavioral change or a new mental framework. Notwithstanding, changing underlying beliefs or assumptions increases anxiety.

Situational Leadership

The effectiveness of leadership behavior is contingent upon organizational situations. Appropriately deemed as contingency approaches (Robbins & Judge, 2017). Likewise, situational leadership theories elucidate the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness in situational circumstances (Daft, 2018). As a result, leadership proficiency comprises exceptional facilitation, communication, benchmarking, awareness of DEIB issues, and coaching expertise. As a difference, leaders must grasp organizational processes, auditing, strategic planning, and project management.

Additionally, organizational leaders must establish the organization's financial goals to align budgets and forecasts. Developing effective working relationships is essential to situational leadership. Organizational leaders must maintain the ability to collaborate relationally and tactically. Organizational leaders align situational approaches with current organizational strategies to realize organizational gains. Finally, organizational leaders must adjust their personality and leadership tactics based on the situational demands of the organization.

CONCLUSION

Concerning transformative learning and leadership in the context of DEIB, the imperative for transformative learning rests on the principles of professional practice. Additionally, respecting stakeholders' by communicating how various strategy affects them is paramount to human respect, regardless of the challenges present. Stakeholders' personal preferences should be the basis for providing transformative leadership (Heorhiadi et al., 2014). While it may be true that traditional leadership structure contributes to the vast amount of stakeholder disenfranchisement, leaders should look to transformative management strategies to retain stakeholders (Robbins & Judge, 2017). Practicing transformative learning ensures that diverse stakeholders are well-respected, guaranteeing an inclusive environment for all.

Moreover, leaders must communicate the benefits of transformative learning. Further, inclusionary or DEIB guidelines should be standard, easy to access, and straightforward to understand and apply in the transformative learning environment. Adherence to guidelines when implementing transformative learning allows all parties to make better decisions, decrease variations in communication, decrease variance, and limit liability (Robbins & Judge, 2017). The overall objective is to improve institutional stakeholder experience and move from a transformative learning environment to an organization that embraces transformation as an ethos. Finally, transformative learning practices help leaders place all stakeholders at the center of service (Heorhiadi et al., 2014). Having stakeholders agree to a code of stakeholder relationship management during initiation is paramount to establishing a framework for developing successful learning communities. The partnership between the leader and stakeholder is one of shared decision-making in that organizational leaders must always strive for person-centered leadership. In conclusion, diverse stakeholders improve collaborative decision-making and become valuable members of a transformative organization.

Additionally, situational leadership includes how one communicates in the workplace, the kinds of information conveyed and managing one's emotional intelligence. Moreover, understanding cultural and organizational learning frameworks such as single and double learning resonates within the workplace. Improving the efficacy of DEIB professional norms requires training and development (Drucker, 2005). Likewise, professional well-being is contingent upon situational analysis, which requires a specific approach to develop a personalized support plan. Indicators needed to build transformative organizations are based on transparency, open-mindedness, soliciting feedback, and contemplation to create utilitarian and transformational educational institutions that benefit all (Bodinson, 2005).

ORGANIZATION OF THE BOOK

The book is organized into 16 chapters. A brief description of each of the chapters follows:

Chapter 1 establishes the importance of developing an enterprise training program, which requires a commitment to cultivating diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) organizational initiatives while providing alignment to the organizational mission, vision, and ethos. With this knowledge, enterprise training programs benefit organizations by fostering authentic cultures to resolve persistent issues of bias, implicit bias, and offenses of corporate policies. As a value, organizational leadership must lead and champion diversity initiatives to ensure stakeholders understand the importance of complying with organizational policies. The problem is that effective DEIB initiatives need implementation or an overhaul. Institutional DEIB initiatives fail because they have yet to identify the rationale for program development, provide financial investment, indicate specific and measurable program improvements, identify appropriate stakeholders to achieve institutional goals, and ensure implementation of streamlined program processes so that facilitators have needed administrative, instructional, and professional support.

Chapter 2 examines the consequences of multiple identities that underrepresented leaders often navigate in both racialized and gendered pathways to access leadership in the U.S. education industry. Nevertheless, relatively little is known about the impact of their intersecting identities and the structural barriers in this sector. To deepen our collective understanding of this phenomenon, I review some of the existing theories and research related to the intersection of race and gender within the educational leadership sphere. More specifically, the author highlights the individual and compounding effects of gender and race on the professional realities of current and aspiring leaders in education at the Central Office (i.e., the Ivory Tower). This chapter concludes by proffering future research propositions, theory development, and policy in this arena.

Chapter 3 analyses some implications of the organizational justice, leadership styles, identity, and psychological contract as organizational citizenship behaviors. It begins assuming that there are positive, predictive, and mediating relationships between organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational justice, identity, leadership behaviors and the psychological contract. The methods employed are the analytical and descriptive leading to a reflective inference based on the previous review of the theoretical and empirical literature on these issues. It is concluded that there are predictive, positive, and mediating relationships between the different variables considered in organizational citizenship behaviors, organizational justice, identity, leadership styles and psychological contract.

Chapter 4 discusses the importance of a 'sense of belonging' to student success among students participating in three different programs: first-year composition at a private 4-year university, Supplemental Instruction at a private 4-year university, and non-credit coursework at a community college. These program examples connect the program purpose and operation to a sense of belonging. Suggestions are also included to improve a sense of belonging within the programs. Finally, special factors within each program are addressed through the lens of a sense of belonging.

Chapter 5 presents a comprehensive 50-year history of diversity in STEM interventions and lessons learned from diversity professionals in institutional university settings. Recommendations include developing professional identity, communities of practice, and formal credentialing of this specific skill set. Colleges of Engineering have been leaders in the creation of effective STEM interventions, commonly called Multicultural Engineering Programs (MEPs) with a focus on the graduation of African American, Hispanic, American Indians, and Alaska Native students. America's history sparked a movement of the adoption and the implementation of MEP Offices at predominantly White institutions (PWIs). Institutionalizing such programs and activities became a challenge for MEP Administrators over the years, which led to the forming of the National Association of Multicultural Engineering Program Advocates, Inc. (NAMEPA). This leading professional organization serves as a repository of best practices learned through the transferable MEP model to broaden the participation in all STEM fields.

Chapter 6 provides evidence that there are various barriers such as socioeconomic status, family, backgrounds, parental involvement, student-teacher relationships, and school experiences that hinder students from successfully navigating high school from 9th grade through 12th grade. Failing students lack the social ties, knowledge, and understanding of the norms that are evident in the prominent culture. Upward Bound specifically serves students who are low-income and backgrounds without a family history of a college education. They face the same barriers that other similar students face, yet they consistently overcome them to graduate from high school and transition to college or career. What is not known is how these students overcome the barriers to high-school graduation. This chapter examines the socio-cultural paradoxes of striving youth.

Chapter 7 presents an example of a diversity educational change initiative at a medical school. A novel premedical program for enlisted members of the U.S. military services was implemented based on mission requirements, analysis of existing data, and evidence-based strategies. The U.S. physician population suffers from a lack of diversity. This has been a long-standing problem which has a significant impact on the health of the nation. Educational leaders have been given a mandate to address this challenge, and efforts have been made over the past decades – with varying levels of success. This chapter discusses the realities of the diversity challenges facing the health professions workforce and highlights elements of programs which have produced successful diversity outcomes. The military's premedical program is described in detail, including the theoretical perspectives for student persistence, and how leaders collaborated to create the conditions for student success.

Chapter 8 explores school suspensions and the extent to which perceptions of racism or differential treatment are held by African American adolescents with multiple school suspensions occurring between August 2018 to present, as well as the perceptions of families and community members. Racism in School Exclusionary Suspensions (RISES) is a mixed-methods study that addresses the long-standing phenomenon of out-of-school suspensions and school pushout resulting in African American elementary, middle, and high school adolescents dropping out of school before graduation and entering the school-to-prison pipeline. The importance of parental, teacher, and administrator advocacy, as well as community engagement are further explored as the researchers make the case for African American male adolescent suspensions.

Chapter 9 reviews how teachers are exposed to a highly stressful job because of the dynamic organizational and societal changes experienced in the educational sector. To deal with these daily challenges, they need to develop high-level emotional competencies such as Emotional Intelligence (EI) to support their Professional Development (PD) for adequate teaching and schooling. Developing EI capitalizes upon the harmonious relationships among the various school aspects: Student's academic achievement and effective instruction. To this point, it fosters in-class diversity and inclusion understanding. This chapter highlights the strong connection between Emotional Intelligence and teachers' Professional Development toward positive professional and organizational changes. It reports PD's correlation with teachers' self-direction, leadership skills, and teaching effectiveness. It also addresses some easy-to-follow pedagogical implications.

Chapter 10 discusses instructor motivation for the inclusion or exclusion of linguistic diversity in the Spanish as a foreign language classroom at the college level. Through a study that included classroom observation as well as groups interviews., this paper shows that a series of traditional language attitudes and ideologies that favor the propagation of a standard language or of a variety that is considered prestigious relegate and ignore in instruction other Spanish varieties, which many times represent the language spoken by nearby Hispanic communities. This study encourages modern language program directors and instructors to use their agentive position to deviate from traditional language attitudes that undermine the value of nonstandard and underrepresented language varieties and to resist implicit or explicit language policies that influence the exclusion of linguistic diversity in foreign language instruction.

Chapter 11 analyzes the phenomenon known as the great resignation or the big quit, which entails the massive voluntary resignations or mass exodus of workers that have been taking place in different organizations across the globe. Although the notion has acquired relevance during the COVID-19 pandemic and is connected to reassessing or revaluating work and the fragility of life, it was first developed in 2019 by Professor Antony Klotz of Texas A&M University. Different factors associated with this phenomenon are described, along with changes that will have to take place in the world of work in order to deal with this issue.

Chapter 12 presents an analysis of the Kentucky State University (KSU) Athletic Department diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) training series based on specific leadership competencies. Measures to improve educational leadership are to overcome leadership obstacles such as being narcissistic, lacking empathy, and externalizing issues, instead on focusing on the internal complexities of leadership and organizational development. The goal is to illuminate areas of growth as well as proficiency. Described is the execution of the DEIB training and development program in an Intercollegiate Athletic setting at an Historical Black College and University (HBCU).

Chapter 13 provides the results of in-depth meta-analyses of diversity training outcomes, which reveal that cognitive learning is the strongest effect from diversity training, while smaller effects were behavioral and attitudinal change. Further results of the analysis suggest that successful diversity training occurs when learning is the goal, not impact from behavior or attitude changes. An adapted version of The Kirkpatrick Training and Evaluation Model is highlighted to demonstrate how to design an evaluation that measures actual learning, rather than perceived learning. In addition, the Plus/Delta feedback tool is introduced as an effective evaluation tool to identify what is going well and what needs to change or improve within a training program covering several topics over multiple sessions with a cohort. The chapter concludes with a recommendation that the success of diversity training is evaluated on the degree of learning that occurs in each session, rather than the impact on university diversity initiatives and post-training attitude changes.

Chapter 14 examines the importance of mitigating bias in training and development, which provides internal and external scanning; thus, mitigating bias in selection, promotion, compensation, information sharing, and implicit biases. Further, bias in training and development arises when training participants are intentionally or unintentionally targeted because of individual aspects of the "Big 8", consisting of race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender identity, ability, religion/spirituality, nationality, and socioeconomic status. Akin to research, information bias results from misleading training participants by providing incomplete information or showing imaging that is not representative of a diverse group of people. Additionally, DEIB training and development leadership and risk factors are addressed.

Chapter 15 presents an overview and a conceptual approach of culturally relevant mentoring at an institution of higher learning from the lens of the authors. There are various types of mentoring approaches that demonstrate the opportunity for institutional leaders to align their strategic initiatives with the academic and career success of dissertators, postdoctoral researchers, and early career faculty. This work places a focus on culturally relevant mentoring as a tactical approach for creating strategic dialogue of critical consciousness to produce core values, institutional commitments, and strategic plans that reflect the culture of all stakeholders. Culturally relevant mentoring promotes active acknowledgement of cultural contributions, inclusive social context, and equitable and just strategies for institutional climate change, that will differentiate an institution from its peers in higher education.

Chapter 16 concludes by reflecting on how COVID-19 is a major inflection point in the civilizational development of the contemporary society as it passes through various phases of industrial revolutions. Pre-COVID-19, the technological realm was ready to trigger a major disruption, but the societal realm was putting pauses upon it. The wrath and fury that ensued as COVID-19 hugely became a global pandemic in the span of a few months meant that there was no choice but to embrace the digital in all its ramifications. Certain industries underwent this transformation organically, albeit quickly. This paper attempts to portray the digital transformation of education just before and during COVID-19 and then goes on to discuss how the cultural shift into the digital-dominant, post-COVID-19 world could lead to disruption in the educational industry, potentially displacing "old school" models with new technologies and practices.

Overall, this text highlights research on social and political changes this era has created and the fundamental shift in how educational institutions impact of diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB). Likewise, successful educational institutions are achieved by incorporating DEIB initiatives and managing inclusive workforces. Thus, it is imperative to understand how educational leaders implement DEIB educational change initiatives as well as how they make significant, sustainable changes by utilizing communication abilities, collaborative leadership, conflict management skills, and servant leadership. Simultaneously, educational stakeholders must vet essential DEIB and change management processes and principles.

Abeni El-Amin
Fort Hays State University, USA

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Section 1

Diversity and Inclusion Education Management and Performance

Chapter 1
The Merits of a Chief Diversity Officer (CDO):
Enterprise Training Program Strategy

Abeni El-Amin
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7506-1658
Fort Hays State University, USA & Shenyang Normal University, China

ABSTRACT

Developing an enterprise training program requires a commitment to cultivating diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) organizational initiatives while providing alignment to the organizational mission, vision, and ethos. With this knowledge, enterprise training programs benefit organizations by fostering authentic cultures to resolve persistent issues of bias, implicit bias, and offenses of corporate policies. As a value, organizational leadership must lead and champion diversity initiatives to ensure stakeholders understand the importance of complying with organizational policies. The problem is that effective DEIB initiatives need implementation or an overhaul. Institutional DEIB initiatives fail because they have yet to identify the rationale for program development, provide financial investment, indicate specific and measurable program improvements, identify appropriate stakeholders to achieve institutional goals, and ensure implementation of streamlined program processes so that facilitators have needed administrative, instructional, and professional support.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this expose is to create and assess a Chief Diversity Officer (CDO): Enterprise Training Program Implementation Strategy. Composing insightful diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) frameworks requires presenting assertions about developing recommendations, emendations, and practical application. Furthermore, assertions are assembled from peer-reviewed sources of comparative context. The research content is divided into different sections and coordinated with proficient reflexology. Presenting research exhibits professional capabilities and incorporates astute connections

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch001

of the data compiled. As a result, the variety of peer-reviewed research articles provide evidence for a DEIB enterprise training program implementation strategy.

Chief Diversity Officer (CDO): Enterprise Training Program Implementation Strategy

Developing a DEIB enterprise training program requires a commitment to cultivating a DEIB organizational initiative while providing alignment to the organizational mission, vision, and ethos (Atewologun & Mahalingam, 2018). With this knowledge, enterprise training programs benefit organizations by fostering authentic cultures to resolve persistent issues of bias, implicit bias, and offense of corporate policies (Carter et al., 2020; Nonnemacher & Sokhey, 2022). As a value, organizational leadership must lead and champion diversity initiatives to ensure stakeholders understand the importance of complying with organizational policies (Taylor et al., 2022).

BACKGROUND

As a diversity and inclusion professional, one collaborates with others to fulfill training obligations for the organization (Leon, 2014). As a result, the goals are to evaluate training and critical data by thoroughly addressing identifiable aspects of training designs (qualitative: phenomenological, grounded theory, action research, and quantitative: descriptive, correlational, experimental); including critical and significant content; distinctly presenting acute ideas that are perceptive, effectively synthesized, and integrated training for application; structured and formatted to achieve the training purpose. Often the division of labor strategy is employed to complete the work in a timely manner.

MAIN FOCUS OF THE CHAPTER

Exceptional organizations incorporate innovative change management, learning, and curriculum strategies that are conveyed through training. Organizations must take a no-tolerance approach to inequity in the workplace (Herring & Henderson, 2015). To this end, organizations must develop DEIB curriculum, gather pertinent data, assess data analytics, convey targets, disseminate advancement data, and encourage organizational stakeholders to reveal and live their true identities within educational and professional settings (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011).

The Enterprise Training Program Implementation Strategy Requires Collaborative Action

Further, diversity and inclusion professionals ensure team members achieve timeline commitments and intervene if necessary. Additionally, collaboration requires DEIB training development team members to contribute significantly to each training project; support the efforts of other team members; and complete critical reviews of training activities. Team members collaboratively select training modules and articulate training goals. The CDO is responsible for organizing and communicating to the training team the compilation of stated goals and ensuring the objectives of the training are completed in a timely manner. In doing so, the CDO must determine the plan, communicate the plan, seek feedback, and ensure execution of the training plan (Cooper & Gerlach, 2019; Corley, 2020; El-Amin, 2022).

Collaboration For DEIB Enterprise Training Program Implementation Strategy

Collaboration merits the decision-making process and provides checks and balances, to elevate DEIB conversations and increase the probability for effectiveness in projects, programs, or organizations (Hoffmann et al., 2020). DEIB training development teams develop collaborative training activities by developing training plans based on the principles of ADDIE (analyze, design, develop, implement, and evaluation) training methodology, program requirements, or grant proposals (Esteves-Miranda et al., 2020). Group members chosen to work on projects maintain professional dispositions throughout the collaboration and as a result, are often selected to work on the more complex projects of the organization. In the process, several considerations are determined, including the social, organizational, and cultural contexts of team member development (Li et al., 2015).

Collaboration: Achieving Positive Outcomes

Collaboration is the best way to achieve a positive outcome. The CDO develops a training plan communicated in writing, verbally, and with visuals to communicate metrics. The visual chart provides a graphic portrayal of the training objectives, timelines, and gaps for multi-modal training team members. In a diversity and inclusion professional framework, team members are expected to base efficiency on the stated training project or grant requirements (Green, 2018; Joo; 2018). The DEIB training plan provides a technical map, increases cognition, which requires collaboration and cooperation by all team members (Abatecola et al., 2018). The predictors of excellent instructors and characteristics of effective college DEIB professionals indicate that the biggest impact is the realization of how professional development elevate one's career. As a leader, the implications for training professionals allows one to chart programs and initiatives that most align with current needs. This information encourages and challenges one to think pragmatically and systematically in choosing training for subordinates or peers. As a result, systemic changes are needed in an ever-evolving training framework. When training it is necessary to provide bridging, outcomes, pre-assessment, post-assessment, participatory learning, and summary (Queens, 2021). In providing a specific process for implementation and modeling, better DEIB training outcomes are realized.

Further, embracing active learning approaches creates opportunities for administrators to improve professional development and acumen. Educational leaders must determine how they will develop, implement, and convey innovative training that allows their teams to work through personal and organizational transitionary phases (Super, 2020). Additionally, training must offer various dimensions, specific to needs, complex for advanced staff, and exploratory as needed. When selecting training, consideration must center on the individual as well as organizational needs. Elements of professional development must be tied to holistic-development with regards to implicit bias, cultural-aversion, cultural perception, and diversity and inclusion. The challenge is to avoid unnecessary fragmentation, which is accomplished by dealing with biases, intentional programming, and training (Herranen et al., 2018).

Effective Training Mechanisms

Based on inferences made from Cascio and Aguinis (2011), managing and overseeing the development and implementation of training materials to reflect current operating processes and procedures is important to ensure staff compliance to company regulations (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011). Driving high employee engagement and identifying strategies to recruit and retain top talent must be a mission of all human resource professionals. Partnering with leadership and all departments to develop and maintain continuity of services is necessary. Utilizing various instructional methods to deliver content, including lecture, demonstrations, small group activities, videos and other methodologies as appropriate strengthens training. Demonstrating and communicating a clear understanding of and adherence to compliance and legal standards must be a priority. Implementing and scheduling training programs, ensures completion and documentation of scheduled training programs (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011).

Characteristics, Behaviors, and Traits of Effective Chief Diversity Officers (CDOs)

CDO collaboration is valuable within the workplace (Marshall, 2019). Working in teams influences a decision-making process. A team enables stakeholders to be more effective in their work, as compared to people who work on projects on their own. The sense of team disposition adds value and meaning to a specific work (Mohammed et al., 2021). Collaboration is a massive way for CDOs to achieve positive outcomes and meet DEIB organizational metrics. Supportive teams help CDOs overcome adversity related to challenging decision-making processes (Ng et al., 2020; Morgan et al., 2021).

CDOs can overcome the differences between likability and effectiveness since these qualities are required for effective leadership. Additionally, traits of likeability comprise the ability to advance the work in the way they plan but at the same time considers the preferences of organizational stakeholders (Hughes et al., 2018). Likability and effectiveness are both important traits of a successful leader and the success is dependent on the balance between the traits of decisiveness, directedness, logical, to that of indirect, emotional, collaborative, polite, (Coffman & Marques, 2021). Moreover, communication style is an indicator of leadership effectiveness.

Stereotypes dilute the effectiveness of CDOs (Mohammed et al., 2021). Currently, numerous changes have occurred within modern society as more diversity employees rise to leadership roles than they did in the past. The workforce is more accepting of diversity professionals in leadership roles, regardless of their age as other skills such as education, ability, and personality are key factors of leadership effectiveness (Mohammed et al., 2021). Indeed, culture has a strong influence on the acceptance of employees into leadership roles despite race, gender, or age. Some geographical locations are more amenable to diverse employees holding leadership positions despite intercultural considerations.

The Impact of the Chief Diversity Officer on Diversity Initiatives

Burke et al. (2018) examined the growing interest in DEIB initiatives; there is currently a lack of understanding concerning leadership within such initiatives, as the literature has focused on DEIB leadership within the context of traditional organizations. The current study investigates DEIB leadership within the context of DEIB initiatives operating in unprogressive environments, focusing on DEIB initiatives operating in isolated, confined environments. Burke et al. (2018) identified DEIB initiatives leadership functions and a subset of structural characteristics associated with DEIB initiatives leadership in unprogressive environments (i.e., formality of leadership, locus of leadership, and leadership distribution). Burke et al. (2018) leveraged a historiometric approach to capitalize on real historical examples of unprogressive DEIB initiatives rich with vital information regarding actual DEIB initiatives leadership functions occurring in unprogressive settings. Results suggest that the most prevalent are DEIB initiatives leadership functions such as DEIB initiative problem solving, supporting social climate, structure, planning, and collaboration. Results also indicated that the degree to which leadership is distributed throughout the DEIB initiatives, and the formality of leadership varies across action and transition phases of the DEIB initiative's task cycle.

CDOs are expected to analyze and report diversity data and research trends to ensure innovative solutions are continuously integrated into the workforce. Research limitations and implications of workplace challenges are applied to investigate DEIB. This quantitative correlational framework provides an organizational transformation perspective (DeRosa & Johnson, 2012). Practical implications concerning leading a DEIB initiative in organizations address the social, and cultural implications, which postulates how organizational leaders enhance diversity, equity, inclusion, belonging. This implication denotes how incorporating DEIB strengthens organizational culture. CDOs help organizations to improve DEIB initiatives. The overall objective is to improve organizational performance.

Issues, Controversies, Problems

Franken and Plimmer (2019) determined that leadership matters in DEIB contexts. It influences stakeholder development and, in turn, the effective delivery of institutional services. Harmful leadership limits the fulfillment of both these requirements. Although there are many studies of institutional leadership, few explore aspects of poor leadership focusing on leading people in DEIB initiatives in the unique institutional sector context. The purpose is to explore the institutional sector environment to mitigate harmful leadership and identify what those aspects of harmful dispositions are. Poor leadership is based upon common, day-to-day forms of harmful mediocre leadership rather than more dramatic but distinct forms of destructive or toxic leadership. Four dimensions of harmful behavior were found: micromanagement, managing up but not down, low social and career support, and reactive leadership. Several connections leading to harm were found, including lessened stakeholder confidence, motivation, collaboration, learning, and development.

The Effects of Poor Leadership

Patel et al. (2022) reviewed three relevant streams of extant literature reveals a marked absence of a generic framework composed of a full range of negative manager and leader dispositions (from moderate to unprogressive) across sectors, avoiding particularly detrimental occurrences to the effectiveness of management and leadership development (MLD) programs. To address this concern, a multiple cross-case and cross-nation comparative analysis (MCCA) of data collected from 13 previous empirical replication studies (using the critical incident technique) of effective and ineffective managerial and leader disposition across culturally diverse industries, resulting in a comprehensive framework of perceived negative manager and leadership disposition. Patel et al. (2022) indicated a generic framework composed of five dispositional dimensions: inadequate functional disposition, unethical disposition, impersonal domineering disposition, depriving disposition, and closed or negative-minded disposition, supporting a culture that influences stakeholder's perceptions of unsupportive leadership. It also stresses the importance of the routine in managerial or leadership frameworks by revealing that stakeholders' perceptions of negative manager or leader disposition include unprogressive decision-making and a lack of support.

Increasing Psychological Health and Safety

Fruhen et al. (2019) investigated what psychological health and safety commitment mean to leaders in a multi-method investigation. Perceived management psychological health and safety commitment as an aspect of safety climate or culture is a key influence on s psychological health and safety outcomes in organizations. What is unclear is how leaders create perceptions of management commitment. Psychological health and safety commitment as a leadership construct was viewed from leaders who experience and demonstrate it (Branscombe & Baron, 2017). A multidimensional psychological health and safety commitment framework is applied to leaders' commitment levels (consisting of affective, normative, and calculative commitment). The findings indicated the various dimensions captured leaders' psychological health and safety commitment, as safety commitment can be demonstrated via a range of dispositions, and the dimensions' association with dispositional demonstrations aligned with those of other types of commitment (Groysberg et al., 2018). Only affective safety commitment was consistently associated with demonstrations of safety commitment. The link between elevated levels of affective and normative safety commitment and demonstrations was more pronounced when participants perceived their company's safety climate more positively. Inferences indicate that a focus on leaders' experience of psychological health and safety commitment offers opportunities for new research into how leaders shape safety commitment perceptions. DEIB leaders must develop a personal mindset around psychological health and safety and support fostering strong safety climates and cultures (Jones & Dovidio, 2018). Affective commitment further encourages organizations to create work environments that foster leaders' affective and normative psychological health and safety obligations.

Notwithstanding, the worst organizational cultures are ones where leaders do not take responsibility or held accountable to ensure psychological health and safety, physical health and safety regarding DEIB ethos. When this occurs, cynicism is embedded throughout organizations (Herring & Henderson, 2015). As a result, CDOs must create a dashboard to track data measuring Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), participate in mentoring to share experience, and increase opportunities by allying, mentoring, hiring, celebrating, and promoting. Raising awareness requires that organizations increase understanding of DEIB issues when developing, executing, and measuring unconscious bias initiatives throughout the organization (McGregor-Smith Report, 2021). Leaders must establish and provide opportunities to all stakeholders by recruiting, hiring, promoting, and advancing individuals instead of catering to nepotism (Coughlan et al., .2019). Further, human resources (HR) directors must critically examine recruitment processes by rejecting non-diverse shortlists, challenging selection bias in recruitment and promotion, drafting job specifications more inclusively, ensure diversity on interview panels, and creating professional opportunities for all.

The value of organizations that promote psychological health and safety is indispensable for institutional revenues and sustainability (Caniac, 2018). Developing an employee enhancement strategy allows for improved employee life cycles, including recruitment, hiring and onboard to orient new employees on the company's organizational culture (Wallace, 2009). Quality improvement ensures employee awareness and ensures organizations take a no tolerance policy with regards to bullying, sexual harassment, bias, and discrimination. Employee satisfaction creates a profound loyalty and duty once the culture is rooted and disseminated through different mediums and platforms. Once the cultures of inclusion and respect occur, the organizational focus is to maintain, achieve, and exceed performance.

The Effects of Poorly Planned DEIB Initiatives

Indeed, Ju et al. (2019) examined supervisory consequences of poorly planned DEIB initiatives relating to a sense of power, managerial self-efficacy, and task-oriented leadership disposition. There are detrimental effects of poorly planned DEIB initiatives on subordinates' work attitudes, outcomes, and leaders themselves. Drawing upon self-perception theory and power-dependence theory, we take a unique actor-focused approach to examine how and when engaging in a lack of planning may benefit actors (i.e., leaders). Specifically, we propose that a lack of planning is positively related to leaders' state sense of power, which positively relates to their managerial self-efficacy and task-oriented leadership disposition. Furthermore, the relationship between a lack of planning and state sense of power and the positive indirect effect of a lack of planning on managerial self-efficacy via state sense of power is stronger for leaders with low, rather than high, levels of chronic sense of power. Moreover, supplementary analyses showed that a lack of planning was positively related to a sense of power and managerial self-efficacy only in the short term. Ju et al.'s (2019) findings contribute to how poorly planned DEIB initiatives are delineated by a lack of support from institutional leaders.

Moreover, Ju et al. (2019) determined from an actor-centric perspective that poorly planned DEIB initiatives are not beneficial in the short or long term. The findings also shed light on why leaders may lack planning by revealing the possibility that they do so because they can gain some immediate psychological benefits afterward by creating dissonance among the ranks. Related research has shown that leaders may disregard their subordinates because of negative experiences, such as facing exceedingly difficult goals (Ju et al., 2019). Likewise, while engaging in poorly planned DEIB initiatives is associated with leaders' state sense of power and managerial self-efficacy in the short term, the results from supplementary analyses show that in the long, a lack of planning is negatively associated with a sense of power and managerial self-efficacy.

Specifically, findings show that only leaders with a low chronic sense of power can benefit psychologically (i.e., higher state sense of power and managerial self-efficacy) from a lack of planning. Research on the strategic use of poorly planned DEIB initiatives is based on metrically based outcomes (Mensi-Klarbach & Risberg, 2019). Specifically, the power-dependence theory posits that individuals' power originates from other individuals' dependence on them for valued goals and resources. However, with the guidance of self-perception theory, the same level of objective control over resources, individuals' state sense of power is further dependent on their disposition. A lack of planning is positively related to leaders' sense of power. Notwithstanding, stakeholder relationships remain negative in the long term. Thus, DEIB leadership support is power-inducing or power-inhibiting, depending on the institutional culture experienced.

The CDOs Ascension to Leadership

The labeling of CDOs in leadership has changed tremendously over time, with awareness of gender bias, educational outreach, and social movements to transform gender leadership stereotypes. (Onyeador et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). Likewise, the influence in culture has happened over decades. Cultural influence within the media has been pivotal in the changes seen for CDOs in companies who are successfully leading DEIB initiatives (Paikeday et al., 2019; Robinson et al., 2020; Spranger, 2022).

Framing the experiences of CDOs is important in context the fundamental tenets of CDO research, where the personal is often cultural or political (Stanley et al., 2019). Therein exist an intersection of organization issues within the cultural sphere and individual biases within the personal sphere, which yields organizational change initiatives (Hughes et al., 2018). Reconnoitered were CDO experiences and the intersectionality of race and class impact on CDOs leadership capabilities in development of a DEIB enterprise training program implementation strategy (Abatecola et al., 2018).

With an equal focus on strategy and leadership, DEIB training reflects organizational compliance, effective leadership, and professionalism (Derven & Gundling, 2014). Indeed, superb leadership skills are of little value when business-level strategies do not keep pace with organizational ethos and societal norms (Abuladze & Skorková, 2021). Often leaders make mistakes or poor judgment in the decision-making process. There are three red-flag conditions that are responsible pattern recognition or emotional tagging. They are conflicts of interest; attachments to people, places, or things; and the presence of misleading memories (Campbell et al., 2009). Moreover, Hoffmann et al. (2020) determined that shared decision-making is indispensable for complex program design. Also, shared decision-making requires cooperatively making decisions in the wake of having contemplative conversations about vision, values, ethos, challenges, issues, recommendations, and solutions. In this manner, leaders elevate stakeholder correspondence, informed decision-making, and evidence-based reflexivity.

Moreover, Workplace diversity initiatives promote individuality within organizations, acknowledging that each person can contribute with different, modern, and innovative ideas and solutions (Herring & Henderson, 2015). Employees with distinctive backgrounds and experiences supply a collective a range of views on matters and that provide productivity, performance, and profitability. Diversity incorporates a distinct array of competencies, which collectively provides a standard for exceptional abilities that increase organizational retention and efficiency (Herring & Henderson, 2015).

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Shared responsibility necessitates leaders work with stakeholders and partners to develop comprehensive, effective communication techniques when collaborating with teams. Notwithstanding, stakeholder engagement is focused on knowledge acquisition mechanisms such as: (experiential, pragmatic, and collaborative) and organizational learning processes (information distribution, information interpretation, and organizational structure), by examining their impact on team member engagement leaders experience responsiveness, innovation, and modelling (Huber, 1991). As a result, these results demonstrate that leadership and team member relations are based on shared responsiveness.

Strategic Approaches: Effective DEIB Enterprise Training Program Implementation

Moreover, the incorporation of organization leadership commitment and stakeholder engagement ensures innovation, support, understanding, and exceptional execution of organizational or program initiatives. Furthermore, a formative cycle of assessment is needed when developing a DEIB enterprise training program and illustrates that DEIB training programs build mindfulness, character, engagement, and commitment for building more equitable workplaces (Celik et al., 2021). Notwithstanding, Celik et al. (2021) noted the level of awareness among organizational stakeholders shifts across positions, departments, divisions, institutions, and regions. Subjective data indicated that diversity professionals are tasked with increasing awareness of organizational diversity and intercultural issues. CDOs are then tasked with facilitating buy-in from various stakeholders of the organization. Indeed, the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) is synonymous with corporate sustainability.

Essentially, leaders are tasked with shaping organizational culture and social interaction of stakeholders. CDOs are tasked with understanding multidimensionality and equity in power relationships within organizations. Moreover, authentic leadership is an aspect of emotional intelligence (Robbins & Judge, 2017). Organizational culture, politics, and the distribution of power frames how internal/external stakeholders view organizations, employee satisfaction, and perception of corporate social responsibility (CSR). Benefits of CSR are improved employee relations, customer relationships, improved business performance, diversity relations, health and safety, and enhances organizational effectiveness.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this research was to contextualize the importance of effective decision-making when leading DEIB initiatives and when developing a Chief Diversity Officer (CDO): Enterprise Training Program Implementation Strategy. Conclusively, it is through collaboration that team building occurs between all stakeholders. Therefore, by engaging stakeholders in collaborative processes it provides an opportunity for people to get to grasp project or program requirements. Collaboration provides an opportunity for DEIB team members to explore every angle of the project; from the project plan, to risk mitigation, communications plan, a risk action plan; all while utilizing cause-and-effect as well as effective communication and decision-making tools to reach complex solutions (Leon, 2014). Also, the goal of diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging is to ensure everyone's psychological health and safety in the workplace. The relationship between employer and employee must be held scared in law and in humanity. Further, unstated DEIB goals cause angst. Leaders must take ownership of DEIB initiatives and provide explicit accountability on who does what, why, when, where, and how. Where there is no leadership, DEIB initiatives are difficult to manage under accepted practices of organizational standards (Bost, 2018).

Further, the importance of leaders creating a dashboard to track data DEIB Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), training, learning, participating in mentoring to share experiences, collaborating, and increasing opportunities by allying, mentoring, hiring, celebrating, and promoting (Miller et al., 2017). Raising awareness requires that organizations increase understanding of DEIB issues when developing, executing, and measuring unconscious bias initiatives throughout the organization (McGregor-Smith Report, 2021). Becoming a learning organization ripens the organizational culture for change and innovation. Organizations are in the best place to do so with innovative, evidence-based learning, and training plans utilizing curriculum mapping to chart the strategy.

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Chapter 2
Central Office Leadership:
The Importance of Promoting Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging in the Ivory Tower

Natasha N. Johnson
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8145-2153
Georgia State University, USA

ABSTRACT

As a consequence of their multiple identities, underrepresented leaders often navigate both racialized and gendered pathways to leadership in the U.S. education industry. Nevertheless, relatively little is known about the impact of their intersecting identities and the structural barriers in this sector. To deepen our collective understanding of this phenomenon, the author reviews existing theories and research related to the intersection of race and gender within the educational leadership sphere. More specifically, the author highlights the individual and compounding effects of gender and race on the professional realities of current and aspiring leaders in education at the Central Office (i.e., the Ivory Tower). This chapter concludes by proffering future research propositions, theory development, and policy in this arena.

INTRODUCTION

Great leaders create a vision for an organization, articulate the vision to the followers, build a shared vision, craft a path to achieve the vision, and guide their organizations into new directions (Banutu-Gomez & Banutu-Gomez, 2007; Kotter, 2001; Parris & Peachey, 2013).

Mania-Singer (2017) conducted a qualitative case study, employing General Systems Theory and social network analysis as the frameworks. Exploring the relationships between district central office personnel and elementary school principals in an urban Midwestern school district, results revealed "sparse relationships between members of the district central office and principals, more opportunities for higher-performing schools to participate in decision making, and few opportunities for all schools to provide

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch002

feedback to the district" (Mania-Singer, 2017, p. 69). Consequently, this ultimately leads to a hindrance of any school-level improvement efforts in this capacity.

In Gill's (2018) piece, *Help from, yes, the central office: Supervisors work with principals on instructional leadership*, the general sentiment from district-level leaders was this: "There's no guidebook on how to do this… Principals are still in charge of their buildings, but they can no longer do the job in isolation. It takes a total team effort" (p. 1). School districts across the country share that same sentiment. Under pressure to raise academic performance, many central offices are faced with redefining old positions – and/or creating new ones – that charge administrators with helping principals do their job better (Gill, 2018, p. 1). The titles, and accompanying duties, vary widely and include principal supervisor, managing principal, executive director, and assistant superintendent, to name just a few. It can be a juggling act for the person who must efficiently manage all of these roles and responsibilities.

Mitgang and Cummins (2013) concluded in their work, *District matter: Cultivating the principals urban schools need…*, that school systems across the nation are viewing better leadership as a "lever for school improvement and creating more supportive relationships with principals and their teams. Their efforts vary widely. However, what all have in common is a belief that when it comes to school leadership, 'districts matter'" (p. 8). Also commonly agreed upon by school districts nationwide is the assertion that to improve education in even the most troubled schools, school districts must make the development of stronger school leadership a top priority.

According to these same authors, the role of district leaders has long been underappreciated. They assert that central office leaders are often:

Bypassed by reformers who believe the antidote to mediocre schools is to free them to manage their own improvement efforts with a minimum of regulatory interference and scorned by those who regard districts and their employees as money-draining bureaucrats more interested in rules than school renewal. (Mitgang & Cummins, 2013, p. 8)

While there is much documentation regarding the role of the school leader in establishing best instructional practices, school districts, naturally, play a critical role in nurturing this type of principal-leadership. This relationship is far too meaningful and far too necessary not to cultivate to its fullest potential.

The Role of an Effective Central Office Large-Scale

The inner workings of central office operations are complex, as district personnel face a myriad of day-to-day demands. Further compounding the matter is the constant uncertainty regarding district leaders' specific roles, duties, and responsibilities. They are called upon to forge relationships with school personnel and invest in improving the teaching and learning environment, all while simultaneously developing partnerships with stakeholders and building their own leadership capacities. Generally, conversations concerning district-level procedures occur under conditions of ambiguity (Honig, 2008). In light of this, a substantial effort is being made to shift the role of central office leaders from regulatory business managers to agents primarily focused on supporting teaching and learning within their districts. This includes the momentum-gaining call for principal managers' roles to shift from operations to instruction (Honig & Rainey, 2014).

The national response to this call involves a movement currently underway, one in which central office leaders are examining and working on revamping their roles as administrators. A growing number of districts nationwide, led by designated directors of professional development, also known as Instructional Leadership Directors (Augustine et al., 2009), are working to improve leadership for school improvement initiatives. This initiative aims to assist principals as they work to incorporate solid, tangible instructional leadership strategies into their own practices (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2012).

Role of the Central Office – SDL (School District Level)

A regular challenge for central office leaders involves the tendency of certain school-based leaders to devalue the cooperative working/learning environment. In such instances, these principals miss out on the opportunity to learn and grow with their colleagues. This, in turn, causes members of the collective to miss out on the benefits of collaboration, as much time is wasted reinventing the wheel. Because district-level evaluations often serve as a gauge and guideline for principal-teacher assessments, the evaluative process can counterproductively reinforce the isolation that many school leaders often experience.

For this reason, central office leaders in my district identified that evaluations need to more effectively focus on the school leader's ability to develop cultures of team curriculum planning, assessment, staff capacity-building, and student learning. This is in line with the work of Marshall (2005), who encourages district leaders to prod leaders to emerge from their isolation and reflect with their colleagues on what they need to do to build cultures of success. The collective ownership and responsibility that results from working together must first be evidenced at the district level, for it serves as a vehicle for promoting engagement, interaction, and ultimately, growth.

Role of the Central Office – SBL (School Building Level)

The notion that principals should serve as instructional leaders in their schools and not merely as 'generic managers' is generally agreed upon among educators. Yet, only a few principals genuinely act as instructional leaders in practice. This speaks to the work of Fink and Resnick (2001), who noted that the average principal's days are "filled with activities of management scheduling, reporting, handling relations with parents and community, dealing with the multiple crises and special situations that are inevitable in schools" (p. 598). I found this to be consistent with the current work of some of the principals within my district. Despite even the best intentions, they spent relatively little time in classrooms and even less time talking directly about instruction with their teachers. Even when time was allocated to teacher planning and professional development, there was still little time left over to provide direct leadership relevant to instructional planning, growth, and direction.

Honig et al. (2010) identified five dimensions of central office transformation in countering the central-office-administration-as-usual model:

- **Dimension 1:** Learning-focused partnerships with school principals to deepen principals' instructional leadership practice,
- **Dimension 2:** Assistance to the central office–principal partnerships,
- **Dimension 3:** Reorganizing and reculturing of each central office unit to support the central office–principal partnerships and teaching and learning improvement,
- **Dimension 4:** Stewardship of the overall central office transformation process, and
- **Dimension 5:** Use of evidence throughout the central office to support continual improvement of work practices and relationships with schools (p. v).

Utilizing a "robust methodological approach to data collection and analysis of central office practices… Findings highlight the varied people, units, work practices, and other conditions within urban school district central offices that seem to matter to districtwide teaching and learning improvements" (Honig et al., 2010, p. 126).

Childress et al. (2006) implored leaders to understand that "school-based solutions, while important, aren't enough. If they were, and low-performing schools could heal themselves, urban systems today would be chock-full of highly functioning schools" (p. 55). Achieving excellence on a broad scale, according to the authors, requires a districtwide strategy for improving instruction in the classroom and an organization that can implement it. "Only the district office can create such a plan, identify and spread best practices, develop leadership capabilities at all levels, build information systems to monitor student improvement and hold people accountable for results" (Childress et al., 2006, p. 55). Researchers contend that this requires transformation at the district level. Unless central office leaders see this as a viable, tangible role, efforts for reform will remain stunted by lack of clarity.

Much of the current research has been conducted within the past 15 – 20 years, tends to be descriptive, and is primarily based on case studies (Bergeson & Heuschel, 2004; Shannon & Bylsma, 2004). In response to this and in collaboration with the Research and Evaluation Office at the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, the authors collected and analyzed over 80 research reports and articles on the characteristics of improved school districts (Shannon & Bylsma, 2004). Through their research, they identified 13 common themes, grouping them into the following four categories:

1. **Effective Leadership** – this includes a focus on all students learning, dynamic and distributed leadership, and sustained improvement efforts over time (pp. 1-2),
2. **Quality Teaching and Learning** – this includes high expectations and accountability for adults, coordinated and aligned curriculum and assessment, coordinated and embedded professional development, and quality classroom instruction (pp. 3-4),
3. **Support for Systemwide Improvement** – this includes effective use of data, strategic allocation of resources, and policy and program coherence (pp. 4-5), and
4. **Clear and Collaborative Relationships** – this includes professional culture and collaborative relationships, a clear understanding of school and district roles and responsibilities, and interpreting and managing the external environment (pp. 5-6).

In the continued effort to provide a better understanding of improved school districts and their characteristics and actions, the authors created this model to "shed light on the relationship between school district policy, programs, and practices and the improvement of student learning" (Bergeson & Heuschel, 2004, p. 1).

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 essentially required school district central office leadership in the US to help schools dramatically improve performance while simultaneously reducing longstanding achievement gaps. However, asserts Honig (2013), Central offices have traditionally focused on business and compliance functions rather than on supporting schools in their efforts to help all students realize ambitious learning goals. To address this mismatch between new performance demands and long-standing central office work and capacity, district leaders must set aside old ways of working and fundamentally transform their central offices. (p. 1)

The assertions and findings above are further validated by the Center for Educational Leadership (Silverman, 2016); their *Principal Support Framework* identifies the need for central office leaders to:

- Provide differentiated and integrated services rooted in an understanding of the needs of each school,
- Design services that can anticipate and proactively meet the needs of the school,
- Build relationships with principals that add value to the work of the principal and school,
- Create a culture of continuous improvement, to learn, adapt and respond to the changing needs of schools, and
- Work efficiently through a well-coordinated and defined set of operational systems. (p. 3)

Supporting principal success is multifaceted and requires collaboration and cooperation across the central office at all levels. This framework seeks to provide leaders with tangible guidance as they progress.

Beyond the Surface: Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging in the Ivory Tower

Despite the growing interest in the diversification of the ivory tower, there remains a sparsity of literature focusing on the representation and experiences of the underrepresented, especially at top leadership levels (e.g., district superintendencies and college deanships). Instead, the research on administrators is primarily limited to the principalship (Ryan et al., 2016) or cloaked in studies on "women" and "minorities" (Agosto & Roland, 2018). Since the journeys of women and minority leaders are not homogeneous, we must consider the distinctive, layered, and intersectional experiences of all leaders. Various perspectives, including critical race theory (see Capper, 2015), feminist theory (see Blackmore, 2013), critical spirituality (see Dantley, 2010), and multiculturalism (see Santamaría & Santamaría, 2013), have been offered to expose the challenges faced by non-white leaders in education. Nonetheless, the theory and research focusing explicitly on the uneven path to leadership for the underrepresented remain underdeveloped.

Yet, what is known, is that due to their unique identities in and outside of the ivory tower, those who are underrepresented in educational leadership regularly encounter hurdles (e.g., racism and sexism) (Brown, 2014, 2018) of various kinds. Unless scholars carefully examine the roots of and contributors to structural barriers, the advancement of "good" policies for equitable educational leadership opportunities will continue to be restricted. Taking stock of the existing theory and research related to diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging in the Ivory Tower, I discuss the importance of these elements in the leadership space. This chapter, in a nutshell, aims to advance the knowledge on the paths of current and aspiring central office leaders in education and bring to the forefront the need for more refined research and theory development in this arena.

Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging in "Context"

Despite the progress made in diversifying the demographic profile of educational leadership in the US, males, especially white males, continue to dominate this space (Johnson & Fournillier, 2021; Kellerman et al., 2007; Kulik & Metz, 2015). For this reason, the theory and research historically reflecting this perspective tend to be applied to people of all groups. While inroads continue to be made in capturing the experiences of women and minority leaders in education, research on people in these positions remains notably absent in the literature. Further, what also remains missing from the general body of literature is the consideration of context. Contextual factors, i.e., the intersection of race, gender, leadership, and patriarchal spaces, speak to the multiple, layered, intersectional identities of non-archetypal leaders in various US educational settings. Without accounting for context, a proper understanding of gender and racial inequities in education leadership remains elusive. The sections below highlight the literature regarding diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB), all manifested within the US educational leadership sphere. It was argued that by considering the noted contextual dynamics (Hofstede, 2011), we can build knowledge on the necessity of DEIB in the educational leadership sphere, particularly within the ivory tower.

Numerous scholars have called for more studies about leadership identities, individual differences, the impact of identity on these individual differences, and how leaders progress from one identity stage to the next. Understanding the relationship between leadership and identity helps researchers build the knowledge base on individuals' development and future behaviors as leaders (Murphy, 1999). Exploring the contextual and intersecting variables regarding identity is vital to explaining how leaders construct, develop, and execute their own identities (Eubanks et al., 2012; Karp & Helgø, 2009). This exploration is, by extension, fundamental to understanding effective leadership (Lord & Hall, 2003). Indeed, history, economics, and culture cannot be ignored, considering the impact of identity on those who do not embody the 'norms' associated with the dominant culture (Johnson, 2021). Progress begins by understanding that this work involves studies geared towards understanding the intersecting elements at play in the cultivation and success of non-archetypical leaders (Ospina & Foldy, 2009, 2010).

In line with research connecting intersectionality and educational leadership, Parker and Villalpando (2007) encompassed multiple themes – connecting race and racism, the challenge of social justice, dominant ideologies, and experiential knowledge. They collected articles that pinpoint the importance of critical theory analysis to administrative policy and practice in the educational leadership arena. The authors found that though the demographics of the nation's school populations are increasingly comprised of multicultural students, the percentages of principals and district leaders who are non-white (i.e., black, Latino, Asian-American, or other) have barely gained ground. Considering this, Allan (2003) emphasized the need for a 'strategic deployment of discourse,' meaningful conversations around gender and racial inequalities in educational leadership. In this way, stakeholders are reminded that this matter "cannot be ignored when trying to achieve racial equity in the context of increasing federal and state accountability. Democratic leadership for social justice…and action will provide us with some answers to this challenge" (Parker & Villalpando, p. 523).

Mabokela and Madsen (2005) employed intergroup theory "to understand how both African–American and European–American school leaders perceived and negotiated sources of intergroup conflict and how this affected their potential for creating an inclusive school environment" (p. 187). Through this work, the authors examined the responses of white American and black American administrators to intergroup conflict stemming from cultural incongruities in desegregated suburban US schools and school districts. They concluded that (1) diversity and leadership are interconnected; (2) US schools are undergoing pressure to educate a diverse and growing community of students, families, and shareholders; and (3) creating an inclusive school requires educational leaders to vigorously and actively respond – as opposed to simply reacting – to intergroup conflict among an increasingly diverse community/population.

Similarly, in a study of women in leadership and leadership styles, Gipson et al. (2017) added that more must continue to be done to ensure that those in and promoted to educational leadership positions aptly reflect this same commitment to DEIB. Yet, the growth and advancement of non-archetypal leaders into what has characteristically been a male- and white-dominated realm (Kellerman et al., 2007; Kulik & Metz, 2015) are chief components in the work to increase diversity in leadership. This includes examining the impact of perceptions and evaluations of persons with multiple stigmatized identities in leadership roles (Richardson & Loubier, 2008; Rosette et al., 2016; Sawyer et al., 2013).

Utilizing a critical democratic framework, Cho et al. (2009) analyzed leaders' perspectives from various educational institutions and districts across North America. Two overarching themes arose from participants' perspectives on the new leader induction program: (1) the importance of the educational leader's role in creating clearer partnerships and collaborations among stakeholders (including faculty, school boards, schools, and communities), and (2) the significant job of the educational leader as effective communicator, upholding the necessity of equity, diversity, inclusion, and understanding within the community. Overwhelmingly, say Cho et al. (2009), in the ongoing work to improve program philosophy, policy, and practice, findings revealed the need for a more critical examination of the process and outcome of mentorship and induction programs designed to improve building and district level leaders' efficiency.

Whang (2018) explored "the phenomenon of perilous politics of school leadership for social justice, in order to strengthen social equity for educational development" (p. 1). Leadership for social justice, according to Whang (2018), "emphasizes that leaders can make efforts to pursue equitable relationships of gender, class, race, culture, etc. Therefore, it stresses the understanding of 'intersectionality' of multiple biases" (p. 1). Balancing intersectionality (i.e., race and gender) with leadership politics requires advocates for justice to be responsive as opposed to operating reactively. As a result, strengthening social equity in the pursuit and development of educational leaders remains an enduring and deliberate effort on the part of the justice-based district leader.

Using control groups, Hogg et al. (2001) conducted an experiment looking at social identity, group dynamics, and leadership. The authors investigated the relationships between group membership and leadership endorsement to connect demographic differences with the notion of the glass ceiling. Findings highlighted that demographic minorities tend to find leadership difficult in groups whose prototypes represent the demographic majority. Hogg and van Knippenberg (2003) further concluded that "followers pay close attention to prototypicality… One consequence is that the leader acquires greater and more secure leadership ability. Another consequence is that the status and prestige differential between leader(s) and followers is entrenched" (p. 21).

Other scholars, including Sawyer et al. (2013), pointed to the extreme importance of "studying and understanding the realities of identity through intersectional research" (p. 80), determining that "studying individual identities is good, but examining intersectionality is better" (p. 80). For underrepresented leaders, furthering this work calls for the development and progression of leadership frameworks that are fair, inclusive, and socially just (Moorosi et al., 2018). This advances the commitment to reframing and unpacking the intersections of gender, race, and class – en route to better understanding and how these elements impact DEIB, particularly in educational leadership. These findings are all significant in that they affect the development and progression of those who are and remain underrepresented at the top levels of educational leadership.

Bringing it all Together: Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging in Educational Leadership

The noted themes (DEIB) have been interconnected in this piece for the following reasons: (1) identity directly impacts one's social reality, which Wing (1997) refers to as the "multiplicative definition of self" (p. 31), and (2) race, ethnicity, and gender are manifested as concurrent realities (Crenshaw, 1989; Crenshaw & Bonis, 2005; Howard-Hamilton, 2003; Ngwainmbi, 2004). These factors directly and systematically impact leadership perceptions, practices, and cultures (Allan, 2003; Hymowitz & Schellhardt, 1986; Iverson, 2007). Scholars, including Hogg and van Knippenberg (2003), argue that changing the trajectory for those underrepresented in leadership spaces means discussing the impact(s) of the glass ceiling on the realities and identities of those who do not "fit" the longstanding leadership archetype. Ospina and Foldy (2010) contend that "attention to the relational dimensions of leadership represents a new frontier of leadership research and is an expression of the growing scholarly interest in the conditions that foster collective action within and across boundaries" (p. 292).

Examining the multiplicative dimensions of leadership, Ospina and Foldy (2009, 2010) contend that advocacy, bridge-building, and leadership for social change are all relevant factors in reconstructing the scope of the leadership sphere. Day and Antonakis (2012) note that "issues regarding diversity and leadership have been highlighted as receiving relatively scarce attention in the literature... In particular, the diversity of leaders and followers in terms of culture, gender, race and ethnicity, or sexual orientation has been infrequently addressed" (p. 13). For those in and en route to central office leadership, navigating these boundaries includes exploring the historical cultures, antecedents, and leadership contexts from a social change perspective. The recognition of multiple identities and intersecting inequalities is a critical step towards improving relevant equity- and equality-based policy initiatives. Relevant to the educational leadership sphere, it is even more crucial to create and uphold inclusive and accepting cultures for all members of the larger constituency. This is all the more important for those who do not reflect the single-track leadership standard.

An intersectional-type research paradigm, as Dhamoon (2011) notes, "serves to not simply describe and explain complex dynamics of power in specific contexts and at different levels of social life but also critique or deconstruct and therefore disrupt the forces of power so as to offer alternative worldviews" (p. 240). The infusion of intersectionality methods provides stakeholders with the necessary tools to continue disentangling these categories (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2010). Wing (1997, 2003) posits that intersectionality is critical for thinking about how policies, practices, and discourses can be enhanced and transformed. The entrenched policy, legal, and social ramifications justify the need to advance this and other relevant literature. This begins by acknowledging the current disparities that subsist within the realm of leadership. En route to creating new policies promoting equity in leadership, an important step involves identifying that this need exists (Dhamoon, 2011).

Increased emphasis on the social aspects of education and the development of educational leaders has meant more attention dedicated to investigating the relationships between the school and the community (Ayers et al., 1998). Similarly, new attention is also being paid to education's place as a fundamental characteristic and microcosm of the greater society. In light of this, increasing emphasis is now being placed on preparing leaders capable of understanding and operating from a justice-based perspective. For the social justice leader, equity can be defined in numerous ways and through multiple means. The challenge, then, includes unpacking the many meanings of justice and creating safe spaces for outlaws and advocates alike to explore and make explicit the connections between the many subjective meanings of justice (Bell, 2007; Bogotch, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 2013). To better understand the path, progression, successes, and barriers of non-archetypal within the educational leadership sector, we must begin by exploring the intersection of race, gender, and class.

Example-setters are key to increasing diversity and changing the stereotypes in educational leadership in that they serve to construct the identities of emergent leaders in their respective jurisdictions (Adejare, 2018; Kalwies, 1988). Assessing the impact of role models in the construction of professional and leadership identities, Adejare (2018) noted that "same-gender role models may be especially beneficial for showcasing ways to overcome gender bias, being an inspiration of success, or changing the gender stereotype of women succeeding in male-dominated fields" (p. 16). Women, for example, continue to provide a substantial pool of potential leaders in education (Prime et al., 2009), the move towards governance that is inclusive and collaborative (Ospina & Foldy, 2010) begins with an introspective look at longstanding systemic inequities and power imbalances across all sectors. This work includes expanding the discussions regarding the role and capacity of underrepresented leaders in educational and organizational settings. Given the importance of contextual factors in the leadership sphere (Liden & Antonakis, 2009), the findings of studies of this nature can help increase the number and diversity of leaders in the ivory tower.

Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, Belonging, and Central Office Leadership

A year ago, Sharon Griffin assumed the leadership of the Shelby County Schools with a pledge to address a problem she had seen fester during her years as a teacher and administrator in the district. The lack of on-the-ground engagement by the "central office" had created a disconnect – both real and perceived – between the schools and district headquarters on Hollywood Street... Griffin's efforts to bridge that gap was a major theme of her first year, as she adopted a host of measures to help central office become more responsive to needs of schools rather than imposing top-down mandates (Kebede, 2018).

Sharon Griffin, who became the first chief of schools of Shelby County Schools in January 2017, required district leaders to take weekly school tours, held numerous listening sessions as her team constructed the school district's first academic plan in years, and only purchased resources schools needed, not merely what central office leaders thought might be suitable for schools (Kebede, 2018). In addition, she has overseen sweeping changes in curriculum and professional development to include more responsiveness to what teachers say they need.

This is just one illustration of the sweeping, documented changes underway to revamp the now-antiquated school district central office model. Far too often, district-led initiatives to lead school improvement efforts tend to stem from necessity (i.e., instances where the state has limited capacity to govern). In these instances, district administrators' work was found to be rooted in the connection between (and the essentiality of) effective leadership to drive and support school improvement endeavors. In addition to Shelby County, Memphis, Atlanta, and Fort Wayne are highlighted in this piece for their work in actively pursuing leadership improvement *before* their states became involved. In these instances, the state played a limited supportive role and did not hinder central office efforts to lead (Augustine et al., 2009). I reference these locations, as occurrences of this nature need to be emphasized more frequently in the ongoing work to be more responsive to what schools and school districts need. Reports of this nature build morale, and most importantly, they allow all constituency members to see that success is possible. Success is attainable.

Much of the extant literature speaks to the need for restructuring, transformation, and improvement of the central office. Others highlight the budgetary aspects involved in district-level leadership (i.e., district-level over/spending). Lee (2017), for example, in her extensive study of the Oakland Unified School District (OUSD) as part of the #OUSDBudget series, determined that the "'shift' to reduce central office expenditures over the last few years have been achieved mostly through accounting decisions, rather than substantive changes in budgetary control to move dollars closer to students" (p. 4). As an example, compared to other districts in the United States of America, the entire state of California ranks in the bottom 20% of per-pupil spending, despite being wealthier than all but a handful of countries (Lee, 2017) – *yes, countries* – in the world. While a bit disconcerting, this revelation was, thankfully, offset by celebratory articles – e.g., Administrator awards, Leadership summits, and the district revamping noted above in Memphis, TN, Atlanta, GA, and Fort Wayne, IN.

Educational leaders commonly agree that to serve in their optimal capacities, district offices require transformation. This involves collaboration with "business leaders, who care about their communities and know that their companies need well-educated workers in order to be competitive, [and] have a big stake in assisting with this transformation" (Childress et al., 2006, p. 56). For too long, assert the authors, external constituents have been extremely generous with money and counsel for their adjoining districts, "only to be frustrated by the results. As some corporate executives are beginning to realize, urban school systems are vastly more complex than businesses, yet the knowledge about how to manage them is amazingly sparse" (Childress et al., 2006, p. 56).

There is no question regarding the many daily responsibilities of central office administrators. This matter is further compounded, states Honig (2008), by those who "suggest that these demands mean that central offices, especially in midsized and large districts, should become learning organizations but provide few guides for how central offices might operate as learning organizations" (p. 627). Therefore, it is imperative – even if it means revisiting central office leaders' goals, standards, mission, and vision – for district leaders to support principals in their work (Honig & Rainey, 2014; Marshall, 2005).

The role of central office leaders includes taking the necessary time – beyond their responsibilities as administrators and evaluators – to support, build, and develop principals as instructional leaders. It is hard to counter the notion that schools – and school systems, principally – must be led with a clear and articulable instructional vision. Research supports the immense potential for principal learning and development to occur in Professional Learning Communities (PLCs), provided that central office leaders serve as facilitators and supporters, rather than from an evaluative or directive stance (Fink & Resnick, 2001; Hubbard et al., 2006).

Central office leaders must recommit to physically and palpably assisting principals in incorporating tangible, instructional leadership strategies into their respective practices. If supporting the work of school building leaders is deemed essential, then there must be more clarity in defining the terms of the charge: allocating the necessary time to promote and establish those with the authority, ability, and capability to execute this vision (Augustine et al., 2009; Bambrick-Santoyo, 2012). Incorporating Instructional Leadership Directors (ILDs) is a significant step – and an equally valuable resource – in bridging the facilitative-evaluative, support-directive, school district-school building leadership gaps.

Moving the Research Forward

To surmount the situation of oppression, people must first critically recognize its causes so that through transforming action, they can create a new situation, one which makes possible the pursuit of a fuller humanity. (Freire, 1972, p. 4)

Recognizing that no one unified theory of leadership currently exists, leadership theory commonly emphasizes many outcomes, from how leaders are perceived, to how leaders directly impact performance, to the specific actions of group members (Day & Antonakis, 2012). For those in and aspiring towards formal positions of headship, "leadership theory has been applied to levels that include events, individuals, dyads, groups, organizations, and political systems; it has focused on immediate and delayed effects;

and it often incorporates contextual differences" (Dinh et al., 2014, pp. 55-56). Thus, it is not surprising that leadership encompasses over 60 different theoretical domains and a wide variety of methodological approaches (Dinh et al., 2014).

From a moral standpoint, state Brown and Treviño (2006), academic researchers have been granted a prime opportunity to conduct and execute research that can improve leadership cultures, climates, performance, and ethics. On a more pragmatic note, "leadership scholars have always been involved in research that aims to contribute to effective leadership. Because ethical leadership and effective leadership are related, the topic of ethical leadership should appeal to scholars with diverse motivations and interests" (Brown & Treviño, 2006, p. 613). This discourse is especially relevant in education, considering the incongruence between many employees' heightened levels of education (Davidson & Burke, 2000; Eagly & Carli, 2007) compared to their current status in leadership spaces (Bell & Nkomo, 2001; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010).

Again, of great significance to this paper is the assertion that in education, this includes the increased qualifications of those who are underrepresented to serve in senior-level leadership capacities (Gupton, 2009; Hill et al., 2016; Prime et al., 2009). For women and members of minoritized groups, this includes addressing their layered and intersectional pathways to leadership in education. Rhode (2017) reminds relevant stakeholders that generational inequality, unconscious bias, in-group favoritism, and inhospitable cultures, to name a few, remain obstacles within many leadership spheres. Given Rhode's (2014, 2017) position that confronting these factors is key to addressing the extant educational leadership gaps, this piece focuses on the tenets embedded within equitable leadership (i.e., identity, equity, and intersectionality) in the continued effort to move this work forward.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ADDITIONAL RESEARCH

The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of a school district is the school superintendent. The superintendent is essentially the face of the district. They are most responsible for the successes of a district and most assuredly responsible when there are failures. The role of a school superintendent is broad. It can be rewarding, but the decisions they make can also be especially difficult and taxing. It takes an exceptional person with a unique skill set to be an effective school superintendent (Meador, 2017).

According to Honig (2013), practical transformation efforts should involve "creating partnerships between principals and executive-level central office staff, developing and aligning performance-oriented central office services to support districtwide instructional improvement, and establishing superintendent and other central office leadership that will help staff build their capacity for better performance" (p. 1). The purpose of beginning this section with a blurb defining the institution of the school district as a governing body immediately followed by Honig's call for change is this – the mismatch between the school district as a governing body versus the call for central office as leaders of school support – remains prevalent, both on the books and in action. Is it possible for the district to effectively manage the whole spectra of all of these responsibilities, or is it time to completely transform the institution as we currently know it?

The effort to connect and elucidate central office administrators' participation in teaching and learning improvement is interminable. A challenge for regional leaders remains the 'unprecedented demands' faced by administrators to tangibly and consistently support districtwide efforts to improve teaching and learning. In response to this challenge, it is necessary to irradiate the factors behind the widespread problem of disconnected visions and work practices at the district and school levels. In the process, these systems must converge for the sake of systemwide legitimacy. Leaders must consider the extent to which they are modeling to the constituency that work and learning practices are suitable and valid, even if they cannot yet be directly connected to student performance (Honig, 2008).

Theoretically, the notion of principal professional learning committees is encouraging. Principals are charged with supporting and pouring into their staff members because we generally agree that happier teachers equate to more successful students. Yet, whose responsibility is it to develop, support, and pour into our school building leaders? As with all managers, central office administrators already have more than enough to 'do.' Still, it is imperative – even if it means revisiting the goals/standards/mission/vision of the central office and its leadership – for district leaders to support principals in their work. There is boundless potential for principal learning and development to occur in PLCs, provided that central office leaders serve as facilitators and supporters, rather than from an evaluative or directive stance (Hubbard et al., 2006).

Though there is a plethora of literature documenting the role of, the responsibility of, and best practices for school leaders, I found it more challenging to locate empirical works relevant to the direct function of the central office in spearheading educational excellence. It is important to note that research in this realm is still growing, and extant literature is promising. Honig and Rainey (2014) state that "future research should aim to further understanding of principal learning in PLCs and how central office and other leaders can productively facilitate the process" (p. 2). I, similarly, look forward to producing this and other research relevant to the advancement of the central office leadership sphere in this capacity.

CONCLUSION

Each district is an independent special-purpose government, or dependent school systems, under the guidelines of each US state government and local school boards. A school district is a legally separate body, corporate and politic. School districts are local governments with powers similar to that of a town or a county, including taxation and eminent domain, except in Virginia, whose school divisions have no taxing authority and must depend on another local government (county, city, or town) for funding (Strizek, 2006).

The number of documented studies in this realm is growing; still, relatively little is known about the inner workings of the school district central office. What we do know, in increasing fashion, is that there is a need for a better and more direct relationship to be forged between SDLs (school district leaders) and SBLs (school building leaders). Silverman (2016) calls out three areas of action for central office leaders to support principals:

- **Clarity** on their role and what is expected of them on a day-to-day basis.
- **Professional development** that is personalized, differentiated, and typically self-initiated.
- **Strategic relationships** with central office staff that make it easy for them to access and use district resources based on school need. (p. 2)

The role of the superintendent in actively forging these partnerships is vital, given that "much of what a superintendent does involves working directly with others. School superintendents must be effective leaders who work well with other people and understand the value of building relationships" (Meador, 2017, p. 1). Additionally, asserts Meador (2017),

A superintendent must be adept at establishing working relationships with many interest groups inside the school and within the community itself to maximize their effectiveness. Building a strong rapport with the constituents in the district makes fulfilling the required roles of a school superintendent a little easier. (p. 1)

In recent years, more and more educators "have suggested that it's time for the managers of principals – superintendents and assistant superintendents – to begin allocating their time differently. In particular, the call for a principal manager's role to shift from operations to instruction has gained momentum" (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2012, p. 70). While there is consensus that school systems need leaders with clear and articulable visions, there remains less clarity in defining the terms of the charge: allocating the necessary time to cultivating those who are mission-minded and capable of executing a real, palpable vision.

Albeit challenging, it is essential, for as Bambrick-Santoyo (2012) reminds those tasked with the responsibility of managing schools, the key to achieving desired results is to "re-envision the way we manage leaders" (p. 70). Granted, the idea of transforming the role of the district-level leader is a daring one, given that it entails a complete restructuring of the very core of the existing structure. Hence, this shift, one that allows district leaders to take charge of instruction, can begin with a commitment to initiating the following two steps:

1. Delegating operational work to others, and
2. Providing expert coaching to school leaders (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2012, p. 70).

Appointing a leader/leadership team to manage school operations will create opportunities for building administrators to focus on improving the quality of instruction. In resounding and increasing fashion, conclusions reveal the ongoing call for central office district leaders to employ/practice leadership that: (1) is palpably efficacious, (2) supports quality teaching and learning environments, (3) supports – and provides strategies for – systemwide improvement, and (4) actively creates and promotes transparent and collaborative relationships – this includes professional culture and collaborative relationships, clear understanding of school and district roles and responsibilities, and interpreting and managing the external environment (pp. 5-6).

This chapter reveals that the tangible elements of justice-based leadership perspectives remain understudied in this arena (Berkovich, 2014; Lambert, 2002, 2003). Taken together, scholarship in this area illustrates the importance of considering all perspectives regarding matters of equity in leadership. According to Bogotch (2000), social justice "requires an ongoing struggle [i.e., to share power, knowledge, and resources equitably] and cannot be separated from how educational theories and practices are being [re]defined and practiced by professionals within schools, academic disciplines, and governmental circles" (p. 140). Pertinent to the ivory tower, there can be no one dominant design, program, or worldview that excludes other perspectives and approaches (Belden, 2017; Pratt-Clarke & Maes, 2010, 2017). This connection between theory and practice, particularly as they relate to morality and the use of power, reveals why social justice is relevant, as an educational intervention, in every era (Dean et al., 2009; Hodges & Welch, 2018).

Persistent theoretical, systemic, and methodological limitations continue to limit the ability of researchers, educational leaders, and other relevant stakeholders to use extant findings to inform policy in this regard. To this point, I seek to advance the existing DEIB literature as a transformative next step in the evolution of this and other related educational leadership scholarship (Johnson & Fournillier, 2021; Yukl, 2009). Stakeholders who wish to continue influencing equity- and justice-based policy initiatives within the ivory tower must highlight and promote the necessity of diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging in educational leadership. Akin to 'trickle-down economics,' this work must begin at the top, at the Central Office level.

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Chapter 3
Organizational Justice, Leadership Styles, Identity, and Psychological Contract Implications

José G. Vargas-Hernández
https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0938-4197
Posgraduate and Research Department, Tecnológico Mario Molina Unidad Zapopan, Mexico

Omar C. Vargas-González
Tecnológico Nacional de México, Ciudad Guzman, Mexico

ABSTRACT

This study analyses some implications of the organizational justice, leadership styles, identity, and psychological contract as organizational citizenship behaviors. It begins assuming that there are positive, predictive, and mediating relationships between organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational justice, identity, leadership behaviors, and the psychological contract. The methods employed are the analytical and descriptive leading to a reflective inference based on the previous review of the theoretical and empirical literature on these issues. It is concluded that there are predictive, positive, and mediating relationships between the different variables considered in organizational citizenship behaviors, organizational justice, identity, leadership styles, and psychological contract.

INTRODUCTION

Leadership styles offers a theoretical and empirical framework that enhance psychological ownership leading to organizational citizenship behaviors supported by approaches of social exchanges, planned behavior theory and self-determination. Social learning theory contends that human behavior is learned through observing others and through their own behavior. Further, observation leads to occur direct or indirect learning using complex mechanisms of responsible leadership with organizational citizenship

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch003

behaviors for the environment such as caring of the stakeholder's interests, exercising effects, encouraging, and influencing on the values of organizational members, self-assessment, and organizational identification. Organizational citizenship behavior, organizational identity, leadership, and job attitudes are mechanisms that have been studied as essential in building individual and organizational goals.

Studies on innovative behavior and organizational citizenship behavior have identified several gaps on research. There is not consensus on research regarding the dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007) attributed to the potential identification of antecedents and outcomes (Podsakoff et al. 2000). How the different leadership styles, responsible, inclusive, authentic, and supportive, enhance the organizational citizenship behaviors within organizational environments? Leadership has a positive association with the organizational members involve in organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment members association and has effects for supporting the environment through organizational citizenship for the environment (Raineri and Paillé 2016). Organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment are associated to different styles of leadership such as responsible, authentic, inclusive, and supportive, in a relationship that is mediated by self-efficacy and psychological ownership

Research carried out on organizational citizenship behavior conclude that several factors influence it. The factors influencing organizational citizenship behavior are necessary to increase it, such as transformational leadership, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Purwanto 2020, Ardi 2020). Organizational citizenship behavior is influenced by factors such as organizational commitment to organizations, job satisfaction, transformational leadership, and other motives (Sena, et al. 2020). Organizational citizenship behavior is affected positively by transformational leadership has a positive effect (Asbari 2020; Rahmi, 2013). Indeed, the factors of organizational citizenship behavior include personal traits, leadership characteristics, servant leadership, leader-member demographic similarity and contextual factors such as justice, structure, etc. (Chiaburu et al., 2011; Ilies et al., 2007; Kacmar et al., 2011; Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Pandey et al., 2008; Taylor, 2013). Altruism is the behavior identified to help others to face problems in their work.

Organizational citizen behavior (OCB) is an outcome of organizational justice and antecedent of organizational justice and spirituality that can applied to all scientific fields. Spirituality in the workplace has relationships to job attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. The relationship between OCB, spiritual leadership and job attitudes is the basis to build a theoretical framework to link characteristics of the individuals at their work settings to organizational commitment (Djaelania et al., 2020). There are enough studies on leader-member exchange and OCB to provide a meta-analysis (Rockstuhl et al. 2012). The individual factor emotional intelligence and organizational characteristic such as spiritual leadership and workplace spirituality have an influence on organizational citizenship behavior, identity, and organizational justice. Emotional intelligence and workplace spirituality are factors that have effects on organizational citizenship behavior. Workplace spirituality partially or totally mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership on organizational citizenship behavior. Workplace spirituality mediates the effects of spiritual leadership on organizational citizenship behavior and emotional intelligence on organizational citizenship behavior. The workplace spirituality has a positive effect on OCB.

Spiritual leadership is associated with organizational citizenship behavior for the environment and contingent on the individual harmonious environmental passion with a relative stability and less transient individual characteristics (Ho et al. 2018; Pollack et al. 2020; Verner-Filion, Lafrenière, and Vallerand 2012). Spiritual leadership is directly associated with organizational citizenship behavior for the environment, contingent on harmonious environmental passion which have implications for appropriate organizational and managerial interventions to reduce the carbon footprint. Moreover, harmonious environmental passion is proposed as a moderator of the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. Harmonious environmental passion has a moderating factor in the positive direct relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment. Drawing on social learning theory links spiritual leadership with organizational citizenship behavior for the environment (OCBE) (Bandura 1977, 1986).

Research supports the positive relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and psychological contract fulfillment although is not known if it develops over time which requires to examine longitudinally the relationship. The analysis of this relationship considering organizational citizenship behavior and psychological contract fulfillment as time varying variables to examine the development in the constructs (Singer & Willett, 2003). There is a substantial variability in both constructs, organizational citizenship behavior and psychological contract fulfillment regarding the individual trajectories, which need to be aligned to show an effect of development. The individual voluntary commitment that is not subject to contractual tasks in organizational settings is known as the organizational citizenship behavior, such as helping other workers with heavy workload (Dinka, 2018; Park, 2016).

Empirical research has proved that authentic leadership style has a positive significant relationship with the subordinated proactive behavior leading to stimulate a supportive climate and transparent relationships between the leadership and the organizational member (Liu et al. 2018; Walumbwa et al., 2008). The empirical research on the relationship between the humble leadership and organizational citizenship behavior identifies the mediating mechanisms from the perspectives of motivation and attitudes (Nasra and Heilbrunn, 2016; Newman et al., 2017).

Empirical research shows that there is a positive significant relationship between organizational psychological contract violation management and organizational citizenship behaviors. An organization delivering its promises leads to less exhaustion and more job satisfaction of employees (Gakovic and Tetrick 2003). The findings of empirical research confirm that the psychological contract violation management is in positive relationship with organizational citizenship behavior. Empirical research confirms that psychological contract violation has a negative relationship with organizational behavior.

ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

Organizational justice is related to the fairness in the organization and considered an antecedent of organizational citizenship behavior. The form of voice in organizational citizenship behavior framework implies challenges resembling dissatisfaction at the individual level and leading to job satisfaction and perceived fairness. Beliefs about fairness are leading to satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. Cognitions and beliefs about fairness have more unique variance in organizational citizenship behavior than mood state.

Organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior are related to effective organizational leadership, which can be appreciated through organizational commitment, perceptions of justice, job satisfaction, leader support, etc. (Organ, 2014; Cropanzano, Rupp, Thornton, and Shao, 2018). Organizational justice is a social exchange indicator that offers valuable insights into the employment relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013).

The psychological sense and identity of organizational members are fostered from fair treatment based on the dimensions of distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informal justice.

The empirical findings are related to positive relationships between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors individual and organizational (Saifi, Shahzad, 2017; Singh, and Singh, 2019; Hameed Al-ali, Khalid Qalaja, and Abu-Rumman, 2019; Jihad, Farzana, Zafir, and Ramayah, 2016). The empirical results examine the distributive justice and its effects on organizational citizenship behaviors individual and organizational (Hameed Al-ali, Khalid Qalaja, and Abu-Rumman, 2019; Choi, Moon, Ko, and Kim, 2014; Ertu, 2007). Likewisew, age, gender, and education have an influence on the orientation toward justice and fairness (Rupp and Bell 2010; Holtz and Harold 2013).

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

The role of occupational identity is related to organizational citizenship behavior. Drawing upon identity theory, the trait positive affect of an individual exerts an effect on the organizational citizenship behavior toward individual. The citizen identity correlates with citizenship behavior. Organizational citizenship behavior focuses on identifying individual antecedents and with innovative behavior can cope with expectations of citizens and changes of the environment (Cho and Song, 2021). Organizational members identify and develop their strengths use to leverage.

There is a positive association between identity and organizational citizenship behavior towards individuals and organizations. The integrated workplace behavior perspective (Finkelstein and Penner 2004) identifies the identity that predicts organizational citizenship behavior. Volunteerism organizational citizenship behavior share attributes with role identity, involving discretionary long-term planning acts occurring in organizational contexts (Penner 2002) Sustaining organizational citizenship and volunteerism develop similar mechanisms that the long-term volunteer activities. Long-term volunteer activities develop identity and organizational citizenship behavior associated with a self-concept of organizational citizen (Finkelstein and Penner, 2004).

Cultural, individual, and organizational factors have a negative relationship on the occupational identity. Legal-legislative factors have negative relationships on occupational identity and organizational citizenship behavior. An indirect effect of trait positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior individual mediated by group identification is positive when the perception of group positive affect is low emphasizing the substituting role perceived group positive affect in the relationship between trait positive affect in relationship between trait positive affect and group identification.

Social learning theory is the framework for the link between spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors for environment positively associated with an orientation of environmental justice (Bandura 1977, 1986). Building on social learning theory, spiritual leadership is positively associated with environmental justice orientation, and in turn, it is positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior for the environment.

Individual discretionary behavior is the focus of organizational citizenship behavior for the environment supported by inclusive, responsible, and supportive leadership styles. Responsible leadership style is a set of behavioral traits paying attention to the interests of the organization and stakeholders (Han et al., 2019a, 2019b). Organizational responsible leadership styles have effects on organizational citizenship behavior, although little is known about the impact of different leadership styles on organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment styles as being responsible, inclusive, authentic, focused on society for organizational sustainable environmental development (Pless et al., 2011).

The responsible, authentic, inclusive, and supportive leadership styles contribute to organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. The leadership styles supportive leadership, responsible leadership, inclusive leadership, and authentic leadership are independent variables mediated by psychological ownership and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. Likewise, leadership styles as independent variables have significant relationships with organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment mediated by self-efficacy and psychological ownership, which are associated between leadership and organizational citizenship to environment.

Psychological ownership is a mediator of the relationship between responsible, authentic, inclusive, and supportive leadership behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment (Bernhard and O'Driscoll, 2011; Kim and Beehr, 2017). Psychological ownership may mediate leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment.

Self-efficacy and psychological ownership are mediating the relationships between leadership styles and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. The environmental support of leadership has a positive impact on the organizational citizenship behavior for the environment of the organizational members (Zhang et al., 2016; Robertson and Barling, 2017; Priyankara et al., 2018; Han et al., 2019b). Self-efficacy has a mediated role between responsible leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment, and a partial mediating role between authentic leadership style and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. The individual self-efficacy mediates the relationship between responsible leadership, inclusive leadership and authentic leadership, and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment.

Organizational leadership styles have a significant effect on green behavior focused on discretionary behaviors of organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment (Kura, 2016; Zhang et al., 2016). Leadership styles have a direct and positive relationship association with green behaviors (Robertson and Barling, 2013; Kura, 2016). Spiritual leadership has positive effects on organizational citizenship behavior (Bosch 2009).

Psychological ownership and self-efficacy have a mediating role between leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment aimed to support green behavior. Psychological ownership has a mediating role between authentic leadership style and organizational citizenship behavior to environment. Psychological ownership has a partial mediating role of the relationship between leadership styles and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. Leadership style affects the mediating self-efficacy and psychological ownership relationships with organizational citizenship behavior for the environment.

The spiritual leadership model has influence on the organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational commitment influences positively citizenship behavior. The relationship between spiritual leadership including vision, hope, and altruistic love with organizational citizenship behavior including altruism and conscientiousubjective normess, mediated by spiritual resilience (Chen and Yang 2012). Spiritual leadership facilitates the feelings of employees to become more meaningful at the organization which increase the organizational citizen behavior (Kaya 2015).

Organizational commitment mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (Purnama 2013; Djaelani, Sanusi, and Trianmanto 2020; Kazemipour et al. 2012; and Supriyanto, Ekowati, and Maghfuroh 2020). Organizational commitment has a mediating role in the relationship between spiritual leadership and job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior. Spiritual leadership and job satisfaction have effects on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Djaelania, Sanusib, and Trianmantob, 2020). Organizational commitment has effects on spiritual leadership and job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behaviors. Organizational commitment is a mediator between the relationships of spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

Discretionary pro-environmental behaviors comprise the organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment, that leads to relationships between spiritual leadership, harmonious environmental passion, and environmental justice orientation. Organizational commitment mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (Purnama 2013; Djaelani, Sanusi, and Trianmanto 2020; Kazemipour et al. 2012; and Supriyanto, Ekowati, and Maghfuroh 2020). Antecedents and outcomes supported on nomological networks of relationships between the spiritual leadership, organizational citizenship behavior for the environment and environmental justice orientation.

Environmental justice orientation is a mechanism that explains the relation of spiritual leadership leading to organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. The environmental justice orientation is a mechanism of the relationship occurring between the spiritual leadership positively related to organizational citizenship behavior for the environment. Environmental justice orientation has a mediating effect on the link of spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment.

Environmental justice orientation is a mediator of the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment. Spiritual leadership has an influence on the environmental justice orientation of employees inspiring to participate and promote discretionary environmental initiatives and behaviors. Environmental justice orientation mediates the association between spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment.

Spiritual leadership enhances the organizational citizenship behavior for the environment of employees, extending the justice orientation scope in the green context to offer an alternative vantage. Spiritual leadership is directly and indirectly positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior for the environment through environmental justice orientation. Spiritual leadership has a positive association with organizational citizenship behavior for the environment (OCBE) through environmental justice orientation.

Harmonious environmental passion is a moderating factor between the spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment with a strong link when the justice orientation is high (Afsar, Badir, and Kiani 2016; Khan et al. 2019). Collected data aimed to achieve variance in perceptions of workers of spiritual leadership, harmonious environmental passion, environmental justice orientation and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment, captures diversity (Hirschi 2012; Usman et al. 2019).

There are some components between authentic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment such as the self-awareness of identity, emotions, values and environmental values and goals that influence the traits of organizational members. Authentic leadership style has a vital role in enhancing the voluntary organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment of organizational members in the workplace, i.e., OCB (Iqbal et al., 2018).

Authentic leadership styles have a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. Authentic leadership is positively associated with organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment (Liu et al., 2018) There is a relationship between authentic leadership styles and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. Authentic leadership style has an impact on organizational citizenship behavior for environment of organizational members with objective and directed behaviors to society, environment, organizations, and individuals. Identification among organizations, leadership and organizational members about their values and environmental concerns, they can be influenced to behave following the values and actions for organizational sustainable development and environmental protection (Paillé et al., 2014).

Schema theory provides academic support for supportive leadership style that has a significant effect on organizational citizenship behavior for the environment. Self-efficacy regulating human behavior results from leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment (Bandura, 2010) and the organizational members utilizes self-efficacy for pro environmental behaviors such as the organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment (Jugert et al., 2016).

Supportive leadership style was presented by House (1981), with emotional, informational, and instrumental support components. Leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior is partially mediated by self-efficacy. Supportive leadership styles have a significant relationship and positive impact on organizational citizenship behavior for the environment mediated by the self-efficacy and psychological ownership. Self-efficacy and psychological ownership mediate between leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment leading to provide support to green behaviors. Supportive leadership style is related to organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. There is a significant relationship between supportive leadership style with organizational citizenship behavior for the environment. Supportive leadership style is measured by the scale developed by Rafferty and Griffin (2004). Psychological behavior of organizational members mediates between supportive leadership and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment.

Transformational and transactional leadership styles, job satisfaction and organizational commitment have a significant positive influence organizational citizenship behavior (Pramono 2020; Kadiyono 2020; Kartika 2020; Fahmi 2020; Jannah 2020). Transformational leadership, organizational commitment and job satisfaction are variables that influence organizational citizenship behavior in supply chain management (Purwanto, et. al. 2021). Transformational leadership, organizational commitment and job satisfaction have a significant and positive effects on organizational citizenship behavior in supply chain management implemented company. Increasing organizational citizenship behavior is supported by the inspirational motivation and promotion opportunities as indicators of transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

Moral leadership should sustain environmental security (Zhang et al., 2016; Priyankara et al., 2018) leading to increase the organizational citizenship behavior. More ethical leadership should encourage the organizational citizenship behavior. Authentic leadership style enhances the voluntary organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment in the workplace (Iqbal et al., 2018). Responsible and inclusive leadership styles are related to organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. Inclusiveness as a leadership style is related to organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment with new practices aimed to save it. There is a significant relationship between inclusive leadership and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment. Psychological ownership has a mediated role between inclusive leadership style and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment.

The organizational members support organizations shaped with inclusive leadership leading to environmentally friendly and innovative behavior (Javed et al., 2017). The relationship between inclusive leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors for environment elaborated in a framework to include organizational members in the deliberation, value their voice and decision-making processes. Inclusive leadership facilitates organizational belonging and its policies. The constructive effects of the interactions of inclusive leadership on organizational citizenship behavior for environment. Responsible leadership identified with organizational members are mechanisms to integrate all the stakeholders' ecological interests and benefits. Responsible leadership style promotes the organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment actions such as reduction of energy consumption, paper-saving, etc., and enhanced environmental protection (Afsar et al., 2020). There is a significant relationship between responsible leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment.

Indirect effects at low level perceived group positive affect suggest that trait positive affect functions, affective resources for enhancing group identification and increasing the organizational citizenship behavior toward the individual when perceived group positive affect. Negative gossip relates to low organizational citizenship behavior targets damaging their organizational identification (Ye, Zhu, Deng, & Mu, 2019). The frequency of being a target of negative gossip to determine perceptions. Isolated gossip incidents have an influence on social inclusion and organizational citizenship behavior becoming less harmful than constantly being a gossip target.

Green organization identity intermediates the relationship between green human resources management and organizational citizenship behavior for sustainable environment The relationship between green human resource management is related to green organization identity (GOI), environmental values and organizational citizenship behaviors for the sustainable environment (OCBEs) There is a positive impact between green human resource management and organizational citizenship behavior for sustainable environment (Liu et al., 2021). Green organization identity has a mediation influence between green human resources management and organizational citizenship behavior for sustainable environment (Liu, Mei, and Guo, 2021). The positive impact of green human resources management on organizational citizenship behavior for sustainable environment has theoretical implications for organizational green development strategy.

The impact of green human resources management is moderated by environmental values on green organization identity and organizational citizenship behavior for sustainable environment (Liu, Mei, and Guo, 2021). Environmental values have a mediation influence of green human resources management and on organizational identity and organizational citizenship behavior for sustainable environment. Responsible leadership has effects on organizational citizenship behavior for the environment although very little research is being conducted to identify the impact of the different roles of leadership styles on organizational citizenship behavior for the environment as being inclusive, responsible, and focused on sustainable environmental development (Pless et al., 2011).

PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

The psychological contract is subject to the understanding of promises, implicit or explicit, and exchange contributions between the organizations in terms of payments, job security, promotion, etc, and the individuals in terms of efforts, abilities, loyalty (Rousseau 1995). A respected psychological contract compels employees to align their goals to those of the organization, engaging in OCB actions without expecting to get and organizational reward. Psychological contract fulfillment has a causal relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors. The differences in psychological contract fulfillment predict differences in the organizational citizenship behaviors development. The level of psychological contract fulfillment tends to have high level of organizational citizenship behavior.

The dynamic nature of citizenship behavior leads to organizational citizenship behavior is a dynamic construct positively related to psychological contract fulfillment. Within-individual variance in psychological contract fulfillment influences the average level of organizational citizenship behavior although is not clear the development over time. The psychological contract fulfillment influences development in attitudes, behavior, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Schalk & Roe, 2007), although the research results are limited and not conclusive. The within-person variance in psychological contract fulfillment predicts the difference in organizational citizenship behavior, although is not able to predict individual development over time. Psychological contract fulfillment predicts the individual level of organizational citizenship behavior but is unable to predict the intraindividual development in organizational citizenship behavior over time.

The intraindividual development in organizational citizenship behavior over time may be predicted by psychological contract fulfillment. Organizational citizenship behavior and psychological contract fulfillment have similar significant intraindividual development over time, although there is not common trend of development for all individuals. Intraindividual development in psychological contract fulfillment predicts the intraindividual development in organizational citizenship behavior.

The psychological contract fulfillment is related to the organizational citizenship behavior on the between person level. The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and psychological contract fulfillment is between-person level. Both constructs have within-individual variance as the result of the perception over time. Psychological contract fulfillment predicts between-person differences in organizational citizenship behaviors although may not predict the individual development.

Psychological contract fulfillment is a predictor of the level of organizational citizenship behavior which may increase over time by evaluating the inducements of organization toward the individuals. The psychological contract fulfillment is a predictor of differences between-persons and the development in psychological contract fulfillment relates to the development in organizational citizenship behaviors over time. Psychological contract fulfillment predicts interindividual differences in organizational citizenship behaviors.

The psychological contract fulfillment has a predictive effect on organizational citizenship behavior and have support for a positive relationship that results in the increasement in inducements and organizational citizenship behavior (Newton et al., 2008; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Shih & Chen, 2011; Turnley et al., 2003; Yeh, 2011). The positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and organizational citizenship behavior is evidence of reciprocal interplay between the employees and the employer (Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, 2008).

Cross-sectional and cross-lagged studies support the assumptions that there is a positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and organizational citizenship behaviors (Newton et al., 2008; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Shih & Chen, 2011; Turnley et al., 2003; Yeh, 2011). Cross-sectional studies explain differences between persons at a given point of time in the evolving relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and organizational citizenship behavior over time.

The differences in psychological contract fulfillment predict that differences in individual development in organizational citizenship behaviors over time. The analysis of interindividual differences in the development in organizational citizenship behavior is related to the differences in psychological contract fulfillment. The random coefficient management examines the development of organizational citizenship behaviors over time and psychological contract fulfillment predicts the differences in this development. Management of a psychological contract violation has effects on organizational citizenship behavior and productivity. Psychological contract violation management is related to organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Psychological contract violation leads into outcomes with negative impact on the individual behaviors at the workplace (Del Campo 2007).

Psychological contract violation management leads to lack of integrity of organizational members that opposes to organizational citizenship discretionary behaviors. A Brocken psychological contract between the organization and the employees leads to negative feelings and withdrawal of support, resentment, anger, injustice, betrayal, reduction of commitment, productivity, all of which do not foster organizational citizenship behaviors (Herscovitch and Meyer 2002).

Organizational citizenship behaviors and their relationships with the organizational psychological contract violation and psychological contract violation management can be measured by using an instrument developed by Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1994), which has revealed a negative relationship in empirical studies. Research supports that there is a negative significant relationship between organizational psychological contract and organizational citizenship behaviors (Coyle-Shapiro, Marrow, and Kessler 2006).

Violations of the psychological contract reduce the commitment of individuals due to the belief that the fulfillment of promises by the organizations is questionable, a situation that may be avoided and managed. Organizational failures to fulfil obligations are perceived as a psychological contract violation which lead to absence of organizational citizenship behaviors emotional exhaustion, job dissatisfaction and lack of organizational reciprocation Gakovic and Tetrick, 2003; Turnley & Fieldman, 2000).

The subscales made by Williams and Anderson (1991) to measure the two constructs of organizational citizenship behaviors, towards the individual and the organization that have different antecedents and correlates. The two subscales are positively related to psychological contract fulfillment, although Turnley et al. (2003) found a stronger relationship between organizational citizenship behavior for organizations than for individuals (Restubog et al., Turnley et al., 2003).

CONCLUSION

Social learning theory supports the model development of spiritual leadership directly linked to organizational citizenship behavior for the environment or through the environmental justice orientation. Organizational citizenship behavior is more related to a group rather than an individual and is related to organizational effectiveness in local specific cultures and correlated with heuristic frameworks job satisfaction, fairness, personality, etc. The link between spiritual leadership and organizational citizenship behavior for the environment extends the predictor between these two variables (Khan et al. 2019; Fry, Vitucci, and Cedillo 2005; Ali et al. 2020).

Organizational citizenship behavior for the environment is influenced by several factors such as leadership styles significantly affecting the green behavior of organizational members and stakeholders. Leadership style facilitates the organizational citizenship behavior for the environment of the organizational members. Organizational citizenship behavior is influenced by factors such as individual motives and dispositions, employee attitudes, group cohesiveness, leadership styles and others. Organizational citizenship behaviors are associated to commitment, satisfaction, leadership, and so on. Hiring and developing individuals with leadership styles responsible, authentic inclusive and supportive can be used to change individuals and organizational perceptions of values and implement the organizational citizenship behaviors for environment.

Findings support that responsible leadership is closely, significantly positive associated with organizational citizenship behavior for the environment. Findings have empirically verified mediation of self-efficacy that is positive with responsible authentic, inclusive, and supportive leadership styles for the organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment. Organizational citizenship behavior has a direct effect to spiritual leadership and job satisfaction. Spiritual leadership and job satisfaction are predictors while organizational commitment is a mediation variable and organizational citizenship behavior is the outcome variable. The emerging effects from spiritual leadership and job satisfaction lead thought an organizational commitment to organizational citizenship behavior.

Spiritual leadership has a positive relationship to job satisfaction as predictor variables, while organizational commitment is a mediator variable and organizational citizenship behavior is the outcome variable (Baron and Kenny 1986). Spiritual leadership and organizational commitment promote organizational citizenship behaviors. Organizational commitment mediates between spiritual leadership on organizational leadership. Organizational commitment has a mediating role on spiritual leadership on the organizational citizenship behavior. Research concludes that there is a positive association between organizational citizenship behavior, leadership, and job attitudes.

Organizational citizenship behaviors develop a relationship with psychological contract fulfillment over time. Psychological contract fulfillment and organizational citizenship behaviors are related variables developing over time on the between-person level. However, psychological contract fulfillment does not predict organizational citizenship behaviors, but this relationship requires more research. Future research must examine the relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and organizational citizenship behavior. Longitudinal research to examine the relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and organizational citizenship behavior is needed over time. Future research on the relationship between the organization and individuals in organizational citizenship behavior with measures of waves and different time-intervals leading to the alignment of the development of a psychological contract and organizational citizenship behavior. Future research in organizational citizenship behavior for environment should include longitudinal and multi-sourcing data using a quasi-experimental approach on the causality of the relationship with positive and negative leadership styles.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Distributive Justice: Has effects on organizational citizenship behavior individual but has not effects on organizational citizenship behavior individual. Distributive justice has a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behavior individual and with organizational citizenship behavior at the level of organization.

Interactional Justice: Is related to organizational civil behavior individual and organizational citizenship behavior. Interactional justice has a negative relationship with organizational citizenship behavior at individual level but has not any relationship with organizational citizenship behavior at organization level.

Interpersonal Justice: Is perceived about how the person is treated with dignity and respect. Interpersonal justice has a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behavior individual and organizational (Cheung, 2013; Lilly, 2015). Interpersonal justice is in relationship with organizational citizenship behavior, although research has not proven.

Justice: Is perceived by individuals as organizational citizenship behavior distributive justice about the results received from resource allocation taking into consideration the organizational norms and rules.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): In relationship with the informational justice, is perceived and the empirical findings of the positive effects of informational justice on organizational citizenship behavior individual and organizational justice (OJ) (Cheung, 2013; Lilly, 2015). Organizational citizenship behaviors are in a positive and significant relationship with organizational justice (Singh & Singh, 2019; Saifi & Shahzad, 2017; Hassan, Azim, & Abbas, 2015; Iqbal, Aziz, & Tasawar, 2021).

Organizational Justice (OJ): Is a construct of corporate or organizational governance procedures, policies, and compliance behavior, yet has no relationship with organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Singh & Singh, 2019; Jehanzeb & Mohanty, 2019; Batool, 2013). Other studies also have found that (OJ) has no relationship with OCB (Jehanzeb & Mohanty, 2019).

Procedural Justice: Is perceived as justice and fairness related to organizational processes, procedures and policies that enable extra behaviors towards the organization. Procedural justice has positive effects on organizational citizenship organization individual but does not affect organizational citizenship behavior organization (Hameed Al-ali, Khalid Qalaja, & Abu-Rumman, 2019; Choi, Moon, Ko, & Kim, 2014; Hassan, Azim, & Abbas, 2017; Ertu, 2007). Procedural justice has positive relationships with organizational citizenship individual and organizational citizenship organizational.

Chapter 4
Sense of Belonging in Higher Education:
Developing and Measuring a Sense of Belonging Across Student Programs

Amanda Connelly
Monmouth University, USA

Susan Pagano
Brookdale Community College, USA

Bea Rogers
Monmouth University, USA

Tracy Mulvaney
Monmouth University, USA

ABSTRACT

This chapter discusses the importance of a 'sense of belonging' to student success among students participating in three different programs: first-year composition at a private 4-year university, supplemental instruction at a private 4-year university, and non-credit coursework at a community college. These program examples connect the program purpose and operation to a sense of belonging. Suggestions are also included to improve a sense of belonging within the programs. Finally, special factors within each program are addressed through the lens of a sense of belonging.

INTRODUCTION

Sense of belonging is an integral factor of student success in higher education, as it is directly related to student retention and completion. Sense of belonging has many definitions, and can often be subjective; however, at its core, sense of belonging can be described as "students' perceived social support

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch004

on campus, a feeling or sensation of connectedness, the experience of mattering or feeling cared about, accepted, respected, valued by, and important to the group (e.g., campus community) or others on campus (e.g., faculty, peers)" (Strayhorn, 2012, p. 3). Changing demographics in higher education have contributed to the need for different kinds of institutions, from private 4-year universities to community colleges, to reconsider how they can better meet the needs of their students to support persistence and degree completion.

This chapter will discuss the importance of sense of belonging in three different student programs, including first-year composition at a private 4-year university, Supplemental Instruction at a private 4-year university, and non-credit coursework at a community college. For each student program a background is provided, a connection to sense of belonging is made, and a summary concludes the student program. Once the summary is provided for the third student program, a chapter conclusion is presented.

BACKGROUND

Sense of belonging in college "refers to students' perceived social support on campus, a feeling or sensation of connectedness, and the experience of mattering or feeling cared about, accepted, respected, valued by, and important to the campus community or others on campus such as faculty, staff, and peers" (Strayhorn, 2018, p. 4). Strayhorn's research led him to conclude that sense of belonging, particularly in the form of community, support, membership, and acceptance, was fundamental to numerous aspects of student success including student identity, development, mental health, wellbeing, and academic success (p. 6). Fan et al. (2021) developed the idea that there is a reciprocal relationship between a sense of belonging and student satisfaction. Sense of belonging and student satisfaction are identified as key factors for student retention and success (Buskirk-Cohen & Plants, 2019; Fan et al., 2021).When students are happy with their overall experience, they tend to feel involved and connected, leading to a stronger sense of belonging. Similarly, students who are involved and participating in a welcoming and supportive campus environment tend to be more satisfied. This is also true at the course level.

Wilton et al. (2019) analyzed a course designed to provide supportive interventions such as more in-class active learning, discussion and interaction. This course, which they referred to as the intervention course, showed improved academic performance of students in that class. They used a 12-item survey focused on sense of belonging in three distinct domains: perceived peer support (5 items), perceived faculty support (5 items), and perceived classroom comfort (2 items) which allowed them to determine which domain had the greatest impact. After controlling for demographic differences, they found that the intervention course correlated most strongly to students' perceptions of faculty support and classroom comfort, which was unexpected, because they had hypothesized that peer support would have correlated most. They recommended that future courses should be designed to use instructional approaches that help build a sense of classroom community.

Sense of belonging is a complex concept, however, and one that can be hard to quantify between students due to its subjective nature, meaning students will have unique reactions in different situations. Strayhorn (2018) described this complexity as "a basic human need that takes on heightened importance in *certain* social contexts where *some* individuals are prone to feeling unsupported, unwelcomed, or lonely, or in *some* social contexts where *certain* individuals are more likely to feel that way" (p. 5). Recognizing this complexity is important because it creates an awareness of the need to acknowledge the subjectivity: individuals may have different needs and some situations may impact those needs more than others. A need that most students reveal is connectedness to others on campus. Peer interactions, according to Strayhorn (2018) can help increase or decrease the sense of belonging, so much so that "it is critical for college student educators to encourage positive interactions through conditions that *really* matter in college" (p. 2). All of these factors are discussed throughout this chapter which focuses on how sense of belonging manifests in three student programs in higher education, starting with a first-year composition program at a private 4-year institution.

Program #1: First-year Composition Students at a Private 4-year University

Background

A student's sense of belonging at an institution begins from the moment they are exploring the decision to apply to the school. Prospective students will look for majors and organizations that reflect their interests, faculty and administrators who appear welcoming, and current students who have similar interests or backgrounds. Once students are accepted, a sense of belonging must then persist through their first semester, which can often be the most difficult in adjusting both academically and socially for first-year students. Within this section, first-year students at private 4-year universities, particularly predominately white institutions (PWIs), will be considered as the target population.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2021), in the fall of 2019, 5.1 million of the nation's undergraduate students attended a private university. College enrollment, in general, was down about 7%. Now, as one can expect, that number will likely increase due to the covid-19 pandemic. The fall of 2021 marks the beginning of some semblance of "normalcy" or the closest thing to it on college campuses across the country. The on-going pandemic, and the massive disruption to face-to-face education, has shown that students cannot solely depend on being physically on campus in order to feel a sense of belonging. Instead, institutions need to be prepared to find new interventions to facilitate belonging through a computer screen. While school events, club meetings, and social hangouts were sometimes eliminated as options for students, courses had to continue without disregarding the benefits that students gain from them, not just academically but also socially. Because courses were the only aspects of some schools that sustained, even with the hiccups of using Zoom or other web applications, courses have become one of the most significant places where students can gain their sense of belonging to an institution, whether on campus or virtually. Therefore, it makes logical sense to look at a required course that most first-year students will take—first-year composition—and determine what interventions for sense of belonging already exist and what more can be done within the first year of a student's undergraduate career.

College Composition

When most students enter a first-year composition course, their first impression is typically that they will continue building on their current writing skills from previous education. Some expect to learn more knowledge about grammar while others are anticipating reading lengthy texts to then produce their own lengthy papers. While none of these students are wrong, many underestimate the purpose of college composition courses. According to the Council of Writing Program Administrators (2019), the students taking college composition will gain skills in rhetorical knowledge; critical thinking, reading, and composing; composing processes; and knowledge of conventions. Within these main categories are outcomes associated with using and understanding texts, diversifying student writing for different environments, writing strategies for different disciplines, and understanding feedback, among many others.

Course Sequencing

College Composition programs may all have the same overall objective: to teach students how to express their ideas and enter critical conversations through writing at the collegiate level, but the programs differ from school to school. Some schools have incoming first-year students take placement exams or submit standardized test scores, which then determine whether students need foundational, often noncredit, courses before taking the "streamlined" college-level course or courses. On the other hand, students could also be labeled as more advanced than average and skip the first for-credit course in the sequence if there are multiple courses.

When students are required to take placement exams or to submit their standardized test scores, it can create an issue of inequity because not all students have access to tutors, prep courses, and the same education (Saidy, 2018). As Inoue (2015) states, foundational course rosters often show issues of racial disparities. Because of this, students are immediately "othered" by the institution and assigned into courses in which they may not even receive credit, despite having to pay for them. This not only creates a financial burden on the student but could also create an obstacle to feeling like they belong. The students are given a label that they may internalize, whether positive or negative, assuming that if the institution is making that determination, all faculty or fellow students may label them in the same fashion if their status is discovered. This otherness is magnified if the students are already marginalized by their social location due to being enrolled at a PWI.

Some schools have eradicated this system to streamline students no matter their level of readiness, using their acceptance to the school as the only necessary indicator of this. Still, within these schools, composition programs may not always have the same process. Some schools have one composition course while others have two, three, or even more. According to McHenry (2014), those who choose to take their composition courses one after the other, rather than pushing them off or skipping a semester between courses if there are multiple in the sequence, typically perform better academically. For the purpose of this chapter, the central focus will be on programs where students are taking their composition course or courses during their first year of attendance, thus referring to the program as first-year composition.

Grading and Assessment

In writing courses, there is typically a heavy grading load, which calls for smaller class sizes (Horning, 2007; Taggart, 2014). However, all programs and individual faculty members have different ways of assessing a student's success in reaching the course goals. While some instructors may only grade higher-stakes assignments, like paper drafts and final drafts along with an end-of-semester portfolio, others also grade lower-stakes assignments like in-class writing or homework activities. Either way, the grading of process becomes just as important as grading an end result (Yancey & Weiser, 1997). Others suggest taking assessment further by treating students as case studies (Saidy, 2018); not only are the letter or number grades important, but the student's experience throughout the semester may be even more so. If composition faculty members are given a small enough class, conferences and one-on-one office hours become just as useful in assessing if the student has met the course goals. Yet, because much of the faculty of composition courses may be adjuncts who lack time and offices of their own on campus

(Radison, 2016), this assessment will have to take place in the classroom through observations of group and individual work, conferences squeezed into class time, and more personal paper assignments like reflections and responses to their own work.

However, what kind of assessments are being given is not nearly as important as the effect it has on students. For instance, Gooblar (2019) mentions that instructors should spend time in class reviewing feedback with students. This does not necessarily have to be done individually, but instructors should be prepared to discuss the feedback process and what feedback means with students if they wish for it to be taken seriously by students. If not, students may not view it, either because they do not know how to or because they would rather just focus on the grade. As Nicholes and Reimer (2020) assert, students often take feedback to heart, so feedback can easily move students forward or stop them in their tracks. Like students, faculty may also be emotionally affected by giving feedback, finding it difficult to give failing grades to students. Therefore, feedback and grading must be fully explained to students to avoid creating a rift between student and professor, or even worse, student and the course itself. This is only one way that sense of belonging could be unintentionally affected by the way first-year composition courses are structured.

Sense of Belonging in First-Year Composition

As composition is typically a general education requirement, it can be assumed that most students will take at least one of these courses. Because the focus is on programs titled first-year composition, students in these programs will be highly recommended, or required, to take their composition course right when they begin their freshman year. Because of this, first-year composition can be a place where students build a sense of belonging in the classroom and hopefully translate that to outside the classroom, as well. As Nunn (2021) mentions, belonging has three levels: academic belonging, social belonging, and campus-community belonging. Ideally, students will achieve all three sources of belonging and make the decision to remain at the institution for the second year. There are ways that first-year composition classes can facilitate all three of these levels, rather than only the academic belonging, which may seem most obvious. Yes, it is wonderful if students earn high grades and feel connected due to this, but as a lot of literature about retention states, it is not always about academic success but more about feeling like one belongs that keeps them retained (Rendón, 1993; Tinto, 1999; Vaccaro & Newman, 2016; Means & Pyne, 2017; Davis et al., 2019; Cole et al., 2020). Strayhorn (2012) asserts that this is particularly important for marginalized students, and with this focus being on a private PWI, this increases the need for the student to feel they belong in *all* settings.

Social Justice

A major part of learning to write is gaining the knowledge of how to enter conversations that are already occurring as well as recognizing where one personally fits into these conversations. Thus, themes of social justice or identity reflection seem like natural choices for this level of course. Since the 1980s, social epistemic pedagogy has been a central focus of composition courses (Weiser, 1992). Yet, it feels that in the past five years, this focus has been more important than ever. However, this does not mean that every student or instructor feels these topics are simple. For example, Kumari and Thielen (2020) stated that the #BlackLivesMatter movement and response to police brutality "led [them] to consider [their] own privileges" (p. 70). This, in turn, led them to create a course with privilege and social justice at the helm. While students were initially uncomfortable participating in the class, likely heightened by attending a PWI, the discussions and assignments were ultimately successful due to allowing students to openly feel that discomfort.

There is also the difference between *diversifying* and *decolonizing*, especially when it comes to learning. The idea of decolonizing the syllabus has become an important challenge, particularly for white instructors at PWIs. Kimbro et al. (2019), in a podcast interview with DeChavez (2019), determine this about surface-level changes and deep, systematic changes that faculty and administrators are making. If a white faculty member replaces all of their white authors with Black authors, this is considered "diversifying," while still leaving out voices from other races and cultures. By decolonizing, faculty members have to dismantle the current curriculum by creating intersectionality; rather than just focusing on replacing white voices with people of color, DeChavez discusses the necessity to employ writers who identify as different genders with different sexualities. DeChavez challenges the listener to not just include these writers on their syllabi but learn more about them; Kimbro et al. provide examples of when they included writers or work they had never studied before and openly engaged with students why this was important to learn beside them (as cited in Kimbro et al., 2019). Being an instructor is not about pretending to have authority on every topic, so Kimbro et al.'s suggestion of being open with students about the ongoing learning process and being a lifelong student in the world of social justice makes it less intimidating for students to then be more involved with the conversations. The first-year composition classroom is the ideal place for some of these conversations because they lend themselves to many of the outcomes the course promises, especially thinking critically and entering ongoing conversations.

By opening up classroom discussions, assignment prompts, and course activities to focus on social justice issues, the instructor is also knowingly or unknowingly allowing students the chance to realize their personal connection to these topics. Kennison et al. (2019) describes a writing intervention that allowed students to write from their own experiences; after completing this assignment that was focused on expressing themselves and reflecting on possible trauma, most students walked away feeling more validated. Validation is a major factor of feeling like one belongs (Rendón, 1993), especially to the campus-community as a whole; if instructors are able to encourage students to engage in these difficult conversations and reach into themselves to create personal connections, students are more likely to feel true ownership over their work and learning experience.

Student Agency

Along with being allowed to write about their own experiences or reflecting on issues that reflect upon their identities, student agency becomes an important step in creating belonging. While not all instructors allow students to choose their assignment topics, students find they feel more passionate about their writing when they actually care about the topic at hand (Saidy, 2018). Ira Shor (1992) discusses the idea of de-centering the classroom to become more student-focused than instructor-focused. Shor goes as far as to allow students to help create assignment prompts from the ground up along with other elements of the syllabus, like class policies. When giving students power over their own education, they realize their role as stakeholders (Gooblar, 2019). It also shows the student from the beginning of the course that the instructor is giving their thoughts and opinions value, a concept that feels new to many first-year students who are used to being taught to an unchanging curriculum, likely directed with a standardized test as endgame. The world of higher education should not only allow academic freedom for faculty but also for students.

Language Diversity

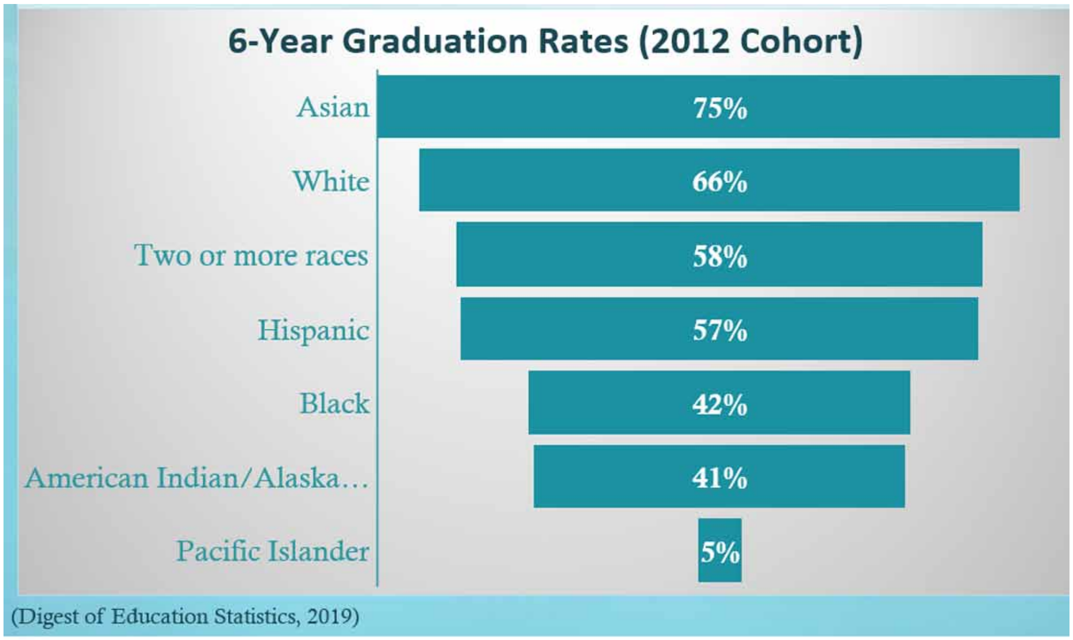
Another way of validating a student, besides allowing them agency over what they write about, is allowing them agency in *how* they write it. Language diversity has been a hot topic in composition pedagogy for some time, but recently more than ever, the "rules"' of Standard American English (SAE) have become less important, and instead, there is more emphasis on allowing students to use their natural language, voices, and vocabulary in their academic work. Rather than insisting all students write the same, instructors are letting go of the "myth" that is SAE (Mutnick & Lamos, 2014). Now, instructors are becoming more insistent that students write from where they are instead of where they wish they were or think they should be. Looker (2016), who teaches a composition class on the topic of language diversity, attempts to dismantle the idea that there is a such thing as "good" or "bad" language to use while speaking in writing, which is how students typically determine their worth in a writing course. They sense that "good" writing is using formal language, impressive vocabulary, and lengthy sentences to explain their ideas that will then earn them an 'A' in the course. They conflate "bad" language with how they speak to their friends or family—which is what comes naturally. By ridding students of the idea of "good" and "bad," instructors validate where students are in their learning journey without insisting that they change. While skills are taught, students are no longer told to hide who they are when communicating through writing. Because of how quickly the world is changing with technology, social media, and most significantly the acceptance of different backgrounds, student voices no longer need to be completely masked by what was once deemed "appropriate," "formal," or "academic."

Summary

First-year composition classrooms, whether face-to-face or virtual, can be the ideal environment to foster a sense of belonging. If key stakeholders, both faculty and students, are equally as involved and dedicated in the process of learning, there are many interventions and discussions of pedagogy that already exist and can be implemented. Of course, some composition topics, like language diversity, are still considered "new" even decades into the discussion, so there are instructors in first-year composition programs who still need convincing. Still, as Durkheim (1973) once asserted, individuals cannot thrive on their own; "belonging is something that communities provide for individuals; individuals cannot garner it themselves" (as cited in Nunn, 2021, p. 171). Therefore, students cannot be responsible for for creating their own sense of belonging. Instead, the tools are in the metaphorical hands of the instructor, within the pages of syllabi, and among the class discussions, even in a breakout room.

The classroom, of course, is not the only place where a sense of belonging can be fostered. The next section will shift from the first-year classroom environment into academic support, specifically a popular form of academic support known as Supplemental Instruction (SI), which aids students at all levels.

Figure 1. 6-Year Graduation Rates by Race (2012 Cohort)



PROGRAM #2: SUPPLEMENTAL INSTRUCTION STUDENTS AT A PRIVATE 4-YEAR UNIVERSITY

Background

As the student population in the United States becomes increasingly diverse, it will be even more important to provide a sense of belonging and positive campus experiences for all students (Fan et al., 2021), especially minority students at predominantly white institutions (PWIs) which make up the majority of colleges and universities. This environment is described by Fan et al. (2021) as "positive experiences with other students and faculty members, feeling accepted and valued as an individual, being engaged academically and socially, achieving academic success, feeling that they belong to the community, and being satisfied with their campus experience" (p. 22). Academic support services, in particular, will be particularly important to support and retain all students as demographics change (Hrabowski et al., 2019; Koerner, 2020; Yeado et al., 2014), especially disadvantaged students who, as defined by Yue et al. (2018) identify as underrepresented minority (URM), first-generation, Federal Pell Grant eligible, and English/mathematics remedial status (p. 18). URM students are approximately seven times less likely to earn a bachelor's degree than White students (Yue et al., 2018, p. 18). Consider Figure1 illustrating 6-Year Graduation Rates, which provides aggregate national data for 6-year graduation rates for students that matriculated in 2012 in the United States.

Higher education institutions are viewed as important "economic engines" (Scott, 2021) of our national economy, especially for higher paying Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM) professions (Frye et al., 2021; Hrabowski et al., 2019) for which job demand has doubled between 1991 and 2016 (Georgetown University Center on Education and the Workforce, 2018). Academic support for students in STEM majors will be critical because students in all demographic groups face challenges completing their degrees in spite of the fact that "our economy needs more STEM graduates than ever before" (Hrabowski et al., 2019, pp. 162-163).

While academic support is indeed critical, there are additional variables within the university ecosystem that can disproportionately impact the progress of URM students in STEM majors which can, in turn, disproportionately impact the diversity within the majors at graduation (Achat-Mendes et al., 2019; Wilton et al., 2019). Intentional interventions can help students persist and thrive to graduation to achieve better paying jobs and meet the labor demands of the future (Cabell, 2021; Moody, 2021), increase diversity within the workforce (Prescod et al., 2020), and reduce the likelihood that students may drop out with high amounts of student loan debt (Civitas Learning, 2018). One of the most successful interventions is Supplemental Instruction.

Supplemental Instruction (SI)

Supplemental Instruction (SI) is a form of academic support popular at colleges and universities around the globe (Congos, 2002). There are a variety of names used at these institutions: Peer-Assisted Learning (PAL) and Peer-Assisted Study Sessions (PASS), to name a few. Associated most often with STEM courses, SI generally targets courses identified as high-risk, historically difficult science courses that tend to have high percentages of D or F final grades or high rates of withdrawals (Coletti et al., 2014; Hensen & Shelley II, 2003; Martin & Arendale, 1992; Wisniewski et al., 2015). Although institutions may develop their own definitions of high-risk courses, many target courses with final course grades of D, F or W (withdrawals) of 30% or higher (Arendale, 1994, p. 11) while others defined high-risk courses as those in which 15% or more of the class have grades below C (Terrion & Daoust, 2012).

SI has been recognized as an effective contributor to improved course performance, student success, student retention, and higher graduation rates (Adebola, 2020; Buchanan et al., 2019; Civitas Learning, 2019; Koenig, 2019), and can play a key role in helping students complete college to enter the rapidly growing and higher-paying STEM professions (Fry et al., 2021). SI is also recognized as an effective way to mitigate the "weed out," competitive, high-risk culture often found within first and second-year science gateway courses (Buchanan et al., 2019).

SI differs from other academic support systems, such as early warning systems, tutoring, or exam reviews, because it begins early in the semester, providing a proactive rather than reactive mindset (Arendale, 1994). SI encourages students to begin effective study patterns by attending sessions regularly, where they learn how to organize content, gain new study habits, and explore test-taking strategies, essentially combining *what to learn* with *how to learn* (Arendale, 1994; Hurley & Gilbert, 2008).

SI Leaders

The SI Leader is the most important part of any SI program. The SI Leader has usually successfully completed the course in a prior semester and is generally close in age to the students (Martin & Arendale, 1992), which may make them seem more approachable (Terrion & Daoust, 2012). The SI Leader is trained to serve as a peer facilitator for group sessions in which students of all abilities can review material and work collaboratively to master the course content and practice active learning strategies (Arendale, 1994). The SI Leader can help reinforce or clarify content for the students and serves as an important role model through their interactions with the professor (Terrion & Daoust, 2012). Although

Arendale (1994) points out that the SI Leader is a "facilitator, not a mini-professor" (p. 14), the SI Leader will be discussed here as a key link to increasing a sense of belonging with the students they support.

Supplemental Instruction (SI) and Sense of Belonging

One of those conditions that matter for students is SI. Its modality–group study sessions providing scaffolded peer support–offers an environment where sense of belonging can be developed while simultaneously supporting student success. This aligns with Strayhorn (2018), who pointed out that positive peer interactions can increase students' sense of belonging, thereby supporting the idea that SI Leaders, and the group interaction they facilitate, can contribute substantially to these outcomes. Chickering and Gamson (1987) stated that learning improves when it is "more like a team effort than a solo race…good learning, like good work, is collaborative and social, not competitive and isolated" (p. 4).

Although SI best practices prescribe that SI is designed to benefit all students, there are numerous references within the literature that document some student populations experience greater benefits than others. For example, first-year students who participated in residential study group sessions experienced greater academic and social integration in a study by Terrion and Daoust (2012) who found that the peer mentors provided positive feedback, helped clarify topics from class, provided referrals to support services on campus, and were generally seen as more approachable since they were closer in age.

Another population that appears to receive greater benefits from SI than other student populations is disadvantaged students. Attendance at SI sessions was found to be more important for disadvantaged students, leading Yue et al. (2018) to suggest that these students should attend SI regularly to help close the academic gaps n SI-supported courses. These academic gaps may result from disadvantaged, lower-income communities where schools may face low funding, crowded classrooms, inadequate course offerings, and underprepared teachers. Academic support models like SI can help reduce the diversity gap in STEM professions by helping students of diverse backgrounds persist in STEM majors, particularly when the demographics of the SI Leaders reflect the diversity of the student body (Achat-Mendes et al., 2019).

Strategies to Develop Sense of Belonging in SI Programs

Students may not always feel comfortable within SI sessions. Strayhorn (2018) established that students have a strong need to develop a sense of belonging when faced with "a space that was otherwise foreign, unfamiliar, lonely, and unwelcoming" (p. 5) and that students will make decisions in order to meet their most basic needs of belonging. This is an important distinction to be made about SI because, unlike the first-year composition courses discussed earlier in this chapter, SI is voluntary. While some students, particularly those with work or outside responsibilities, may not be able to attend due to time constraints, and others may feel out of place socially or unable to keep up with the pace of the sessions (Spaniol-Mathews et al., 2016), some students may decide whether to attend or not based on whether they will feel a sense of belonging while there.

It is also especially important to welcome students to SI and create a feeling of belonging so that any misperceptions that SI is a form of punishment can be reduced. Adebola et al. (2020) proposed the possibility that SI may be viewed negatively in their study exploring attendance at SI sessions by first-year students. They also hypothesized that some students had tried SI in the past and had a negative experience. These factors are most likely in play on our campus as well. Training SI Leaders in creating a more welcoming environment to increase their sense of belonging may help overcome these issues.

Best practices in SI emphasize that it provides support to *all* students in high-risk courses, which distinguishes it from other academic support models focused mainly on struggling students. There are signs within the literature, however, that SI may be especially helpful for URM and disadvantaged students (Carter-Hanson & Gadbury-Amyot, 2016). Arendale (1994) addressed this when he explained “many underprepared students who might otherwise avoid seeking assistance will participate in SI since it is not perceived to be remediation and there is no stigma attached” (Arendale, 1994, p. 12). This aligns with Isik et al. (2021), who identified that URM students do not want to be perceived as a “separate needy group” (Isik et al., 2021, p. 8), and Babcock et al. (2019) who suggested the importance of creating “a culture of inclusive support for all students so that they feel welcome…before they encounter a serious threat to their success” (pp. 50-51).

The role of the professor, and by extension the SI Leader, in developing a sense of belonging at the classroom level may be especially significant for students who tend to underperform. Buskirk-Cohen and Plants (2019) focused their study on three aspects of sense of belonging: social acceptance (students’ sense of belonging in the social realm, mainly in terms of peer acceptance); professors’ pedagogical caring (the extent to which students feel valued by their professors), and global university belonging (the students’ sense of feeling accepted by the institution). When grouping students by variables related to the level of academic commitment, they found one significant correlation: “students who were low performers and indicated low [academic] commitment perceived professors to be less caring than students in any other groups” (p. 111). This concept of caring can be articulated to students in a number of ways, which will be explored next.

There are numerous ways in which SI Leaders can create a sense of caring for the students they support. SI Leaders can impact the sense of belonging by attending class sessions (lectures and/or labs). This allows them to remain aware of what happens in class in terms of content and pace, but, perhaps more importantly, to maintain a presence and visibility within the class environment, thereby increasing the likelihood that they will be perceived as part of the overall class community. This connection may in turn increase the likelihood that students would attend SI Sessions. This is not a new concept; best practices in SI recommend that SI Leaders sit in on classes but this is not always possible logistically. So what else could be done?

Additional strategies that SI Leaders might consider with students include use of micro-affirmations, which may help mitigate micro-inequities (Rowe, 2008), maintaining an awareness of content and tone (Kyte et al., 2020), using immediacy behaviors (Mehrabian, 1968), using name tents (Cooper et al., 2017), and increasing active listening (Benner, 2021). These strategies will be summarized briefly in Table 1: Strategies to Increase Sense of Belonging in SI Sessions.

These are just a few of the options that may be available to SI Leaders as they increase their awareness of creating an increased sense of belonging within their sessions and the student communities they support. The modality of group sessions can increase the feeling of teamwork and sense of accomplishment through the scaffolding provided by SI Leaders. The emphasis on a sense of caring may also help specific student populations like first year or URM students thrive within an environment that may feel more challenging for them, particularly within highly competitive STEM majors.

Until now, this chapter has focused primarily on the traditional age students attending private, 4-year institutions. While a good deal of the higher education literature is focused on this student demographic, particularly first year and underrepresented students, there is another very large student population, the non-traditional adult student, who deserves our attention next.

Table 1. Strategies to Increase Sense of Belonging in SI Sessions

Strategy	Description
Visibility	Attend class lectures/labs Increases visibilty to students Increases likelihood SI Leaders will be perceived as part of class community
Micro-affirmations	"Tiny acts of opening doors to opportunity, gestures of inclusion and caring, and graceful acts of listening" (Rowe, 2008, p. 46) Useful to counteract micro-inequities (small events which are often ephemeral and hard-to-prove, events which are covert…unintentional...which occur wherever people are perceived to be 'different' (Rowe, 2008, p. 45) Provides affirmation Increases morale and productivity Helps mitigate unconscious tendencies towards micro-inequities Helps "block" inappropriate or inequitable behaviours (Rowe, 2008, p. 46)
Content and tone	Use of warm and encouraging tone Express happiness at hearing from student Offer to partner to find solutions Acknowledge all students struggle Emphasize effort Reframe challenges as opportunities (Kyte et al., 2020) "Fair, specific, timely, consistent, and clear feedback" (Rowe, 2008, p. 46) can help build strengths and overcome weaknesses
Name tents	Simple and inexpensive Students felt instructors knew their names Created sense of more equitable learning environment Student interactions improved Students felt more comfortable asking for help (Cooper et al., 2017)
Active listening	Can help develop empathetic classroom, allowing students to be heard and feel respected Improves student relationships Reduces tension and hostility Improves communication and trust among students and teachers Uses micro-affirmations (nodding, facing other person, open and relaxed body posture, facial expressions, and avoidance of distracting behaviors such as checking phones) Contributes to positive and safe classroom space (Benner, 2021)

PROGRAM #3 NON-CREDIT ADULT PROGRAM AT A COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Background

Cultivating sense of belonging among non-traditional students is especially important for institutions of higher education to meet the needs of their students in an effort to support persistence and degree completion. One subset of students in higher education that has received increased attention over recent years is adults. Changing demographics in the United States and around the globe "have begun to affect U.S. colleges and universities, and will influence higher education even more forcefully in the decades ahead" (Keller, 2001, p. 219). Many states across the country are experiencing decreases in the number of traditionally-aged college students (18-to-24-year-olds) and aging populations (Keller, 2001), so colleges and universities are looking to adults for enrollment. However, adult students are fundamentally different from traditionally-aged students, so colleges and universities need to ensure that their specific needs are met in order for them to be successful. This section outlines the typical profiles of adult learners in higher education. Some areas of interest include the characteristics and barriers specific to adult students, retention approaches, academic advisement, and support services for adult students. Additionally, many adult students at colleges across the country access postsecondary education through non-credit education, so this section will also outline the nature of non-credit education and non-credit to credit pathways, which is a mechanism that institutions can use to cultivate sense of belonging. In order to promote sense of belonging among adult students in higher education and support their retention and completion, institutions must consider their unique characteristics, needs, and motivations.

Characteristics, Needs, and Motivations of Adult Students in Higher Education

Institutions of higher education that wish to cultivate a strong sense of belonging among adult students need to consider their unique characteristics, needs, and motivations. While the adult student population in higher education nationwide is diverse, there is a profile of a typical adult student that is very different from younger, more traditionally-aged undergraduates (Kasworm, Polson, & Fishback, 2002). Adult students often have significant family obligations, as more than half are either married or separated and have one or more dependent children. Adult students are also more likely to enroll in programs part-time, and they are more likely to combine full-time work with their studies. Additionally, adult students are more likely to be first-generation college students, as 55% of adults are first generation compared to 44% of younger undergraduates (Kasworm et al., 2002). Adult students use many different sources for funding their education, including external financial aid, grants, loans, and employer aid, and financing their education is the largest concern for adult students. They are often the key financial supporters for themselves and their families (Kasworm et al., 2002). Adult students have very particular motivations, needs, and barriers when they choose to return to higher education, so in order to support retention, completion, and sense of belonging among this population, institutions of higher education must pay close attention to their needs.

One of the main reasons why adults choose to enroll in higher education is for a career change. "In most studies of adult learning interests, over half of the respondents say that they are learning (or that they would like to learn) in order to get a new job, advance in their present job, or get a better job" (Cross, 1981, p. 20). There are many factors that influence adult students' job-related educational decisions, including job obsolescence (when someone's job becomes obsolete due to technological, social, or demographic changes), increased participation of women in the labor market, increased longevity, job competition, higher aspirations, social acceptability of career change, and the portability of pension plans, among others (Cross, 1981). Klein-Collins (2011) also noted that adult students are interested in personal enrichment, in addition to the goals of retraining, refreshing workplace skills, and preparing for new careers.

Adult students experience some obstacles that make it more difficult for them to be successful compared to traditionally-aged students. Cross (1981) identified a number of barriers that are specific to adult students in higher education, and these barriers fit into three main areas: situational, institutional, and dispositional barriers. S*ituational barriers* are those that arise from a student's situation in life at a given time, which can include work schedules, family obligations, child care, health issues, and lack of money, among others. *Institutional barriers* are those that the schools may create themselves, like practices and procedures that may discourage or exclude adults from participating in higher education. Some examples of institutional barriers include offering classes only during schedules that are inconvenient for working adults, full-time fees for part-time study, and the amount of time to complete a program, among others. *Dispositional barriers* refer to how students view their ability to succeed at education and training. For example, many adult students feel that they are too old to learn (Cross, 1981). In order for adult students to be successful, colleges need to consider these additional barriers that they face and attempt to develop programming that addresses these needs.

Additionally, one of the main characteristics of adult students is that they are juggling other life roles while attending school, including those of worker, partner, parent, caregiver, and community member (Ross-Gordon, 2011). These multiple roles and commitments make it more likely that adult students will look for degree and certificate programs that provide them ultimate flexibility, which includes both time and locations for both course completion and for access to student services. In particular, Ross-Gordon (2011) argued that courses, certificates, and degrees specifically designed to be completed in a shorter time frame are learning formats that tend to be more responsive to adult learners' lives. These intensive learning experiences are sometimes criticized as formats that prioritize convenience over rigor and sacrifice depth; however, studies indicate that adult learning in accelerated courses is comparable to or better than that of younger students enrolled in conventional courses. Worth and Stephens (2011) also note that the diversity of educational delivery options allow adult students to personalize their schedule and complete their courses faster. This allows traditional colleges and universities to create specialized training programs that were once only available through career colleges to provide short-term, affordable training to adult students seeking a career change.

Adults students are also more likely to be reentering higher education after having had prior experience with the educational system (Kasworm et al., 2002). An important strategy for serving adult learners is to recognize learning outcomes that an adult already has achieved, regardless of where that learning took place (Klein-Collins, 2011). Therefore, policies that allow students to transfer credits toward general education or major requirements can minimize the problem of "wasted credits" and complete their program more quickly. Additionally, institutions should recognize previous learning that has occurred outside of educational systems, which usually takes the form of prior learning assessments. Clear curricular maps and career pathways help adult students navigate their education to achieve their goals (Klein-Collins, 2011).

Adult students need additional access to campus resources compared to traditional students in order to be successful in higher education (Von Lehman, 2011). Common features of a more traditional campus and course offerings, like important offices that only have open hours from 9 am to 5 pm, classes that meet multiple times per week in the morning, and necessary resources like libraries that close early, present overwhelming obstacles to students who may have children and a full-time job. The University of Maryland Global Campus (UMGC), formerly known as the University of Maryland University College, has experimented with many different types of schedules and delivery methods for courses to appeal to adult students. Face-to-face courses are typically offered in the evening or on weekends, outside of the normal workday, or even on accelerated schedules so that students can complete them quicker. Online education, in particular asynchronous courses, is incredibly popular, and the institution has found that learning outcomes in online classrooms compare favorably to those in traditional, face-to-face settings. Von Lehman (2011) also noted that for adult students, it is imperative that an institution offers quality curriculum that delivers the learning outcomes that are relevant to workforce demands.

The connection of curriculum to what would be experienced in the workplace is very important for adult students (Klein-Collins, 2011). Adult learners benefit when institutions of higher education form strategic alliances with local organizations and employers. This ensures that workers learn about educational opportunities and that students learn about work opportunities. Colleges and universities can leverage these relationships to ensure that their curricula and practices remain relevant and current.

As colleges and universities consider how best to serve adults and their various reasons for returning to learning, these partnerships become even more important (Klein-Collins, 2011).

Moreover, adult students return to college with diverse educational and life experiences (Worth & Stephens, 2011). Most of these students have clear educational goals, but they are oftentimes unsure about expectations of how the learning experience has changed since their last contact with the system as a student. A critical factor for student success, therefore, is minimizing the effect that the passage of time can play. While online courses are popular for adult students due to their flexibility, these new teaching methods and technology advancements can also create a barrier for some adult learners who are not computer savvy. These students may need to advance their computer skills either on their own or with the help of campus services to get more comfortable with the technology used in online and hybrid courses (Klein-Collins, 2011; Worth & Stephens, 2011).

Adult students also tend to lack confidence, which presents another obstacle for their success, and Von Lehman (2011) noted that it is vital that an infrastructure of support and resources be readily available for these students. When compared to younger students, adult students are less likely to ask for help when they need it because they do not want to be seen as unintelligent or unprepared, and it sometimes falls to the institution to provide necessary support before a student requests it. Ross-Gordon (2011) also agreed that adult students lack self-confidence, which is often exhibited by their frequent desire for structured learning experiences that provide a clear roadmap of teacher expectations. Ross-Gordon (2011) suggested that while adult learners desire flexibility in their course offerings, they also often look for structure.

Sense of Belonging and Non-Credit Education

Considering this profile of adult students in higher education, many of these students turn to non-credit education as a means for reaching their educational goals. To ensure the retention, persistence, and success of adult students, it is imperative that institutions of higher education look to improve sense of belonging for adult students on campus, including non-credit students. Non-credit education is one of the ways that students, and in particular adult students, can access vocational education that will help them achieve one of their main goals for accessing education in the first place: to find a job (Milam, 2005). These programs are short-term, typically flexible in course delivery, and are one of the primary methods for nontraditional students to access postsecondary education (Milam, 2005). Program areas like business, technology, allied health, real estate, manufacturing, and construction are most popular and can range from entry level to more advanced offerings (Van Noy & Jacobs, 2009). Non-credit education has transformed over the years into a mechanism for preparing low-income individuals for economically-viable jobs, as programs are typically connected to local labor market and employer demands to train people for localized jobs (Arena, 2013; Van Noy & Jacobs, 2009). In order to increase sense of belonging among adult, college students across the country, there needs to be a focus on non-credit students specifically, as many adult students are non-credit students. In an effort to increase sense of belonging on campus and improve degree completion rates, many colleges and universities across the United States have been working to create pathways for students to transition from non-credit programming into degree programs at their institutions.

Non-credit courses appeal to non-traditional students, in particular adult learners, low-income students, and language-minority learners (Xu & Ran, 2015). The average age of a non-credit student is 34 years old, which is more than 12 years older than students enrolled in traditional, credit-bearing, degree programs (Xu & Ran, 2015). Non-credit students are less likely to have earned a high school diploma prior to enrollment and are also less likely to be enrolled in courses full time. Additionally, non-credit students are more likely to be from lower socioeconomic backgrounds and students of color (Xu & Ran, 2015). Therefore, non-credit programs' lower cost, wide selection of topics, ability to quickly shift toward workforce trends, and flexibility in course delivery appeal to these aforementioned populations (Xu & Ran, 2015). "In addition, … noncredit courses may serve as the primary method by which adult learners access postsecondary education, increase their job marketability, and upgrade their working skills to adapt to the changing business landscape" (Xu & Ran, 2015, p. 1).

Therefore, non-credit education offers convenience, flexibility, lower costs, and the opportunity for employability for students, and for many, this coursework may be their only accessible form of post-secondary education (Arena, 2013; Kortesoja, 2009). These opportunities are especially attractive to adult students because they are typically hyper-focused on achieving a career-related goal quickly, so non-credit programs allow them to gain any necessary skills in a shorter period of time (Arena, 2013; Kortesoja, 2009). Degree programs often take longer to complete, are more expensive overall, and may include coursework (like general education requirements) that is not directly connected to a job opportunity (Arena, 2013; Kortesoja, 2009).

Non-Credit to Credit Pathways

Notwithstanding these benefits and opportunities allowed to adult students who pursue non-credit education at community colleges, many institutions are working to create pathways from these programs into degree and credit-bearing programs. These institutions believe that if they can increase sense of belonging among adult, non-credit students by connecting them to the campus and degree programs, then these students will persist and ultimately be more competitive in the long term. People with a degree are more likely to be employed and have higher incomes than those who do not (Baum, 2014; Carnevale & Hanson, 2015; Crosby & Moncarz, 2006; Grubb, 2002; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019).

These pathways attempt to overcome the apparent barriers between non-credit and credit programming to increase the number of people with postsecondary credentials. This work has been moving toward creating pathways for non-credit students to move seamlessly into longer-term educational opportunities, like degree programs, while also connecting them with their community, employment, and other resources (Van Noy & Jacobs, 2009). This has been successful in a variety of ways, with some states across the country creating policies and systems for granting credit at a statewide level, while in other cases there have been individual institutions creating articulation agreements for particular programs (Van Noy & Jacobs, 2009). No matter how it occurs, non-credit to credit pathways are seen as a way to upskill the workforce, make it easier for students to complete degrees, and ultimately better connect students to the campus.

Successful non-credit to credit pathways have been created across the country in states like New York, North Carolina, Tennessee, Colorado, and Florida (Audant, 2016; Fouts & Mallory, 2010; Giani & Fox, 2017; Perea, 2020; Roe et al., 2013). There are three ways that colleges have been able to successfully create non-credit to credit pathways: faculty collaboration, employer and industry buy-in, and state-level coordination. Not every non-credit to credit pathway follows the same formula, but these are the primary ways that non-credit to credit pathways tend to be created according to the literature.

The most common method for creating successful non-credit to credit pathways is faculty collaboration. An example of this comes from Kingsborough Community College in Brooklyn, New York, where there is a non-credit to credit pathway for the workforce development and non-credit culinary arts students.

These students have the ability to start in a non-credit certificate program and move into a degree program seamlessly. The level of collaboration between the Workforce Development and Academic Affairs departments at this institution was critical for the creation of this pathway. The Executive Director of the Center for Economic and Workforce Development at this institution also served as Assistant Professor in the Department of Tourism and Hospitality, so it was easy to build a seamless connection between the curricula of both programs (Audant, 2016). Faculty collaboration was nonetheless an integral aspect of the successful creation and operationalization of this non-credit to credit pathway and is a method that many other colleges tend to use as well.

The next way that colleges tend to create non-credit to credit pathways is through employer and industry buy-in, which is when there is an identified need in the local workforce that the pathway is intended to meet. Perea (2020) outlined three case studies that show how shorter credentials can specifically support the creation of career pathways to improve student outcomes by providing students with clear roadmaps to academic and career goals. The first case study focused on Tennessee, and there was an identified skills gap in the state's quantity and quality of skilled workers, so policymakers looked to community colleges to create programs for training the state's pipeline of workers. The second case study focused on the Colorado Community College System, which implemented a program to provide students with in-demand industry skills along a defined advanced manufacturing pathway to meet the need of a shortage of skilled workers. The final case study focused on Rogue Community College located in Oregon. The healthcare field in this case was lacking skilled workers, so Rogue Community College created a certificate that "could provide an entry point for people interested in employment in the healthcare field while increasing the supply of Oregonians with certificates, credentials, and degrees in in-demand healthcare occupations" (Perea, 2020, p. 31). All the cases presented by Perea (2020) are prime examples of how stacking credentials and creating short-term training programs at community colleges can create pathways to careers and degree programs and meet identified industry needs. All these cases intertwined credentials and degree programs to create flexible on and off ramps for students to gain employment and continue their education. Every program in each case study, though, was developed by educators and employers working closely together to solve a workforce challenge.

The final major method for the successful creation of non-credit to credit pathways is state-level coordination, which is when statewide systems collectively create pathways. The state of Florida has a non-credit to credit pathway for the engineering technology and advanced manufacturing industry. First created in 2008, the program was designed to meet the need for a highly skilled and well-trained workforce in manufacturing and related industries (Roe et al., 2013). This is a comprehensive program that includes a set of technical core classes covering many different areas, and it aligns with the national Manufacturing Skill Standards Council Certified Production Technician credential. The articulation agreement for this training program provides fifteen credit hours towards an Engineering Technology associate's degree to anyone earning the certification. "Therefore, students who earn the certification can go to eleven different community and state colleges in Florida and have the equivalent of one full-time semester already completed" (Roe et al., 2013, p. 27). This is a great example of how this type of change can occur at the state level.

Summary

Institutions of higher education, especially community colleges, that are serious about cultivating a sense of belonging among adult students must consider the needs and motivations of this student population, and they must pay close attention to their non-credit, adult students. Not much is typically known about non-credit students because they come to campus for short periods of time to learn specific skills; therefore, sense of belonging for this population is typically low. Creating non-credit to credit pathways is a mechanism that many institutions of higher education have begun to implement to create opportunities for adult, non-credit students to connect to degree programs and ultimately the institution.

CONCLUSION

No matter the student population or the type of institution, fostering a sense of belonging is a key factor in student success and retention. For some students, this is created by giving them agency and connection to peers and faculty, while for others, the simple-yet-complicated act of creating more programs and pathways of interest may be the number one factor. Still, what remains the same is that all stakeholders–students, faculty, administrators, and community members–must be involved in the process. As Durkheim (1973) believed, no individual is able to create a sense of belonging on their own. It is not as simple as joining a club on campus or making a single connection with a classmate. Instead the whole campus community must have the students' interests and unique circumstances as priorities, constantly innovating new ideas and improving current interventions to ensure students of all ages, backgrounds, and academic status not only persist on our campuses but thrive both academically and socially for a more well-rounded experience that will lead to successfully reaching their goals.

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Chapter 5
Diversity Professionals' Perspectives on Building Belonging in STEM Education:
50 Years of Lessons Learned

Saundra Johnson Austin
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6432-0896
University of South Florida, USA

Darryl Dickerson
Florida International University, USA

Amy Freeman
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7484-0729
The Pennsylvania State University, USA

Enrique (Rick) Ainsworth
University of California, USA

Virginia Booth Womack
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2102-2458
Purdue University, USA

ABSTRACT

This chapter presents a comprehensive 50-year history of diversity in STEM interventions and lessons learned from diversity professionals in institutional university settings. Recommendations include developing professional identity, communities of practice, and formal credentialing of this specific skill set. Colleges of engineering have been leaders in the creation of effective STEM interventions, commonly called multicultural engineering programs (MEPs), with a focus on the graduation of African American, Hispanic, American Indians, and Alaska Native students. America's history sparked a movement of the adoption and the implementation of MEP offices at predominantly White institutions (PWIs). Institutionalizing such programs and activities became a challenge for MEP administrators over the years, which led to the forming of the National Association of Multicultural Engineering Program Advocates, Inc. (NAMEPA). This leading professional organization serves as a repository of best practices learned through the transferable MEP model to broaden the participation in all STEM fields.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch005

INTRODUCTION AND HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Five decades ago, three compelling national social forces overlapped and intertwined to broaden the pathway for minoritized racial and ethnic populations to access higher education generally and to engineering education in particular: (1) Martin Luther King, Jr. (MLK) led the southern Civil Rights effort to overcome oppressive Jim Crow Laws followed up by the Great March on Washington, D.C.; (2) the President John F. Kennedy White House initiative directing the United States Congress to develop and pass a comprehensive Civil Rights Bill; and (3) the magnitude of the 1965 Los Angeles Watts Rebellion against police brutality and injustice that set the template for similar urban rebellions caused by police injustice in several northern states. These three independent events were the *sine qua non* for not 'belonging.'

These three social-political movements in confluent action provided the urgent political momentum for President John Kennedy, in June 1963, to ask the U.S. Congress for a comprehensive civil rights bill. The White House was induced by violent Jim Crow resistance to court ordered desegregation; murder of civil rights leader Medgar Evers, and the pending Great March on Washington led by MLK.

The assassination of Kennedy in November bequeathed President Lyndon Johnson and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NACCP) leaders Roy Wilkins and Clarence Mitchell the initiative to successfully pressure the U.S. Congress to pass the 1964 Civil Rights Act, Law 88-352. The social pressure of the rebellions (Bouligny, 2021; Chesney, 2022), the March on Washington for economic and civil rights proved transformative for the African Americans, Latin American and indigenous Indian Americans populations; and majority women benefited greatly, as well.

The outpouring demands for access and inclusion of communities of color across the country resulted in institutions of higher education seeking out ways to include more diverse audiences. This was done in an effort to remain a technological superpower and bridge the poverty and educational gaps for people of color. The result was a creation of a new profession where Multicultural Engineering Program (MEP) Administrators were hired to develop and implement outreach, recruitment, retention, and graduation strategies to address the unique experiences of exclusion of undergraduate and graduate engineering students of color at historically white universities. Although the term "Multicultural Engineering Program Administrator" is a common position title for those in this profession, there is still no common professional identifying term that defines the work or skill set of those who perform it. For this discussion, the authors of this chapter will refer to the profession as "STEM Intervention Design and Management."

This new profession prompted the creation of an organization that would provide professional identity and a community of practice as the field of STEM Intervention Design and Management continued to develop. This organization, the National Association of Multicultural Engineering Program Advocates (NAMEPA), Inc. has continued for four decades as a forum for sharing research and evidence-based practices that lead to high college graduation rates for minoritized students in engineering and other STEM disciplines. While NAMEPA's original focus was engineering, it has provided transferable models for retention and graduation in many STEM fields faced with racially related barriers to full inclusion in STEM professions. NAMEPA was a first step to creating professional identity and a community of practice. The five authors of this chapter have all worked for decades managing STEM interventions with a focus on diversity and inclusion in university settings. All have been deeply engaged in NAMEPA with four having been presidents of the organization. Their experiences, noted in this chapter, serve to fill some of the gaps in the literature that would define the work of those who do manage and design STEM interventions, the importance of professional identity, and engagement with a community of practice. The authors of this chapter propose that the next step in development of the profession is the formal academic credentialing in the field of STEM Intervention Design and Management. This idea is examined in depth including defining the skill set, proposed areas of study for the credential and the advantages of having an academic degree in this area at the master's or doctoral level.

PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

In order to understand and address barriers to broadening participation of people of color in engineering, experience in diversity, equity, inclusion (DEI) called upon professionals who could not only achieve sustainable outcomes, but also inform professional identity among key stakeholders. Professional identity is key to building working relationships, as well as creating a sense of belonging in the workplace (Melling, 2019). People with various cultural experiences bring to the workplace ideas and practices that support broadening the participation in engineering (Ross, Huff, & Godwin, 2020). Professional identity is important to how an individual makes sense of and meaning of being a DEI professional ("who am I as a DEI professional and who would I like to become?") and the approach they take to the work ("what does this identity mean in terms of the way I practice"). DEI work has many different subsets of specialization (e.g., race, ethnicity, gender, etc.). There are many examples of forums where the blending of DEI efforts is encouraged such as the National Association of Equity, Diversity, and Inclusion (NAEDI) and the Collaborative Network for Engineering and Computing Diversity (CoNECD). There are certainly some overarching themes regardless of population such as negative stereotypes, subtle bias, unwelcoming climate, and historical lack of access (Foor et al., 2007; Godfrey & Parker, 2010). However, each population experiences exclusion differently. Therefore, strategies to counter these methods and achieve inclusion and belonging must be tailored for each unique group.

MEP administrators are professionals building inclusion and belonging strategies acting as agents of change at their respective institutions. They are also considered DEI professionals. The MEP Offices are also supported by a broad range of stakeholders within the institution and beyond including corporations, foundations, and alumni. The success of the MEP Office centers on its ability to directly impact a web of DEI issues and belonging issues that affect student access and success in engineering. Such issues are different for students, parents, corporate partners, faculty, and administrators, but all are governed by ruling relations that shape student outcomes (Pawley, 2019). To address such issues, MEP administrators seek the support of their peers for promising practices. In addition, they also become members of the National Association of Multicultural Engineering Program Advocates (NAMEPA), Inc. with the representation of individual and institutional memberships in most of the 50 states or five regions in the United States.

The NAMEPA organization identifies practices that promote belonging for the DEI professionals and the students, as well as policies that act as barriers to student access and success. NAMEPA has made concerted efforts to collaborate with organizations focused on other areas of STEM DEI work over its history. The most effective of these collaborations creates space such that each of the DEI disciplines has its own focus (minoritized racial and ethnic groups, women, LGBTQ, and first generation), allowing audiences to learn about each field, and use transferable methods as needed. In planning these conferences, and negotiating a collaborative meeting, organizational structural differences are revealed as each organization seeks to ensure that their most important aspects are experienced in a shared space. For example, NAMEPA focuses on creating a professional community of practice where those who experience issues of isolation will find areas of belonging. Organizations, such as the American Educational Research Association (AERA) often focus on sharing research exclusively, at the expense of bonding and networking activities. This is a reflection of survival strategies that have worked for each group. This supports the premise that STEM DEI strategies regarding race, is a specialized area of expertise. Based on the work of the MEP administrators, NAMEPA is an organization that cultivates and implements STEM DEI strategies that impacts the recruitment and retention of a diverse body of students.

COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

The history of social exclusion and marginalization within the U.S. society at large was also reflected in educational institutions and professional fields such as engineering. Systemic exclusion and marginalization of people from minoritized racial and ethnic populations has long been a feature of academic institutions at all levels and continues as a feature today, leading the phenomenon of "underrepresentation" in engineering at all postsecondary levels and into the profession (Slaton and Pawley, 2018). According to the State of U.S. Science and Engineering 2020 report, while individuals from historically excluded racial and ethnic groups (defined by the National Science Foundation as Alaska Natives, Black/African American, Hispanic/Latinx, Native American, Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islanders) comprise almost 30% of the population, they represent only 12.5% of the engineering workforce (National Science Board, 2020). Engineering maintains its status as a predominantly White discipline despite repeated national calls for increased diversity and efforts at many levels to broaden participation (American Society for Engineering Education, 2014, 2021; Wulf, 2001). This continued exclusion is a multifaceted issue that is, in part, related to the disconnect between academic institutional culture and the cultural identities of people from historically excluded groups.

Within engineering at the postsecondary level, there has been a recognition that academic institutions must engage in intentional, focused work to address these issues. Since the 1970s, DEI professionals in NAMEPA have been charged with efforts to ensure equitable access, to change the exclusionary culture, and create spaces for belonging in engineering education. There is an emerging body of literature on this co-curricular support including research efforts to explore the systemic barriers entrenched in engineering education, the challenges historically excluded students face, the navigational strategies of students through these barriers, and the characteristics and successes of diversity programs in engineering and other STEM programs (Lee and Matusovich, 2016). While research in these areas has greatly expanded over the last 20 years, there is a dearth of literature focusing on the DEI professionals that enable these diversity efforts. MEP administrators play a critical role in understanding how exclusion manifests and create strategies to guide students through unwelcoming environments. While facilitating student success by creating counterspaces, MEP administrators also actively engage in work to produce systemic changes in institutions. The portfolio of MEP administrators is vast and critical to broadening participation efforts. And these professionals face many challenges in fulfilling these roles. However, there is currently no formal educational pathway or certification that qualifies an individual for taking on these professional roles. As such, MEP professionals are heavily reliant on support through the community of practice that has formed through NAMEPA.

In this section, we explore NAMEPA as a community of practice as initially defined by situated learning theory, which builds on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (Brown et al., 1989; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Vygotsky, 1980), and through Wenger's later structural formalization of community of practice (Wenger, 1998; Wegner, 2010). According to situated learning theory, individuals learn through dynamic interaction between the learner and the environment. In the absence of professional certification, NAMEPA offers a community of practice for MEP professionals that provide opportunities for learning, while within the environment of their individual institutions and the national educational landscape. NAMEPA provides the ability to engage with experts and to become enculturated into a community with a knowledge base for creating spaces of belonging for students and for other professionals. Wenger's 1998 work provides a structural framework that outlines three key features of a community of practice: domain, community, and practice. We will explore the definitions of these features.

The Engineering Diversity Professional Domain

In his 1998 work, Wenger described "mutual engagement" as the foundation of a community of practice. This mutual engagement, which was later renamed as "domain," is the shared concern or interest of a group which acts as the motivation to gather. This domain is also a knowledge domain, recognized internally as the shared expertise within the community. The historical knowledge domain of engineering diversity professionals has persisted since the first appearance of these professional positions: the systemic exclusion of individuals from minoritized racial and ethnic populations in engineering education, engineering workforce, and workforce leadership. Specifically, three orienting questions have shaped the knowledge domain of engineering diversity professionals and act as organizing principles for NAMEPA:

1. What are the barriers to and affordances for access to and success within post-secondary engineering education for students from historically excluded racial and ethnic backgrounds?
2. Within the context of engineering education as it is currently constructed, what support structures must be erected to create a sense of belonging that facilitate entry into and persistence through engineering for students from historically excluded racial and ethnic backgrounds?
3. What strategies can be implemented to shift engineering culture as it currently exists and equitably engage diverse learners leading to a more diverse engineering field?

The work associated with engaging with these questions, uncovering the challenges revealed through that engagement, and developing tactics to deal with those challenges is a specific knowledge domain that requires expertise beyond baseline awareness (Blair et al., 2017). This knowledge domain defines a minimal area of competence that is essential for the execution of effective diversity work in engineering education. This work has been positioned adjacent to the primary education mission of academia as co-curricular support. While the knowledge domain of diversity professionals is specific, the work draws together a variety of individuals with different titles and positions, but with shared expertise.

The Engineering Diversity Professional Community

The second key feature of a community of practice is the "community" construct, which centers the relationships formed between the individuals engaged in work around a particular knowledge domain. The knowledge domain for engineering diversity professionals lacks a formalized top-down structure for development of the baseline minimal competence. However, the relationships created within the community may act as a mechanism through which learning occurs. In sociocultural theories, learning is understood to occur as a result of social interactions and through authentic participation (Brown et al., 1989). For engineering diversity professionals, the community of NAMEPA provides a platform through which individuals build trust and connection with one another and can share experiences associated with the knowledge domain and learn from each other. Understanding the mechanisms through which one can create spaces of belonging in historically exclusionary fields requires the creation of a space of belonging for the professionals engaged in that work. Contextualized, situated learning occurs through the community provided by NAMEPA through many avenues of social engagement through meetings, conferences, and online engagement mechanisms.

The Engineering Diversity Professional Practice

The individual and collective identity of engineering diversity work comprises the practice: "a shared repertoire of resources: experiences, stories, tools, ways of addressing recurring problems" (Wenger, 2012a, p. 2). While the orienting questions presented above represent the interest areas and knowledge base of engineering diversity professionals, the work of engaging people, developing programs, creating partnerships, and enacting policies that address the challenges associated with answering those orienting questions is the *practice* of diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging. Each institution has its own context and some uniqueness associated with that context. As such, while "in the trenches" at their institutions, each individual professional must develop their own approach to the practice. However, by sharing knowledge in the community, commonalities emerge that act as foundational knowledge for newcomers to the community and external entities. The variability in individual experiences provides a richness of experiences that is amplified through the community of NAMEPA. Exemplars of success in diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging have a platform through which they can share their model practices and community members have a space through which they can explore and test different models with assistance and mentorship from more experienced professionals. This history of sharing practice and creating shared practices is key to the NAMEPA Community of Practice and creating a space of belonging for engineering diversity professionals.

CREDENTIALING A HIGHER EDUCATION PROFESSION

To be a credible accountant, a lawyer, or a faculty member is to have a credential identifying one's expertise. For inclusive STEM intervention management, however, there is no formal credential to define this professional skill set. As a result, it is often assumed that "anyone" can do it, with the directing leadership positions often occupied by individuals with little training or experience in STEM Diversity Equity and Inclusion (DEI). The creation of academic credentialing in STEM Intervention Design and Management at the master's or doctoral level would increase the credibility of those in this field, just as a medical degree brings credibility to a physician. Identifying the requirements for the degree would promote a formal review of the skill sets needed to prepare one for this work by demonstrating the level of expertise of the professional (Alexander-Lee, 2014; Durant, 2013; Eckhaus & Davidovitch, 2021).

Data from the American Society for Engineering Education (ASEE) shows that institutions with MEP organizations have higher enrollment, retention and graduation rates of engineers than those that do not. The professional skill set of practitioners of Diversity Initiatives in STEM is a significant factor in the continuing retention and graduation of STEM students. This is evident in the many initiatives at successful universities across the country such as MEPs, strong diverse student engagement organizations, and other initiatives aimed at increasing graduation rates in STEM at both graduate and undergraduate levels (Buckley et al., 2019; Soria, 2022; Gámez, Packard, & Chavous, 2021; Khasawneh et al., 2014; Longwell-Grice & Longwell-Grice, 2021; Morton, 2021; Santo Domingo et al., 2019; Hinojosa, Swisher, & Garneau, 2021; Womack et al., 2016). The skill set includes initiating and managing effective interventions that are proven to produce STEM graduates.

NAMEPA provides an effective forum where practitioners can receive training and networking with others who have extensive experience. This is especially effective for new practitioners who might have been asked to create a multicultural office from nothing. Where does one start? How does one prepare and build? While NAMEPA continues to cultivate best practices, the skill set required to generate this success should also be academically formalized and standardized to ensure consistency in implementation, continuity of research, and a transferrable framework to build upon for further growth.

STEM Intervention Design and Management

STEM Intervention Design and Management is a profession that requires a very specific knowledge base to be effective, especially as it regards diversity and inclusion. The knowledge base would include program design and implementation, student counseling, fund raising, data collection and research to determine best practices (Alba, 2022; Buckley et al., 2019; Santo Domingo et al., 2019). Though many practitioners direct STEM intervention programs across the country, the profession is not recognized with a formal credential or specialized degree. The five authors of this chapter, all long-time STEM DEI practitioners and researchers, found there was limited literature about the profession, or the practitioners engaged in it. Those currently in the field have learned the process through a national network of others, more akin to on-the-job-training without prior academic preparation in this field, as there are few credentials available with a specialization in STEM intervention. This field has grown over the past 50 years and now has a strong community of practice worthy of consideration for credentialing. A graduate degree with an emphasis on STEM Intervention Design and Management would ensure a transferrable body of knowledge and a consistency in the qualifications of those who do this work in the future. The completion of a credential with a strong curriculum would also equip those starting new intervention programs with a well-defined set of research-based processes, best practices, and templates for success (Alexander-Lee, 2014; Durant, 2013; Eckhaus & Davidovitch, 2021). Courses and curriculum for a proposed graduate program could include several topics identified through surveys of existing practitioners across the country. Some of these topics are mentioned later based on the collective professional experience of the five authors of this chapter, all of whom have a decade or more of experience in STEM intervention design and management in multiple institutional settings.

There is extensive literature regarding research-driven success strategies and best practices that generate excellent retention and graduation rates for STEM college students (Buckley et al., 2019; Soria, 2022; Gámez, Packard, & Chavous, 2021; Hinojosa, Swisher, & Garneau, 2021; Khasawneh et al., 2014; Longwell-Grice & Longwell-Grice, 2021; Morton, 2021; Santo Domingo et al., 2019; Womack et al., 2016). The National Science Foundation has funded millions of dollars in research projects directed towards understanding STEM interventions with a focus on increasing numbers in STEM professions (National Science Foundation, n.d.). The authors of this chapter found a gap in the literature that speaks to the actual design and management of STEM intervention programs as a specific profession with an associated skill set and challenges. At this time, the most credible information regarding what it takes to manage STEM interventions effectively has come from those currently doing the work. This gap was acknowledged by Gomez who evaluated the roles of 45 STEM program directors at 10 institutions across the United States with high completion rates of STEM bachelor's degrees (Gomez, Krystle, & Hurtado, 2021). Similar information was collected by Alba through interviews of 11 program directors serving as New York State Collegiate Science and Technology Entry Program (CSTEP) projects at multiple institutions (Alba, 2022). Both of these studies reveal similar findings when identifying the challenges and complicated roles that STEM intervention program directors play as they produce diverse classes of STEM graduates. Many of these issues are echoed by the five authors of this chapter who also offer introductory and experiential commentary on the role, while acknowledging that additional information from a broader group of STEM Intervention practitioners continues to be warranted.

While STEM interventions such as the Multicultural Engineering Program model began as an experiment in retention with tutoring and improvised spaces where African American students could find identity and feel less isolated, today, some university STEM intervention initiatives operate with expenditures in the millions when accounting for scholarships, salaries, and educational activities required to produce African American, Hispanic and Indigenous STEM scholars (Santo Domingo, et al., 2019). The success of individual STEM DEI programs is well documented showing significantly increased retention and student graduation rates for participants. Limitations in program growth are typically related to funding and staffing needs (Womack, et al., 2016). This makes it challenging to expand even the best of programs.

The hiring process for qualified professionals to manage these initiatives raises several questions: What skill set is required to do this work? What credential would be appropriate when hiring? What is an appropriate title and rank for the position? The authors of this chapter have managed full STEM DEI programs under several titles including Coordinator, Director, Faculty, and Assistant and Associate Dean. The educational credentials of these authors also cover a broad range of multiple graduate degrees (such as Higher Education, Engineering, Science, Adult Education, Counselor Education, and Psychology). To gather a list of skills necessary to navigate a STEM intervention program the authors of this chapter reflected on decades of their professional lived experiences and broad knowledge of best research-based practices. Typical tasks and skills associated with running an excellent program are time and labor intensive. This includes the design and implementation of summer bridge programs, student academic counseling and advising, navigating issues of intersectionality of gender, race, and first-generation experiences for populations that are not included in STEM professional fields they seek to enter. Practitioners need a strong knowledge of the financial aid process, nuances of on campus housing and a broad knowledge of the deeply political world of development, donors, and sustainable support.

All of these skills are needed to ultimately create a sense of belonging for students (future STEM professionals). The goal is to create an environment in which they will persist and graduate in a STEM major. There are several recruitment and retention components of a Minority Engineering Program (MEP) Office that have proven to result in minoritized students successfully earning bachelor's degrees in engineering from predominantly White institutions (PWIs) (NACME, 1985). An early MEP model had 12 components of programs and activities that provide comprehensive academic support for student success. The components are: (1) recruitment; (2) admissions; (3) matriculation; (4) academic support; (5) first-year orientation; (6) student study center; (7) academic advising and registration; (8) student organizations; (9) tutoring; (10) personal counseling; (11) summer jobs; and (12) financial aid and scholarships (NACME & NAMEPA, 1985). The institutional needs and available funds drive which program components an MEP Office delivers.

One of the basic tenets of a thriving MEP at a predominantly White institution (PWI) is creating spaces for minoritized students studying engineering to gather and to meet other students who look like them, as well receive guidance from the MEP Administrators. The location of the office is critical since it determines the volume of students that MEP administrators are able to engage. "Build it and they will come" is not always the case for minoritized engineering students to participate in MEP activities (NACME, 1985). Like any other college program serving food is often a way to draw in students. Some offices are located inside the engineering dean's office, while others are located inside student affairs. In either case the programs offered, the effectiveness of the MEP administrator, and the institutional support are factors that impact the success of minoritized engineering students at PWIs.

Researchers believe the responsibility for student development remains the responsibility of faculty and staff (Hurtado, Alvarez & Guillermo-Wann, 2015). Case and Hunter (2012) describe such settings as counterspaces; physical settings where the marginalized can participate and introduce and develop their own identities. In STEM education counterspaces are necessary to mitigate historically privileged norms associated with a predominantly White male profession (Ong, Smith, & Ko, 2018). Institutions must value the cultural differences that students bring to college campuses with a focus on their personal growth and development (Howard-Hamilton, 2003). MEP Offices promote the well-being of marginalized students by offering a positive climate or a place they can call home.

Counterspaces facilitate belonging that leads to a student's academic success. The educational definition of belonging is described as feeling valued, committed to a group, and being in relationship with the university community (Dortch & Patel, 2017). For marginalized students studying STEM, academic achievement, retention, and persistence in college are most often impacted (Casad, Oyler, Sullivan, et al, 2018; Fisher, Mendoza-Denton, Patt, et al, 2019; Litzler & Samuelson, 2013; Rainey, Dancy, Mickelson, Stearns, & Moller, 2018). A sense of belonging also has social implications, particularly related to one's social identity.

The unschooled would ask why successful programs are not larger and assisting more students, without understanding that growth in student participation requires a growth in resources to maintain the same quality of service and effectiveness. All authors of this chapter acknowledge that it is sometimes easier to give to a student on a personal level, than to traverse the politics of the institution. For example, one might provide an expensive book at an institution where books are expected to come from the student's "financial contribution" as specified by student aid, when in actuality there is none. It includes learning the fine art of grant writing, which only provides support for new ideas, not support to sustain or expand the current system, however successful it may be. Raising support is a common unspoken responsibility of the position, especially for student activities needed to be effective in retention, as this funding is often not always included as a sufficient line item in the larger budget of the College or University. Data assessment is expected, but not necessarily a statistician with time to make this a priority. All of these factors are addressed through the research of Gomez et. al. (2021), and Alba (2022). The authors of this chapter believe, based on their collective experiences, that these factors further marginalize those who do the work. Practitioners work many hours and take on an array of tasks to ensure that students persist. Alba (2022) referred to these as "personal and professional risks." Mental and physical health issues for professionals are often the result. Taking on the whole task of being the institution's diversity arm is a heavy load to carry if the program office is not placed in a position to build strong partnerships, both internally and externally outside the institution. This is where the NAMEPA organization comes in with members who are dedicated to providing a strong support system for administrators of STEM DEI interventions.

The National Association of Multicultural Engineering Program Advocates (NAMEPA), Inc. is one of few places that provides practitioner information for engineering and other STEM intervention design and implementation as well as research on best practices. NAMEPA is an organization that has focused on assisting practitioners and administrators of diversity initiatives in STEM for four decades. The goal is to support the needs of administrators as they work to increase graduation rates of racially underrepresented college students, especially in engineering. This is done through regional and national conferences and, as of 2018, through a partnership as one of three founding organizations of the Collaborative Network for Engineering and Computing Diversity (CoNECD). Conference content for both NAMEPA and CoNECD includes a focus on development and management of interventions for diverse populations, showcasing practitioners who carry out research-proven strategies, and other best practices that come with decades of implementation and positive results. Strategies are presented from a variety of cultural leadership paradigms, often reflecting the value of empowering the collective over individual, and strong community development. NAMEPA's teaching and learning strategy reflects some elements of Irvine's description of a combined pedagogical design for Counselor Education graduate students and professionals. According to Irvine, Labarta, & Emelianchik-Key (2021):

Relational-Cultural and Adlerian Multicultural Framework (RAMF) is intended to be a new pedagogical approach to enhance multicultural education across CE programs…RAMF seeks to address bias and inequity by promoting self-awareness, authenticity, personal responsibility, mutual empowerment, acceptance of differing worldviews, and a non-judgmental and curious attitude. Because the RAMF aims to cultivate a culture of mutual empowerment and social interest, diverse [learners/practitioners] may feel more supported and valued. (p.238)

NAMEPA, through organizational conferences and strong networks, reflects all of these attributes which have lent to its decades-long success. While NAMEPA has made a valiant effort and continues to bridge the knowledge gap in this profession, all authors of this chapter (four of whom are NAMEPA Past Presidents), acknowledge that formal credentialing is the logical next step for practitioners of the future.

Significance of Academic Credentialing

Academic credentials determine many factors in the academy. These include promotion, tenure, income, variations in appointment, presumed qualifications to carry out the responsibilities of a given position, one's rank in the academic hierarchy, title, recognition of research conducted, and ability to independently write large grants. It is a determining factor in whether one is qualified to hold a position and defines what level of expertise is brought to the table. Without this, it is easy to question the credibility of those doing the work (Alexander-Lee, 2014; Durant, 2013; Eckhaus & Davidovitch, 2021).

The professions of clinical psychology, student affairs, and social work have associated academic degrees recognizing them as fields of study based on understanding and engaging in processes that involve people and their behaviors. STEM Intervention Design and Management is similar and should also be regarded as a profession worthy of credentials. Instead, those performing the work have varied levels of degrees and titles because there is no nationally defined benchmark of qualifications, knowledge base, nor suggested rank to do this effectively. As a result, the authors of this document have all recognized instances where needed DEI efforts in STEM have been placed in the hands of well-intentioned colleagues who do not have a DEI programming background, nor student programming experience. At times, these individuals are placed in the position for less than full-time but are expected to produce stellar results that will change the retention and graduation rates of the students in just a year with no long-term understanding of how students and other stakeholders are impacted.

In STEM intervention design, others may decide to modify the program or weaken it in ways that do not benefit the students. Shehab (2012) demonstrates this dynamic in a situation where the Multicultural Engineering Program was blended with other diversity initiatives, losing some of its original identity according to the students. The decision was made by upper managers in the interest of benefitting from consolidation of seemingly generic diversity initiatives, without understanding the deeper effects. Underrepresented students reported feeling displaced because social and cultural needs were not being met and staffing relationships had changed with some of the workload of the director being shifted to a coordinator. This is not to say that all consolidation efforts are ineffective, however, there is an argument that the most successful transitions must be thoughtfully executed, understanding how all factions will be affected (Berry & Fenn, 2018; Frehill, 2011; Louie, Parker, & Myers, 2015).

Of the STEM intervention professionals authoring this writing, none initially planned to do this work as a professional career goal. While all hold graduate degrees, STEM intervention design was not the training received. All learned the required skill set of navigating STEM programs through connecting with others, whether through NAMEPA, a similar organization, or through working directly with another professional through sponsorship of another STEM program administrator (Randel, Galvin, Gibson, & Batts, 2020). This raises questions of consistency in terms of how information is transferred in varying environments with varied resources available. For new STEM program directors, it can be challenging to get multiple perspectives if there is no access to information beyond the local level, and no awareness of NAMEPA or other networks (Alba, 2022; Gomez, Krystle, & Hurtado, 2021).

Credentialing of the STEM Intervention Design and Management profession could be beneficial in the following ways. A credential could give the practice and field of research a strong public identity with clear competencies. This increases the likelihood that a specific skill set would be sought to fill the STEM intervention management positions. It would provide the search committee with an idea of what they are looking for to fill the position. Credentialing ensures a continuing uniform transfer of knowledge. For example, the six programs presented by Womack, Freeman, et. al., and the Meyerhoff models presented by Santo Domingo, et al., all had varied ways of measuring success. A graduate degree in STEM Intervention Design and Management would not necessarily replace years of experience, but it could bring a level of uniformity in how programs are managed, measured and assessed. Credentialing could also provide a way for existing professionals to enhance their skills and broaden their knowledge base. This would help them to improve existing programs and create stronger benchmarks to emulate.

After 50 years of STEM intervention development, the topic has become a strong research area worthy of academic distinction. The blending of research and practice required to increase STEM diversity will have many new areas of discovery in the future. This research can be applied to a broad array of audiences (students of all backgrounds, faculty, staff, administration, STEM professionals), multiple contexts (academic enhancement, professional development, social interaction, mentoring), and from many perspectives (university, industry, lived experiences) with new areas of discovery always emerging.

Establishing a Credentialing Model

One credentialing model that addresses methods of increasing graduation rates in STEM is the doctoral program in Engineering Education. Engineering Education focuses on the pedagogy of how engineering and related STEM courses are taught, and how to improve the performance of students in those courses that traditionally "weed out" students early on. The audience for this field is faculty seeking to improve teaching skills and understand the pedagogy of engineering and science. This is a very necessary endeavor which contributes significantly to the retention of engineering students. Examples include programs at Purdue University, Virginia Tech and Arizona State University (Arizona State University, n.d.; Purdue University, 2021; Virginia Tech, 2021-2022). Degree requirements from these institutions include courses such as:

- **Design in Engineering Education and Practice:** Focused on preparing future engineering faculty members and practitioners to teach engineering design, as well as how to function more effectively in industry design environments
- **Disciplinary Literacy: Theorizing and Writing in Engineering Education:** Communicating engineering education research via writing. Reading and synthesizing existing research
- **Assessment Techniques in Engineering Education:** Assessment issues and skills important for engineering faculty or staff members at a college or university are addressed
- **Leadership, Policy and Change in STEM Education:** Framed around a historical and current perspective of STEM policy across various educational domains
- **Succeeding as an Engineering Professor:** Provides students with an opportunity to learn and practice the skills that complement and enhance teaching and learning in a tenure-track faculty position
- **Innovation and Design of Engineering Academic Settings (IDEAS):** Explores innovation processes in a variety of contexts

While these degree programs are laudable, they do not cover STEM Intervention Design and Management which addresses out of classroom experiences, academic enhancement, professional development, financial issues and community building. This also factors into the success of STEM students. A proposed curricular model for a graduate degree in STEM Intervention Design and Management could include the following potential courses and components:

- **Understanding Best Practices for STEM Intervention Programming:** A review of research-based best practices and why they work
- **STEM Intervention Design and Management Basics:** Learn the basics of building a program from the ground floor, utilizing existing resources, creating new tools, garnering support funding
- **STEM Program Design Across Cultures:** Learn similarities and differences in STEM program design and planning for various populations (race, gender identity, ability, first generation and others)
- **Engaging Collaborative Networks:** Learn to build and use collaborative STEM program networks effectively
- **Creating Sustainable Support:** Learn the basics of fundraising and grant writing and the unique advantages of grants, private donors, endowments, corporate contributions, and others
- **STEM Intervention Program Internship:** Complete a summer or a 6-week project with a STEM program (Master's level). OR- Engage in year-long assistantship or with a STEM intervention program (PhD level)
- **Data Collection and Assessment Methods:** Learn to collect and assess data to demonstrate the effectiveness of a STEM intervention Program.

- **University Culture and Politics:** Understand the structure of the university system and learn strategies to support a STEM Intervention Program.
- **Understanding Cultural Leadership Paradigms:** Learn the leadership strategies of professionals from diverse backgrounds and how western leadership styles are integrated or challenged.
- **STEM Intervention Design and Management Research:** Research any of the above or related topics, and their impacts on intervention program success, professional growth, student graduation and access to the STEM professions.

This proposed list of topics is not exhaustive; however, it covers many of the skill sets that practitioners require to produce a program that yields graduation rates exceeding national averages for underrepresented populations in STEM fields.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Historically, the NAMEPA organization evolved as a result of racial conflict in the United States and was an attempt to close the engineering educational gaps identified following the Civil Rights era. The result is 50 years of data and best practices from practitioners at the nation's leading universities. These STEM DEI professionals have added a specialized skill set, which has produced thousands of new engineers and scientists from populations that have been historically marginalized.

STEM interventions are historically effective tools that have for decades produced significant outcomes in this area, yet there is a gap in the literature when it comes to understanding the actual profession of those who manage these initiatives. Consequently, their work continues to remain largely undefined and sometimes invisible to those outside the field. Credentialing of this profession would bring it the recognition deserved and add to the body of knowledge regarding diversity in STEM.

While much emphasis is on the success of students, the work of those who implement these interventions has yet to be fully defined and understood. Though these practitioners and researchers are focused on inclusion for students, they continue to experience barriers to full inclusion for themselves. Institutional action to fully support these professionals is needed to leverage the collective knowledge and expertise so that academic institutions become true spaces of belonging. Recommendations include creating stronger communities of practice where professionals have a sense of belonging, are recognized for their skill set and are respected as subject matter experts. Organizations such as NAMEPA would need to be prepared to integrate a more standardized understanding of the profession offered through those receiving credentials in the future, with the lived experiences of those who have operated as effective practitioners for decades in the past. Higher education institutions and the higher education field should provide greater recognition of the critical

As more practitioner scholars are trained for research in this field, the gap in the literature on the effective methods and applications of STEM Intervention Design and Management will finally start to close. Future changes that would help to standardize the practice would include formal credentialing of STEM DEI work.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors are past leaders and current members of the National Association of Multicultural Engineering Program Advocates (NAMEPA), Inc. Since 1979 the NAMEPA organization continues to provide professional development in diversity, equity, and inclusion methods for Directors of Multicultural Engineering Programs (MEP) to ensure underrepresented engineering students' (URES) communities have safe spaces to develop a firm sense of belonging and persistence in engineering education cultures, and thereby achieve academic success.

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Section 2

Educational Management of Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging Practices

Chapter 6
Achievement Barriers to Student Success:
From High School to College

Alyssia Parris-Coates
Brown University, USA

ABSTRACT

Research provides evidence that there are various barriers such as socioeconomic status, family, backgrounds, parent involvement, student-teacher relationships, and school experiences that hinder students from successfully navigating high school from 9th grade through 12th grade. Failing students lack the social ties, knowledge, and understanding of the norms that are evident in the prominent culture. Upward Bound specifically serves students who are low-income and backgrounds without a family history of a college education. They face the same barriers that other similar students face, yet they consistently overcome them to graduate from high school. What is not known is how these students overcome the barriers to high-school graduation.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on four main topics to identify what factors help or hinder students in completing high school. First, it reviews the literature on barriers to student success through the lens of dropout theories. Second, it addresses the role of social and cultural capital theories in student success. Then it focuses on student success looking at the resiliency theory and Padilla's student success model. Finally, it looks at a college preparatory program that produces successful students.

The barriers to student success are seen through the lens of dropout literature theories and social and cultural capital. Numerous studies on dropout theories have identified low socioeconomic status (SES), family background, ethnicity, the school, students' lack of motivation or aspirations, relationships with teachers and friends, truancy, and negative influences such as drugs, gangs, and teenage pregnancy (Rubio et al., 2017) as barriers to success in high school. Family background, ethnicity and gender, family

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch006

structure or processes, negative school experiences, and low socioeconomic status are strong predictors of school dropouts (Hébert, 2017).

BACKGROUND

Barriers to Student Success

Social and cultural capital theories demonstrate the factors missing in the lives of underrepresented students and how a lack of these factors makes the achievement more difficult for these students than for those from White middle-class backgrounds. Some of these students, though, manage to overcome barriers to success, graduating from high school and attending college. The literature identifies several factors influencing student success.

Family Background

Students who drop out of high school tend to come from various disadvantaged family backgrounds. These include single-parent families, families with mothers as head of household, and a structure that lacks stability. Numerous studies have shown that children who grow up in single-parent families are less likely to complete high school or to attend college than children who grow up with both parents (Stack & Meredith, 2017)

One of the reasons children from single-parent families are less likely to finish high school is their families' typically precarious economic situations. Mother-only families are more likely than other families to be poor (Jenkins et al., 2013), and their poverty is more extreme than that of other groups (Gofen, 2013). Income insecurity is commonplace among single-parent families living above the poverty line (Duncan & Hoffman, 1985). Previous studies of the intergenerational effects of family disruption indicate that income differences account for 50% of the differences in high-school graduation among children from intact and non-intact families (Jenkins et al., 2013).

Families' low socioeconomic status is the barrier that rises to the forefront. At every level of education, the family income backgrounds of young people influence how likely they are to complete the level they are at and move on to the next level of education (Tienken, 2012). Furthermore, nationally, students from families with incomes below the poverty level have a 66% rate of not completing a high-school degree (Stryzhak, 2020). Finally, there is also a strong relationship between income and high-school graduation. The research shows that in 2012, students living in low-income households had a 5.9% dropout rate compared to the 1.6% dropout rate enjoyed by students from high-income backgrounds. A 4.5% difference in the dropout rate between low and high-income students (Stark, Noel, and McFarland (2015).

Numerous studies have shown that low socioeconomic status (SES) has a considerable influence on educational attainment and dropout behavior. Research has shown that the measurement of students with low SES status, including parental education or family income, exhibits higher dropout rates than do students from higher SES (Navarro-Cruz et al., 2020) and (Jenkins et al., 2013). The rationale behind this finding is that parents with high SES are more likely than parents with low SES to be involved with their children's education. This involvement is indicated by parental participation with teachers and schools, improving academic performance (Rafael & Rafael, 2018). In addition, parents with higher SES are often able to provide for their children's education, and they also can afford for their children an array of services and goods, parental actions, and social connections that potentially are a great asset for their children (Rumberger, 2020). Many children from low SES backgrounds lack access to those same resources and experiences, thus putting them at risk for developmental problems (Odgers & Adler, 2017). Low SES has the strongest relationship to students' tendency to drop out. Rumberger's study, which stated that dropouts are more likely to be from families of low SES status (Rumberger, 2020). Children of low SES families are often children of young, single, unemployed mothers, who have experienced high levels of family stress, and are more likely to drop out of school than other students.

Parents with low SES are less likely to take the appropriate steps to prepare their children for educational success. Typically, these parents work long hours to compensate for low earning and do not take, or do not have, the time to read to their children or teach them the fundamentals (Rafael & Rafael, 2018). Parents of successful children tend to improve their children's academic achievement by spending more time pursuing activities that aid in their cognitive development or the formation of human capital (Jenkins et al., 2013).

Furthermore, research also supports the idea that the presence of study aids and other literary materials in the home decreases the likelihood of a student dropping out of school (Odgers & Adler, 2017). Low SES families are less likely to purchase reading and learning materials for their children, less likely to take their children to educational and cultural events, and less likely to regulate the amount of TV their children watch (Gu, 2021). In addition, low SES single-parent households provide less parental involvement with schoolwork and less supervision outside the home (Gofen, 2013).

The home experiences of dropouts often lead to a negative school experience with a tendency toward a history of poor grades, grade retention, poor motivation or academic aspirations, truancy, school problem behaviors, poor relationships with other students and teachers, and less involvement in extracurricular activities.

Unfortunately, this behavior is most common among males and minority students. According to Rumberger (2020), dropouts are often boys than girls and tend to be ethnic minorities. Research on the individual causes of high-school dropouts shows that socioeconomic context and race/ethnicity are among the most important predictors of subsequent dropout (Rumberger, 2020) and (Hébert, 2017). According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (Tate et al., 2014), about 17% of young Black men drop out of school compared to 13.5% of young Black females. Students from racial and ethnic minority groups in the United States face persistent and profound barriers to educational opportunity due to structural inequalities in access to knowledge and resources (Jenkins et al., 2013). Although schools should be equal for all students, minority students often attend schools that routinely provide dramatically different learning opportunities based on their social status (Rumberger, 2020). Such students attend schools in poor neighborhoods where most of the students attending the schools are from minority backgrounds.

Race and Ethnicity as Significant Barriers

Minority students are most at risk of not graduating only 58% of Hispanic, 55% of African-American, and 51% of American-Indian students will succeed the 1.23 million high-school students compared to 92.2% of White students (Unverferth et al., 2012). According to the Director of Editorial Projects in Education Research Center, "Another way to think about the 1.23 million struggling students is to think of the number as one student lost from the high school to college pipeline every 13 seconds" (Lee-St. John et al., 2018).

Some of the reasons for low graduation rates are poorly funded school systems and community issues such as single-parent families and low socioeconomic status. Retention is a leading factor causing students to leave school early (Tate et al., 2014). Students who repeat grades are often discouraged academically, and a quick solution to the problem is to remove themselves from a frustrating situation. Many state leaders are beginning to see a direct link between low graduation rates and economic and social ills ((Rumberger, 2020). These students who leave high school cannot get good-paying jobs and often have much time on their hands, leading to inappropriate behavior such as gangs or drugs.

The data depicting the low graduation rates among minority high-school students describe the current achievement gap. *The achievement gap* refers to the differences in scores on state or national achievement tests between various student demographic groups, and it is why many students do not graduate from high school (Rumberger, 2020), particularly minority students. Historically, the achievement gap focused on differences in achievement test scores between White and African-American students on national tests, such as the SAT. The No Child Left Behind has shifted the focus of the achievement gap down to the school level and determine how well racial and ethnic sub-groups in a given school perform relative to their White peers.

African-American students are underrepresented among the top scorers on standardized tests. Although it is not clear why the gap is wider at the upper end of the achievement scale, some experts believe that it has something to do with African-American students being taught in predominantly Black schools, which is similar to the finding in James Coleman's 1965 report addressing the disparities between Whites and Blacks in the school system. Other reasons were test scores being lower on average, less experienced teachers in predominantly Black schools, and high achieving peers being harder to find (Unverferth et al., 2012). For instance, the High School Transcript Study (Shettle et al., 2007) indicates that the GPAs for Mexican-American and African-American students also lagged behind their White and Asian counterparts, and, according to the National Educational Longitudinal Study (Doll et al., 2013), the top quintile of Latino students scored lower than White and Asian-American students. The high achieving Latino students are far more likely to have parents with less than a bachelor's degree and are more than likely to come from single-family households.

Carpenter, Ramirez, and Severn's (2006) study measured the achievement gap, examining dropout behavior among Black, White, and Hispanic students, emphasizing gaps within groups and not just between Whites and minorities. The findings indicated that the dropout rates among Black and Hispanic students were nearly identical, whereas the dropout rate for White students was nearly half of the Black and Hispanic student rates (Garriott et al., 2013). The study also noted that students in private schools tend to drop out less than students in public schools, and those in single-parent homes drop out more often than students with two parents/guardians in the home. The dropout rates for students who have been held back are high, and it is consistent for Black, Hispanic, and White. Regardless of race, students who have been left back or siblings who dropped out are more likely to drop out themselves.

The achievement gap that exists today has been a problem for at least six decades, and to fully understand this problem, it is necessary to reflect on America's racial history, particularly as it relates to education. Although lack of achievement is also a problem for members of various other minority groups, including Hispanics, American-Indians, and sometimes Asians, specifically those from low-income family backgrounds, the historical foundation of the inequities that exist among minorities today began with the practice of slavery and the racism that continued to exist after it was abolished.

A Historical Perspective

The 1865 Emancipation Proclamation (National Archives & Record Administration, 2006) officially abolished and prohibited slavery in the United States, but it did not provide equal rights or citizenship. In 1868, with the passing of the Fourteenth Amendment, Blacks were given citizenship, and the ability to vote came in 1870 with the passing of the Fifteenth Amendment. Before this time, Blacks were prohibited from learning to read or write or be educated in any way. Even after the passing of the above laws, many Whites did not abide by the land laws, and for many years Blacks were continually treated unequally by their White counterparts. The passing of *Plessy vs. Ferguson* (1986) solidified the unfair treatment of Blacks by Whites, and the law proclaimed that Blacks were second-class citizens (Hoffer, 2014). Although Blacks were able to participate in similar activities, such as attending school, they were not equal, and, as such, Black schooling lacked the same quality normally seen in White schools. In 1954, *Brown vs. Board of Education* overturned the long-standing "separate" but equal statute, but it took many years for the law to take effect. Similar to the passing of President Abraham's Emancipation Proclamation (National Archives & Record Administration, 2006), people's attitude or behavior toward Blacks did not change, and with little enforcement of the law, unequal treatment of Blacks continued to prevail. This resulted in continued segregation of Black schools, which received unequal educational services than their White (Gamoran, 2015).

The Civil Rights Movement succeeded in guaranteeing equality before the law for all men and dismantling racist structures, which included the right to vote for all citizens and equitable education for all children. Lyndon B. Johnson furthered the opportunities for the poor by designing the "Great Society," which was legislation that included civil rights laws, Medicaid/Medicare, and the "War on Poverty." Many Black people benefited from the programs due to their low socioeconomic status during those times. The "War on Poverty" was Johnson's response to the difficult economic opportunities associated with the national poverty rate. This legislation led to the passing of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, which included several programs to promote health, education, and the general welfare of the poor (Quinn & Uribe-Zarain, 2019). One of the initiatives that came out of the 1964 Act was the federally funded TRIO Programs, which began with the Upward Bound program. The goal of the TRIO Programs was to provide access to education for all children who lacked the opportunity (Dortch, 2018)

When Upward Bound was birthed, President Johnson commissioned James Coleman and several other scholars to write a report on educational equality in the U.S. The report was one of the largest studies in history, with 150,000 students in the sample. This report has fueled school debates that continue today regarding the disparities between Black and White students and students of color from low-socioeconomic backgrounds. The research suggested that socially disadvantaged Black students profited from schooling in racially mixed schools, which was the catalyst for implementing the desegregation busing system. In 1975, Coleman reported the failure of his 1966 recommendation that lower-class Black students would benefit from attending higher-class mixed schools due to "White Flight" (Wong & Nicotera, 2014). Many working-class and middle-class families moved away from the suburbs or urban neighborhoods, becoming racially desegregated to White suburbs and exurbs. The behavior was a strong indication of how White society felt about having Black students attend their schools. Some schools closed because they refused to adhere to the ruling of *Brown vs. the Board of Education*. Although this law was passed in 1954, it was not until 1971 that desegregation busing was made mandatory. This may also explain why in Coleman et al.'s 1966 report regarding funding for White and Black schools, it was nearly the same funding. Many Southern states vastly raised their spending on Black schools to avoid compliance with the *Brown vs. Board of Education* decision.

Although the courts and the government have passed laws and acts to correct policies that had been disadvantageous to minorities and students from low-income families, history shows that there has not been sufficient accountability to ensure that the policies are enforced. Failure to ensure that schools are funded equally, that qualified teachers are available, that school facilities are in good shape, and that school supplies and materials are available and in good shape is a major factor in addressing the achievement gap between Whites and minorities from low-income backgrounds (Ma & Shea, 2019). According to Darling-Hammond's (2017) study of educational outcomes, including high-school completion, the outcomes for students of color are much more a function of their unequal access to key educational resources, including skilled teachers and quality curricula (p. 320). These compounded inequalities explain much of the achievement gap (p. 321), Cardichon and Darling-Hammond, (2017).

The Current Situation

The "Every Student Succeed Act" (ESSA) replaced the No Child Left Behind Act in 2015. However, because ESSA did not go into effect until 2018-2019 it will be a while before the impact on education of all students. Unfortunately, the same inequities are being echoed about President Bush's No Child Left Behind Act. This Act was intended to raise educational achievement and close the racial/ethnic achievement gap for the Annual Yearly Performance (AYP). Its strategies include focusing schools' attention on raising test scores, mandating better-qualified teachers, and providing educational choices (Dworkin, 2015). The rhetoric of the Act sounds very good; however, the application of the Act has caused high performing schools to be identified as failing schools because it requires 100% of students to make significant improvements to meet the Act's Annual Yearly Performance, which is unrealistic. Already, one-third of public schools have been targeted as having failed to meet AYP, and studies suggest that at least 80% of schools in most states will have failed to achieve the AYP by 2014 (Pruitt and Bowers, 2014) Consequently, this has caused schools to lower their standards in order to meet the Act's AYP. Most importantly, the disparities among the poor and minority students due to the Act's one-size-fits-all mandate have caused the neediest students to be in low-funded schools with unqualified teachers and low expectations. What is worse, whereas the Act requires schools to meet state standards, no one is holding the state and federal governments accountable for providing the funding sources to meet the achievement goals that were intended to close the racial/ethnic achievement gap.

The wealthiest public schools spend at least ten times more than the poorest schools, ranging from over $30,000 per pupil to only $3,000. Within states, the spending ratio between high- and low-spending schools is typically at least 2 or 3 to 1. Documented in federal statistics and a large number of lawsuits, schools serving large numbers of low-income and minority students and students of color have larger class sizes, fewer teachers and counselors, fewer and lower-quality academic courses, extracurricular activities, books, materials, supplies, computers, libraries, and special services (Darling-Hammond, 2004, p. 2). If the neediest students are attending schools that cannot provide the necessary resources for learning, it is almost impossible to expect them to be successful.

The detrimental practices of slavery as related to education affect Blacks and other minorities as well, especially those from low socioeconomic backgrounds. Although *Brown vs. Board of Education* was supposed to level the playing field, the issues raised in a Nation at Risk (National Commission in Excellence, 1983) as well as in No Child Left Behind Act (U.S. Department of Education, 2006) continue to exist today and are a good indication that the disparities that exist between Whites and minorities are a primary reason for the achievement gap that has affected the dropout rate across the nation. Students' families' socioeconomic status is similar among students of all ethnicities dropping out across the nation. Students from low-income families who live in poor neighborhoods attend low-achieving and low-funded schools with often inexperienced teachers (Leventhal-Weiner & Wallace, 2012). The schools cannot provide the students with educational materials and technology, and the school building has poor facilities. Students who are failing academically across all racial lines can relate to each other's issues, problems, and experiences because they lack the social and cultural capital that would afford them the opportunities and relationships necessary for academic success that are most often available to students from families with a higher socioeconomic status (Bourdieu, 1987). Students without access to educational resources and support are most likely the students who fall behind academically and drop out of high school.

Social and Cultural Capital

In the late 1980s, two major strands of thought on social capital were developed by Pierre Bourdieu (1986) in "The Forms of Capital" and James Coleman (1988) in the *American Journal of Sociology*. Bourdieu's conceptualization of social capital is grounded in social reproduction and symbolic power theories, and Coleman's theoretical framework consists of norms and social control. Bourdieu and Passeron (1973) first used the term *cultural capital* in "Cultural Reproduction and Social Reproduction" to address the differences in educational outcomes of families whose children were of the dominant culture and those who were not (Jæger & Karlson, 2018). In 1986, in "Forms of Capital," Bourdieu distinguished cultural capital from social and economic capital.

The major difference between social and cultural capital is that although both are acquired through social relations, social capital emphasizes the importance of networks through membership in groups or institutions, and cultural capital focuses on the non-financial assets of educational, social, and intellectual knowledge a child acquires growing up in an elite family. Whereas social capital is attained through group socialization, cultural knowledge is acquired by the individual in the relationship (Jæger & Karlson, 2018). The rest of this section will discuss the differences between Bourdieu's and Coleman's definitions of social capital and Bourdieu's definition of cultural capital.

Social Capital

Bourdieu's (1986) and Coleman's (1988) definitions of social capital are similar in that they both emphasize the functional value of social relations as a resource to agents. Bourdieu defines social capital as the aggregate of the actual or potential resources linked to possessions of a durable network of essentially institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition. This group membership provides members with the backing of the collectively owned capital. Relations within the group may exist as material or symbolic (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2013). Similarly, Coleman (1988) defines social capital as connections or the importance of social networks. It is inherent in the structure of relationships between and among actors. It is defined by its function. It is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities, with two elements in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structures, and they facilitate certain actions of actors—whether persons or corporate actors—within the structure (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016). Both Coleman and Bourdieu have an instrumentalist view of social capital as a resource inherent in social relationships, which can be used by individuals and institutional agents to various ends. They also see social capital as interacting with and transactive for other forms of capital (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2013).

The key differences between Coleman's and Bourdieu's concepts of social capital are based on their philosophical perspectives. Bourdieu emphasizes access to institutional resources, an approach that is more egocentric and focuses on the access to status, power, and credentials gained from the investment in the relationships (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2013). Actors compete for capital within fields of activity, and our complex society is made up of several fields, each with its specific logic (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016). These fields are various relationships in which positions are defined by the distribution of capital in different forms across the actors, whether individual or institutional in that field. The actors who have more capital are more dominant than those who have less; others may have equal but different compositions of capital at their disposal, which puts them in a different relationship with other actors in the field. The capital that one actor has is historically determined through existing relationships according to the "rules of the game," the value of the different forms of capital, and the ability to convert the capital from one type to another (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2013).

Coleman's view is more socio-centric and emphasizes the norms one comes to develop and understand through the relationships (Julien, 2014). Coleman is concerned primarily with the family and neighborhood. For him, the presence of effective norms and sanctions within the immediate family is most important for educational success (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016). Coleman's view of social capital emphasizes the importance of network closure which means that parents are friends with their children's friends. His theory identifies three key aspects of social capital: obligations and expectations, which depend on the trustworthiness of the social environment, the communication flow capability of the social structure, and the presence of norms accompanied by sanctions (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016).

For Coleman (1988), social capital is not just a property of the elite, but to some degree, it compensates for the lack of other forms of capital. For Bourdieu (1986), social capital is hierarchically structured and, like other forms of capital, is held disproportionately by the dominant class. However, both Bourdieu (1986) and Coleman (1988) reject the idea that educational attainment and achievement are a product solely of an individual's natural talents (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016). They both believe social capital plays a significant role in one's success; however, for Bourdieu, social capital is a less important aspect of his theory of social structure than cultural capital. However, like Gould (2001), some scholars state that cultural capital is a form of social capital since when community participants engage in cultural exchange, they develop social ties and thus contribute to the community's social capital. This concept is supported in Coleman's (1988) study of students in Catholic schools.

Coleman (1988) shows the significance of social capital as it pertains to institutional and support ties through the example of students' success in Catholic schools. In his study on public and private schools, he demonstrated higher achievement in mathematics and verbal skills for students in Catholic schools than students with comparable backgrounds in public schools. This was particularly true for students from disadvantaged backgrounds: Blacks, Hispanics, and children of parents with low educational levels. When he compared the dropout rate in public schools for Grades 10 to 12, it was 14.3%, in other private schools, 11.9%, and in Catholic schools, 3.4%. The conclusion drawn is that Catholicism does not account for the low dropout rate. The relationship between the religious community that surrounds a religious school and the students in the school makes students less likely to drop out of school. These relationships and networks create a high level of social capital that promotes retention and, ultimately, academic achievement (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016).

The opposites of community—alienation and social isolation—are, according to the Coleman (1988) study, a major cause of suicide. Thus, we can associate dropping out of high school as a near neighborhood suicide caused by isolation due to the absence of a functional connection to others (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016). Interestingly, the dropout rates of children of single-parent families in public schools and other private schools rose to more than one and a half times that of children from two-parent families; however, there was no increase in dropout rates for children from single-parent families in Catholic schools. These results indicate how significant social capital is to a family and its impact on families who can attain it through their relationships in the schools. Social capital is a resource that can help develop young people into successful, productive citizens (O'Connor et al., 2017). Children with social capital understand the norms and standards regarding what young people should do in and out of school. When necessary, children whose low family educational attainment can turn to adults other than their parents to find support. In various ways, these relations constitute social capital that aids schools in their task and, in addition, both support and constrains youth in the process of growing up (O'Connor et al., 2017). In the study of school inequality, the analysis of social networks reveals how success within the educational system for working-class and minority youths is dependent on the formation of genuinely supportive relationships with institutional agents (Kamphuis et al., 2018).

Researchers argue that supportive ties with the institutional agents represent a necessary condition for engagement and advancement in the educational system. However, for working-class and minority youths, these supportive ties are found mainly outside the family in school settings and community organizations. Initiating such ties outside the family is no easy task. (Harber et al., 2012) suggest that the effect of family origin, which is the family's socioeconomic status, is mediated much more by people's access to information about the educational system and their overall perceptions of discrimination. They maintained that conventional status attainment models misrepresent the mobility process for some ethnic minorities and low SES Whites who find themselves similarly dependent on the educational system resources that are not attainable elsewhere (Bleich et al., 2019). When lack of access to institutional funds of knowledge is combined with perceptions of discrimination, self-elimination is a likely result. A good deal of the more recent sociological treatment of school failure continues to cast the process of self-elimination in terms of systematic institutional exclusion (Hernández-Ortiz et al., 2021).

However, despite institutional exclusionary practices influencing school success, school engagement is fostered in diverse ways by different ethnic groups. Whereas for Whites, support from institutional agents enhances educational attainment and thereby fosters ambition, for Blacks and other minorities, higher grades are associated with institutional promotion only when grades symbolize outward conformity to the cultural standards imposed by the schools. Ogbu (1991) refers to this as "acting White" (Harber et al., 2012). Thus, for working-class and low-income Blacks and other minorities, parental and community attempts to instill conformity, optimism, and trust among children and youth may be more problematic.

Nevertheless, from a social network perspective, ties to institutional agents are necessary for students, especially those who are minority and low-income, to obtain social capital. Institutional agents' provision of social capital is the knowledge-based resources that assist students with guidance for college admissions and job advancement. Working-class youths tend to have vastly less social capital than middle-class youths because of parental involvement (Novak et al., 2018). On the other hand, they cannot acquire the knowledge and experience that enables them to interpret the cultural codes of the dominant culture.

Cultural Capital

Cultural capital is a sociological concept that gained widespread popularity after Pierre Bourdieu first articulated it. Bourdieu and Jean-Claude Passeron first used the term in *Cultural Reproduction and Social Reproduction* in1973 (Kamphuis et al., 2018). It has since been elaborated and developed in terms of other types of capital in *The Forms of Capital* (Novak et al., 2018). Cultural capital acts as a social relation within an exchange system that includes the accumulated cultural knowledge that confers power and status. It is the knowledge that enables an individual to interpret various cultural codes of the dominant cl ass.

In Bourdieu and Passeron's (1973) study, they suggested that the culture of the dominant class is transmitted and rewarded by the educational system. According to Bourdieu, to acquire cultural capital, a student must have the ability to receive and internalize this capital. Although schools expect students to have this ability, it is not provided for the schools. Rather, attaining cultural capital and later access to academic rewards depend on the cultural capital passed from one generation to the next. Differences in cultural capital are reinforced by the educational system that favors these styles, leaving members of the lower class with little hope of achieving social mobility.

Cultural capital exists in three forms: embodied, objectified, and institutionalized. Embodied cultural capital is a person's personality and behavioral tendencies based on their knowledge base and skills set. They are the dominant group's learned elements, attitudes, and behaviors and can be increased by investing time in self-improvement and learning. One benefits from material cultural capital only if one can use it. Objectified cultural capital has several properties defined only in the relationship with a cultural capital in its embodied state. Bourdieu (1986) says that cultural capital goods can be obtained and appropriated materially and symbolically and are considered cultural capital (Kamphuis et al., 2018). To possess material goods, a person needs only economic capital. However, to understand how to use it appropriately, the person must have embodied cultural capital either in proxy or person. A person must have the capacity to appreciate and use material capital. Institutionalized cultural capital is most understood as academic credentials or qualifications. This is mainly understood concerning the labor market. It allows easier conversion of cultural capital by guaranteeing a certain monetary value for a certain institutional level of achievement (Kamphuis et al., 2018).

Another important aspect of Bourdieu's theoretical model is the concept of habitus. *Habitus* is a person's internalized dispositions for thinking and behaving, which influence the actions. It is created by one's place in the social structure; by internalizing the social structure and one's place in it, one comes to determine what is possible for one's life and develops practices and aspirations accordingly (Novak et al., 2018). For example, students who participate in pre-college programs acquire habitus during the summer residential experience. The experience of living on the college campus for consecutive summers exposes them to the lifestyle of a college student and prepares them to be successful in that environment. The opportunity to take classes with college professors teaches them the rules and prepares them to negotiate their relationships with fellow peers and their professors.

Habitus, or one's view of the world and one's place in it, is an important consideration in understanding how students navigate their way through the educational system. It is necessary to consider one's resources (capital) and the orientation one has toward using those resources (habitus) to implement the model of practice in the educational field in the way Bourdieu intended. One determines what is possible and what is not possible for one's life and develops aspirations and practices accordingly. This internalization takes place during childhood and is a primarily unconscious process. For example, Bourdieu argued that the reproduction of social structure results from the habitus of individuals (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2013). Considering the class position someone is born into, people develop ideas about their potential. Those in the working class may tend to believe that they will remain in the working class. These beliefs are externalized into actions that lead to the reproduction of the class structure. One's actions or practices are the results of one's habitus and capital within a field.

Cultural reproduction is the transmission of existing cultural values and norms from generation to generation. It is the mechanism by which continuity of cultural experience is sustained across time. Cultural reproduction often results in social reproduction, which is the transferring aspects of society, such as class, from generation to generation. Bourdieu believed that the educational system was used solely to reproduce the culture of the dominant class in order for the dominant class to continue to hold on and release power (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2013). His main focus was the structural reproductions of disadvantages and inequalities that are caused by cultural reproduction. According to Bourdieu, inequalities are recycled through the education system and other social institutions.

According to Bourdieu and Passeron, success is not simply learning skills and passing tests. Schools required many nonacademic and social skills, behaviors, and appropriate responses from wealthy homes. The school curriculum and procedures expected that these behaviors and responses would have been learned outside the schoolhouse. However, these social skills, behaviors, and responses were those of the dominant culture. Students from wealthy families learned them at home. The dominant culture's values, responses, and behaviors are encoded into these "attitudes" and responses learned at home (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2013). Thus, students from working-class families are less likely to possess the social skills, behaviors, and responses necessary to be successful academically and socially within the school.

In seminal studies, DiMaggio's (1982) and DiMaggio and Mohr's (1985) works differ from Bourdieu's (Vasiliauskas, 2019). For Bourdieu, cultural capital is a social reproduction established through educational systems that legitimize the social class structure, whereas DiMaggio and Mohr (1985) define it cultural mobility. According to DiMaggio, cultural capital is a resource that any social class can use to its advantage. He indicates that we should think of cultural capital as a cultural resource to ease communication and display the taste necessary to gain entry into a new status group. An individual has to learn how to adapt to the norms of those in the particular social group by impressing the gatekeepers and constructing social networks that signal their cultural belonging to advance their status (Vasiliauskas, 2019).

Parental Involvement: A Form of Cultural and Social Capital

The concept of social reproduction helps us understand how schools help replicate social inequalities. Bourdieu's major insight on educational inequality is that students with more valuable social and cultural capital are far better in school than peers with less social and cultural capital. Social reproduction has proven to be useful in understanding how race and class influence the transmission of educational inequality. Differences in parents' social class and students' attitudes or behaviors toward schools have shown that these class differences affect children's progress in school (Collins, 2018).

According to McNeal (2001), parental involvement is a form of social capital. It is a dyadic relationship between the parent, the child, or the parent (Kurt, 2015). These relationships are based on networks of kinship trust and degree of resources. Similar to Bourdieu and Passeron (1977), Coleman (1987), and McNeal (2001), defines parental involvement as parent-child discussions, parental involvement in teachers' organizations, and direct involvement with the school (von Otter & Stenberg, 2014).

Lareau and Horvat state that the value of capital depends heavily on the social setting and that there is an important difference between the possession and activation of capital resources. People who have social and cultural capital may choose to activate capital or not, and they may also vary in the skill with which they activate it (Collins, 2018). This indicates that the reproduction of capital is uneven and is continually negotiated by those who possess the capital and resources. An example of the behavior between Black middle-class and lower-class parents and how they activated and negotiated their capital and the differences in their outcomes is demonstrated.

A low-income family with academic problems suspected their child was being treated unfairly due to race. The parents visited the teacher, and their communication style consisted of anger and criticism, expressing their concern about the lack of African-American culture in the school. Their principal and teacher perceived their response as unacceptable and destructive. Hence, the low-income family did not have a good relationship with their child's teacher and, to avoid further confrontation, no longer engaged the parents regarding their child's academics (von Otter & Stenberg, 2014). A middle-income family who also suspected children of color were treated unfairly had a different approach. They did not express their concerns to the teacher but became very visible in the school, asking the teachers about their daughter and paying close attention to their daughter's homework. In addition, the parents requested to have their daughter tested for the academically talented program; she passed and was exposed to a more rigorous curriculum. The teacher was never aware of the parents' concerns about racial inequality because they chose to handle the situation.

The middle-class family's actions created a moment of social inclusion in which parent-teacher contact facilitated their child's inclusion in high-status educational programs and her continuing success in school. The low-income parents' actions created a moment of exclusion for their daughter because although the teacher no longer engaged to avoid confrontation, she remained in classes below her grade level. The low-income parents did not seek to intervene in the school process to address their concerns about racial inequality (Novak et al., 2018). Understanding how to successfully navigate the educational process is very challenging and even more so for students whose families lack the educational attainment and social networks to create strong ties within the schools. The institution's roles, teacher, parents, and student are very important as to whether or not a student will be successful.

According to Coleman (1988), parental involvement in the parent-teacher organization is a key development in adolescent development because of shared information that an extended parent network allows. It is also viewed as a source of extended social control to curb inappropriate behaviors such as truancy and dropping out. Monitoring of the child is another important characteristic of parental involvement, and it affects adolescent behavior and development. The assumption is that parents closely monitor their children's behavior and the outward expression of concern translates into a greater investment by the child in improved educational performance and reduced problematic behavior (Coleman, 1987, 1988).

The parents of children from working-class families are more likely to have lower educational attainment and are less likely to spend time talking to their children about their studies because much of their time is possibly spent at work. In addition, working-class parents' work schedules may hinder them from attending teacher conferences supporting their child's educational progress (von Otter & Stenberg, 2014). Furthermore, parents may also lack the confidence to develop relationships with the teachers due to their low educational attainment. Thus, working-class parents cannot teach their children the norms and behaviors associated with social capital that would help them be successful in school as they interact with their teachers and counselors. This lack of parent involvement that is a necessary source of social capital may explain behavioral outcomes such as dropout behavior or truancy. In addition, children who lack parental involvement tend to come from minority and low socioeconomic backgrounds (von Otter & Stenberg, 2014).

However, the studies show that it is very important for minority and disadvantaged students to develop social and cultural capital to further their achievement. Students with more social and cultural capital are better able to communicate with teachers, thus increasing their chances to benefit from their relationship (Quinn et al., 2020). Student-teacher interactions reinforce the social norms of the school and society. Access to such information and resources assists and increases their chances of further their educational careers and success.

Summary of Social and Cultural Capital

Both Coleman's and Bourdieu's views on social capital are similar. However, the differences between the two are that Coleman emphasizes the importance of the collective relationships gained through the relationship, while Bourdieu emphasizes the power the individual attains through the relationship (Rogošić & Baranović, 2016). So, whereas Coleman highlights the relational importance of social capital between a child and adult and the benefits gained from the relationship, Bourdieu focuses on the influence of power that is attained through the relationship that makes opportunities for children of the dominant class readily available as opposed to children from the working class.

As stated earlier, Bourdieu views social capital as a less important aspect of his theory because children from working-class families lack the knowledge and experiences needed to be successful, especially in an educational system that expects all children to attend school with the certain required knowledge. By providing children with the opportunity to attain social and cultural capital through educational programs such as Upward Bound, they learn the social skills and cultural codes that allow them to compete academically with their peers. Studying barriers to student success through the social and cultural capital lens is significant because it identifies the barriers that allow some children to be successful while others are not. More importantly, it shows how students who are not from the dominant families and nevertheless acquire the skills of social and cultural capital can overcome barriers despite the obstacles they encounter in school or their environment. Thus, by acquiring these forms of capital, students become more capable of overcoming the barriers that frequently prevent them from success.

STUDENT SUCCESS

Student success models reflect a new approach to understanding factors that impact students' ability to graduate from high school. Instead of focusing on reasons for student failure as described in dropout literature, or social and cultural factors missing in the lives of underprivileged students, student success models explore why students succeed. The model takes a more positive approach to the study of student success and focuses on the strengths instead of the weaknesses of the student. The following section focuses on the resiliency theory and non-theory-based student success research.

Resiliency Theory

Students at risk of failure often face a complexity of problems caused by poverty, health issues, and other social conditions that have made it difficult to succeed in school. Nevertheless, a human phenomenon allows people to bounce back after experiencing negative or traumatic events. According to Henderson and Milstein, there are a growing number of studies in the fields of psychiatry, psychology, and sociology challenging the notion that stress and risk inevitably doom people to develop psychopathologies or perpetuate cycles of poverty abuse, or educational failure. Humans cannot only deal with life's adversities; they overcome them and become stronger because of the experience (Greene et al., 2014).

Resiliency theory provides a new perspective on how children bounce back from stress, trauma, and risk in their lives (Greene et al., 2014). This paradigm shift is an approach that proposes that educators move away from focusing on what is at risk and move toward a resiliency model of understanding (Van Breda, 2018). Research on resiliency has been broadly conducted in developmental psychopathology, psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Conceptual and empirical work on resiliency has recently gained similar recognition as a framework for examining why some students are successful in school while other students from the same socially and economically disadvantaged backgrounds and communities are not.

Three major categories describe the phenomenon of resiliency in the psychological literature (Van Breda, 2018): individual differences in recovery from trauma, people from high-risk groups (poverty, family background, or abuse) who obtain better outcomes than would typically be expected of these individuals, and individuals who can adapt despite stressful experiences. The psychological research on resiliency provides compelling evidence that many factors may help students at risk of failure become resilient despite adversity. The studies also show that resilient individuals interpret stressful life experiences and trauma differently.

Characteristics of Resilient Students

Student resilience is a characteristic that explains why some students can overcome adversity and succeed and others stumble and fail amid obstacles. Students with resiliency take responsibility for their actions, have relationships with good role models, and seek help when needed, are confident in their abilities, have an optimistic attitude, respect themselves and others, have plans for the future, are diligent in accomplishing a task, and believe they can solve their (Pidgeon et al., 2014). Resilient students' self-esteem, self-regulation, and vision to stay the course "buffer the effects" of negative realities they may often encounter (Shikha2, 2018). Life can be unpredictable, but according to educational resilience theory, how a student perceives adversity determines whether or not the student will conquer it.

According to Schissel, the four personal characteristics resilient children display are social competence, problem-solving skills, autonomy, and a sense of purpose. Another four factors related to resiliency identified by McMillian and Reed are motivation and goal orientation, positive use of time (e.g., on-task behavior, homework completion, and participation in extracurricular activities), family life (support and expectations), and school and classroom learning environment (i.e., facilities, exposure to technology, leadership, and overall climate) Weir (2017).

Although there are numerous characteristics related to resilience, five seem to show up consistently across the life span (Pidgeon et al., 2014). They are cognitive, superiority, autonomy, social skills, and internal locus of control. Internal locus of control is strongly related to resilience because people with this characteristic believe they influence their fate and believe they have some control over what happens to them. In addition, a major tenet of locus of control is intrinsic motivation or vice versa. Resilient students also have an internal locus of control and are intrinsically motivated. Such students believe they can control outcomes affecting them. They have a positive outlook regarding the negative events they may face in school or life, whereas students with an external locus of control react very differently; they see themselves as victims in the educational system, almost powerless in affecting the circumstances around them. They do not have a positive outlook on life.

Educational Resiliency

Only a few studies have researched resiliency in schools, and most of the research has focused on comparing resilient to non-resilient students on family and individual background characteristics and on key classroom processes that have been proposed to foster resilience (Shikha2, 2018). Educational resilience is not viewed as a fixed attribute but as a response that can be promoted by alterable factors that can impact an individual's success in school. This approach does not focus on attributes such as ability because ability has not necessarily been a characteristic of successful students.

Resiliency is a characteristic that one may have, but, more importantly, it is believed to be taught believes that resiliency is essential to student success. The students who have a positive and active attitude, and behavior of declaring their abilities, a sense of self, and a knowing that they can accomplish whatever they set out to do, grow into adolescents with greater trust, competence, and a purposeful sense of themselves as integral members in their community. Student resiliency united with caring relationships, high expectations, and meaningful participation will create an environment that will help students view adverse situations differently and empower them to develop a resilient characteristic (Van Breda, 2018). Teachers who promote the teaching of resilience, as recommends, give a powerful gift that helps students confront adversity with confidence and optimism.

The resilient student perspective covers several important characteristics that resilient students use to bounce back and be successful in the face of obstacles. Resiliency traits affecting student success consist of having a protective adult to rely upon, a strong sense of self-worth and self-confidence, good friends, a vision for the future, a positive outlook despite negative circumstances, and school-related activities (Cassidy, 2015). Resiliency research attempts to provide educators with inexplicable positive characteristics that help students who face unfortunate circumstances learn how to confront and overcome them.

UPWARD BOUND

The largest and longest running TRIO program, Upward Bound, continues to be instrumental in helping minority and educationally underprepared students to successfully navigate through high school and enter postsecondary institutions (Caldwell & Siwatu, 2013). Both the mission and target population for Upward Bound are defined by the federal statute. According to the United States Department of Education (USDE, 1998), criteria for admission into Upward Bound include low-income, first-generation status (first in their family to potentially attend college), and the need for academic support services to successfully pursue postsecondary study. Eligibility criteria for admission into Upward Bound and the other TRIO programs included the consideration of low-income individuals from their inception, because students from low-income families were less likely to have access to educational resources that provide the support to be successful academically and in future career opportunities (John Groutt, 2014). The reauthorization of the Higher Education Act in 1980 was particularly important with the adoption of the "first-generation" concept for the TRIO Programs. The inclusion of first-generation moved the TRIO Programs into a more inclusive direction in looking at the impact of non-financial barriers to success in postsecondary education. It enabled the TRIO Programs to build a broader coalition for low socioeconomic families and for all individuals who lacked the opportunity and access for a postsecondary education (Caldwell & Siwatu, 2013). This suggested that the lack of financial resources was a major barrier hindering low-income families from accessing postsecondary education.

For over 57 years, the Upward Bound program has been graduating students most likely to drop out of high school. As of 2017, there were over 956 Upward Bound programs nationwide, and the students served are 44% African-American, 25% Anglo, 19% Latino, 4% Asian, and 4% American-Indian (Correll, 2016). The program seeks to bring students to college who meet the federal guidelines. According to the U.S. Department of Education (Education Department General Administrative Regulations, 2008) guidelines for Upward Bound participants, a student must be between the ages of 13-19, have completed 8 years of elementary education, need academic support to successfully pursue an education beyond high school, plan on going to college, and in need of the services the program offers to fulfill his or her goals (Doll et al., 2013). Two-thirds of Upward Bound participants must be both first-generation and low-income and the other one-third must be low-income or first-generation college students. The target population of the students served is usually 9th through 12th grade.

Upward Bound assists high-school students with acquiring the necessary academic, cultural enrichment, career orientation, and college exposure for those wanting to enter and complete postsecondary education (Huck, 2021). The Upward Bound program is designed to assist economically deprived, underachieving students who show the potential for achieving a postsecondary educational program, but who lack the motivation and academic preparation to meet the criteria for admission to the postsecondary institutions (Cassidy, 2015).

The Upward Bound programs' mandated services include a core curriculum of instruction in mathematics through pre-calculus, laboratory science, foreign language, composition, and literature for postsecondary success (Carlson & Knowles, 2016). Services provided to students in Upward Bound include instruction in reading, writing, study skills, mathematics, and other subjects necessary for success in postsecondary education. Other services include personal counseling, assistance in course selection, tutorial services, exposure to cultural events, academic programs, and other activities not usually available to disadvantaged youth. These include exposure to career options, particularly fields in which disadvantaged youth are underrepresented, on-campus residential programs, and mentoring programs (Caldwell & Siwatu, 2013).

Upward Bound exposes students to the college visit by taking them on college tours to give them first-hand experiences about what colleges and universities have to offer. During the tours, students have an opportunity to develop better knowledge about the college by talking with college counselors and department heads and by participating in campus activities (Swanson et al., 2021). In addition, Upward Bound students participate in a real-life college experience during the summer, spending between 5 and 6 weeks on a college campus (Grimard & Maddaus, 2018). While on campus, students reside in the dorms with a roommate, eat in the dining hall, and during the day attend academic classes for credit and educational enrichment. Participants take classes and navigate the college campus amongst college students, faculty, and staff during their 4 years in high school.

The Upward Bound program also exposes participants to a variety of cultural and social enrichment activities, such as visiting museums and taking extracurricular activities such as music, art, and dance. The Department of Education provides funding specifically for cultural enrichment activities. Through academic instruction, college tours, financial aid, and career planning, Upward Bound participants receive encouragement to commit to obtaining a college education (Engberg, 21013).

U.S. Department of Education statistics show that college enrollment rates for high-school graduates in Upward are 82%, compared to 45% for students not involved with the program Cahalan and Perna (2015). Participants in Upward Bound programs graduate at a higher rate from high school and earn an undergraduate degree than those from similar backgrounds who do not participate in the program ("Trio Facts Report," 2021). Whereas financial aid helps students overcome financial barriers, the purpose of Upward Bound is to help students overcome academic, class, social, and cultural barriers to higher education.

The Lyndon Johnson administration's vision to create Upward Bound has been one of the most instrumental resources in helping close the achievement gap, especially with its graduation success rates 20% above the national graduation rates (Tamatea, 2018). Upward Bound Programs provides social and cultural capital for low-income and first-generation students. The program teaches students' how to understand the social norms of society and the rules of the game so they are better able to master their academics (Bourdieu,1986) and (Coleman,1988). It provides a space where students know the staff, tutors, and counselors (college students) believe in them and are eager to help them succeed.

Upward Bound meets the students' need for community and social connections that help the students develop their sense of self and a feeling of caring and belonging (Coleman, 1988). The activities administered and the relationships developed in Upward Bound help students acquire and internalize cultural capital and increase the students' ability to successfully acclimate to the norms of the dominant culture how to relate with adults and peers through communication and socialization (Bourdieu, 1986). With these skills Upward Bound students develop the ability to be resilient and succeed despite of their family environmental circumstances (Van Breda, 2018).

As stated earlier, individual Upward Bound programs across the nation are doing well in helping students successfully graduate from high school. This does suggest that TRIO Programs do know how to solve the problem. Unfortunately, none of the reforms or congressional acts over the last 6 decades have successfully improved the educational system for all children, especially from poor and minority backgrounds (Pruitt and Bowers, 2014). However, Upward Bound Programs give us great hope that added resources such as those provided by the program can be very successful in reversing the nation's dropout crises and increasing the human capital of first-generation and low-income students.

Upward Bound students acquire the social and cultural capital that helps them become resilient to the barriers that can impede their academic success and this has implications for their success in other endeavors. In 1964, Lyndon B. Johnson sought a solution to level the playing field of those in poverty and facing racial barriers to higher education. Fifty-seven years later, Upward Bound appears to be addressing and fulfilling President's Johnson vision and this nation's need and promise for a stable solution to the academic barriers to high school students' success (Padilla, 1999) and Guidotti et al., 2019).

CONCLUSION

Much of the research on student achievement focuses on successful and unsuccessful students. However, capturing the students' voices regarding student success is scarce in qualitative literature. Students' positive or negative experiences, combined with their ability to integrate academic and social adjustments, re-examine the intentions, goals, and commitments (Wirth & Padilla, 2015). Often this evaluation process leads to departure for many students (Engberg, 2013). While this model helps understand why some students depart the educational setting, it does not account for the number of students who succeed despite the adverse conditions. Further research is necessary to explain why students succeed despite adverse conditions.

Padilla (1998, 1999) studied successful college students using a black-box approach to gain information on the campus experience. The black box concept uses the notion that input information can be discerned and output information that can be determined, yet there is an unknown process between input and output that results in a transformation. "What happens between these two temporal points, i.e., entering and leaving college, is the black box experience" (Black & Wiliam, 2012).

The black box is a metaphor for the unknown. The information about the types of students entering college is well-defined, yet the decision-shaping experiences occurring while in college remain unknown. Understanding what happens in the black box determines why students remain in school or choose to depart. Since the students are the experts at navigating through the barriers to completing high school, they are the keepers of the unknown information in the black box (Guidotti et al., 2019). Only the students have the heuristics knowledge gained by experiencing the reality of being in the educational setting. Padilla's description of the "experimental mode" is that one has to be in a given environment, and students are well aware of the nuances, ambiguities, assumptions, and changing features of that particular situation (Engberg, 2013). The individual's learning occurs by way of doing—by trial and error, chance encounters, good fortune, and misfortune.

Padilla, Trevino, and Gonzalez (1997) used the experimental mode concept to understand what strategies minority college students employed to be successful (Black & Wiliam, 2012). They used the black-box approach to identify the barriers to student success and the knowledge and actions the successful student utilized to ensure success. A meaningful taxonomy of barriers student success was developed from the student input, and students provided insight into the knowledge and actions that they perceived to be essential for overcoming barriers. A local student success model (SSM) emerged from the Padilla et al. (Black & Wiliam, 2012) study; a local student success model (SSM) emerged, enabling the researchers to examine the implications for policy and practice that impacted these students.

Barker (2005) used Padilla's SSM to obtain information from students at a high-minority high school. The high-school students provided their perceptions of the barriers faced at their particular school, along with the knowledge and actions they felt were needed to graduate from high school. One of the important findings from this study was that the students perceived that the lack of counselor access was harming students to obtain vital information necessary for successful school completion. Since the information about the barriers, knowledge, and actions concerning student success came from the students themselves, the method used in Padilla's previous college studies was successfully adapted to the high-school setting (Black & Wiliam, 2012).

Inside the Black Box of High Performing High Poverty Schools (Black et al., 2014) examined eight elementary schools. The studies were from various places in Kentucky, and all were high-performing yet high-poverty schools. A preliminary set of common characteristics of these schools was generated using the black-box approach, then modified as more data were collected. The results revealed that these schools had high expectations, caring, respectful relationships, strong academic focus, systems for regular individual student assessment, non-authoritarian principals who shared decision making, a strong faculty work ethic combined with high faculty morale, and a strategy for recruitment, hiring, and assignment of teachers (Black et al., 2014). Thus, the student success approach has shown to be a useful tool for generating meaningful data to understand the expertise required to navigate through school successfully.

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Chapter 7

Improving Diversity in Military Medicine Through Collaborative Leadership: A Premedical Program for Enlisted Service Members

Althea Green
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6605-0110
Uniformed Services University School of Medicine, USA

ABSTRACT

This chapter presents an example of a diversity educational change initiative at a medical school. A novel premedical program for enlisted members of the U.S. military services was implemented based on mission requirements, analysis of existing data, and evidence-based strategies. The U.S. physician population suffers from a lack of diversity. This has been a long-standing problem which has a significant impact on the health of the nation. Educational leaders have been given a mandate to address this challenge, and efforts have been made over the past decades – with varying levels of success. This chapter discusses the realities of the diversity challenges facing the health professions workforce and highlights elements of programs which have produced successful diversity outcomes. The military's premedical program is described in detail, including the theoretical perspectives for student persistence and how leaders collaborated to create the conditions for student success.

INTRODUCTION

Becoming a physician is arguably one of the most difficult career choices a person can make. Aspiring physicians must first complete an undergraduate degree followed by four years of medical school and then a graduate medical education (or residency) program ranging from three to eight years in duration.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch007

For most of those who successfully achieve this goal, the process began well before they started college. In its resource guide, the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC, 2017, 2019) recommends that aspiring physicians begin preparing in high school by taking the appropriate courses, participating in specific types of extracurricular activities, and partnering with healthcare professionals.

The process of becoming a physician is not only time-consuming; it can also be an expensive undertaking. In 2019, the median education debt for medical school graduates was $200,000, and 73% of graduates reported having education debt (Youngclaus & Fresne, 2020). Nevertheless, each year thousands of aspiring physicians apply to medical school. In the 2020–2021 academic year, 62,443 individuals applied, 23,711 were accepted, and 22,666 ultimately matriculated to U.S. allopathic medical schools (AAMC, 2021e). These figures demonstrate that demand continues to outnumber supply for class seats despite the challenges inherent in achieving a Doctor of Medicine (MD) degree.

While there is no shortage of qualified medical school applicants, historically, U.S. medical schools have been challenged with finding a sufficient number of diverse applicants who met their stringent admission standards. The reasons for this problem are multifactorial, and range from structural racism, legal restrictions, resistance to change, and apathy, to name a few. Many programs have been developed over

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the years to address these issues with varying degrees of success. These types of programs are opportunities to both improve clinical care and reduce health disparities, but also better prepare students to work in multicultural settings. Medical school is the gateway for new physicians; therefore, medical school leaders have a responsibility to develop strategies to recruit and retain qualified medical students in a highly competitive environment.

Post-baccalaureate premedical (PBPM) programs are one such pipeline that has supported diversity in medicine. In 2014, the leadership of the Uniformed Services University (USU)—in partnership with the U.S. military services—implemented a post-baccalaureate premedical program with the goal of enhancing the diversity of the military medical officer (physician) corps (Green et al., 2021). Known as the Enlisted to Medical Degree Preparatory Program (EMDP2), it is the first PBPM program in the Department of Defense. Academically promising enlisted service members compete for selection to this enrichment program that assists students in making the social and intellectual transition from undergraduate studies to medical school and beyond (Green, 2018).

The military has long been viewed as a vehicle of change for the nation, and this educational partnership has been a model program for diversification of the health care workforce. Since its inception, the EMDP2 has matriculated 163 students from four military services (Uniformed Services University, 2022a). Aside from their prior military service, EMDP2 students differed from typical medical students in that they were more racially diverse; and more likely to be 26 years or older, married with dependent children, and have grown up in households with an annual income below $50,000 (Green, 2018).

This chapter discusses the diversity challenges facing the health professions workforce, some of the reasons for the problem, and how those challenges affect the health of the supported population. The EMDP2 is described, including the program structure and outcomes. The discussion includes how students in the program are supported in terms of four criteria for student retention and also provides directions for future research. Finally, this chapter demonstrates how committed leaders can collaborate across systems to develop an education program to grow and nurture the talent that exists within their communities to benefit from shared outcomes. This initiative can serve as an example for educational leaders who are developing student diversity recruitment programs.

CONTEXT

The population of the U.S. becomes more racially and ethnically diverse each year, and minorities are projected to comprise a majority of the population in less than 30 years (U.S. Census Bureau, 2021). This demographic shift brings some serious implications for society, one of the most important being access to health care. Considerable racial and ethnic health disparities currently exist among minority populations, and action is needed to address this serious public health crisis. Contributing to this problem is the lack of diversity in the physician workforce which remains largely limited to a small percentage of the nation's elite.

Physician Diversity

For most of this nation's history, its physicians have originated from a relatively small and homogeneous segment of the population. The numbers of African American, Latin American, Native American, and Hawaiian or Pacific Islander physicians have consistently been low relative to their prevalence in the general population, therefore, the AAMC categorized these groups as underrepresented in medicine (URM; AAMC, 2021h). The majority of physicians also came from affluent families. Over the last three years (2019–2021), about 76% of new medical students identified as being from non-URM groups, and 68.3% came from families earning over $100,000 per year, with a median income of $144,000 (AAMC, 2021a, 2021f). These data are depicted in Tables 1 and 2. Meanwhile, for this same period, the U.S. population was comprised of 34% URM individuals, and the median income was just under $63,000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2021). This lack of diversity in the medical student population—and by extension, the physician population—has a deleterious effect on the health of the nation. Numerous studies have shown that physician diversity contributes to increased access to health care services for the underserved and expanded options for patient care, while a lack of diversity leads to poorer health outcomes (Albrecht et al., 2019; Aslan et al., 2021; Betancourt et al., 2013; Greenwood et al., Hardeman et al., 2015; 2020; Pérez-Stable & El-Toukhy, 2018; Victor et al., 2018.)

Health and Health Outcomes

Limited diversity in the physician workforce has been linked to poor health outcomes for minorities (AAMC, 2009; Nivet, 2015; Wilbur et al., 2020; Xierali et al., 2014). Serious health disparities persist among minority populations, people of underprivileged socioeconomic classes, and those living in rural areas as well as low-income metropolitan areas. *Health disparities* are preventable differences in the burden of disease, injury, violence, or opportunities to achieve optimal health that are experienced by socially disadvantaged populations. *Health care disparities* is a related concept that refers to differences in access to, or availability of, health care facilities and services. A health care disparity typically refers to differences in health insurance coverage, access to care, and quality of care. When differences in health outcomes or health determinants are observed between populations, these are indications of health care

Table 1. Racial and ethnic demographics of medical school matriculants, 2019–2021

Matriculation Year	Racial or Ethnic Group					
	African American	Latin American	Native American	Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	Asian	White
2019	7.52	6.53	0.17	0.05	23.90	52.10
2020	7.96	6.86	0.16	0.04	24.50	51.40
2021	9.37	6.95	0.20	0.06	25.00	49.47

Note. Numbers do not include individuals identifying as "Other," those identifying as "Multiple race or ethnicity," or those not identifying with any race or ethnicity.

disparities. Health outcomes can be measured by differences in frequency, prevalence, mortality, burden of disease, and other adverse health conditions (Weinstein et al., 2017).

Racial and ethnic disparities in health care are a long-standing and well-understood crisis in the U.S. In 2003, Smedley et al. edited the seminal work *Unequal Treatment: Confronting Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Healthcare* based on a study chartered by the U.S. Congress. This study addressed the extent to which racial and ethnic differences affected patients' quality of health care and made recommendations to eliminate health care disparities. Smedley et al. (2003, 2004) found many complex sources of racial and ethnic disparities in health care, even when insurance status, income, age, and severity of conditions were comparable. Causes for these disparities included bias, stereotyping, prejudice, and clinical uncertainty on the part of health care providers. Betancourt et al. (2013) found that provider–patient communication, clinical decision-making, and mistrust are the three main causes of racial and ethnic disparities in the U.S.

Limited Patient-Provider Communication

A productive relationship between a patient and a physician is a partnership that recognizes and values the unique perspective of each participant. Because reciprocal influences exist in communication, poor communication between patient and doctor can affect the quality of the relationship and, thus, the quality of care. Limited-English proficiency and other sociocultural elements can influence how patients recognize symptoms, their thresholds for seeking care, understanding of management strategies, expectations of care (including preferences for diagnoses and treatment), and adherence to preventive measures and medications. Limited English-speaking patients discharged from hospital emergency rooms are less likely than their English-speaking counterparts to understand their diagnoses, prescribed medications,

Table 2. Family income of medical school matriculants, 2019–2021

Matriculation Year	Annual Family Income				
	Less Than $50,000	$50,000–$74,999	$75,000–$99,999	$100,000–199,999	$200,000 or More
2019	14.0	10.4	8.8	31.3	24.4
2020	13.9	9.3	8.5	32.2	36.1
2021	14.3	9.8	8.7	30.9	35.3

special instructions, and plans for follow-up care; and these types of patients are more likely to report problems with their care and tend to be less satisfied with their providers (Betancourt et al., 2013; Fields et al., 2016; Pérez-Stable & El-Toukhy, 2018).

There is increasing evidence that minority patients receive lower quality interpersonal care than their White counterparts (Aelbrecht et al., 2019; Cooper et al., 2006; Pérez-Stable & El-Toukhy, 2018). In a review and perspective on the literature, Cooper et al. (2006) explored the role of clinician–patient relationships and social interactions across racial and ethnic differences in health care. In direct observation of communication behaviors, White physicians have been shown to exhibit less nonverbal attention, empathy, courtesy, and information-giving in their interactions with their African American patients. They also spent less time providing health education and answering questions, and they tended to demonstrate a more patronizing and negative tone than with White patients.

More recently, research by Albrecht et al. (2019) found a significant effect regarding patients' language proficiency and educational level, where patients with lower language proficiencies were more likely to experience negative interactions with their physicians. They also found that patients who had a greater chance of having a positive patient-physician interaction were more likely to be higher educated. Pérez-Stable and El-Toukhy (2018) and others have suggested that targeted interventions are needed to facilitate shared decision-making, improve patient-clinician communication, and reduce implicit biases.

Clinical Decision-Making

Clinical decision-making can also be impacted by non-medical factors, ranging from the patient's physical appearance to the physical setting in which medical care is delivered, to the patient's age, gender, socioeconomic status (SES), race or ethnicity, language proficiency, and insurance status. These factors can affect trust, which is a crucial element in the patient-provider relationship. Even among medical students, demographic characteristics including SES have been found to impact their attitudes toward patient-centered care and the quality and style of care that they later provide as physicians (Hardeman et al., 2015). Research findings suggest positive, patient-centered attitudes among lower-SES students may result from low-income students' experience of the privilege gap in medicine (Hardeman et al., 2015).

When physicians do not understand the communities they serve, this could result in differences in care, for example, in how pain is managed. Studies have shown that some patient populations are more likely to be undertreated when their pain is being managed than others, and patient race and ethnicity have been associated with these disparities in care. Citron and Morrison (2006) conducted a meta-analysis of 35 journal articles describing the effect of patient race and ethnicity on pain assessment and management. The authors found that African American and Hispanic patients were more likely to have their pain underestimated by providers, less likely to receive opioid pain medications, and more likely to have their pain undertreated compared to White patients. They also found differences in how physicians prescribed pain medication based on patient race or ethnicity as well as across care settings, including emergency departments, post-operative care, ambulatory care, and nursing homes. While deaths have recently increased among all population groups for users of synthetic opioids, that increase has not been correlated with differences in opioid prescribing rates (Lippold et al., 2019).

Mistrust

Healthcare is an extremely personal endeavor, and people—when given the option—will seek care from someone with whom they identify and can trust. Mistrust between people of color and health care providers is based on the historical factors of discrimination, segregation, and unethical treatment during medical research and other instances of maltreatment. Lack of trust causes the research enterprise to be skewed in favor of majority groups, as people of color are less likely to participate in clinical trials. This reluctance can be attributed to a legacy of distrust based on unethical treatment in government research studies. Examples include the Tuskegee Syphilis Experiment, which observed the untreated disease in 600 African American men, starting in 1932, for 40 years (Branson et al., 2007, Corbie-Smith et al., 2002; Graham, 2007); and the human radiation experiments on Native Americans and Alaska Natives between 1944 and 1974 (Hodge, 2012; Pacheco et al., 2013). Intersecting systems of race and power also manifest with unethical procedures such as the involuntary sterilizations of young Native American and Latin American women, as well as socioeconomically disadvantaged people of all races and genders, and other such infringements on human rights (Eeckhaut, 2020; Ghandakly & Fabi, 2021; Pacheco et al., 2013).

Studies continue to show that patterns of trust in the health care system differ by race and often reflect divergent cultural experiences, with minorities and non-English speakers having lower levels of trust in the system (Boulware et al., 2016; Sullivan, 2020). On the other hand, the benefits of patient-physician concordance have been well documented. Infant mortality is reduced in half when African American newborns are cared for by African American physicians rather than White physicians (Greenwood et al., 2020). African American men with high blood pressure (systolic reading over 140 Hg) improved their blood pressure to normal levels after a community-based intervention in which barbers encouraged meetings in their barbershops with specialty-trained pharmacists under a collaborative practice with the participants' physicians (Victor et al., 2018). Finally, Alsan et al. (2021) demonstrated the value of concordant messaging during the COVID-19 pandemic in a randomized control trial of 14,000 African American and Latin American participants. The study demonstrated that the messenger's racial identity affected the receivers' approach to COVID-19 health literacy and has important vaccine-related implications.

Military Healthcare

The U.S. military has been an all-volunteer force (AVF) since 1973, and active-duty military members are also entitled to universal healthcare with no out-of-pocket costs. The Military Health System (MHS) has a unique mission of ensuring that America's military personnel are healthy, maintaining a ready medical force in support of operational forces around the world, and delivering medical benefits to approximately 9.5 million beneficiaries (Tanielian & Farmer, 2019). Within the MHS, each of the military services has the responsibility to provide healthcare services to its uniformed members. Military beneficiaries, who are largely cared for by military providers, tend to report a different experience in the quality of their healthcare compared to their civilian peers—or even their family members.

In an exploratory analysis of the Department of Defense (DOD) health care program called TRICARE, which provides health care coverage to members of the military services and their dependents, a higher proportion of TRICARE beneficiaries reported good-to-excellent health status when compared to national norms (Bagchi et al., 2009; Cosgrove et al., 2020). In examining apparent disparities in health status, access to—and satisfaction with—care, and use of preventive care, these beneficiaries often received more equitable care than the nation. Physicians are the point of care, and these studies show that patients tend to respond more positively to physicians who represent their values, who they trust, and with whom they can communicate. This recognizes that shared characteristics have the potential to create opportunities for cultural understanding. It also implies that lacking shared characteristics may have negative health implications that can result in health care disparities.

It should be noted that there is a paucity of studies that explore the satisfaction level of the active-duty military population. While several research studies have focused on military family members as well as military veterans, these are separate sub-groups of beneficiaries with vastly different health needs (Cosgrove et al., 2020; Hero et al., 2020; Seshadri et al., 2019).

ADVOCATING FOR A DIVERSE HEALTHCARE WORKFORCE

While professional medical organizations—such as the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC)—and other diversity advocates strive to have a medical profession that reflects the population of the U.S. in terms of demographics, success has been limited. Significant health disparities persist among minority populations, people of underprivileged socioeconomic classes, and those living in disadvantaged metropolitan and rural communities (Marrast et al., 2014). Health disparities are preventable differences in the burden of disease, injury, violence, or opportunities to achieve optimal health that are experienced by socially disadvantaged populations.

Disadvantaged Communities

Researchers have found that a shortage of physicians practicing in communities where disadvantaged patients live is a major contributor to disparities in access to care for racial and ethnic minorities, uninsured patients, poor patients, Medicaid recipients, and non-English speakers. For example, less than 10% of the nation's physicians practice in rural areas while one-fifth (20%) of the population resides outside metropolitan areas (MacQueen et al., 2018; Weinhold & Gurtner, 2014). Additionally, researchers note that non-White physicians provide a disproportionate share of care to underserved populations (Xierali & Nivet, 2018).

This problem could be exacerbated in the future, as the AAMC reported an increasing shortage of between 37,000 and 124,000 physicians in the next 12 years (AAMC, 2021g). Furthermore, studies show while family physicians—the most widely and proportionally distributed of the physician specialties—are increasingly diverse, they are still unable to meet the demand of a progressively disparate population, particularly in an era of insurance expansion that disproportionately affects minority patients (Xierali et al., 2014; Xierali & Nivet, 2018). Physicians from minority groups are more likely to treat patients of low SES, those covered by Medicaid, and those who are uninsured. Minority physicians are more likely than non-minority physicians to return to practice in underserved areas where the patient population is primarily low-income and uninsured or underinsured. Additionally, a considerable body of research has established the preference of minority patients for minority physicians, regardless of practice location or other geographic issues.

Cultural Connections

Betancourt et al. (2003) postulated that health care requires an understanding of the communities being served as well as the sociocultural impacts on individual patients' health beliefs and behaviors. The authors argued that this type of care acknowledges and integrates the importance of culture, assessment of cross-cultural relations, awareness of the dynamics that result from cultural differences, expansion of cultural knowledge, and adaptation of services to meet culturally unique needs (Betancourt et al., 2003; Truong et al., 2014). Furthermore, culturally relevant care requires that providers understand how these factors interact with the health care system in ways that may prevent diverse populations from obtaining quality health care. Physicians who are from similar cultural backgrounds are often able to identify better with the supported population and help develop strategies to reduce and monitor potential barriers through interventions.

Promoting Diversity in Medicine

The case for promoting diversity in medicine is based on a substantial body of evidence; the Institute of Medicine (2003) cited four main reasons.

1. **Improved Access:** Greater diversity among health care professionals leads to improved access to care for racial and ethnic minority patients, increased patient satisfaction, and better patient-clinician communication.
2. **Sound Business Sense:** Having a health care workforce that is culturally and linguistically attuned to the increasing diversity of the nation's health care consumers makes good business sense, as a staff that is reflective of one's customers allows management to better anticipate the needs of—and deal with—individuals from diverse backgrounds.
3. **Compensation for Previous Discrimination:** A civil rights case could be made that special programs in health professions schools are an appropriate recourse to compensate for the previous lack of opportunity for minorities in recognition of the nation's legacy of racially segregated educational institutions and health care facilities.
4. **Enhanced student learning:** In the higher education environment, diversity in the student body is correlated with enhanced student learning and contribution to group processes. This argument is based on evidence that college students of all ethnicities perform better on several measures of intellectual and civic development when there is racial and ethnic diversity among the student body.

Diversity in the Classroom

Diversity in the classroom is especially important for educators as it has been shown to positively impact educational outcomes for all students (Anderson, 2008; Gurin et al., 2002; Gurin et al., 2003; Smith et al., 1997; National Research Council, 2011). Anderson (2008) noted that indicators of organizational commitment to diversity would vary among educational institutions since colleges and universities differ in terms of their character, processes, and practices. Nevertheless, he stressed the importance of setting diversity targets that include increased student diversity, noting that the inclusion of diversity and globalization in disciplinary work contributes to the research agendas of individual faculty and their departments, aligns with scholarly values, and promotes student learning. Smith et al. (1997) wrote that diversity initiatives positively affect both minority and non-minority students in terms of student attitudes toward racial issues, institutional satisfaction, and academic growth. The National Research Council (2011), a coalition of educators and scientists, wrote that diversity was both a resource for and strength of our society and economy.

Learning from peers with different perspectives helps students gain a higher level of reasoning. Although educators have long argued for the educational benefits of diversity, their arguments tended to lack empirical evidence to support their claims. Gurin et al. (2003) published a seminal study that provided evidence of diversity's impact on educational outcomes. The researchers posited that there are three levels of diversity in student bodies: structural, informal interactional, and classroom. They defined *structural diversity* as the simple numerical representation of diverse groups. Structural diversity increases the likelihood that students will encounter others of diverse backgrounds but does not guarantee that the interactions will be meaningful. *Informal interactional diversity* generally occurs outside the classroom, and *classroom diversity* provides maximum benefit as it facilitates the engagement of diverse peers in college classrooms (Gurin et al., 2002; Gurin et al., 2003). Table 3 shows the three levels of diversity and the interactions supported by each level.

The evidence for this theory is based on students' subjective assessments of the benefits they receive from interacting with diverse peers, faculty assessments about the impact of diversity on student learning, analysis of graduation rates and post-graduation achievements, and analyses linking diversity experiences to a variety of educational outcomes (Green, 2018). These results have been corroborated in studies, such as the quantitative analysis conducted by Pike and Kuh (2006). The study was designed to enhance understanding of the relationships between structural diversity and the campus environment as mediated by informal interactional diversity. The researchers used institutional data concerning informal interactional diversity and student perceptions of the campus environment from the National Survey of Student Engagement survey (these were based on student responses to the survey). Data mining about institutional characteristics and student diversity indicated that a diverse student population is associated with higher levels of interaction among diverse groups of students.

Additional research further investigated the relationship between experiences with diversity and the ways students view themselves. Nelson Laird (2005) investigated academic self-confidence and social agency to capture aspects of students' identities that Gurin et al. (2003) examined. Nelson Laird's study explored the relationship among students' experiences with diversity at a single point in time. The results of this study conducted at the University of Michigan indicated that students (n = 289) who had more experiences with diversity, particularly those who had enrolled in diversity courses and had positive interactions with diverse peers, were more likely to score higher on academic self-confidence, social agency, and critical thinking disposition. Additionally, the study provided evidence that diverse experiences may foster the development of certain aspects of oneself.

Diverse classrooms help create the conditions that lead students to experience diversity in ways that would not occur in a more homogeneous student body. These types of environments facilitate intellectual engagement and motivation as well as growth in intellectual and academic skills. Educating medical students in diverse classrooms allows them to better understand different needs, experiences, and perspectives; this results in a richer learning experience for all students. These experiences can then be leveraged to increase the *cultural humility* of the physician population (Truong et al., 2014; Masters et al., 2019).

Cultural humility is a lifelong commitment to evaluating one's treatment of others with a view to redressing power imbalances and developing mutually beneficial and non-paternalistic partnerships with people and communities (Masters et al., 2019). This is particularly important in an environment where

Table 3. Three levels of diversity

Diversity Interactions		
Level of Diversity	**Engagement**	**Impact**
Structural	Simple numerical representation of diverse groups.	• Increases the probability that students will encounter others of diverse backgrounds. • Encounters between students of diverse backgrounds. • Does not guarantee meaningful interactions.
Informal	• Occurs outside the classroom. • Daily interactions in residence halls, campus events, and social activities.	• Provides opportunities to interact with diverse peers. • Encourages active thinking and civic engagement.
Classroom	• Engagement of diverse peers in the classroom.	• Facilitates intellectual engagement. • Facilitates intellectual growth.

health professionals are relied on to care for patients from increasingly diverse backgrounds, often during their most vulnerable moments. Tervalon and Murray-Garcia (1998) stressed that *culture* should not be limited to dimensions like racial or ethnic identity but should include additional factors such as socioeconomic background and other aspects of identity. Masters et al. (2019) reminded clinicians that implicit or unconscious biases are omnipresent and that it is important to raise awareness of that reality. The practice of cultural humility acknowledges a lifelong commitment to self-evaluation and advocacy for others. This process recognizes the shifting nature of intersecting identities and encourages ongoing curiosity rather than an endpoint. It helps to reduce implicit bias, promotes empathy, and helps the provider acknowledge and respect the patient's individuality.

There is a clear link between culturally relevant health care and improved patient outcomes. Being aware of one's own values and beliefs and learning how to respect and tolerate cultural differences can minimize potentially negative consequences of physicians' biases which can be manifested in the way they interact with their patients as well as in clinical decision-making. Lesser health outcomes may result when sociocultural differences between patients and providers are not reconciled in the clinical encounter. A diverse physician workforce could therefore be the first line of effort in breaking down the barriers that lead to health care disparities.

THE STATE OF U.S. EDUCATION

Educational attainment is a powerful determinant of social and economic capital, and educational attainment among U.S. minorities has long been an area of concern. The area of health care education is one of significant concern as the proportion of minorities in the health professions is significantly lower than their occurrence in the population at large (AAMC, 2013; Grumbach & Mendoza, 2008; Harris et al., 2012; Nivet, 2015; Xierali & Nivet, 2018; Xierali et al., 2014).

Education and Merit

America is known as a country where people are free to achieve success on their own merit. Education has remained one of those means, but that route has not been equally available to everyone. The American education system was purposely designed to be different from the European system, in which education past the elementary school level was reserved for society's elite or the nobility. A meritocratic system was designed to reflect the call to ensure access to those who demonstrate competence rather than award positions through nepotism, inheritance, or bribery. The system is intended to reward those who are most deserving but has evolved into one in which people fall into two groups: those who are able to achieve education through meritocracy and those who struggle to attain it based on the social order of things.

Meritocracy

Young (1958) coined the term *meritocracy* in his work of fiction titled *The Rise of the Meritocracy*. It underlies the prevalent belief that success in school and work is and should be determined by one's talents and efforts. The word *merit* itself is fluid, historically a concept that has been socially constructed to reflect the values and interests of those with the power to institutionalize certain ideals and values (Liu, 2011; Meroe, 2014; Mijs, 2016). The meritocratic system is antithetical to the traditional claims to power by the aristocracy and was geared towards social equality (Meroe, 2014). Meritocracy undergirds the ideology of the *American Dream*, to which Hochschild (1995) subscribed, that individuals can succeed because of their independent decisions and actions. Additionally, Hochschild suggested that this success is based upon moral virtue and is equally available to everyone regardless of origin or social identity.

Mijs (2016) proposed that meritocracy provides the basis for the allocation of rewards for achievement. He referred to achievement as a function of natural ability and effort, expressed as the formula $M = I + E$, where M is *merit*, I is natural *endowments*, *intelligence,* or *IQ*, and E is *effort.* Institutions in the U.S. educational system are therefore expected to serve as incubators where exceptional ability and talent are identified and nurtured. Internal and external factors such as racial and ethnic background, gender, and SES are ostensibly held in abeyance as natural abilities, and consistent high performance determines a continually self-correcting and just social order (Meroe, 2014). Educational achievement and outcomes are perceived as key elements in defining merit, and many assume that education improves one's chances for gainful employment and is, therefore, the most transparent means for social mobility.

*Do Intelligence and Effort Equal Merit (*I + E = M*)?*

Some advocates of meritocracy have argued that academic talent is equally dispersed throughout the population regardless of SES. Therefore, an academically promising student from a modest family is presumed to have more opportunities afforded to them than an academically underachieving student from a wealthy family (Lardier et al., 2019; Meroe, 2014). By consistently investing an equal amount of educational opportunities in each child beginning in early childhood, social institutions can more objectively select those who best qualify for advanced education and leadership positions. This is not the case, however: although opportunities sometimes arise among a small subpopulation of lower- and middle-SES groups, academic access and performance in the U.S. are strongly influenced by social class.

Children from affluent families are more likely to begin school with greater stores of cultural capital, attend better-resourced schools, and have a wider range of academic support and extracurricular activities available to them (Lardier et al., 2019; Meroe, 2014). Additionally, even within the same school district, it is not unusual for educational opportunities, quality of academic staff, SES of the student body, and school environments to vary. In contrast to European and Asian nations that fund schools centrally and equally, funding varies across states in the U.S., with the top states spending upwards of 50% more and

Table 4. Percentages of recent high school graduates enrolled in college, by income level, 2014–2017

Matriculation Year	Total Enrolled	Income Level		
		Low Income	Middle Income	High Income
2014	68.4	57.8	63.6	83.6
2015	69.2	69.2	62.2	83.2
2016	69.8	65.2	65.0	82.6

the bottom states providing 30% less than the national average of $15,114 per pupil—even after adjusting for regional cost differences (Farrie et al., 2019).

Equality of Opportunity

One dimension of merit is based on equality of opportunity. This idea posits that if anyone who has the relevant qualifications can participate, then everyone has an equal opportunity to compete for rewards (Liu, 2011). Liu also suggests another perspective that levels the playing field, allowing for a *fair meritocracy*, in which social and cultural inequalities are moderated by equal educational opportunities, certain redistributive strategies, and other social reforms. Aspiring college students need a solid foundation of courses and extracurricular activities to be competitive applicants, and many from low-income families are simply at a disadvantage.

Students who attend schools with a college-preparatory emphasis are already conversant with the norms and values of the admissions process and have the support structures needed to ease the transition to college. High school students who attend schools without a college-preparatory foundation have a more difficult transition. College outreach programs can be helpful in establishing the structure to assist these types of students and in mitigating the inequality of opportunity that exists (Liu, 2011). These types of supportive programs are run by state and federal governments, colleges and universities, and private foundations, and they require funding to operate.

Education Costs

The education gap is also broadening, and it appears to be tied to one's financial standing. One of the reasons for America's educational stagnation is purported to be the high cost of a postsecondary education, which—unlike high school costs—families must bear largely on their own. These costs are also higher than any other advanced nation. Recent high school graduates from the highest quintile of SES are 50% more likely to enroll in college than those in the lowest quintile (Hanson, 2021). For example, in 2019, 78% of high school graduates from families in the highest income quintile were enrolled in postsecondary education, compared to 28% of their lowest-SES peers (Irwin et al., 2021). The most recent data available from the *Digest of Education Statistics* (National Center for Education Statistics, 2021) show family income levels of recent high school graduates enrolled in college from 2014 to 2016 (Table 4). The table shows a disparity in enrollment between low- and high-income graduates ranging between 17% and 25%.

On another note, college enrollment rates for URM populations have generally been increasing. The enrollment rate for Latin Americans aged 18 to 24 rose from 26% in 2008 to 36% in 2018, and for

African Americans of the same age group and timeframe from 32% to 37% (although the 2018 percentage for African Americans reflects a decrease since 2011; Irwin et al., 2021). The rate for White 18- to 24-year-olds in 2018 (42%) was two percentage points lower than in 2008 (44%). The Pell Institute for the Study of Opportunity in Higher Education and the Alliance for Higher Education and Democracy at the University of Pennsylvania (2022) showed that the costs of college attendance continue to rise, and college completion continues to be further out of reach for low-income students and some students of color.

Diversity Challenges and Efforts in Higher Education

For much of this nation's history, racist laws and policies simply excluded minorities from higher education institutions. It was only within the last century that these opportunities became available to the masses.

Legal Challenges to Diversity Efforts

Starting in the Civil Rights era (i.e., the 1950s and later), advocates and other leaders made concerted efforts to make higher education opportunities more accessible to minorities; however, legal challenges over the years have caused many institutions to abandon programs that gave—or appeared to give—preferences to minorities. With the landmark U.S. Supreme Court (USSC) case *Regents of University of California v. Bakke* (1978), more recently *Fisher v. University of Texas* (2016), and continuing today, the discourse continues to reflect the various viewpoints. With the USSC's decision that it was constitutional to consider race as one factor in a holistic review of an applicant, ambivalence by some, resistance by others, and advocacy by yet others, the debate continues.

Programs to Increase Diversity in Medical School

These ongoing issues necessitate that educational leaders make a concerted effort to recruit and matriculate a diverse population of medical students. Over the years, educational leaders have implemented various programs to make medical education programs more accessible to diverse populations. These programs include academic partnerships, education programs, and holistic admission practices, which aim to increase the percentage of candidates who ordinarily would not be able to achieve the goal of becoming physicians.

Academic Partnerships

Partnerships between medical schools and undergraduate or secondary schools help increase the diversity of medical schools. These types of programs recognize the roles medical school personnel can play as interventionists in helping to diversify medical schools. Medical schools provide resources to engage students in science and research activities that include inquiry-based science education outside the classroom (Afghani et al., 2013; Henry-Noel et al., 2019; South-Paul et al., 2013). Depending on the availability of resources, partnerships can be far-reaching. Medical school staff and faculty can visit undergraduate institutions to cultivate and enhance support relationships with premedical advisors. Additionally, students of undergraduate institutions could complete summer or post-baccalaureate work at medical schools. Medical school faculty can also serve as role models and mentors to students who aspire to enter careers in medicine (South-Paul et al., 2013; Winkleby et al., 2009). Henry-Noel et al. (2019) noted that these types of partnerships could lay valuable groundwork for the future medical careers of URM students.

Mentoring Programs

Mentoring is recognized as one of the most important factors in determining career success in medicine. An effective mentoring relationship can drive aspiring physicians' goals to fruition by providing support so that opportunistic risks can be taken and failures can be reevaluated into learning experiences (Ortega et al., 2018). Mentorship has such importance that both the Liaison Committee on Medical Education (LCME) and the Accreditation Council for Graduate Medical Education (ACGME) made it mandatory in medical education. Moreover, mentoring can play a significant role in helping to diversify the academic medicine workforce (Ortega et al., 2018; Afghani et al., 2013).

Innovative enrichment programs have used cascading mentorship that enhances the teaching and leadership skills of mentors and mentees at multiple levels. Cascading mentorship models can transfer knowledge and skills from faculty to medical students to undergraduate students and finally to high school students (Afghani et al., 2013; South-Paul et al., 2013; Winkleby et al., 2009). These types of programs can promote an inclusive climate by providing academic and social support to students at different levels of education and from a variety of backgrounds. The benefits of mentoring are not limited to the mentee but also extend to the mentor with respect to professional satisfaction and institutional recognition.

Education Programs

Formal education programs can provide structure to help aspiring medical students complete the pre-medical requirements or improve their undergraduate records in preparation for the medical school application process. These targeted programs can channel students directly to medical school seats at the sponsoring school or prepare them for admission to other medical schools. These programs are often referred to as pipeline programs because they serve as an educational pipeline to carry promising candidates to medical school and beyond.

Post-Baccalaureate Programs

Some institutions have designed and implemented post-baccalaureate programs specifically to provide opportunities for minorities and students from disadvantaged backgrounds to enter medicine. Michigan State University College of Human Medicine (MSUCHM) established a post-baccalaureate program in which participants who successfully completed the program requirements were offered conditional admittance to the school of medicine (Lipscomb et al., 2009). The program focused on developing educational skills to enhance student success in a rigorous medical school curriculum. An 18-year retrospective analysis of the program showed that 167 (94%) of the participants successfully completed the post-baccalaureate program, met the standards set by the MSUCHM Committee on Admissions, and ultimately matriculated on to medical school (Lipscomb et al., 2009). More recently, a retrospective study of a 50-year post-baccalaureate program at Wayne State University's School of Medicine—the oldest PBPM in the nation—showed that 85.9% of the attendees (463 out of 539) completed the program and matriculated to medical school and 86.6% (401) graduated as physicians (Smitherman et al., 2021).

Undergraduate Pipeline Programs

There is a paucity of scholarly literature concerning undergraduate programs because not many medical schools sponsor these types of programs for the long term. The Baylor College of Medicine (BCM) is one notable exception that has a long history of educational outreach, including an undergraduate pipeline program. The BCM began to partner with educational institutions and school districts in South Texas in 1983 to address the shortage of physicians and students academically prepared to enter the medical profession (Thomson et al., 2010). This partnership included the establishment of the Premedical Honors College (PHC), which targets students from a medically underserved and predominantly Latin American region of the state, including the Texas-Mexico border. Students in the program receive scholarship enrichment experiences and academic support while undergoing a rigorous undergraduate curriculum (Thompson et al., 2010). Participants receive conditional acceptance to the BCM on successful completion of the BS degree in biology or chemistry. A total of 242 students participated in the PHC between 1994 and 2008; 134 (87%) completed the undergraduate portion of the program and matriculated to medical schools in Texas. Additionally, an undergraduate pipeline program at Southern Illinois University School of Medicine graduated 488 students from 1995 to 2009, and 92.2% matriculated to medical school (Metz, 2017).

Holistic Admission Programs

Medical school admissions committees are responsible for offering medical school seats to the right blend of candidates from a myriad of prospects who submit medical school applications. Committee members must evaluate the whole person in making an admission decision, and this responsibility recognizes that standardized test scores and undergraduate grade point averages are not sufficient to determine the applicants' qualities and suitability for the practice of medicine. The Holistic Review Admissions Process (HRAP) is a different way for admissions committees to determine which applicants would gain admission to their medical education program (Addams et al., 2010; AAMC, 2022; Nivet, 2015; Thomas & Dockter, 2019).

Holistic review is defined as a flexible, individualized way of assessing an applicant's capabilities by which balanced consideration is given to that individual's experiences, attributes, and academic metrics and, when considered in combination, how the individual might contribute value as a medical student and physician (AAMC, 2022; Nakae et al., 2021; Thomas & Dockter, 2019). A holistic review must be clearly linked to the school's mission and goals. Therefore, admissions committees that use the HRAP consider each applicant's race as one of many attributes along with other elements of diversity, such as educational background, languages spoken, resilience, SES, and geographic background (Addams et al., 2010; Thomas & Dockter, 2019). Health professions education programs that have adopted a holistic review process reported an 81% increase in diversity (variously defined by schools) in their incoming classes (Nakae et al., 2021).

DIVERSITY

Although often used synonymously, diversity is not restricted simply to race and ethnicity. Nivet (2015) urged the academic medicine community to look more broadly at the meaning of diversity and not to limit the definition to racial composition. Other elements, such as educational background, languages spoken, resilience, SES, and geographic background, are measures of diversity and often impact where and how medical school graduates eventually practice medicine (Addams et al., 2010).

Linking Diversity to Mission

Nivet (2015) urged medical school leaders to articulate their specific missions so that applicants and students understand their institution's philosophy and approach to training health care professionals. This emphasis on vision and purpose permits schools to appeal to applicants who share their ideals and will help them achieve their missions. It also helps to ensure training and education in professions that will meet community needs in specific specialties and geographic areas.

Diversity in the U.S. Military

Like its civilian counterparts, the military physician population also suffers from a lack of diversity. This is a long-standing problem that has been reflected in the student demographics of the USU School of Medicine, which trains 25% of all military physicians. Historically, the URM student population at USU has been below their prevalence in the nation (AAMC, 2021d; USU, 2021b). On the other hand, the demographics of the U.S. military—which has been an AVF since 1973—are quite reflective of the nation (except for gender). Enlisted service members—comprising 82.3% of the U.S. military—most closely represent the U.S. in terms of their racial or ethnic demographics, socioeconomic background, and life experiences (Berryman, 2021; Department of Defense, 2021). Figure 1 shows the demographics of the U.S. compared with that of the enlisted population and the medical student population.

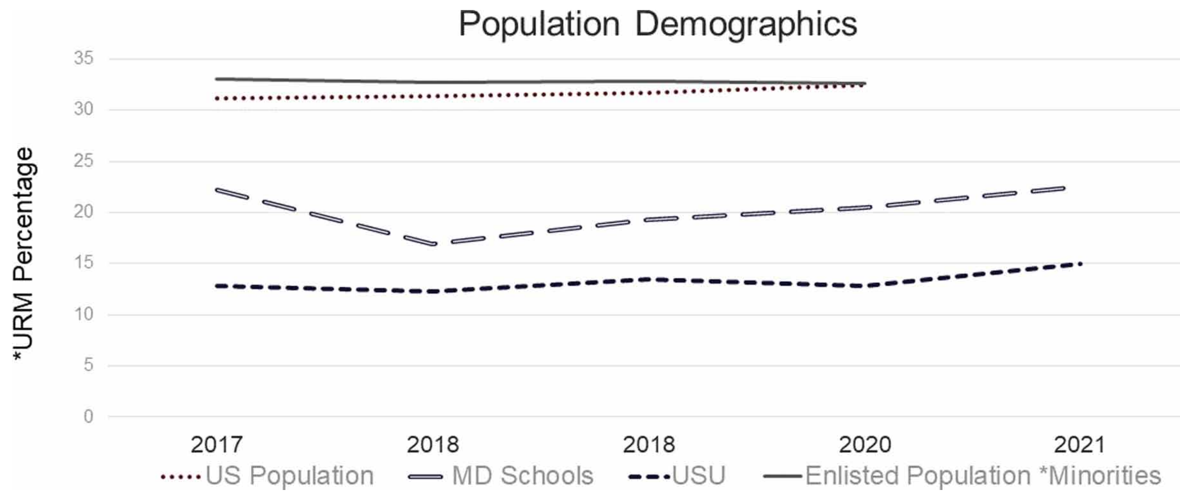
UNIFORMED SERVICES UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF MEDICINE

The Uniformed Services University School of Medicine has a unique mission to provide dedicated and committed health professionals to the uniformed services, the DoD's beneficiaries, and the American warfighter (USU, 2021a). As the nation's only federally funded medical school, USU has the responsibility of training physicians who are able to serve across the United States and around the world; interact with individuals of different geographic origins, race, ethnicity, and SES; and provide care under the most extreme and austere conditions. The mission and vision statements of the university and the School of Medicine reflect this charge. Developed in collaboration with the internal and external stakeholders, the common theme of these statements is a commitment to provide professionals who are ready to provide quality care in war and peace, anywhere across the globe. One of USU's strategic objectives seeks to maintain the highest level of education while addressing diversity, equity, and inclusion (USU, 2021a).

Diversity in medical schools has been a sustained challenge despite many efforts to make improvements. For this reason, the Liaison Committee on Medical Education (LCME, 2022), the main accrediting body for U.S. medical schools, has a standard that:

A medical school has effective policies and practices in place, and engages in ongoing, systematic, and focused recruitment and retention activities, to achieve mission-appropriate diversity outcomes among its students, faculty, senior administrative staff, and other relevant members of its academic community.

Figure 1. Demographics of the U.S., Military-enlisted, U.S. allopathic medical schools, and USU



These activities include the use of programs and/or partnerships aimed at achieving diversity among qualified applicants for medical school admission and the evaluation of program and partnership outcomes. (Standard 3, Section 3.3)

The Enlisted to Medical Degree Preparatory Program

Medical school is the gateway for new physicians; therefore, medical school leaders have a responsibility to continue to seek strategies to increase the diversity of their student populations and, ultimately, the physician workforce. The Enlisted to Medical Degree Preparatory Program (EMDP2) was implemented in 2014 to provide academically promising enlisted members with a pathway to medical school.

EMDP2 Supports USU's Mission

The EMDP2 is aimed at broadening diversity among qualified applicants for medical school admission by providing preparatory services for enlisted members who may not have taken traditional premedical coursework. The enlisted service members of the U.S. military are a diverse population and are representative of the U.S. in terms of their racial or ethnic demographics, socioeconomic background, and life experiences (AAMC, 2022; Figueroa, 2014; Department of Defense, 2021; Xierali et al., 2014). Research has shown that educating medical students in diverse classrooms benefits all students, as it allows them to better understand different perspectives and develop both intellectual and academic skills. Additionally, physicians who have similar backgrounds as their patients will be culturally and linguistically attuned to the military beneficiaries for whom they will ultimately provide care. Patients also tend to respond more positively to physicians who represent their values, whom they trust, and with whom they can communicate.

Successfully preparing and admitting these types of service members provides multiple benefits. First, the EMDP2 extends opportunities for a medical education to a nontraditional population—one for whom medical school is typically out of reach. Second, admitting these students to the medical school enhances not only the diversity of the student body but also contributes to an increased understanding of different perspectives and group processes. Third, the program benefits the military services, as EMDP2 graduates will return to their respective services as practicing physicians after completion of their graduate medical education programs. This PBPM supports the university's mission and also meets the accreditation requirement.

Program Concept

EMDP2 candidates must be enlisted with a college degree to qualify for the program. The military does not require enlisted members to have a college degree when they enlist. Therefore, many come to the military directly from high school and later earn their college degree by enrolling in higher education classes which are taken after regular duty hours, during global deployments, and at multiple geographically different duty stations. As of 2021, 9% of active-duty enlisted members had earned a bachelor's degree or higher ($n = 98{,}927$) (Department of Defense, 2021). EMDP2 is intended to be a two-year program through which a population rich in underserved minorities, different socioeconomic backgrounds, and experiences are provided the guidance and mentorship they require to be competitive applicants to medical school.

Program Design

The EMDP2 is the first post-baccalaureate premedical program (PBPM) in the Department of Defense (Green et al., 2021). Academically promising enlisted service members compete for selection to this enrichment program that assists students in making the social and intellectual transition from undergraduate studies to medical school and beyond. The EMDP2 is designed using elements of successful premedical programs. It is an academic partnership, it is an education program, and it uses the holistic admission process (see Figure 2). It also uses Tinto's framework of student persistence to assure student success.

Selection Process

The EMDP2 selection process was designed in close consultation with the military services (Army, Marines, Navy, and Air Force). Admission to the program is available only to promising service members who have demonstrated a commitment to military service and have developed embedded service values, cultures, and traditions. Candidates must also display the potential to succeed in an academically rigorous program. Candidates are required to submit application packets that include a summary of their service records, recommendation letters from commanders and supervisors, college transcripts, standardized test scores (SAT or ACT), a personal statement, and a description of experiences (USU, 2022a). This new application process was implemented in 2020.

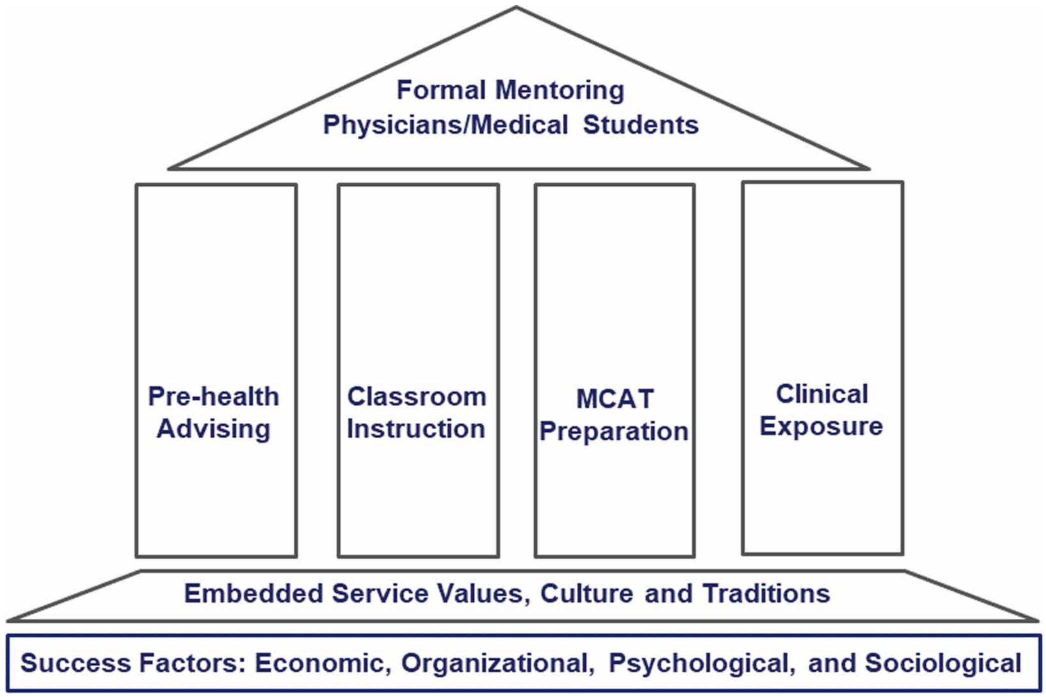
After applicant packets have been screened, the best-qualified applicants are selected for interviews. After undergoing two independent interviews, three admission committee members conduct a holistic review of the applicant's entire file. The final assessment is conducted by the full admissions committee, and then an admissions decision is made. Holistic review is used during each phase of the process. The holistic review evolved out of an appreciation that using standardized test scores and grade point averages was not sufficient to evaluate the qualities that applicants bring to their academic institution or the profession of medicine. This review balances the individual's experiences and attributes with their academic metrics.

Figure 2. EMDP2 Design

Program Structure

EMDP2 selectees are assigned to USU (Bethesda, MD) for the duration of the program, which is administered in two phases over a 22-month period. Although EMDP2 is built on a foundation of student support factors, students are expected to have been inculcated into the military service and have developed embedded service values, cultures, and traditions prior to their selection. Program elements include pre-health advising, classroom instruction, the Medical College Admission Test (MCAT) preparation, clinical exposure, and formal mentoring. The first three elements (pre-health advising, classroom instruction, and MCAT preparation) are delivered by USU's academic partner, George Mason University, at their Science and Technology Campus, located in Manassas, Virginia. All EMDP2 students are enrolled in the same courses together and the program of instruction is delivered in an exclusive cohort structure with dedicated George Mason faculty and graduate tutoring assistants. USU coordinates the mentoring program as well as the clinical component and administers portions of the pre-health advising. The first phase of EMDP2 is the undergraduate year, and the second phase is the graduate year. Figure 3 depicts the structure of the EMDP2.

Figure 3. EMDP2 Structure



Classroom Instruction

Although no medical school requires a specific academic major for its applicants, most schools recognize the importance of a strong foundation in mathematics and the natural sciences—biology, chemistry, and physics—and have established minimum course requirements for admission (AAMC, 2021c). These courses usually represent about one-third of the credit hours needed for an undergraduate degree. Therefore, the first year of the EMDP2 curriculum focuses on providing the courses that most U.S. medical schools require. Tables 6 and 7 of the Appendix details the courses for each year.

Medical College Admission Test Preparation

In addition to science coursework, the undergraduate year concentrates on preparing students for the MCAT. The MCAT is a standardized multiple-choice test designed to assess applicants' problem-solving and critical thinking skills, as well as knowledge of natural, behavioral, and social science concepts and principles (AAMC, 2017). This exam tests the skills and knowledge that medical educators, physicians, medical students, and residents have identified as key prerequisites for success in medical school and beyond.

Clinical Exposure

The clinical component is another important element of the EMDP2. Aspiring medical students are encouraged to engage in a broad range of extracurricular activities as these can also help to develop essential core competencies. The AAMC suggests experience in a health care setting, such as in an environment where care is delivered to ill or elderly patients, working as an emergency medical technician, shadowing a physician, supporting people in a sexual assault crisis center or social service agency, or participating in basic or clinical research (AAMC, 2021c). These types of activities are beneficial as they not only provide students with opportunities to learn more about the medical profession and themselves, but they also allow the students to:

- Explore different interests.
- Evaluate different working environments.
- Understand the nature of medical practice and the daily demands placed on physicians.
- Assess their own ability to communicate and empathize with people from different backgrounds and cultures.
- Evaluate their willingness to put others' needs before their own.

Pre-Health Advising

Focused pre-health advising ensures that each EMDP2 student receives all the necessary administrative support for the medical school application process (Green, 2018). EMDP2 service members matriculate with a wide range of backgrounds, skills, and goals. Many have been away from the traditional educational setting for significant periods of time, and most are what can be called career changers. They can face challenges as they transition to a rigorous premedical program and are keenly aware of the competitive nature of admissions to medical school programs. Braxton et al. (2013) and Tinto (1975, 1993, 1997, 2006) stressed the importance of the work of institutions and leaders in student persistence. Pre-health advisors are well-informed about the success factors for medical school applicants and are part of this support structure (AAMC, 2021c).

Formal Mentoring

The integrated mentoring program links each student with two mentors—a medical student peer mentor and a physician mentor. This mentorship triad allows PBPM students to gather different perspectives on the medical school application process, medical school, and life as a military medical officer (Green, 2018). Mentorship is an important aspect of professional development in the health professions and can benefit both the mentee and mentor. Effective mentorship is known to have positive effects on career advancement, satisfaction, and retention (Moores et al., 2018).

Through successful mentorship, the mentee will experience personal growth and development, increased academic productivity, and career guidance and satisfaction while also being able to network within their field of interest (Henry-Noel et al., 2019). Good mentors can also help mentees avoid burnout (Henry-Noel et al., 2019, Jordan et al., 2019; Moores et al., 2018). A lack of mentoring, on the other hand, has been shown to hinder career progress and can often lead to the mentee leaving the institution or practice (Moores et al., 2018). The formal EMDP2 mentoring program provides students who have varying levels of academic ability with the opportunity to interact with, learn from, and be supported by role models in a student-centered environment.

- **Phase 1.** The undergraduate year of EMDP2 consists of premedical science coursework, clinical observer-ships, and pre-health advising, with mentoring by experienced physicians and medical student peer mentors. After a comprehensive orientation, the curriculum starts with a single five-week science course with a laboratory (four semester hours). This provides students a bridge to acclimatize them to a full-time academically rigorous science program. Students must complete all undergraduate courses by the end of the first year in the program so that they are ready to submit their medical school applications at that time.
- **Phase 2.** Phase two of EMDP2 is focused on preparing the students for their transition to medical school. During the second (graduate) year of the program, the entire course curriculum includes graduate-level science courses (see Appendix). These courses are intended to prepare the students for the rigors of the first year of medical school. The graduate year challenges students to demonstrate novel, innovative approaches to learning and to improve their study skills and strategies. The other elements of the program continue throughout the graduate year, and the schedule is flexible enough so that students have time to participate in multiple medical school interviews if required.

PROGRAM SUPPORT

The service members receive support throughout their tenure in the program based on Tinto's factors of student persistence (Braxton et al., 2013; Green, 2018; Tinto, 1975, 1993, 1997, 2006):

- **Economic:** Relates to the affordability of the college endeavor, and EMDP2 places no financial burden on the attendees. USU fully funds all academic costs for the EMDP2 (tuition, fees, textbooks), and the service members attend in an active-duty status. Active-duty status means the students continue to receive their military pay and benefits (including health insurance) while they participate in the program (Green, 2018).
- **Organizational:** Relates to how administrators, faculty, and staff implement their roles (Braxton et al., 2013; Green, 2018; Tinto, 1975, 1993, 1997, 2006). EMDP2 is structured to ensure students are placed in a supportive environment throughout their tenure in the program. Each matriculating EMDP2 class of students (≤ 25) attends courses in an exclusive cohort with dedicated faculty, tutors, and pre-health advisors. The military structure is maintained with USU providing the chain of command. There is an active support network with consistent cross-communication between academia, military, support, and staff activities (Green, 2018).
- **Psychological:** Emphasizes the student's academic aptitude, skills, and level of motivation (Braxton et al., 2013; Green, 2018; Tinto, 1975, 1993, 1997, 2006). Candidates must volunteer for the EMDP2, then undergo a rigorous screening and selection process to ensure that they meet or exceed the academic criteria, have an exceptional service record, and are committed to service as military health care professionals. The interview process further gauges the candidates' level of motivation for medicine, and while in the EMDP2, their performance is continually evaluated to determine their potential for success in medical school and beyond.
- **Sociological:** Relates to the influence of peers, family SES, and support from significant others (Braxton et al., 2013; Green, 2018; Tinto, 1975, 1993, 1997, 2006). Over 50% of active-duty enlisted members are married or single with children (Department of Defense, 2021), and military leaders are invested in keeping families together as much as possible. Service members who

are selected for EMDP2 are authorized for a government-sponsored move to USU (Bethesda, MD) and are encouraged to have their families accompany them for the duration of the program. The military team culture is maintained, and students support each other through informal study groups, social events, family support networks, and other means (Green, 2018). The formal mentorship program also provides the students with additional means for social development and support.

PROGRAM OUTCOMES

Eight classes have matriculated since the inception of the EMDP2 program in 2014 with a total of 163 students (i.e., $N = 163$), with 27.61% of the students identifying as URM ($n = 45$; see Table 5; USU EMDP2 Office, 2021). Of the 131 graduates, 93.13% ($n = 122$) have been accepted to medical school. As a result of this program, the percentage of prior enlisted medical students at USU has grown from 6% of the graduating class in 2014 to 16% of the matriculating class in 2021 (Uniformed Services University. (2022b). Table 5 shows enrollment and outcomes for the program.

EMDP2 students are also more diverse than traditional medical students. In addition to being increasingly URM, EMDP2 students are socioeconomically diverse. A 2018 study showed that over half of EMDP2 students came from families earning at or below the U.S. median income, with none in the top income quartile (Green, 2018). So far, EMDP2 graduates who have matriculated to medical school perform on a par with their peers. A 2021 study that examined the National Board of Medical Examiners (NBME) Clinical Science Subject Examination scores of EMDP2 graduates and their medical school peers found the performance of program graduates was comparable to their peers who followed more traditional and other alternative preparatory paths to medical school (Green et al., 2021).

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Further quantitative research would be useful to evaluate how EMDP2 students perform in medical school and beyond relative to their peers. Additional cohort studies that track the progress of EMDP2 students through the educational pipeline and then on to their tenure as physicians could provide valuable information on how their backgrounds and experiences impacted their careers. In addition to graduation and attrition rates, tracking and analyzing graduate medical education (residency) selections as well as follow-on military assignments—including leadership roles—would be valuable. Focused qualitative analysis may reveal more detail about features that cannot be expressed statistically and could lead to a deeper level of understanding of the student experience during the education program relative to success factors and challenges. These types of analyses could better inform educational leaders about the process this population of students undertook, and the applicants themselves may reveal more detail about features that cannot be expressed quantitatively, such as motivating factors, work practices, group dynamics, and support networks.

Table 5. EMDP2 enrollment and outcomes

Class	Enrolled in EMDP2	URM	Graduated From EMDP2	Accepted to Medical school	URM Accepted to Medical School	Physician Graduates
1 (2014)	10	2	10	9	2	9
2 (2015)	12	2	12	12	2	9[1]
3 (2016)	19	5	16	16	4	8[1]
4 (2017)	24	8	24	23	5	n/a
5 (2018)	23	5	22	21	4	n/a
6 (2019)	25	8	24	22	8	n/a
7 (2020)	25	6	23	19[2]	2[2]	n/a
8 (2021)	25	9	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Total	163	45	131	122	27	26

Note.
[1]Six students were still in medical school; one graduated as a physician assistant. [2] Acceptance data is incomplete for the 2022 admittance year (as of June 2022).

CONCLUSION

The EMDP2 provides the following theoretical implications for understanding how educational leaders can collaborate to improve diversity in medicine.

- Although this program is led by the Uniformed Services University, leaders across the Department of Defense, including four military services—Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps—have committed to supporting their service members for two years while they participate in this educational opportunity. This is a clear understanding that this program is of significant value, and participants are not tasked with other military requirements so that their academic duties become the priority.
- Leaders from across the military services, as well as the civilian partner institution—currently George Mason University—collaborate on designing a curriculum that meets the needs of this special program.
- Military health system leaders—including commanders and directors of military treatment facilities—contribute by supporting the clinical observer-ship program.
- Physician faculty and medical students volunteer and participate in the mentorship program with the support of their leadership.
- Planners and leaders at all levels ensure resources—including staffing and funding—are programmed to support the program.
- The program is intentionally structured to provide the four student success factors and foster validation, as well as a sense of belonging.

The main purpose of the EMDP2 is to increase diversity in military medicine by broadening diversity among qualified applicants for medical school admission. The program does so by providing a specially focused program for enlisted members of the military services who may not have taken traditional premedical coursework. Military enlisted service members are a diverse population and are most representative of the U.S. in terms of their racial or ethnic demographics, socioeconomic background, and life experiences (Figueroa, 2014; Military OneSource, 2021; Xierali et al., 2014). The medical student population has historically been drawn from a homogenous population; educating medical students in diverse classrooms benefits all students. Diverse classrooms allow all students to better understand different perspectives and develop both intellectual and academic skills. Moreover, a diverse physician population results in improved patient–provider communication, trust, and patient outcomes. In addition to providing medical education opportunities to a nontraditional population, the EMDP2 benefits the military services, as the program's graduates will return to their respective services as practicing physicians after completion of their medical education programs.

The ability of leaders to provide solutions is critical for creating an organizational culture of diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging. While the EMDP2 is unique among post-baccalaureate programs because it is the first of its type that was specifically designed for a military population, it demonstrates the benefits of these types of opportunities for historically marginalized populations. Although these types of programs tend to be resource-intensive, funding can be programmed to support them when they are part of the institution's mission. Programs like the EMDP2 can create the type of environment that positively impacts learners and organizations. This type of program does not only address the mandate to make medical education opportunities available to a more diverse population; it also provides an opportunity to improve clinical care, reduce health disparities, and cultivate culturally responsive healthcare professionals to work in multicultural settings.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The EMDP2 is funded by the U.S. Department of Defense with operational funds. This program received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors. The program is supported through an academic partnership with George Mason University. Information in this chapter is based in part on project MEM-91-9427 (RB 17-02865), entitled "Does a Post-Baccalaureate Pre-Medical (PBPM) Program for Nontraditional Military Enlisted Students Increase Diversity in Medical School Cohorts?" This project was approved as exempt by the USU IRB on January 5, 2018.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Classroom Diversity: The engagement of diverse peers in the classroom. Classroom diversity provides maximum benefit as it facilitates the intellectual engagement of diverse peers in college classrooms and helps create the conditions that lead students to experience diversity in ways that would not occur in a more homogeneous student body, in addition to intellectual engagement.

Culturally Relevant Care: Care in which providers understand how factors interact with the health care system in ways that may prevent diverse populations from obtaining quality health care. Physicians who are from similar cultural backgrounds are often able to identify better with the supported population and help develop strategies to reduce and monitor potential barriers through interventions.

Diversity: Broad representation not only in race and ethnicity but also elements such as educational background, languages spoken, resilience, SES, and geographic background.

Holistic Review: A flexible, individualized way of assessing an applicant's capabilities by which balanced consideration is given to that individual's experiences, attributes, and academic metrics. A holistic review must be clearly linked to a school's mission and goals. Admissions committees that use the holistic review admissions process (HRAP) consider each applicant's race as one of many attributes along with other elements of diversity, such as educational background, languages spoken, resilience, SES, and geographic background.

Informal Interactional Diversity: Daily interactions outside the classroom—in residence halls, campus events, and social activities—that provide opportunities to interact with diverse peers and encourage active thinking and civic engagement.

Meritocracy: The belief that success in school and work is and should be determined by one's talents and efforts. Meritocracy undergirds the ideology that individuals can succeed because of their independent decisions and actions and that this success is equally available to everyone regardless of origin or social identity. The U.S. educational system is expected to serve as an incubator in which exceptional ability and talent are identified and nurtured. Internal and external factors such as racial and ethnic background, gender, and SES are immaterial, as are natural abilities, and consistent high performance determines success.

Structural Diversity: The simple numerical representation of diverse groups. Structural diversity increases the likelihood that students will encounter others of diverse backgrounds but does not guarantee that the interactions will be meaningful.

Student Persistence: The amount of physical and psychological energy that a student dedicates to the academic experience in order to continue their studies. Students who develop a commitment to the institution through academic and social integration experiences are most likely to persist in completing their education.

Student Success Factors: Academic support mechanisms that are important for students to remain and succeed in their academic journey. These factors are economic, organizational, psychological, and sociological.

Underrepresented in Medicine (URM): Racial and ethnic groups whose numbers in the physician population have been consistently low relative to their prevalence in the general population. Currently, URM groups include Blacks or African American people, Hispanic or Latin American people, Native Americans or Alaska Natives, and Native Hawaiians or Other Pacific Islanders.

APPENDIX

Table 6. Undergraduate coursework (Ist Year of the EMDP2)

Course	Credits (Semester Hours)
General Chemistry I (lecture and lab)	4
Cell Structure and Function (lecture and lab)	4
General Chemistry II (lecture and lab)	4
College Physics I (lecture and lab)	4
Genetics (lecture and lab)	4
Biochemistry	4
College Physics II (lecture and lab)	4
Biostatistics	4
Organic Chemistry I (lecture and lab)	5
Organic Chemistry II (lecture and lab)	5
Total undergraduate course credits	42

Table 7. Graduate coursework (2nd Year of the EMDP2)

Course	Credits (Semester Hours)
Human Anatomy	3
Virology	3
Mammalian Neurobiology	3
Medical Microbiology	3
Immunology	3
Fundamentals of Human Physiology	5
Cancer Genomics	4
Total graduate course credits	24

Chapter 8
"RISE" Up Reduce School Suspensions:
Unsilenced Voices of African American Students, Families, and Communities

Saundra Johnson Austin
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6432-0896
University of South Florida, USA

Brenda L. Walker
University of South Florida, USA

LaSonya L. Moore
University of South Florida, USA

Marquis B. Holley
University of South Florida, USA

Samuel Larmar Wright, Sr.
University of South Florida, USA (Retired)

Lisa M. Knight
University of South Florida, USA

ABSTRACT

This chapter explores school suspensions and the extent to which perceptions of racism or differential treatment are held by African American adolescents with multiple school suspensions occurring between August 2018 to present, as well as the perceptions of families and community members. Racism in school exclusionary suspensions (RISES) is a mixed-methods study that addresses the long-standing phenomenon of out-of-school suspensions and school pushout resulting in African American elementary, middle, and high school adolescents dropping out of school before graduation and entering the school-to-prison pipeline. The importance of parental, teacher, and administrator advocacy, as well as community engagement are further explored as the researchers make the case for African American male adolescent suspensions.

INTRODUCTION

The disproportionate school suspension phenomenon is neither novel nor confined to contemporary times only. Over five decades, schools have meted out school suspensions to African American children and

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch008

youth more frequently and more harshly than any other racial group (Townsend Walker, 2014). Equally disquieting is that at every educational level from Pre-K to 12th grade, African American students have, and continue to receive more frequent and draconian school suspensions than their peers by school personnel (Skiba, et al.; 2014; Townsend, 2000). For those youth, schools have relegated more disciplinary decisions to school resource officers, which led to increased student arrests and forays onto the school to prison pipeline (Guerrero, 2021). African American learners are not just disproportionately suspended in urban schools. Instead, their disproportionate suspension rates cut across suburban and rural schools also (Smith et al., 2016), even when lunch eligibility status is held constant (Bradshaw et al., 2010).

The weight of the school suspension literature has focused on African American males to the exclusion of African American females. Researchers have called for a centering of African American females in the discussion (i.e., Epstein, Blake, & Gonzalez, 2017), especially in light of unnerving school suspension reports and chilling video footage of African American middle and high school girls subjected to violent and abusive treatment by violently at the hands of school resource officers (i.e., Crenshaw, Ocen, & Nanda, 2015). Thus, African American girls' absence in the school suspension literature belies the increasing rates at which they are suspended and treated harshly by school personnel, including school resource officers. Examples abound compelling African American girls to be more prominently situated in the discussion. While African American males are suspended three to four times more often than White males (Townsend Walker, 2014), African American girls are suspended six times more often than their White female counterparts (Blake et al., 2011).

Reducing school suspensions is critical to improve academic and social outcomes among African American children and youth. School suspensions have been linked with early school leaving or dropping out and other negative academic and social outcomes such as heightened encounters with law enforcement, diminished post-secondary education, and under and unemployment. (Balfanz & Legters, 2004; Brown & Di Tillio 2013; Schott Foundation for Public Education, 2010). Even one school suspension can have a deleterious impact on students' quality of life. In addition to being at risk for experiencing at least one suspension, some African American learners receive multiple out-of-school suspensions, often during the same school year. While causal theories abound in the professional literature, they are rarely elicited from the learners who are impacted the most. Glaringly absent from the literature are narratives and counter-narratives of African American learners and their family and community members who are most impacted by school suspension and other exclusionary practices. The downward spiral of early school leaving, and juvenile arrest and delinquency begins and precludes those learners from earning high school diplomas and becoming productive citizens. Consistent with the school to prison pipeline literature, they are often routed out of school and into juvenile and adult justice systems (NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, 2022; Western & Pettit, 2000).

Project Racism In School Exclusionary Suspensions (RISES) responds to the clarion call to reduce school suspensions among African American learners. Funded by a University of South Florida Anti-Racism grant, RISES a national, virtual mixed-methods study predicated on a Critical Race Theory (CRT) framework that employs the tenet of counter-narratives, or honoring and giving voice to those who have been silenced (Taylor, Gillborn, & Ladson-Billings, 2009). To be included in the study, students must be currently enrolled in grades 4-12 and have had more than one out of school suspension since school year 2018-19. Project RISES targets 500 participants composed of African American elementary, middle, and high school students and their family and community members. One hundred students will complete a virtual survey designed to gain preliminary insights on students' perceptions and understandings of the reasons they were suspended and recommendations for reducing school suspensions. Focus groups and interviews are conducted with African American students, their parents and legal guardians, and community members who interact regularly with students with multiple suspensions. The survey and focus group questions are designed to elicit participants’ recommendations on strategies for schools, families, and communities to reduce school suspensions. The survey data will be analyzed using SSPS and the focus group and interview data will be analyzed using Atlas.ti.

As noted, the disproportionate suspension of African American learners is not novel. It has historically plagued general and special education enterprises since their inceptions. Despite a litany of interventions, some that claim to be evidence-based, disproportionate out of school suspension rates persist for African American learners. Apparently, critical inquiry is needed to explore suspensions in the context of the intersection of race and gender. This research project “Rises” up to elicit and amplify the authentic voices of urban African American students and their family, and community members. Five decades later, perhaps equitable discipline policies and practices will emerge only after African American children, their families, and community members are unsilenced on school suspensions.

This chapter makes the case for studying the suspensions of African American adolescents by choosing parental, teacher, and administrator advocacy, as well as community engagement as a conceptual framework. The comparison data on out-of-school suspensions of adolescents by ethnicity reveals an injustice and further establishes a foundation for this much needed research study. What follows is a parent’s narrative regarding her advocacy for her son regarding school suspension.

WHY PARENT ADVOCACY

To introduce this section on why parent advocacy, a member of the research team shares her experience as a parent advocate in her voice and from her perspective in support of her son.

It was his Kindergarten year; the calls were increasing each day and we were facing suspension. I remember the day so vividly; we were in a family conference with the kindergarten teacher, principal, assistant principal, 504 coordinator and behavior specialist. When asked what my goal was for my son, I responded that I wanted him to learn how to regulate his emotions and make honor roll. His very first primary teacher looked me in my face with conviction as she responded, “he’ll never do that.” (P. Ichimura, personal communication, 2014)

Her response alone was pivotal, defining and the most paramount assertion that I had ever experienced in any parent meeting. It was that defining moment that forced me to grapple with what parent advocacy would require of me. This is when the real work would begin but I realized that I needed to take a deep dive into advocacy and how to obtain the tools needed to be successful.

Age, Race, and Gender

Gilliam and Shahar (2006) revolutionize the suspension and expulsion argument with striking data around age, race and gender in the article, *Adverse childhood experiences and preschool suspension expulsion: A population study*. The evidence recognizes that children with certain characteristics are more likely to be suspended or expelled. Age is an indicator as four-year-olds are expelled at a rate about 50% greater than 3-year-olds. Boys are expelled at a rate more than 4.5 times that of girls and Black children account for almost 50% of public preschool suspensions but less than one-fifth of all preschoolers. In fact, Black children are two times as likely to be expelled as Latino and White children (Krezmien, Leone, & Achilles, 2006: Schachner et al., 2016). This alarming evidence alone gives pause and requires us to reflect on the true impact of parent advocacy and the voice that it holds.

The Real Work

As a parent advocate, I often pondered on what parent advocacy was. For a very long time, it seemed like political jargon, writing letters to congressmen and women, and asking for education dollars. However, for the average caregiver, advocacy meant showing up to parent conferences, sharing information that will benefit the child's success, asking questions, challenging bottom line policies, and collaborating with educators.

Kirkwood (2016) suggests that with guidance and support, parents and caregivers confidently take on their role as their child's first teacher, biggest advocate and become partners with teachers. She goes on to share that to help them become meaningfully engaged in their child's education and school experience, educators have to help them develop the tools to do so.

As an early childhood professional, I resonate with this notion wholeheartedly; however, I wasn't afforded a team to support my initial journey with advocacy. I found myself researching school discipline policy and procedures, navigating IDEA laws and exploring interventions to pursue independently to support my son who lives with A.D.D/ A.D.H.D. In the same vein, in response to my approach, I spent significant amounts of time facilitating uncomfortable conversations regarding bias, lack of culturally responsive teaching practices, questioning inadequate supervision, unpacking unstructured aftercare learning programs and bringing light to flawed data tracking systems.

Albeit my audacity and commitment to see my son excel in a public charter school cultivated change within Charter Schools USA local leadership and the way that parent meetings should be conducted; it was taxing, inundating and extremely stressful. In line with these common feelings of defeat, and as a professional in the education field, I realized that my personal plight would become a platform to deepen knowledge around strengthening the family partnership, advocating for young children and exploring tools to dismantle bottom line policies that negate supporting the whole child.

Teacher Impact

Currently in our educational system, teachers are facing burnout at alarming rates, they are consumed with meeting local and state mandates regarding data standards, and they engage with diverse students each day. Amongst the stressors that teachers experience, students come to school who live in traumatic environments, diagnosed with medical conditions, developmental delays, identified having mental wellness needs, or lack resources to obtain a diagnosis and seek out interventions. These said barriers inadvertently brew the perfect formula for suspension and expulsion. As a reflexive practitioner, the researcher proposes that we reflect on ways to demystify the formula and cultivate meaningful solutions.

Building Meaning Relationships

In the book, *Anti-Bias Education for Young Children & Ourselves*, Derman-Sparks et al. (2020), emphasize in chapter five that educators should learn about families during intake interviews, engage in face-to-face conversations, hold regular conferences with families, ask families about their hopes for their children and involve families with ideas that they've shared. These principles are parallel to primary and secondary educators and could be achieved through utilizing parent apps such as Class Dojo, Remind, school district wide agendas, phone calls, text messages, home visits, classroom newsletters and Zoom meetings to name a few approaches.

The Importance of it All

This taken together, we must ask ourselves what our "why" is as parent advocates and how do we obtain sustainable solutions to increase outcomes?

As a parent, advocate and early childhood professional, it is my commitment to bridge the gap between the school and families, help teachers and leadership recognize barriers through intentional reflection, training and coaching and be reflexive in my approach. More importantly, create a space of vulnerability and trust so that collaboration remains a permanent tenet in the process.

According to Derman-Sparks et al., (2020), "when families hear that you like their child, care about what is happening to their child, and make the effort to talk and connect with them, it builds trust" (p. 67). In addition to parents, teachers and administrators must also serve as advocates to reduce school suspensions among African American learners. The following discussion centers on advocacy and educational implications for school leaders.

TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS AS ADVOCATES

All children in the United States have a right to access education in a given school year in accordance with compulsory education statutes. However, since the beginning of education access, education has remained a complex system in the United States. A growing body of research contends that Black children's ability to interact and build relationships with educators remains disjointed due to a lack of trust, cultural competence, and disciplinary disconnects (Smith, 2019; Townsend, 2020). There remains an overlooked source of knowledge accessible to teachers and administrators to challenge and change the dominant discourse of disciplinary disconnects in urban schools and thus to provide a more equitable education for Black students in urban educational environments (Moore, 2021).

Rethinking Suspension Supports

The complexity of the educational system for Black students living and learning in underserved communities continues to rise, such complexities quickly transition into disciplinary chaos. Similar complexities and bias systems are null, and void of situational suspension supports (Adams, 2020; Moore, 2016; Moore, 2021; Roch, & Elsayed, 2020; Whittinghill, 2019). Previous intervention studies have focused exclusively on teachers or administrators, minimal research can be found on the collaborative connection of teachers and administrators.

However, a large body of social science evidence on racial discrimination operates on a misguided assumption (Moore & Stewart, 2020) that teachers and administrator voices mirror the same disciplinary discourse, conversely, this is not the case. The voices of teachers and leaders, in combination with students and parents, remain excluded in the disciplinary prevention process. "Parents of school-aged children often search for months and years for the perfect school, one that is situated in a neighborhood with excellent schools" (Moore & Stewart, 2020, p. 13), thus, passionately persisting to be included in their child's educational and disciplinary process.

Educational Implications

A large number of inconsistencies exist in the use of suspensions within and across school districts, and the rate of suspensions for Black students remains increasing significantly. It remains clear, student suspension is one of the most commonly used disciplinary measures for dealing with African American students with behavior concerns. There currently remains no end to the use of the injustices that surround the disproportionality in the suspension process, nor is there a trend to reduce its use; yet school districts remain unable to show suspension effectiveness in improving student conduct. Research continues noting the prevalence of the systemic issues surrounding the disproportionate suspensions of Black children and the biases held by those in teaching and leadership roles with the power to discipline and suspend (Adams, 2020).

Within the school campus, teachers and administrators are the educational gatekeepers and overseers of today's youth. Teachers and administrators are often charged and challenged with the design, implementation, and evaluation efforts to improve student conduct and reduce violence in schools, in-school suspensions, and out-of-school suspensions based on a historical system seethed in deficit thinking and deprived of cultural care and competence. W. E. B. DuBois stated, "A system cannot fail those it was never designed to protect." (Whittinghill, 2019, p. 77).

While institutional approval is overrated, Black children need to see teachers and administrators (specifically Black teachers and administrators) support equitable behavioral and disciplinary policies and practices. Teachers and administrators have the power to amplify isolated students, parent/guardian, and community voices. Such on the ground lived experiences and shared narratives are vital to the rethinking, reviewing, and restructuring of disciplinary disconnects. Teachers and administrators must take time to immerse themselves into their students' communities; where they live, learn, and lead. Teachers and administrators must remain vigilant; seeking various resources that will affirm, cultural identities, celebrate diversity, honor counter-narratives, and highlight injustices.

Education is that whole system of human training within and without the schoolhouse walls, which molds and develops [people] - W.E.B. DuBois (Provenzo, 2002, p. 86).

Alternatives to suspensions exist and must be used. Teachers and administrators must collectively, collaborate, advocate, develop and implement supportive strategies for all students, specifically Black students through inclusive parental and student conversations (Moore, 2021; Moore, 2017). Teachers and administrators should purposefully integrate inclusive social and emotional learning, classroom management, cultural competence, and racial equity approaches that target pre-service, in-service teachers, and administrators. Teachers and administrators are equipped with supportive skills such as a growth mindset focused on students’ cultural strengths, discipline strategies that incorporate the learning and behavior needs of all students with the desired outcomes if they are to correct maladaptive behaviors (LaForett & De Marco (2020).

Leadership Lessons: Listen and Learn

Teachers and administrators can reframe the inequitable exclusionary practices that critically affect the lives of Black students (Moore, 2021; Moore et. al. 2017). Suspension and expulsion operate under two core assumptions: 1) harsh sanctions will deter student misconduct, and 2) removal of the most serious offenders from the school will improve the school climate (Skiba et al., 2011). Yet, research suggests the opposite: the APA Task Force on Zero Tolerance (2008) concluded that there was no evidence to support the efficacy of suspension and exclusion disciplinary policies. If school districts cannot prove that using suspensions practices is an effective strategy for improving student conduct, why do school officials continue to use such disciplinary practices; teachers and administrators can reframe this work. School officials cannot conclude with confidence that disciplinary behaviors are reduced through suspensions and/or other exclusionary practices. Legal fiction results from laws and policies that are predicated on inaccurate information. It would behoove school officials, such as teachers and administrators to listen, learn and take such statements seriously to avoid complicated court cases; separate will never be equal (Townsend Walker, 2014).

Are Black student offenses so serious as to deny students their right to public education or temporarily terminate a child’s education? Most reasons are related to authority defiance. Out-of-school suspensions must be reserved for more serious or violent offenses. Generally, educational practices for Black students with serious behavior problems have not had positive outcomes. As a result, excessive dropout rates, high rates of academic failure, poor achievement test scores, low graduation rates, and poor post-school adjustments have been noted as typical outcomes for these students (Eber, Nelson, & Miles, 1997). Teachers and administrators must listen, learn and lead the way as disciplinary advocates for all students (specifically for Black students).

Culturally Responsive Teacher and Administrative Awareness and Support

For decades, Black students have received the most exclusionary disciplinary consequences within and beyond in school settings (Children’s Defense Fund, 1975; Skiba et. al, 2011; Losen & Skiba, 2010; Skiba, et. al, 2002; Townsend Walker, 2020). According to Knitzner (1993), the factors that limit positive outcomes for students with behavior problems included the following, unavailability of appropriate support services in schools, lack of collaborative planning among child-serving agencies, lack of intervention coordination across the child/ youth’s home, school, and community environments. Bridging gaps of ineffective interventions require acknowledgment of teachers’ and administrators’ dispositions and conceptual biases and dismantling structural disincentives with various agencies that serve children with discipline concerns (Adams 2020; Harackiewicz, 2016; Moore, 2020; Moore, 2021). Thus, teachers and administrators must focus on the collaborative co-construction of effective alternatives such as the evaluation of exclusionary practices, organizational policy dismantling and reframing, policy language that addresses disparities, and policy language to change practice.

Saunter (2001), affirms, any form of suspension should be, based on the student's best educational interests, conducted in a manner that teaches the student more appropriate behaviors, supported by empirical research, and used as a last resort (Hatchett, 2019). There are copious purposes of the educational system, teachers and administrators are accountable for developing students that are self-reliant, responsible, caring, and contributing members of society. Building cultural connections via authentic relationships play a supportive role in the development of successful scholars and their sense of community belonging, community values, and how they connect to personal values. Multiple factors influence the longevity of students and teachers (Smith, 2019). Teachers and leaders at all educational levels must make meaningful efforts to identify, design, and foster effective and efficient methods that support Black students.

Researchers contend teachers and administrators must understand the cultural conditions connected to their students, these traditions can provide clues for teachers and administrators committed to acknowledging and building upon their students' realities. (Hamer, & Johnson, 2019; Moore, Rosenblatt, Badgett, Eldridge, 2017; Townsend Walker, 2020; Townsend, 2000). All school officials are guided by federal and provincial/state legislation and by school board policy when suspending or recommending the expulsion of a student. Court decisions and human rights legislation place a high priority on the rights of students to an education (Hamer, & Johnson, 2019; Heilbrun, Cornell, & Lovegrove, 2015; Townsend Walker, 2020; Townsend Walker, 2012). Teachers and administrators must look for ways to support students as they enter compulsory educational programs, thus avoiding the need for supports as students are forced to exit compulsory educational programs.

SUSPENSIONS OF BLACK MALE ADOLESCENTS

Black male adolescents being suspended from school is a phenomenon that impacts K-12 education and administration. Furthermore, school suspensions reflect an anti-Black policy, which seeks to remove Blacks from the schools and could lead to much worse results (Coles & Powell, 2020). Data supports this in declaring that while Black children only comprise 19% of preschool students in the nation, they amount to 47% of out-of-school suspensions (Coles & Powell, 2020; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). The research conducted in this study analyzes race and the choice of discipline that schools use, specifically in-school and out-of-school suspensions. Furthermore, we seek to view the research through an antiblackness lens in order to explain how the unjust and unfair punishment of Black students, male adolescents for this section, are inevitable and inescapable (Coles & Powell, 2020). And truthfully, not all Black males will face suspension, yet even their experiences reflect how the consequence(s) affect their peers. Townsend (2000) notes that a Black child does not have to do anything that presents a real threat to the learning environment. They simply are a threat, and are treated as such, again based on aforementioned data. Unfortunately, this means that schools are unable to operate under a frame/lens that is antiblack, therefore the students will continue to suffer at the hands of imbalanced and biased school policy.

This research highlights how antiblackness in schools towards Black male adolescents is always present, ever-changing, and everlasting, and must be examined based on the methods it uses to discriminate and incriminate Black male youth in the K-12 educational spaces. For example, Black male students are more disproportionately suspended and will miss school more as a result of the suspension(s) (Fabes et. al, 2021; Skiba et. al, 2014). This exhibits a method that is rooted in the school-to-prison pipeline, which increases the chances of the suspended Black male students committing crimes, and more than doubling their arrest likelihood (Cuellar & Markowitz, 2015; Fabes et. al, 2021).

Their findings underscore the relevancy and necessity of our research, as we seek to understand and address systemic racism using an antiracist lens, as well as Critical Race Theory (CRT) as a theoretical framework to reveal how school suspensions and the extent to which the perceptions of racism are upheld in regard to Black students, males in particular for this section. It is vital to note that Black students, especially Black males, are more likely to be punished and/or observed more for their behavior than their White or Non-White peers. This rings true even if/when the behavior is similar to those white or non-white students that are not disciplined as much. There is also evidence that suggests that, according to the Florida Department of Education (2019), the overall racial composition of teachers, counselors, administrators, school resource officers (SROs), and more, can shape/create patterns of school discipline for Black students, males in particular. For example, Black students comprise 21.5% of the student population, yet amount to 38% of total suspensions, in-school and out-of-school combined. Figure 1 is representative of the suspension rates for both male and female students, but also highlights the disparity of Black students in comparison to their White and Non-White peers.

African American community engagement is needed to address the disproportionate representation suspension of African American children and youth. University and community partnerships provide mutual opportunities to address school suspension phenomena.

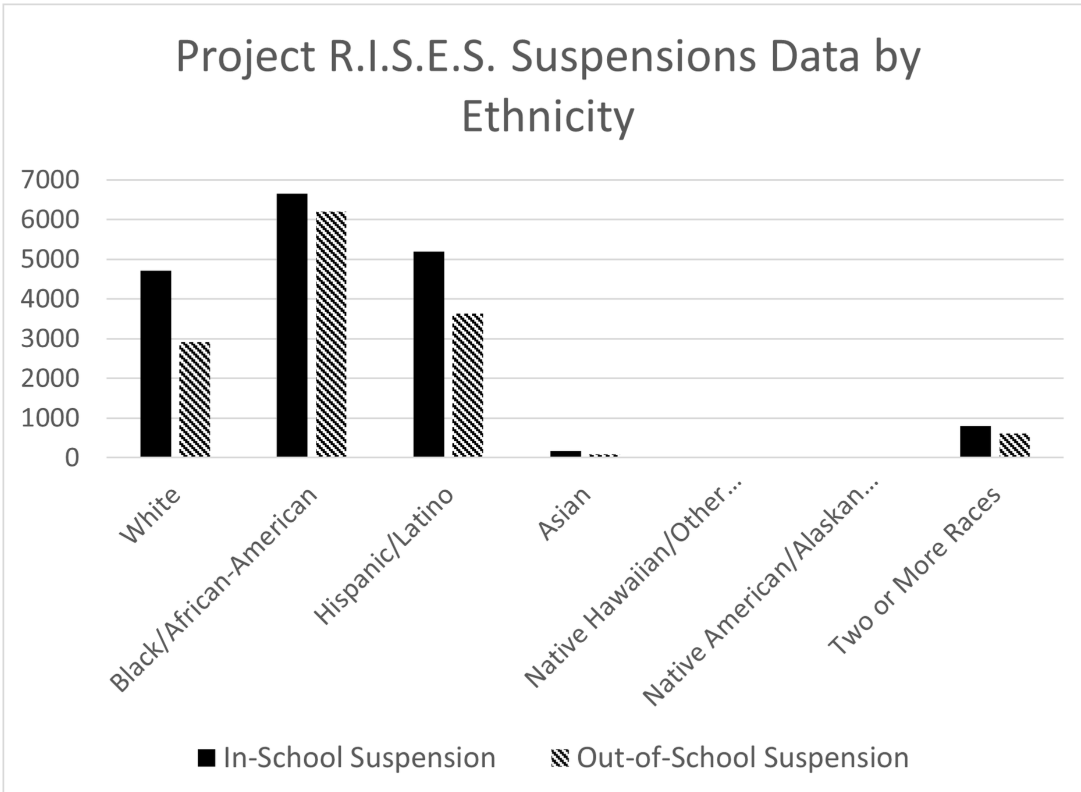
AFRICAN AMERICAN COMMUNITIES AND UNIVERSITIES: FORGING MORE AUTHENTIC PARTICIPATION

The African proverb, "It takes a village to raise a child," embodies a culture that families and communities place on safeguarding the success of adolescents. The Igbo and Yoruba people of Nigeria are believed to be the originators of the proverb that now transcends around the globe and reaches into local communities playing a vital role in the lives of our youth. The academic success of elementary, middle, and high school African American adolescents is our concern for this study since they are our future. Our African American history reminds us that we are stronger together and that our children are worth fighting for. Becoming an educated citizen is an equalizer to many norms that our society places on African American adolescents.

The most common disciplinary practice in schools is out-of-school suspensions with African American males and other students of color and those with disabilities suspended at disproportionately higher rates than their peers (Stokes, 2011). Too often African American adolescents are pushed out of school at alarming rates due to out-of-school suspensions and they are tracking toward entering the school-to-prison pipeline, a troubling phenomenon (Chu & Ready, 2018; Ghasletwala, 2018; Townsend Walker, 2020). Instead of being sent to the administrator's office and offered counseling, students are isolated, punished, and pushed out into a criminal justice system (Ghasletwala, 2018). Zero tolerance measures in schools have been a consequence of increases in suspensions (Umeh, Bumpus, and Harris, 2020).

Unfortunately, schools in urban areas across the United States are known for being school-to-prison pipelines. This is more than a notion, as the educational system is plagued with the lack of funding and resources, teachers who are unqualified, no guidance counselors to support the emotional health of students, as well as subpar mental and emotional health support systems in schools (Ghasletwala, 2018). A result of underfunded schools are students who are labeled delinquent when in actuality they have

Figure 1. In-school and out-of-school suspension data for females and males by ethnicity



a learning disability. More often than not, a suspension or expulsion is issued to students who exhibit learning challenges or misbehave because of being emotionally damaged. Such implicitly discriminatory practices and policies are examples of structural racism in our public educational system (Crutchfield, Phillippo, & Frey, 2020). Compounding the severity of the problem are government-mandated programs such as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB), Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), and Gang Abatement and Prevention Act of 2009 that are proven to institutionalize racial inequities and racism (Ghasletwala, 2018). To combat these federal decisions, communities have filled in the gap.

For decades community engagement has played a significant role in matters related to improving the education of adolescents. Strategies are implemented to empower members of the community to act. Checkoway (1995) introduces six strategies for community change that includes: (1) mass mobilization; (2) social action; (3) citizen participation; (4) public advocacy; (5) popular education; or (6) local services development. The RISES study specifically targets community institutions to become a part of the solution.

Therefore, our transdisciplinary team of researchers from the University of South Florida and Texas A&M University, partnered with Allen Temple AME Church, the Hillsborough County Branch of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), and the Corporation to Develop Communities of Tampa, Inc. (CDC) to further realize the mixed methods study. Each community partner is situated in highly populated African American communities to recruit African American participants. The use of the community site locations for participants to access the internet warranted compensation of $500 to each community partner. Partnerships such as these are formed when a trusted, long-standing member of the community with well established relationships, can serve as the liaison between the university and the community. It is through these university-community engagements that long-standing partnerships are formed.

Universities increasingly are known for being engaged institutions by building relationships with community-based stakeholders (Dempsey, 2010). University faculty has engaged in research activities with the community, but the relationship has not always been reciprocal. As a result, faculty have not been most content in its findings due to many nuances of community participants. Faculty would indicate how they would like to enlist the support of the community and its residents but never strategically organized the research project involving the community or its residents from the inception. In some ways, these partnerships did not work as intended.

To be candid, there has been a tendency for university practitioners to become proficient in a particular strategy and once they master it, this strategy is applied to every situation. It is not prudent to be captive to any strategy. All available options must be considered. The operative word is to "fit strategy to the situation" (Checkoway, 1995, p. 16).

Considering that there is a greater clarity in conceptualizing strategies of practice, researchers continually are exploring ways how faculty and the community could benefit from research that thoroughly engages community partners. One researcher indicated that "in the evaluation of the efficacy of our outreach efforts, we found that of the 12 recruitment sources we utilized, our senior community liaison and community outreach seminars produced the highest recruitment yield" (Breland-Noble et al., 2012, p. 277). These direct efforts were employed to demonstrate that pundits who explore a plethora of strategies are must successful in their research efforts and in garnering support of the community. Other best practices include the inclusion of people of color on leadership teams of the study (Breland-Noble et al., 2012). This all leads to the significance of strategic community engagement in recruiting African American youth and families in clinical research.

When these methods are ignored, traditional partnerships are ineffective and unsustainable. A myriad of studies has examined the suspicion and distrust with people of African descent (Corbie-Smith, Thomas, & St. George, 2002). They have a disregard for the research process and are reluctant; their reasons involve mistrust of researchers themselves. Other concerns may include structural and contextual factors. Among them are economic hardship and culturally irrelevant programs (Murry et al., 2004). Given the truism of this matter as documented in literature and practiced by the principal investigator of the Project RISES grant to study suspicions in the context of Critical Race Theory (CRT), the educational practitioner and attorney, who conceptualized, the research study sought out to involve community liaisons from the inception and solicited the participation of community institutions that are proponents of CRT. It is noted that CRT describes from multiple perspectives the approaches systematically used to perpetuate racism by keeping people of minority races and ethnicities at the bottom of the racial order (Bell, 1992).

It was crucial they all subscribed to the five (5) tenets of Critical Race Theory, which are: 1) racism as a central component of American life; 2) CRT rejects the objection of color blindness; 3) anecdotal experiences of people of color are more valued that statistical or empirical evidence; 4) CRT challenges the lessons of conventional history; and 5) CRT is committed to a social justice agenda.

A Black church, the Hillsborough Branch of the NAACP, and the CDC of Tampa, Inc. (an intercity non-profit agency) were the entities recruited to assist with the project. Although they were not on the leadership team of the project, they had an integral part and decided what gift cards participants would get and how much. The church leader forfeited his minimal partnership fee by increasing the price of the gift card from $20 to $25.

Additionally, each Liaison was invited to participate in weekly meetings of the project just to ensure that the voices of community partnerships were always heard. Liaisons also utilized their facilities to have students take surveys and to engage parents and community members in the interviews and focus groups. In our attempt to glean a thorough understanding as to how students receive multiple suspicions in school, it is the intent of this study to improve overall outcomes for students. "A key element of improving education for African American children is the development of effective working relationships between parents (including educational activities in the home for children), the school and its personnel, and agencies and resources in the communities in which African American children reside." (Bartz, 2017, p. 8).

From the onset, understanding and embracing the culturally responsive framework was a paramount objective of the researchers. Community Liaisons and Project RISES researchers have had years of experience working with Black families and have been actively engaged in the African American community. Everyone involved fully embrace the five essential strategies of culturally responsive teaching, thus transferring these same ills in implementing the research project within the community, such as knowing the students, as well as an awareness of their own biases, transformation of their pedagogy and curriculum, respect and reinforcement of student culture and involvement of family and community. Knowing this allowed researchers solely to place emphasis on recruitment of participants. (Singhal & Gulati, 2020). This practice of culturally responsive teaching and engagement facilitated ease in structuring this research project. The role of Community Liaisons was unambiguous in their advocacy to ensure that the university was responsive to the community needs. In addition, community partners were highly considered in the implementation of the entire project, from providing suggestions to simplify the survey questions, simplifying its use and deciding what gift cards and amount would be shared with community participants (students, parents and community leaders). Community Liaisons also vetted the website that was designed for the project, since funds were available to design one.

From the project's inception, the principal investigator in tandem with the Community Consultant's aid, took to the well-known radio station and a few television stations to promote the study. Flyers were distributed to community centers in the low-income neighborhoods where students hangout after school. Other input from, Community Liaisons suggested that the dissemination of palm cards throughout the community and the leadership of Tampa Bay Black Heritage Festival availed an informational table at the two-day Music Fest to provide researchers an opportunity to speak with both parents and community members about the study. Additionally, one Community Liaison offered his church to hold a town hall meeting to aid in recruiting students, parents, and community leaders. Simultaneously, efforts were made to work with Hillsborough County schools' personnel to ensure that students could be reached at the schools. The Superintendent graciously put the Principal Investigator on the meeting agenda to speak with all principals in the District to solicit their assistance with participant recruitment. Most challenging to the project was school closings due to the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic.

CONCLUSION

In summary, to reduce school suspensions, parents, teachers, and school leaders must be advocates for notion of conducting research in the community; many practitioners premise their community engagement on culturally responsible research and communication. This approach would enhance parental involvement in the overall school district and as well as educate students to the seriousness of this matter. The overarching goal was.to engage community participants themselves (i.e., student, parents, and community members) to get their direct opinions and feedback as to why students experienced multiple suspensions.

Researchers were deliberate with their methodology and dissemination of findings. Nonetheless, researchers believe that when "educators, parents and students work together and pull in a common direction, good things happen for students. As the proverb reminds us, "Many hands make light the work" (Bartz et al., 2017). Realizing the importance of Critical Race Theory and applying the strategies of culturally responsive teaching and engagement, this model utilized will significantly add to the literature why students in Hillsborough County feel they were suspended and if the color of their skin contributed to the decision by educators. The researchers believe that teacher-educators and researchers must engage African American communities to seriously address systemic inequalities (Thomas & Casale, 2020).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Project Racism in School Exclusionary Suspensions (RISES) is a $30,000 award funded by the University of South Florida in response to the Understanding and Addressing Blackness and Anti-Black Racism in Local, National, and International Communities Research Grant solicitation. The University allocated $500,000 for research projects in the aftermath of the murder of Mr. George Floyd and others and Project RISES was one of several grants awarded. Project RISES was designed to address systemic racism in school suspensions.

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Chapter 9
Emotional Intelligence and Professional Development:
The Impact of Affective Competence on Teacher Performance

Hany Zaky
https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0342-8814
Hudson County Community College, USA

ABSTRACT

Teachers are exposed to a highly stressful job because of the dynamic organizational and societal changes experienced in the educational sector. To deal with these daily challenges, they need to develop high-level emotional competencies such as emotional intelligence (EI) to support their professional development (PD) for adequate teaching and schooling. Developing EI capitalizes upon the harmonious relationships among the various school aspects: student's academic achievement and effective instruction. To this point, it fosters in-class diversity and inclusion understanding. This chapter highlights the strong connection between emotional intelligence and teachers' professional development toward positive professional and organizational changes. It reports PD's correlation with teachers' self-direction, leadership skills, and teaching effectiveness. It also addresses some easy-to-follow pedagogical implications.

INTRODUCTION

Teachers' high-quality Professional Development is essential for school achievements (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Estrada, 2021). Teachers need to progressively improve their academic and professional skills, expand their knowledge, and keep their updating professional skills (Avdor, 2008). Effective Professional Development is complex; however, the body of research agrees that school-based training tasks are more effective professional development practices (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Blaik Hourani, Litz & Parkman, 2021). Along this line, teachers' Professional Development should be a lifelong process focusing on teachers' progress (Friedman and Philips 2004). Day et al. (2007) recommended that Professional

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch009

Development Programs include Emotional Intelligence elements throughout their implementation stages (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2007; Blaik Hourani, Litz & Parkman, 2021). E.I. is linked to various life aspects such as well-being, quality of social relationships, professional effectiveness, learning, academic achievements, and effective teaching (Bar-on, 2006; Bar-on, 2007).

BACKGROUND

Emotional Intelligence has a strong connection with educators' effective teaching. Effective teachers progressively demand professional opportunities to develop their Emotional Intelligence (Brackett et al., 2009). The growing interest in E.I. training in the Educational field motivates researchers to investigate and design programs enhancing its practices in schools. "What effect might an Emotional Intelligence training have upon the personal and professional development of teachers?" is the core question most trainers and experts try to answer. However, the answer is driven by the plethora of surrounding factors such as the teaching and learning environments, the teachers' readiness to change, and social and academic-related standards. These factors shape effective teaching and students' learning capacities. To this point, the chapter explores the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Professional Development. It highlights some related variables that could drive this relationship: Self-regulation, self-directness, and teaching effectiveness. The chapter tries to answer the following questions:

1. How can educators' Emotional Intelligence support their Professional Development in classrooms in Higher Education?
2. How could teachers' preparation programs complete the change cycle toward creating a highly emotional intelligent educator who embraces diversity and inclusion?
3. To what extent is there a correlation between Professional Development and teachers' self-regulation in environmental settings?

Emotions and Effective Teaching

Teaching is a multi-dimensional profession demanding various competencies (Stronge et al., 2004; Day et al., 2007; Blaik et al., 2021). Class management and instructional approaches are among the most effective skills for effective teaching. However, reflection, motivation, and creating positive teaching environments are frequently noted as more effective teaching and learning factors (Stronge, 2007). Teaching, though, is a highly emotional and social profession. Harris (2007) reported that school emotional, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and intergroup aspects interact in a complex, intricated manner to shape teachers' work. Nevertheless, those teachers could realize these different school aspects in their actions and formulate mindsets, enabling them to manifest themselves more frequently in all school settings (Back 2008). The related emotions could influence teachers' mental health, job satisfaction, attitudes, behaviors, and self-efficacy (Pianta 2006; Ogernir 2008; García-Martínez et al., 2021).

Relatable emotions drive teacher-student relationships and the learning process. Teachers should interact with students' emotions related to school and home environments (Brackett et al., 2009; Cefai & Cooper, 2009; Sam Sims & Harry Fletcher-Wood, 2021) for more positive teaching relationships. Social and emotional skills are considered indicators of effective teaching. Therefore, teachers should cogently manage their cognitive and emotional challenges for more active teaching practices. Golman described the ability of teachers to address their cognitive and emotional challenges in difficult teaching conditions as the cornerstone of Emotional Intelligence (Day et al. 2007, 243).

Emotional Intelligence (E.I.)

Emotional Intelligence has emerged as a research field in the last three decades. It is a psychological concept that refers to the effective integration between emotion and thoughts (Mayer et al,, 2000; Kyriazopoulou, 2020). Murphy (2006) reported that E.I. is used as a conceptual lens to review actions and behaviors. Emotional Intelligence is rooted in the work of Thorndike and Wexler: Thorndike proposed social intelligence, and Wexler proposed the importance of the non-intellectual factors on Intelligence. However, Allen and Cohen (2006) argued that social and emotional aspects of education date back to Dewey's work. Dewey accentuated classrooms' social and emotional aspects; he emphasized integrating the social and emotional dimensions in the learning process. Gardner (1983), on the other hand, highlighted the linkage between emotion and cognition in his theory "Multiple Intelligence," in particular the interpersonal and intrapersonal Intelligence within his attested view (Plucker, 2013; Zaky, 2021).

Building on Gardner's theory of Multiple Intelligence, Salovey and Mayer identified Emotional Intelligence as the ability to perceive and express emotions, access feelings to facilitate thoughts, understand emotions and knowledge, and regulate emotions to promote individuals' intellectual growth. Consequently, they suggested a four-hierarchical model of Emotional Intelligence: Perception, Integration, Understanding, and Management. They also created Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) to measure emotional Intelligence as competence through a series of suggested tasks. Nevertheless, Goleman's (1995) book entitled "Emotional Intelligence" had the lion's share of promulgating E.I. as an innovative concept. A large portion of this book is linked to students and education. Goleman proposed a model consisting of four phases: Self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, 2001; Estrada, 2021). Moreover, Bar-on (2006) proposed his Emotional Intelligence five-stage model: First, Interapersonal skills include self-awareness, self-regard, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization. Second, Interpersonal skills encompass empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationships. Third, adaptability includes reality testing, flexibility, and problem-solving. Fourth, stress management includes stress tolerance and impulse control. Fifth, General mood includes optimism and happiness. Emotional Intelligence is an effective tool for teachers' outstanding performance (Goleman 1998; Boyatzis 2008).

Emotional Intelligence is a set of interrelated skills by which one can express own emotions, the capacity to understand and control these emotions, and the ability to interpret the encountered emotions to act accordingly (Yuan, Hsu, Shieh, & Li, 2012; Seema, 2012). Goldman (2000) proposed that "the ability to manage ourselves and our relationships effectively and consists of four fundamental capabilities: Self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills" (p.78). According to Nelson and Low, "Emotional Intelligence (E.I.) is the learned ability to think constructively and act wisely. E.I. is best taught and developed when viewed as learned skills and abilities that can be practiced and developed" (In EITRI, 2011, P. 5). Therefore, an emotional-intelligent character can apprehend emotions and reason others' emotions to guide critical thinking (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000). Thence, E.I. could improve leadership performance (Sadri, 2012; Trehan & Shrivastav, 2012).

"What makes teachers more or less effective?" is a crucial question in the field of Professional Development. Emotional Intelligence and Social-emotional Learning are two valuable qualities for more effective teaching practices (Maree & Mokhuane, 2007). The importance of social and emotional competencies in effective teaching has been emphasized by different scholars (Cefai & Cooper 2009). Day et al. (2007) reported the importance of teachers' capacities to manage their emotional and cognitive challenges. Teachers' reactions to positive and negative situations are moderated by their emotional Intelligence (Perry & Ball, 2007).

Sparkman et al. (2012) reported that E.I. influences professional and life success. They proposed that life-related success depends on controlling emotions, handling frustration, and getting along with other participants. Emotional intelligence literature suggests that learners with a higher level of E.I. are more likely to interact efficiently with stressors that the profession might entail (Collins, 2013; Karimi et al., 2014). The positive effect of E.I. has been linked to improve mental and general health, increase resilience and independence, and strengthen work performance and overall personal optimism toward life (Claros & Sharma, 2012; Sharif et al., 2013). In addition, the high level of E.I. showed an increased feeling of control, which could help to cope with the learning strategies effectively. For example, student nurses could regulate their anxiety by managing their emotions (Por et al., 2011). Therefore, the capacity to handle stressful situations might increase job satisfaction and reduce job turnover (Karimi et al., 2014).

Teachers need to develop their social-emotional skills for effective teaching. Brackett et al. (2009) reported that the lack of emotional literacy negatively impacts the teacher's training programs. Conversely, teachers could benefit from the offered progressive and systematic training. Emotional skills could enhance positive social outcomes besides preventing risk behaviors (Cohen & Sandy, 2007; Freedman & Jensen, 2008, Boyatzis, 2007; Stambaugh & VanTassel-Baska, 2018). For example, CASEL (The Collaboration Association of Social Emotional Learning) Conducted a meta-analysis of 668 independent studies on Emotional Intelligence Development in schools. The results revealed a significant reduction in suspension rate, improvement in schools' discipline, and a significant increase in indicators of academic achievements (Goleman, 2007; Corcoran & Tormey, 2010). To this end, teachers and trainers must build some strenuous models to handle their E.I. effectively.

Models of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence has been revised many times since its original conception. There are two main models of E.I.: Ability and mixed models of E.I. (Mishra & Mohapatra, 2009; Kyriazopoulou, 2020). The ability model of Emotional Intelligence is grounded on the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990). Salovey and Mayer proposed that their model is different from the other models as it includes the management of relationships and the personality aspects. The mixed model of Emotional Intelligence is based upon the work of Daniel Goleman, who popularized the term "Emotional Intelligence" and then applied the findings in the business world. His raised term "Emotional Intelligence" encompasses Salovey and Mayer's principles and personality traits such as persistence, motivation, and optimism (Seema, 2012). Goleman defined E.I. as interpersonal (the ability to manage relationships with others) and intrapersonal skills (the ability to recognize own feelings and modify personal behaviors). In his research, Goleman differentiates between I.Q. and E.I. I.Q. is static throughout the person's life; however, E.I. can grow and improve with age and experience.

Based on the works of Salovey, Mayer, and Goleman, Bar-On (2010) raised his mixed-method model. He stated that Emotional Intelligence encompasses noncognitive abilities that include emotional and social competencies. The model contains five meta-components of emotional Intelligence: Interapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, stress management, adaptability, and general mood. Fifteen subscales exist in these five meta-components. Intrapersonal skills are described in terms of self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization. Interpersonal skills are described as empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationships. Stress management is defined in terms of stress tolerance and impulse control. Adaptability is described in terms of reality-testing, flexibility, and problem-solving. Lastly, general mood includes optimism and happiness. To this end, the ability and mixed-method models for Emotional Intelligence provided educators and trainers with the procedural tools to spur the needed Professional Development.

Emotional Intelligence and Adult Professional Development Adult Learning Theories

Adults learn effectively when they start the activities to articulate their Learning upon a personal needs-assessment (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1989; Zaky, 2020). Rogers (1969) presented the student-centered learning theory. The theory is based on five elements for effective Learning in any teaching environment. The five elements help explain the reasons for seeking learning opportunities and personal growth. Rogers reported that the learning experience is characterized by personal involvement, self-initiation, pervasiveness, and self-evaluation. Additionally, Knowles presented the Andragogy theory based on many assumptions regarding adult learners: First, adults need to see a reason for Learning. When adults are aware of the gap between their learning situation and where they need to be in their knowledge or skills, they will be motivated to undertake the offered learning experience. Second, adults are aware of their needs and resist any imposed agenda; therefore, Knowles shared the self-direction as an adult learning propeller. Thirdly, he highlights that adult learners are varied in their learning experiences; thus, the offered learning experience should be varied to address learners' needs, interests, and goals. To this point, he proposed that offered adult learning experiences should focus on task-centered or problem-based centered regarding learners' perceptions of how Learning could be a tool to change their reality.

Andragogy has a strong link with the Professional Development (P.D.) model. Knowles' theory explains why individuals have different professional needs to be addressed within the Professional Development sessions. It helps support individual P.D. models in problem-solving areas that negatively impact their practices. The P.D. model needs individuals to be self-directed for more organizational success. Steinke (2012) reported that individuals need to take time to become efficient self-directed learners. Thus, developing self-directedness impacts the participants and their organizational performance positively as it drives learners toward their needs to realize the designed goals.

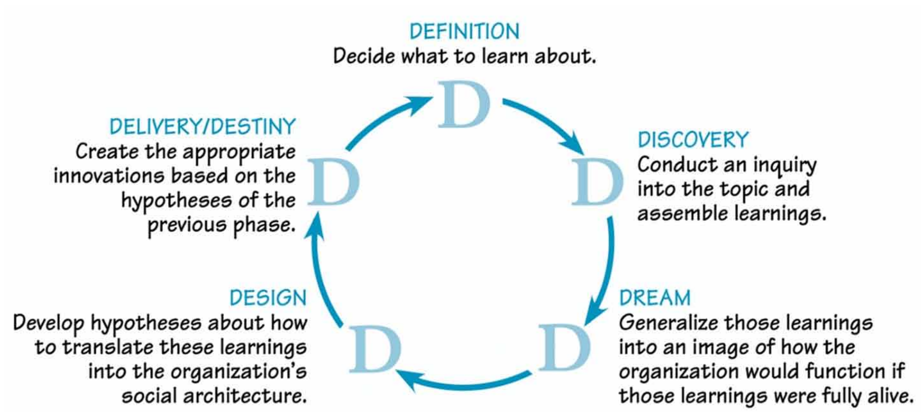
Furthermore, Mezirow proposed the impact of the learning processes transformation in adult learners' environments. He presented his Transformative Learning Theory in 2003. Transformation is a uniquely adult form of reasoning where a paradigm shift occurs in the learning process. Learners critically examine their prior knowledge and assumptions to form new meanings to achieve their goals (Zaky, 2018; Stambaugh & VanTassel-Baska, 2018). Transformative Learning, though, is different from instrumental Learning, which focuses on acquiring new skills and knowledge. Transformative Learning focuses on why, but instrumental Learning focuses on what and why. Bringing these two learning approaches together, learners could balance their emotions and thoughts to keep their learning trajectory.

Moreover, Emotional Intelligence (E.I.) is an asset for developing the ability to recognize and appreciate alternative beliefs and participate in critical reflection, which can cause a Transformative Learning experience (Mezirow, 2003). An organization that impeds the Transformational Learning principles in its activities and provides training strengthens its members' professional skills (Steyn, 2012). Additionally, Appreciative Inquiry (A.I.) is deemed an effective tool to capitalize upon the organization's strengths.

Teeroovengadum (2013) reported that many organizations focus on instrumental knowledge to improve their employees' abilities ignoring personal development. He stated that building individual transformation through self-development strengthens learning at all levels, enhancing gradual organizational growth. E.I. plays a crucial role in any organization's learning transformation, leading to personal and professional progress by securing the opportunities to participate in the training processes.

Appreciative Inquiry (A.I.) is one method to support individual learning transformation. It encourages positive organizational growth to keep a compelling alignment between the individual and organizational goals (See Figure 1). According to Evans, Thornton, and Usinger (2012), "Appreciative Inquiry is a positive approach to solving organizational problems and is centered on the belief that inquiry into and discussions about organization strengths, successes and values will be transformative" (p. 169). Through the perspective of Appreciative Inquiry (A.I.), Steyn (2012) identified several effective Professional Development programs through which participants focus on the various methods to construct positive experiences to improve their strategic work. Evans, Thornton, and Usinger (2012) reported that when individualistic strategies took place, the organizational growth would be negligible to the slow development of the shared vision. Consequently, the organizations could use their strengths to create positive changes. Appreciative Inquiry focuses on what is working and builds upon those strengths. A.I. helps identify what works for Professional Development to create a foundation, promoting a shared vision in any organization.

Figure 1. Appreciative inquiry and addressing individuals' learning transformation (Adapted from Cooperrider, 1995)



Emotional Intelligent Teachers

Identifying an emotionally intelligent teacher is a complex process. The emotionally intelligent teacher creates a positive emotional climate, recognizes one's feelings and learners' emotions, deals with learners' expectations, and develops self-awareness. Joe Harkin (1998) proposed that affective behaviors are the most important determinants of student satisfaction with teachers. Consequently, creating an emotionally intelligent teacher secures the institutional learning progression to benefit students and organizational academic and professional growth. However, trainers and professional development designers should ask, "What are the needed qualities and procedures to build an emotionally intelligent teacher?"

Developing an Emotionally Intelligent Teacher

Carl Roger (1983) defines teachers' emotional intelligence as the individual readiness to learn. He highlighted that teachers who show empathy and acceptance with their students could bring a noticeable change in their students' learning capacities and their teaching opportunities. However, Roger shared his worry about developing teaching skills, ignoring the affective teaching domain. He considered the procedures and teaching tactics less influential than the used teaching attitude. He also accentuated that changing the teaching behavior positively impacts how teachers view themselves and their learners. For example, suppose teachers are more effective listeners and have more self-reflective personalities. In that case, though, they could bring a new teaching style helping their learners discover themselves and modify their practices for better academic and personal outcomes. As for teachers, the question is how attitude change and professional Development relate to one another. To this end, teachers need to continuously reflect on their teaching behaviors to meet their students' learning needs. Therefore, Professional Development should be a part of their career promotion.

Professional Development (P.D.)

Professional Development is an essential factor to secure learners' academic and personal achievement (Yoon et al., 2007; Perkins & Cooter, 2013; Stambaugh & VanTassel-Baska, 2018). Learning Forward (2011) reported the effectiveness of educators' participation in their professional Learning and Development. Learning Forward defined professional Development as "a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers' and principals' effectiveness in raising student achievement" (Learning Forward, 2012, P. 2). P.D. can occur in many forms: Individual guided activities, assessment cycles, school development efforts for teachers, workshops, and training sessions (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1989). However, various effective P.D.s could share similar components: First, they connect to the schoolwide improvement plans. Second, they conduct supporting activities for the school leadership and participating educators. Third, teachers could choose the appropriate goals and activities to meet their learning needs. Fourth, the training activities are in progress over time. Fifth, they secure progressive support and feedback from the participants (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1989; Stambaugh & VanTassel-Baska, 2018). Therefore, it needs a tremendous institutional effort to improve teachers' skills and knowledge for more academic outcomes.

Consequently, organizations should be aware of the required P.D.'s requirements to run a successful P.D. It requires significant use of schools' resources in terms of finances, time, and efforts. Dean, Tait, and Kim (2012) proposed that P.D. would be a worthwhile investment for any institution to improve teaching and learning. Developing teachers' skills positively impact students learning outcomes. Spelman and Rohlwing (2013) wrote, "highly qualified and effective teachers are the most powerful factor in increasing student achievement" (p. 155). Therefore, the educational organization should provide its teachers with opportunities for P.D. to achieve its goals successfully.

Nevertheless, educators should identify their professional learning needs to develop their teaching practices (Bouwma-Gearhart, 2012). P.D. could be effective when educators link to the new learning and teaching practices personally (Patti et al., 2012). Teachers, thus, need to refine their teaching practices and develop the used instructional procedures (Bostic & Matney, 2013; Craig, 2019). These developed instructional procedures should be aligned with the school-used standards, the teaching goals, and the needs of students. For more sustainable teaching practices, strong leadership and organizational climate need to be established to support Professional Development. (Spelman & Rohlwing, 2013). Thence, P.D. is a personal responsibility and an organizational one.

Emotional Intelligence and P.D.

Salovey and Mayer originally developed emotional Intelligence in 1990 as a Psychological Theory. According to Salovey et al. (2008), "E.I. refers to the ability to process emotion-laden information competently and to use it to guide cognitive activities such as problem-solving and to focus energy on required behaviors." (p. 185). They also proposed that Emotional Intelligence is an essential predictor of any successful personal or professional relationship. Additionally, Goleman (2001) reported that Emotional Intelligence competencies are predictors of job performance and skills promotions. Jha and Singh (2012) highlighted the connection between E.I. and teachers' effectiveness. Organizations could increase their performance if they support Emotional Intelligence development during the delivered activities (Benjamin et al., 2012; Wu, 2019). Therefore, a school could pursue the P.D. of teachers and school improvement by focusing on developing teachers' E.I. skills, content, and pedagogical knowledge through various implemented learning methods.

Successful Professional Development focuses on a variety of factors. First, academic content and demonstration of effective teaching strategies over a long time; second, multiple learning activities; third, collaboration; fourth, following-up support; fifth, constructive feedback; and sixth, alignment with the institutional goals and used standards (Archibald, Cogghsal et al., 2011; Blank, 2013). To this point, efficient Professional Development depends upon three structural features: First, the activity form; second, the learning experience duration; and third, the participants' engagement with the offered activities (Birman et al., 2000). Nevertheless, shaping Professional Development and its effectiveness in achieving the institutional designated goals depends mainly on the leadership style and the management processes.

Professional Development (P.D.) and Leadership

Leadership style has a positive impact on Professional Development in any organization. Moore et al. (2011) reported that leadership style is essential to secure significant professional development in schools and other educational institutions. They proposed that students' achievement could be one of the factors toward high-quality professional development. They also stated that the P.D. could be in various shapes, such as workshops, coaching sessions, and collaborative meetings. Additionally, they accentuated that P.D. is a long-term practice that needs collaborative effort guided by effective leadership.

The instructional leader is responsible for effective organizational P.D. Lutrick, and Szabo (2012) reported that the influential instructional leader views the P.D. based on three main themes: Ongoing collaboration, data-driven design, and third, interest-driven design. The three raised themes echo the adult learner's assertions of Knowles and Rogers (Archibald et al., 2011; Blank, 2013; Liu & Ren, 2018). Lutrick and Szabo argued that progressive P.D. helps integrate the new and existing knowledge and skills to promote teaching practices. The three raised themes form the primary factors for transformational Learning in the institution. A data-driven design includes using students' outcomes to guide the P.D. design. The interest-driven design provides teachers with the opportunities to get involved in the planning process of the P.D. Therefore, the institutional and instructional leaders need to be guided by students' outcomes and teachers' academic needs to develop more effective P.D. to enhance professional growth.

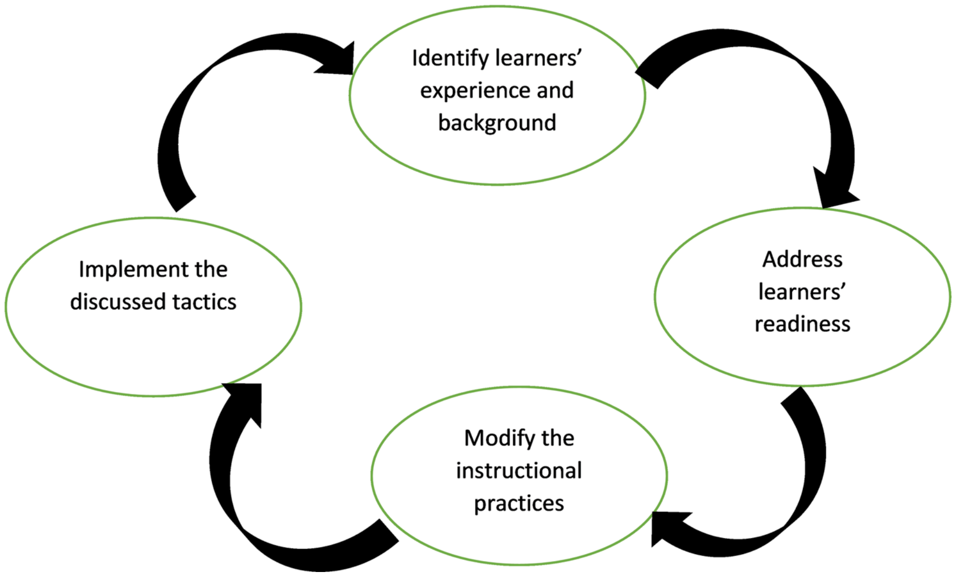
Patti et al. (2012) presented the Personal and Professional Coaching (PPC). It depends on collaboration and coaching and is grounded in reflective practice to support the teachers' social awareness and emotional Intelligence. The meditative technique within PPC positively impacts the learners' dynamic management. This reflective practice enables the participants to link the new knowledge to the old one to create a new learning experience. Through the process of reflective practice, learners connect their new Learning on a more personal level. They also proposed that Emotional Intelligence positively impacts quality instruction and leadership. Therefore, the PPC approach toward P.D. could help meet schools' improvement goals to enhance teachers' "acquisition of knowledge, skills, and abilities that target student achievement" (Patti et al., 2012, p. 264). Educators could expand their growth vision through the coaching process and motivate their directionality to change their teaching practices. Personalizing the learning is the guide toward academic and professional growth. Thence the used leadership approach plays an essential part in shaping an effective P.D.

Additionally, Putman (2010) discussed the importance of leadership for effective P.D. through the mentorship in the created INTENT model. The INTENT model provides school leaders with the step-by-step method of designing their P.D. activities. It incorporates Knowles's assumptions about adult learning yet includes the assistance of a change agent. The model consists of four main stages: Stage one addresses the adult learners' experience identifying their beliefs and practice. Stage two defines learners' readiness to learn and change their reality. Stage three, the action phase, modifies the instructional practices to meet the educational goals. Teachers build their confidence in learning experiences, assessment, and re-evaluating their designed educational purposes during this stage. In this vein, the goals are at the center of this stage; educators deem the learning activities problem-centered, which pertains to Knowle's assumptions regarding teachers' readiness to learn to remedy the problems they could encounter. In stage four, learners would be self-directed to use the learned techniques and strategies to pursue the change (See Figure 2). As a result, the learning experiences vary regarding the learners' readiness and used training strategies (Steinke, 2012; Harris & Jones, 2017; Sam Sims & Harry Fletcher-Wood, 2021).

Along with the previous model, the Professional Development efficiency depends upon the individuals' self-direction capacities and the required skills to achieve the institutional goals. With Self-Directed Learning (SDL), each learner determines the practice level to master the defined skill. Steinke (2012) proposed three stages to complete the learning cycle toward the optimal self-direction practice. These three phases include administrative evaluation, ongoing self-evaluation, and a personalized system to improve personal performance within the workplace. Therefore, any P.D. design should start with the participants' needs assessment.

P.D. process leads to Transformative Learning experiences (King, 2011; Wu, 2019). However, Transformative Learning should be shaped in a safe, supportive environment regardless of the learning experience modality: Virtual, Blended, or Hybrid. King (2011) reported that social media positively impact P.D. in education. King's research revealed that self-directed Learning is an effective way to stay up-to-date with the progressive development in educational fields. Therefore, the high-quality P.D. is considered the central school reform as it motivates teacher leaders to the reflective practice. This reflective practice deems a powerful tool for self-responsive teaching and informed decision-making (Ghamrawi, 2013; Harris & Jones, 2017). To this point, leadership and P.D. should be harmoniously connected for more institutional Development. It is challenging to accomplish a vast goal achievement with a one-size-fits-all model of P.D. Therefore, it is more tractable to implement a self-guided model

Figure 2. INTENT model (Adapted from Putman, 2010)



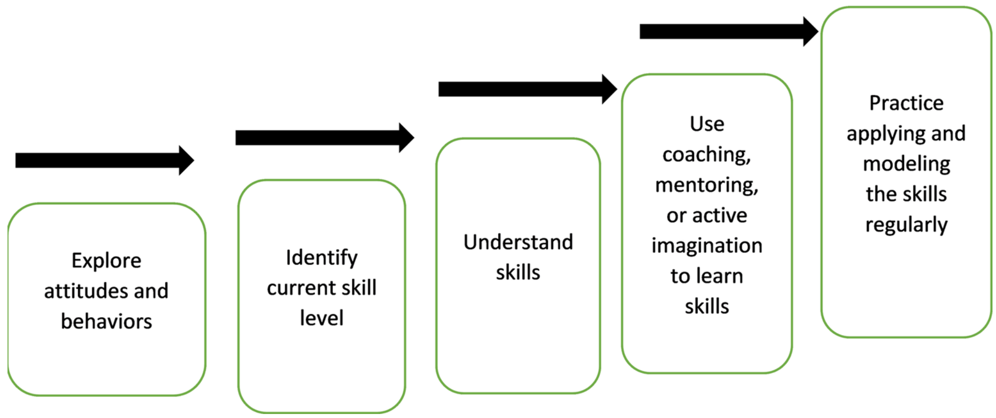
incorporating the collaborative element to apply the individually learned knowledge and skills (Steinke, 2012). Siegrist et al. (2013) proposed that focusing on improving the organizational culture through well-implemented strategies could result in a recognizable institutional improvement. To this end, students' achievement shapes teachers' used tools, P.D., and leadership practices.

Emotionally intelligent leadership is an essential factor in creating motivational workplace conditions. Leading with a focus on emotional intelligence creates a climate that empowers and aims to grow collectively. However, effective P.D. should equate to a meaningful learning experience for all participants. Along the same line, developing teachers' E.I. creates a more effective P.D. to improve students' outcomes. Therefore, there is a positive correlation between E.I. and teacher effectiveness (Jha & Singh, 2012; García-Martínez et al., 2021). Jha and Singh (2012) wrote, "Among ten components of E.I.; emotional stability, self-motivation, managing relations, self-awareness, and integrity emerged as the best predictors of teacher effectiveness" (p. 667). An effective teacher needs to be aware of students' emotions to create a positive learning environment and motivate students to perform better.

Emotional Intelligence (E.I.), as a focus in Professional Development (P.D.), leads to a Transformative Learning experience. "Transformative learning provides a focus on the development of knowledge, behaviors, and skills that could be beneficial to teachers to improve their teaching practice and advance their careers" (Nelson, Low, & Nelson, 2005, p. 3). To be an emotionally intelligent teacher is an advanced competency and not an end. By Emotional Intelligence development skills simultaneously, teachers could apply new Learning to their classroom teaching experiences. Additionally, successful E.I. implementation develops some individual dimensional skills: Accurate self-knowledge and self-appreciations, a variety of healthy relationships, and productive work with others. Thus, the emotionally intelligent teacher is a continuous building process to transform individuals retrospectively, personally, and professionally.

Nelson and Low (2011) proposed a five-step learning process to develop E.I. skills to improve academic performance. The emotional learning system (ELS) is a positive learning model that simultaneously engages the experiential (emotional) and cognitive (rational) systems to develop E.I. skills through five

Figure 3. Nelson and Low's (2011) Emotional Learning System (ELS) (Adapted from Nelson and Low, 2011)



main pillars: First, the authentic exploration of key skills; second, strength identification and weaknesses' areas; third, better skills understanding; fourth, learning to incorporate new skills; and fifth, modeling and applying new skills (See figure 3).

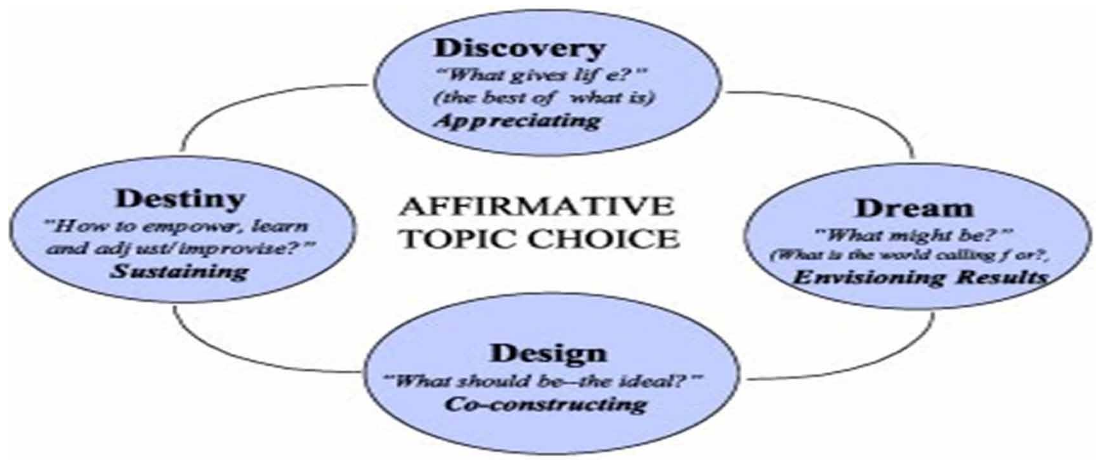
Transformative E.I. is an essential factor of effective leadership at the highest federal services (Rude, 2013). It has a significant correlation with the performance outcomes using Nilson and Low's assessment model to relate P.D. and job satisfaction (Hammett, 2007). There is a strong connection between E.I. and productive organizational culture, strong leadership, and teacher efficacy (Jha & Singh, 2012; Benjamin, Gulliya, & Crispo, 2012; Gilar-Corbi et al., 2018). Therefore, E.I. could increase individual awareness of career effectiveness, work, and learning capacities. However, providing learners with the opportunities to assess their learning and professional needs positively impacts their professional progress.

Appreciative Inquiry and P.D.

The Appreciative Inquiry approach is an inspiring tool for organizational change. A.I. is a research methodology used for organizational development to examine the needed development areas and decide the process development (Knibbs et al., 2010; Reed, 2007). It is a transformative approach for leadership capacity development besides seeking the positive aspects of lived experiences to secure a foundation for creating a transformational organizational movement. The goal of A.I. is to build shared collective meaning out of individual experience; therefore, it is a practical approach to school improvement (Hart et al., 2008; Petrides & Mavroveli, 2018). AI-4 D cycle introduces the various steps toward a positive organizational change. The four critical phases of an A.I. process are: First, *Dream:* What applications of E.I. are most relevant to your position at the school? What dreams do you have for your school's greater effectiveness and outcomes? And What dreams do you have about your personal effectiveness as a teacher? Second, *Design:* What would be the ideal P.D. program for teachers? Third, *Destiny:* What would be the most desirable outcome of this appreciative Inquiry? And Discovery: What is the best practice for achieving more learning outcomes (See Figure 4).

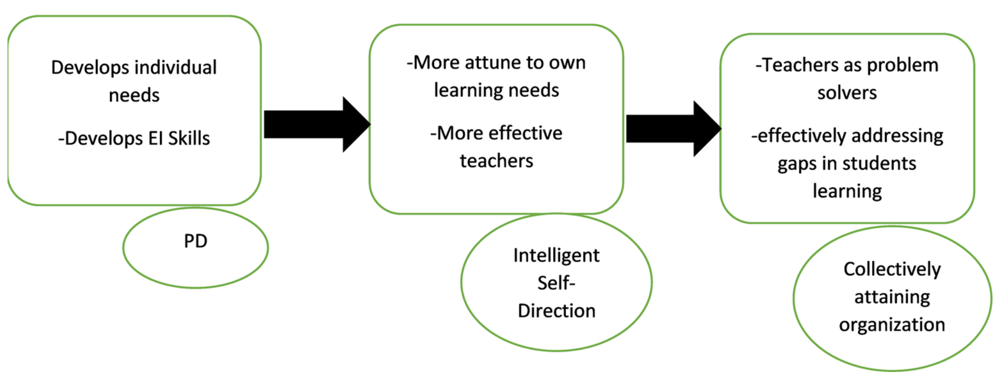
Professional Development addressing teachers' needs enables educators to noticeably teach and improve students' outcomes. P.D. programs should present the identified organizational goals in educational

Figure 4. Appreciative inquiry 4-D cycle (Adapted from Cooperride and Whitney, 2005)



institutions based on students' results from close analyses. Additionally, P.D. should develop the individual learning needs of teachers. EITRIM (2011) reported that if teachers are aware of their learning needs, they will become more proficient self-directed learners. However, an effective P.D. should develop the individual capacities of the teachers as they become aware of their needs through the E.I. development. Therefore, transformative E.I. increases teachers' abilities to act wisely and think constructively about the teaching challenges. To develop the teachers' EI, Nelson and Low suggested that enhancing teachers' intelligent self-direction could be through integrating the E.I. transformational element into P.D. to positively impact the individual teachers' effectiveness and their schools (See Figure 5).

Figure 5. Connections between P.D., intelligent self-direction, and organizational goals



As teachers develop their intelligent self-direction, they become more aware of their student's academic learning needs to develop their problem-solving skills. Consequently, teachers could positively impact their students' outcomes using a systematic plan from policymakers, educational leaders, and teachers (Balan, Manko, & Phillips, 2011; Gilar-Corbi et al., 2018). Therefore, using a specific model when planning P.D. shapes successful instructional practices (Guskey, 2014; Killion, 2013; Pool & Qualter, 2018).

Successful P.D. depends on the designing process. The designed P.D. should include a clear notion of the purpose and learning outcomes to avoid fragmented and disconnected learning activities (Guskey, 2014; Petrides & Mavroveli, 2018). Yoon et al. (2007) highlighted that "If there is no coherent infrastructure for P.D., P.D. represents a patchwork of opportunities" (p. 1). A successful P.D. includes a coherent professional learning program. Effective P.D. should be intentionally planned and driven by the institution's clear vision and desired outcomes. Effective P.D. focuses on individual needs, and it is not a one-size-fits-all modeled training. It includes follow-up, collaboration, feedback, and evaluation.

P.D. Design

To plan Professional Learning Programs, several training organizations suggested plenty of models. Balan, Manko, and Philips (2011) reported three models. These three models are similar as all need influential visionary leaders, identified learning outcomes, and practical assessment and evaluation practices. The evaluation process to improve P.D. planning is critical in its planning. According to Balan, Manko, and Philips, "Implicit in each model is that instructional improvement is a continuous cyclical process that occurs over time" (2011, p. 14). Professional Development is the capacity building for any organization. This capacity-building includes the progressive organizational ability to support the learning and teaching of more individual members who collaborate to improve the organization. Therefore, a successful P.D. is a comprehensive corporate plan (Killion, 2013). This plan includes "purposeful, planned actions and the support system necessary to achieve the identified goals" (Killion, 2013, p. 1). Additionally, a comprehensive P.D. program "must include application, analysis, reflection, coaching, refinement, and effectiveness evaluation" (Killion, 2013, p. 52). All suggested models aim at developing the individuals' abilities to achieve organizational goals.

Students' needs and learning outcomes should trigger the P.D. design process (Guskey, 2014). The first step of P.D. is to identify the organizational learning outcomes. Guskey (2014) outlined the professional learning planning within this perspective. He reported that the P.D. designers should: First, define the desired learning outcomes; second, determine the teaching practices; third, specify the organizational support; fourth, identify the required educators' knowledge and competencies; and fifth, design the optimal professional learning activities. These steps secure the active learning implementation through the P.D. process. The exercises, though, should be aligned with the used standard and involve the collective participation of stakeholders (Birman et al., 2000; Poulou et al., 2018).

Coaching

Coaching is an important component of a comprehensive P.D. plan. Many studies support coaching as an effective means of improving teaching practices. (Walpole, McKenna, Uribe-Zarain, & Lamitina, 2010; Coburn & Woulfin, 2012). However, Heineke (2013) reported that teachers are more likely to implement the new teaching strategies if coaching is added to a professional learning program. It is a training tool to increase collaboration and reflection as a job-embedded P.D. (Heineke, 2013). Coaching is a P.D. activity that enhances teachers' knowledge and skills because of the coaching aspects of the professional learning experience (Batt, 2010). Sherris et al. (2007) defined coaching as "a process between two people in which exploration, critique, and reflection transform practice" (p. 3). Rude (2013) defined mentorship as a process of receiving leadership and educational support to develop the mentee's expertise.

Batt (2010) suggested three-phase coaching: Preconference, Observation, and Post-conference. The purpose of the three-phase program is to assist the teachers in improving their instructional effectiveness through practicing reflection. Mentoring and coaching mean different things according to the context and the role of the mentor (Deussen et al., 2007; Pool & Qualter, 2018). The mentor could be available for a short time, and the coach would be available to help even the veteran teachers for a long time (Wong & Wong, 2008; Poulou, Bassett. & Denham, 2018). As ongoing Professional Learning, coaching is an effective way to increase the probability of applying skills and knowledge in any classroom environment. Providing teachers with workshops effectively arouse their interests, yet this interest would not be translated into action without coaching and follow-up practices. To significantly benefit from workshops, the participants need follow-up support in instructional coaching to transfer the received knowledge to everyday teaching practice and connect this Learning with a broader school improvement plan (Knight & Cornett, 2009; Gilar-Corbi et, al., 2018). To this point, coaches provide teachers and administrators with the tools and sources to link to the classroom-based knowledge for more P.D. in the instructional practice determined by teachers' learning needs.

Coaching leads to better teaching and higher student achievement. It is influential if inserted into sustainable, coherent, and well-developed instructional practices (Neufeld & Roper, 2003). Coached teachers could develop skills supporting the implementation process of new strategies. The art of coaching increases the collaboration during the professional development process (Jewett & MacPhee, 2012). Coaching is collaborative, focusing on the shared learning within the community of practice to collectively solve the defined problems with the teaching practices. It could relate to teachers' work with their students and other aspects of school change. Engaging in a continuous conversation with other field practitioners provides several structured opportunities to understand the need for a regular, systematic professional practice review. Therefore, stimulating a reflection in teaching should be a part of the teachers' preparation programs for more E.I. skills (Heinke, 2013; Jha and Singh, 2012). This reflection process entices teachers to run the required changes for more skills development.

Knowles et al. (2011) asserted that making adult learning meaningful provides educators with the tools to actively implement new learning strategies in their working environments. The resistance to change could hinder the teachers' Professional Development. However, this resistance could be mitigated by the continuous interaction between the mentor and teachers to make the instructional practices more acceptable and manipulated (Onchwari & Keengwe, 2008). The process of conducting an Emotional Intelligence assessment in a safe environment can make the pursuit of positive change more meaningful and relevant from the teacher's perspective (Nelson & Low, 2011; Pool & Qualter, 2018).

Observations

Classroom observation is essential for delivering effective P.D. programs in learning environments. The observation process plays a vital role in an adequate evaluation and coaching in a comprehensive P.D. plan. It provides educators and instructional designers with the valuable tools to identify the teachers' strengths and weaknesses (Kane & Staiger, 2012). Thence, schools should use classroom observations for P.D. plans. One of the trustful observation tools is the "Framework For Teaching" (FFT), created by Danielson in 2000. FFT is designed to provide accurate and objective feedback to teachers regarding their strengths and weaknesses in the teaching and learning environments (Kane & Staiger, 2012). To this end, observation accessibility is an effective tool for an influential mentorship.

Mentorship is an effective educational practice for teaching effectiveness. However, its success grapples with educators' awareness of the related factors such as educational context and used pedagogical tools. Mentors need a reliable framework to effectively describe and communicate their observations with the mentees. FFT provides a set of descriptors defining good classroom practices. Consequently, the mentor and mentee could be guided in a collaborative planning session for more effective teaching (Zubrowski, 2007). To this point, EFT users should look for evidence from the classroom practices avoiding raised opinions and assumptions. These evidence-based assessments should be aligned with the used standards-based rubric to indicate the performance level of teachers.

The observation findings should be shared with the teachers to actively participate in the planned P.D. for more teaching effectiveness (Danielson, 2007; Locke, 2011). Based on the observational data, coaching and mentoring play a vital role in creating active learning and coherence through the progressive professional dialogue. To this point, the teachers' observation protocols like FFT provide teachers with the planning process for individualized professional learning and teaching.

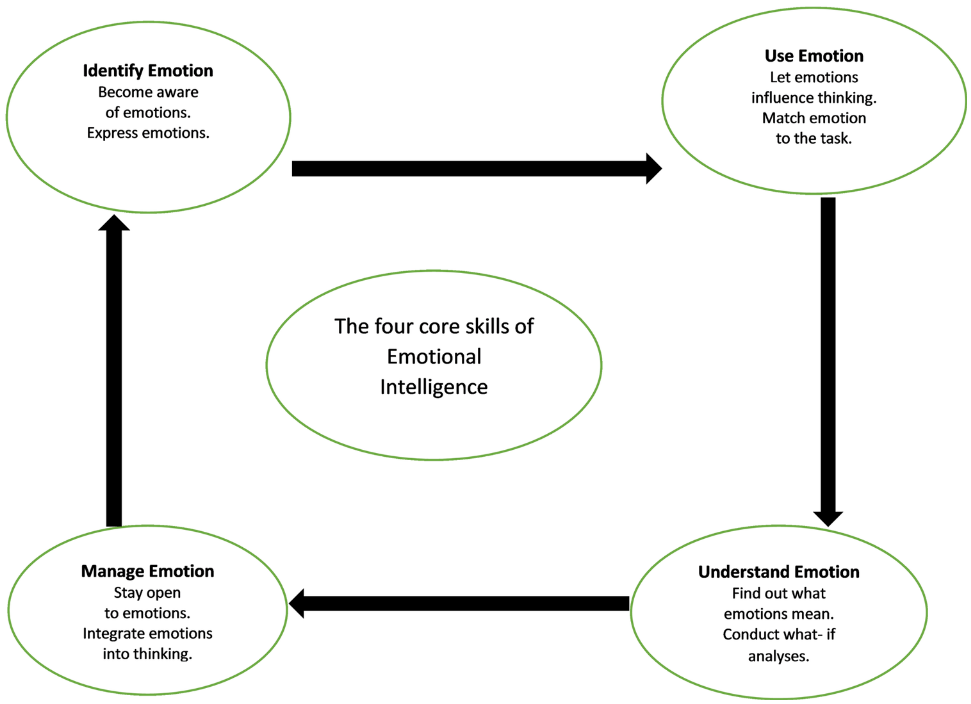
Evaluation

Teachers' evaluations should include the factors that enable teachers to identify their needs and design an improved plan. For example, students' achievement data, observation protocols, and self-evaluation should guide the evaluation process for shaping the P.D. process (Kane & Staiger, 2012). William (2012) reported that "emphasis on teacher self-assessment, professional learning, and student-growth data" (p. 36) could create a culture in which teachers take ownership over the change process. Nevertheless, Kappler et al. (2012) reported that forcing the Change could cause a cognitive dissonance that results in teachers' resistance to the used initiatives. The results can be transformative using a differentiated evaluation process (Kappler Hewitt & Weckstein, 2012; Ghasemi, 2021). To this end, the influential and differentiated teachers' evaluation protocols should encompass the factors guiding teachers to examine their competencies and shape their Professional Development Plans.

Professional Learning Program enhances teachers' mentorship and coaching. It could allow teachers to share their voices regarding the used evaluation. Teachers are more intrinsically motivated when providing an agent regarding the proposed change initiative. They will be more willing to collaborate with peers based on the designed evaluation processes to enhance competencies (Kappler & Wechstein, 2012; Zaky, 2021). Kappler and Wechstein (2012) emphasized that teachers' evaluations should be aligned with the change initiative to positively influence teaching practices to enhance students' learning outcomes. Williams (2012) stated that teachers should share the action plans ahead of the school year based on their students' outcomes. They, thus, need to articulate the upcoming school year goals and determine the kind of required Professional Development. Consequently, the teachers' professional growth could be achieved through continuous interactions before and during the school's yearly work. To this end, P.D. is more influential in a cyclical comprehensive learning practice: Diagnosis, learning, support, and evaluation.

The MET (2010) proposed some essential key issues for teacher evaluation. The first issue is to use the observation protocol, including clear standards of efficient teaching applied by well-trained observers using multiple observations. The second issue combines various classroom observations, student achievement data, and surveys to identify teachers' strengths and weaknesses. Youngs (2013) advocated for a comprehensive teachers' evaluation including multiple components such as observations and reviews of evaluation, students' surveys, and teacher's self-reports on classroom practice. The coach's role is the

Figure 6. The core skills of emotional intelligence (Adapted from Damison, 2011)



most crucial element in the professional learning cycle. It is a means to support the teachers' learning needs, implement new skills, and facilitate change initiatives (Jewett & MacPhee, 2012; Knight & Cornett, 2009). To this end, effective evaluation needs a well-designed observation protocol and multiple approaches to strengthen the necessary teaching areas improvement.

Emotional Intelligence in Action

Emotions should be timely felt and expressed in a carefully controlled manner. The brain's emotional centers are integral to thinking, reasoning, and intelligence. The fundamental premise of an Emotional Intelligence Manager is that emotions are essential to making good decisions for the optimal actions to solve problems and cope with the changes. The Emotional Intelligence Manager is organized around the four emotional competencies suggested by Salovey (*Damison, 2011)*. Read people is the first stage of managing emotions by identifying these emotions and defining the related data. It is essential to convey and express emotions accurately to others to communicate effectively. Getting in the mood is the second stage of managing emotions effectively. How a person feels drives how and what he/she thinks about. Emotions direct the attention to specific events that lead to defined actions. Predicting the future emotion is the third stage through which a person experiences the change by rules built upon knowledge of emotion and what-if emotional analyses conducted. Fourth stage: Do it with feeling; since emotions contain information to drive thinking and reasoning, it is beneficial to incorporate emotions into problem-solving, evaluation, and behaving. Consequently, a person should select strategies including the wisdom of feelings (Figure 6).

The process starts with the awareness and identification of emotions. Therefore, asking questions such as "What is it?" and "How does it impact my inner feeling?" help shape individual awareness. Secondly, understanding the emotions and their impacts could determine the group members' reactions toward any change. Thirdly, the group should be aware of the importance of the related data and attempt to integrate them into the practice process. Finally, the participants should stay open to the wisdom of their feelings for uncovering associated severe problems. The effective manager leverages four crucial skills: First, identify how all his/ her followers feel. Second, use the known feelings to guide the thinking and reasoning of the participants. Third, understand how feelings might change in terms of the unfolding events. Fourth, manage to stay open to the collected data, integrate them into the designed discussions, and make decisions. David and Salovey (2004) suggested six core areas of leadership potential derailers to enhance the organization's emotional intelligence practice (See Table 1).

Table 1. Leadership potential derailers (Adapted from David and Salovey, 2004)

General function	Examples
Building Effective Teams	Difficulty building and leading a team How to lead Modeling the way
Planning and Deciding Effectively	Schedule projects Plan budgets and resources Logistics Failure to meet business objectives
Motivating People	Motivate staff Generate enthusiasm Motivate a team Enabling others to act
Communicating a Vision	Create a sense of importance and meaning Create an organizational identity Develop collective goals Inspiring a shared vision
Promoting Change	Promote flexible thinking and decision thinking Facilitate creative thinking Difficulty changing or adapting Too narrow functional orientation Challenging the process
Creating Effective Interpersonal Relationships	Conflict resolution among subordinates Dealing with firing someone Problems with interpersonal relationships Encouraging the heart

David and Salovey (2004) reported six principles for using Emotional Intelligence in any organization actively:

1. **Emotion is information:** Emotions are signals about people and social situations. They are the tools to inform a person of what is going on around him/her. They are evolved for survival. Scientists always differentiate between moods and emotions. Emotions have a definable cause, yet moods are feelings that last long. Moods appear for unknown reasons and can be part of body chemistry,

Table 2. The survival value of emotion (Adapted from Salovey and David, 2004)

This emotion	Motivates this behavior
Fear	Run, there's danger!
Anger	Fight!
Sadness	Help me; I'm hurt.
Disgust	Please don't eat that; it's poisonous.
Interest	Let's look around and explore.
Surprise	Watch out! Pay attention!
Acceptance	Stay with the group for safety.
Joy	Let's cooperate; let's reproduce.

motivated by a specific emotion (See Table 2). Therefore, it is beneficial to examine, regulate emotions and explore what could shape moods.

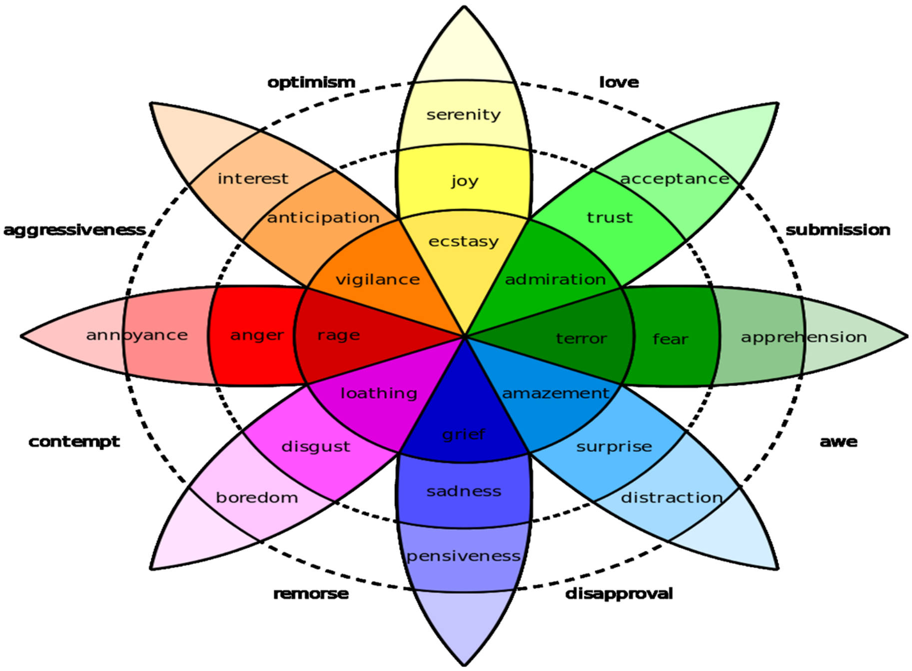
2. **We can try to ignore emotion, but it doesn't work:** Emotions impact performance in various life areas. Therefore, emotional awareness could make a notable difference in personal motivation (See Table 3)

Table 3. The way emotions motivate us now (Adapted from Salovey and David, 2004)

This emotion	Motivates this behavior
Fear	Act now to avoid negative consequences.
Anger	Fight against wrong and injustice.
Sadness	Ask others for their help and support.
Disgust	Show that you cannot accept something.
Interest	Excite others to explore and learn.
Surprise	Turn people's attention to something unexpected and important
Acceptance	I like you; you're one of us.
Joy	Let's reproduce (that event).

3. **We can hide emotions, but we are not as good at it as we think:** The desire to engage in purely rational pursuits at work can result in a failed decision-making process and create a mistrusting atmosphere.
4. **Decisions must incorporate emotion to be effective:** Feelings make the decisions. According to neuroscientist Damasio's research about emotion and behaviors, rational thinking occurs in the emotions' existence. Positive emotions could expand thinking, help generate new ideas, and encourage different possibilities (Vesely, & Saklofske, 2018). Generally, positive emotions motivate exploring a new environment, broaden thinking, and enlarge the behavior repertoire. However, the negative emotions could provide a more explicit focus and allow the details to be examined

Figure 7. A graphic model of Plutchik's work



more efficiently. These negative emotions are calls to run some specific changes. There should be a combination of positive and negative emotions for more effective management. To this point, management is about effectiveness that requires a range of emotions.

5. Emotions follow logical patterns that guide learners to the proper cognitive and behavioral decisions.
6. **Emotional universals exist:** Emotional Intelligence is universal based on cultural differences, good reasons, customs, and manners. At the core, an emotion signals something and communicates a universal signal to all people around the globe. Emotions have been hard-wired through the years to protect humans from dangers and enhance their survival. Emotions are not randomly created. Each emotion has some moves. Robert Plutchik (1994) proposed the emotional model that presents emotions as an intensity continuum. The eight primary emotions are arranged in a circle with opposite sides of the circle. The model addresses the emotional complexity, leading to a more complex organizational behavior (See Figure 7). Emotional Display Rules are a form of hidden knowledge. This level of expertise is existent, yet it is not easily acquired. Display rules are varied from one institution to another. The secondary emotion is a strictly related concept to the emotional display of self-conscious emotion. The secondary emotion has a strong connection with a social and cultural component.

Additionally, Mayer and Salovey (1997) shared their framework of Emotional Intelligence. During organizational changes, the emotional blueprint could play an essential role in understanding how to manage a team effectively. The framework helps with understanding and managing emotions in any organization. They displayed Emotional Intelligence in four related abilities (See Table 4):

1. **Read people- Identify emotions:** This refers to the person's ability to identify their feelings and that of others. This identification ability increases people's awareness of their emotions and related behaviors.
2. **Get in the mood- use emotion:** This ability helps determine the emotions and link them with the thoughts.
3. **Predict the emotional future-Understand emotion:** Emotions have their language and logical moves. Understanding emotions means determining the reason for a specific feeling and its impact on the future.
4. **Do it with feeling- Manage emotions:** Emotions convey essential information that could be used to make informed decisions.

Table 4. An emotional blueprint

Step	*Goal*	*Action*
Identify emotion	Get complete and accurate information.	Listen to questions and paraphrase to ensure how the team works.
Use emotions	Have feeling help guide your thinking	Determine how these things influence your feeling and that of the team
Understand emotion	Evaluate possible emotional scenarios	Examine the causes of these feelings and what may happen next.
Manage emotions	Determine the underlying root cause, and take action to solve the problem.	Include the rationale and logical information with the emotional data you just gathered to make optimal decisions.

Implications

Professional Development programs that address teachers' needs improve students' outcomes and teachers' professional efficiency. They progressively improve the quality of education by collectively attaining organizational goals. However, schools' P.D. programs should address the organizational goals that reflect students' learning outcomes. Effective P.D. programs seek to develop the individual needs of the teacher-learners (Bouwma-Gearhart, 2012; Blaik Hourani, Litz & Parkman, 2021). The process of designing an effective P.D. depends on various leadership models. However, six steps could be placed at the heart of the design process: Identify the organizational goals, define students' learning outcomes, select the new practices, meet the teachers' needed skills, design the learning activities, and evaluate and assess the results (See Table 5).

Table 5. Planning professional learning and educational keadership (Adapted from Guskey, 2014)

Steps	How will this be completed in the given organization? (The answers vary based on the organizational situation)
Step 1: Identify organizational goals.	
Step 2: Identify desired student outcomes.	
Step 3: Identify new practices to be implemented.	
Step 4: Identify desired educator knowledge and skills.	
Step 5: Plan optimal professional learning activities.	
Step 6: Evaluate for effectiveness.	

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Chapter 10
Diversity Matters:
The Inclusion of Linguistic Diversity in Foreign Language Education

Giovani Lopez Lopez
https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0410-5195
Fort Hays State University, USA

Sandra P. Martinez Franco
Fort Hays State University, USA

ABSTRACT

This chapter discusses instructor motivation for the inclusion or exclusion of linguistic diversity in the Spanish as a foreign language classroom at the college level. Through a study that included classroom observation as well as groups interviews, this paper shows that a series of traditional language attitudes and ideologies that favor the propagation of a standard language or of a variety that is considered prestigious relegate and ignore in instruction other Spanish varieties, which many times represent the language spoken by nearby Hispanic communities. This study encourages modern language program directors and instructors to use their agentive position to deviate from traditional language attitudes that undermine the value of nonstandard and underrepresented language varieties and to resist implicit or explicit language policies that influence the exclusion of linguistic diversity in foreign language instruction.

INTRODUCTION

Research on diversity and inclusion usually focuses on aspects that comprise a person's identity such as race, age, and gender. However, one important characteristic of an individual's personality that is often overlooked in these studies is that of language. People tend to react favorably or unfavorably to a person's way of speaking (Edwards, 2009; Preston, 2004). From this perspective, different aspects of a person's language (e.g. choice of words, register, or a person's dialect) can be perceived in a positive or negative manner. As a consequence of these attitudes towards language, individuals sometimes are influenced to modify their way of speaking in order to be accepted or gain membership in a specific social group. For

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch010

instance, in many situations, individuals with a prestigious variety of language influence the speakers of less prestigious varieties to change the way they speak (Wolfram, 1999). However, this rejection of a person's linguistic practice carries negative consequences in the individual's sense of identity.

Given the reactions that a way of speaking or a dialect can generate, some language varieties are considered more prestigious than others. The notion of language prestige, as explained by Ibrahim (1986), has been equated with the standard variety of a language. In the particular case of Spanish, Lipski (1994) describes a pan-Hispanic norm, which reflects the speech of educated speakers in several cities in Spain and in the capital cities of Latin America. From these varieties, the one spoken in Northern and Central Spain, followed by the variety spoken in Bogotá and by the variety spoken in and around Mexico City are considered highly prestigious. On the other hand, the varieties spoken in the Caribbean as well as in Andalusia are usually stigmatized by speakers of more prestigious varieties (Figueroa, 2004).

Unfortunately, these language attitudes towards the different regional varieties of the Spanish language are present and sometimes diffused implicitly or explicitly in the foreign language classroom. Such attitudes lead to teaching practices that exclude a Spanish variety that is not considered prestigious, even when this variety represents the language of the local Hispanic community or is the variety spoken by the instructor. Given this problematic situation, this paper aims to find and discuss instructors' motivations for the inclusion or exclusion of linguistic diversity in the Spanish as a foreign language classroom at the college level. This investigation also intends to establish the extent to which a coordinated Spanish program influences the inclusion of Spanish regional varieties in instruction. Findings of this study will contribute to the development of the Spanish curriculum both at the undergraduate and graduate level. This study will also inform foreign language instructors and language program directors of the importance of creating assessment tools and selecting textbooks that incorporate different Spanish varieties. The significance of this study lies in the fact that few studies have investigated the presence of linguistic diversity in foreign language education. In fact, research that takes into consideration the teaching of Spanish and the role of education stakeholders at different levels (i.e., textbook editors, language program coordinators, instructors) are even rarer.

BACKGROUND

Previous studies about the inclusion of linguistic diversity in the Spanish classroom highlight the delegitimization of Latin American and of U.S. Spanish as well as the hegemony of a standard Spanish, usually associated with the variety spoken in North Central Spain (Burns, 2018; Bugel & Santos, 2010; Garzelli et al., 2018: Quan, 2020). Implicit and explicit ideologies that undermine the validity of Latin American Spanish strengthen the idea that Latin American Spanish should not be the model to be portrayed in textbooks as well as be the language of instruction (Bugel & Santos). This delegitimization of Latin American Spanish creates a disparity between the language of instruction, in this case the Castilian Spanish, and the language of the community; in this case, the Spanish spoken by the Latin American immigrant communities (Burns, 2018; Garzelli et al., 2018). In a similar manner, a series of language attitudes and ideologies that weaken the value of U.S. Spanish and that frame it in the context of English rather than Spanish favor the presentation of a standard Spanish in textbooks (Burns, 2018).

Unfortunately, not only in the U.S. context is Latin American Spanish undervalued. Regardless of the vast presence of immigrants from the Hispanic America in Italy, the use of Spanish from Spain prevails not only in teaching materials, but also in teachers' linguistic choices (Garzelli et al., 2018). Likewise, Brazilian learners of Spanish as a foreign language have contrasting attitudes towards Rioplatense or Argentinean/Uruguayan Spanish and Peninsular Spanish (linguistic variety from Spain) as well as towards the speakers of each of these varieties. Bugel and Santos (2010) point out Brazilian learners' preference for the Peninsular variety over the type of Spanish spoken by their neighbors in Argentina and Uruguay. According to Bugel and Santos, Brazilian learners perceive Peninsular Spanish as prestigious and correct, among other reasons, because this type of Spanish is the original variety from which the other Spanishes have derived, including the Rioplatense. Within the same line, the Rioplatense variety is then evaluated as a derivation of Peninsular Spanish, compounded with many influences and borrowings. However, as stated by the authors, the geographic and social proximity between Brazilians and Argentines allows for more complex and contradictory judgments since both cultures share, to a great extent, some of their most common social and economic issues. On the other hand, due to the lack of geographical closeness, judgments about Spaniards can be less complex and more idealized, mostly based on the image that Spain puts forward through its own self-marketing campaigns, as a successful, modern, and developed country.

Previous research indicates that Spanish instructors feel pressure from academic authorities and materials to teach the standard. This practice can generate linguistic conflicts that affect the dignity and identity of the instructors whose Spanish variety differs from the Standard (Andión Herrero, 2009). On the other hand, instructors who teach their own Spanish variety, even when that variety does not represent what the academic context demands, represent a counterbalance to the hegemony of the standard, many times associated with the Peninsular variety. These instructors see the value of Latin American Spanish, not only from a cultural perspective, as is usually presented in textbooks and online resources (Garzelli et al., 2018), but also from an educational viewpoint. In other words, for these instructors, which do not seem to be the majority, Latin American Spanish can also be the language of instruction.

Andión Herrero (2009) highlights the importance of being informed about the different varieties of the Spanish language because it is through this awareness that the instructor can make important decisions in regard to the linguistic model to follow based on factors such as what is most convenient for the learners and not on what is mandated by higher level stakeholders or what is present in textbooks. The current investigation is in alignment with Andión Herrero in that instructors should not only be aware of the existence of a standard and its varieties but also of the value of the latter, which in many cases can represent the variety spoken by the instructor.

Previous research on the inclusion of linguistic diversity in the Spanish classroom advocates critical language inquiry and encourages foreign language professionals to consider local Spanish-speaking communities as linguistic and cultural resources, so learners do not see Spanish as a language spoken in far-away places (Burns, 2018). Furthermore, taking into consideration heritage speakers and their language variety in the foreign language classroom is in the best interest of learners of Spanish. Through the interaction between foreign language learners and heritage speakers, the former group is immersed in a Spanish-speaking environment, exposed to different accents and dialects, has constant reinforcement of the spoken language, learns common colloquial expressions, as well as learns about different cultures and Spanish varieties (Campanaro, 2013). In short, heritage speakers can represent linguistic models besides the textbook and the instructor.

In addition to the previously discussed language attitudes and ideologies that favor the propagation of Peninsular Spanish and the discredit of Latin American varieties of Spanish there is a series of classroom-related methodological limitations that impede instructors from infusing the classroom experience with linguistic diversity. Issues concerning time constraints and the necessity to prepare students for coordinated written exams, which most of the time focus on grammar and writing and not on how Spanish is spoken, give instructors little opportunity to include important aspects such as language variation (Burns, 2018).

The previously discussed studies present some common aspects. One of the commonalities has to do with the dominance of the standard variety, which is framed as the most prestigious one. Regardless of the prestige and value of the Standard, mostly associated with the Spanish spoken in Spain, participants in the previous investigations highlight the benefits of infusing the foreign language classroom with dialectal variation. However, the use of local speakers of Spanish and their language (heritage speakers or members of the immigrant communities) seems to be an untouched or intentionally ignored resource by stakeholders at different levels including the foreign language instructor. Another similarity among the previous investigations is methodological. Most of these studies were based on self-report questionnaires, interviews and textbook analysis. The current study aims to include the actual classroom discourse, a missing gap in the previously cited studies, to compare with what the instructors report in an online questionnaire and a focus group interview. Furthermore, previous research on linguistic diversity in the Spanish classroom takes into consideration the role of program textbooks, the Spanish curriculum, and instructors' professional and personal priorities in the foreign language classroom. In addition to these factors, the current investigation considers the influence of a coordinated Spanish program in the dissemination of a more diverse Spanish. The current study, which analyzes the inclusion or exclusion of linguistic diversity in the teaching of Spanish as a foreign language in the university context uses the following conceptual framework to analyze the data gathered:

Language Attitudes

Edwards (2009) states that an attitude is a psychological position towards something that generates an emotional reaction and that motivates the adoption of certain actions. This psychological disposition, according to Edwards, is composed of three elements: (1) the affective element, which in our case has to do with the feelings provoked by certain ways of speaking or use of certain Spanish variety; (2) the cognitive element, which in our case is related to the knowledge that speakers have of Spanish regional varieties; and (3) the behavioral element, which motivates individuals to act in certain ways (e.g. use or avoid a particular Spanish variety).

Based on Preston (2004), by studying the attitudes that a certain language variety generates, we can learn about the perceptions that people have about the individuals who speak that language variety. It is important to note, however, that people's opinions or reactions to the way others speak are many times the result of stereotypical conceptions that they already have of others and of their communities. Furthermore, by studying the language attitudes generated by the different Spanish regional varieties, we can determine the reasons why instructors choose to include or exclude them from their lessons.

In addition, language attitudes function as *input* and *output* of social action (Garret, Coupland, & Williams, 2003). It is because of the language attitudes generated by language that people modify their speech or adapt to new ways of speaking that do not necessarily make part of their linguistic identity. The language attitudes of individuals may reflect a certain language ideology held by a social group. Kroskrity (2006) characterizes language ideologies as "beliefs, or feelings, about language as used in their social worlds" (p. 498). These ideologies are constructed from specific political and economic perspectives, which influence "the cultural ideas about language" (p. 497). From this perspective, it is expected that individuals whose Spanish is considered prestigious may hold ideas that indicate its perceived superiority in comparison to the perceived social value of other Spanish varieties.

Language Policy and Language Planning

Language planning is a practice that intends to promote systematic linguistic change (e.g., standardization of a language) in a community of speakers and that leads to or is directed by the promulgation of a language policy by a government or some other authoritative body or person. It may be carried out at various levels through formal language planning documents or informal statements of intent that may not seem like language policies at all (Fergusson, 1968; Kaplan, 2013).

Language planning, which is associated with a top-down activity influenced by the views or beliefs of a specific dominant social group (Webb, 2006), is a political activity since it cannot be neutral in its practice. Kaplan (2013) explains that exercising language planning involves the interaction of three groups of actors: experts (e.g. linguists and applied linguists), people with influence (e.g. people with high social standing) and people with power (e.g., national leaders and high placed officials). However, in foreign language education, and more specifically at the classroom level, language policy is exercised by foreign language instructors, and is highly influenced by textbooks.

Communicative Language Teaching

Based on Littlewood (1981), the second language classroom is an environment where students and teachers should interact using language that has the potential to be present in conversations outside the academic setting. From this perspective, knowledge about the grammar of the language is important if it can be related to the functional and social meaning that this linguistic aspect has. Furthermore, to achieve communicative language use, there must be an interaction between grammatical, textual, illocutionary, and sociolinguistic competencies (Bachman, 1990).

Richards (2006) summarizes the main tenets of communicative language teaching as follows: 1) Grammar and communication need to be integrated. Grammar has evolved from being an isolated, mechanical drill to a more contextualized and communicative event. 2) Communication and negotiation of meaning need to take place. 3) Communicative activities are based on students' interests and are designed in a way that students can use their knowledge in daily discourse encounters. 4) Communicative activities use authentic resources; in other words, material that has been designed by and for native speakers of the target language and their environment. By using authentic materials, the students are exposed to different regional variations of the target language.

MAIN FOCUS OF THE CHAPTER

The current paper consists of a study about the inclusion or exclusion of linguistic diversity in foreign language education. The study took place at a Southern U. S. university whose Spanish program has instructors from both Spanish and non-Spanish speaking countries. The Spanish program at this university has the characteristics of a coordinated program, which means that instructors need to follow a common syllabus and textbook, as well as give all students of the program the same written and oral projects and tests. In other words, instructors of this program have little control over the curriculum and planning of the course.

Methodology

A group of 11 graduate teaching assistants (GTAs), made up of both native and non-native speakers of Spanish, volunteered to participate in the current study. Data were gathered through an online questionnaire, four consecutive class observations of each participating instructor, and a focus group interview. First, volunteers received an online questionnaire designed in Qualtrics which included questions about personal background and teaching experience. The questionnaire also contained open-ended questions to explore instructors' attitudes towards the use of regional varieties in the classroom. After participants completed the online questionnaire, the researchers scheduled 4 sessions of video recording of Spanish classes to be able to observe a whole unit, which included a vocabulary list, a short film, grammar presentation, as well as reading and writing practice. After class observations, participants took part in a focus group interview.

Data gathered for this study was codified and analyzed through the precepts of Language Policy and Planning, Language Attitudes and Ideologies and the principles of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach.

After the data collection phase, the researchers transcribed the focus group interviews and analyzed the video recordings under the categories of lexical variation, pronunciation, grammar, use of L1 and L2, culture integration, and Communicative Language Teaching. The researchers extracted the data manually from the transcripts and summarized it in a series of charts. After performing a line-by-line analysis, a list of categories and themes emerged, which included common words or concepts related to the research topic (linguistic attitudes towards Spanish regional varieties in the language classroom). Data from each instrument (online interview, transcripts of video recordings, transcripts of focus group interviews, and field notes) were analyzed in detail by putting recurrent words, phrases, and sentences in a chart. After completing the charts, the researchers followed a focused coding approach to synthesize and explain broader terms. After identifying 15 categories, the researchers summarized them into four themes. These themes were aligned with the research questions of the study. In other words, a theoretical coding approach (Charmaz, 2006) was used to focus the themes within the research questions, which entailed the main concepts of the study: (a) language attitudes, (b) standard and nonstandard languages, and (c) the integration of Communicative Language Teaching precepts.

Findings

Hispanic vs non-Hispanic Instructors' Opinions About Spanish Regional Varieties

In this study, Hispanic and non-Hispanic instructors differed in their opinions about linguistic variation and language prestige. On the one hand, most non-Hispanic instructors thought that the Castilian variety is the most prestigious because of the following reasons. First of all, Castilian Spanish is the source from which other Spanish varieties come. In addition, Castilian Spanish is clearer and more understandable than the Latin American variety, as well as it is the type of Spanish most found in textbooks and other teaching materials. Quotes 1, 2 and 3 exemplify this idea. Participants are given pseudonyms.

1. "Spanish from Spain is more prestigious because it is always used in academics." (Karen)
2. "I would say that Spanish from the central northern region of Spain is prestigious in most places." (Karen)

3. "and standard, too. I mean what we see in the textbooks that we use in our department." (Raquel)

It is for these reasons that non-Hispanic instructors prefer to be identified with the Peninsular variety and not with the Spanish spoken in Latin America. For instance, during the interview, a non-Hispanic instructor commented about an "uncomfortable situation" in which she was mistakenly identified as a speaker of Mexican Spanish. Based on the previous evaluations, most non-Hispanic instructors thought that Peninsular Spanish should be the model to follow in instruction.

Nevertheless, it is important to note that not all non-Hispanic instructors rejected Latin American Spanish, especially those who had personal contact with individuals from this geographical area. These instructors tended to have a more positive opinion of the Latin American variety. In fact, one of the instructors complained about the formality and rigidity of her Spanish and wished it resembled the Caribbean variety, which is one she is exposed to regularly. Likewise, and as shown in example (4), an American instructor who reported having Spanish background, encouraged her students to get involved with Spanish speakers from different varieties so they could be exposed to various accents. The current investigation is in alignment with this type of encouragement.

4. *"Tenéis que trabajar, hablar en español. Es importante practicar español con diferentes personas porque no queréis siempre oír el mismo acento, el mismo dialecto,; siempre quieres trabajar con diferentes personas"* (Beatriz)

["You must work in class, speak Spanish. It is important to practice your Spanish with different people because you don't want to hear the same accent or dialect over and over. You always want to work with different people"].

Hispanic instructors' opinions about regional varieties, including their own, were divided. Those instructors whose regional variety was considered prestigious were proud of their Spanish, and therefore, they used it in instruction including in moments in which it did not resemble the patterns presented in the textbook. On the other hand, Hispanics whose regional variety was not categorized as prestigious thought their Spanish was not appropriate for instruction, and for this reason, they were inclined to adapting to a more standard variety. The following quote (5) illustrates this reasoning:

5. *I would say that my variety is not very popular among my friends and co-workers. That is why I often hesitate to speak the Spanish from my region and opt to speak a more standard Spanish, so people can understand me better*. (Clemencia)

It is worth noting that most explicit evaluations regarding the prestige or lack of prestige of some Spanish varieties came from the non-Hispanic instructors. In fact, one of the Hispanic instructors stated that it was in the U.S. where he was most aware of the tension between the two main varieties of this language: Spanish from Spain and Latin American Spanish. In addition, he found this division problematic given the rich variation Spanish presents in both regions. For this instructor, the conversation about the separation between Peninsular and Latin American varieties of Spanish is highlighted in the American university educational setting far more than in Latin America itself.

Instructors' Reasoning for the Lack of linguistic Variation in Their Instruction

Regardless of the fact that all instructors acknowledged the value of exposing students to different Spanish varieties, some instructors' lessons lacked linguistic variation due to their strict adherence to the textbook. Most non-Hispanic instructors conformed with the linguistic model presented in the textbook because they thought that the language found in this instructional material is clear and because by doing so, they would be helping students prepare for formal assessments. As a result of the influence of the textbook, the inclusion of linguistic variation was for most non-Hispanic instructors a deviation from the program and something logistically impractical. In addition, Hispanic instructors whose linguistic variety was not considered prestigious avoided using their own Spanish variety in order to not "confuse" their students. Consequently, these instructors modified their way of speaking and adapted to a more standard variety. In fact, these instructors also admitted modifying their Spanish when socializing with coworkers or friends whose variety was considered "superior". Example (6) illustrates this reasoning:

6. *I try to use a more standard variety even if it means changing the variety that I am used to speaking with my friends and family.* (Clemencia)

Some Contradictions

A series of contradictions regarding the inclusion or exclusion of linguistic diversity were noticed in this research. For instance, while all instructors explicitly stated that all varieties are equally important, clear preferences towards Peninsular Spanish were exteriorized by most non-Hispanic instructors, especially regarding the variety that they consider should be taught. Also, perhaps due to some degree of complexity of certain grammatical constructions, some instructors ended up ignoring common elements of Peninsular Spanish, such as the second person plural informal form of address *vosotros*. In fact, and as can be seen in example (7), an instructor who defended the inclusion of linguistic variation in the Spanish classroom admitted telling her students to ignore this form and instead use *ustedes*, which is used only in formal contexts in Spain.

7. *If it's (referring to the pronoun* ***vosotros****) on the quiz, I tell them (the students) to cross it out. I tell them to cross it out and use* ***ustedes***. (Karen)

Also, while most non-Hispanic instructors advocated the propagation of a standard Spanish or of a variety that resembles Castilian Spanish, they ended up incorporating some linguistic variation through the use of authentic material that addressed the topic of culture and that was present in the textbook or was brought directly by these instructors. Among other aspects, this material included readings, movies, and songs. It was noticed during class observation that the incorporation of linguistic variation in these instructors' lessons raised students' interest and curiosity. Besides, the use of authentic material by some instructors resulted in teaching moments of linguistic aspects that characterize the Spanish spoken in some parts of Latin America. One of such cases included an instructor who brought to class a song by the Colombian singer *Juanes*. When going over the lyrics of the song, the instructor had to briefly explain the presence and use of second person form of address *vos.* The instructor explained that this linguistic form is common in several Latin American countries, including Colombia, country from which this singer comes. It is important to note that the form of address *vos* is not used in Peninsular Spanish. The previously described situation can be seen in example (8):

8. *I actually do point it out almost every year, especially when I do an activity with* ***A Dios le Pido*** *which is a song by* ***Juanes****, who is from* ***Medellin,*** *where they use* ***vos…****. So, I always play the song with the lyrics on the screen and I point it out to my students, and I tell them it's very important if you're gonna be, if you're interested in any place in South America. A lot of places use it.*

The Spanish Coordinated Program

Participants' discussions about the integration of linguistic diversity in a coordinated Spanish program revolved around three main topics: time constraints, the need to strictly follow textbooks, and the necessity to prepare students for formal assessments. Many of the participants stated that the coordinated program for which they taught did not provide any specific guidelines about the use of regional varieties during instructional time, which could have influenced these instructors' exclusion of linguistic diversity in their instruction. However, one of the common, perhaps implicit, beliefs about a coordinated program was that the instructor had to adapt to the language presented in the textbook because this was the language expected to be used in formal assessments. However, while some instructors were concerned about teaching to the book or about preparing students for formal assessments, others voiced their opinion against the implicit necessity to adapt to a standard language, which in the end can both benefit and harm students' interests. For these instructors who opposed a strict adherence to the linguistic model of the textbook, if students learn to communicate, it should not matter the Spanish variety they use. In short, although the language program in which the study took place did not have any specific policies related to the use of Spanish regional varieties, some instructors assumed that they needed to strictly follow what was presented in the textbook to help students prepare for their respective formal assessments.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this study, Hispanic and non-Hispanic instructors differed in regard to the language ideologies they hold towards the Spanish language and its speakers. On one hand, non-Hispanic instructors tended to find prestige only in the Peninsular variety. Based on Preston (2004), these instructors' attitudes towards both normative and regional varieties demonstrate their positioning not only towards certain forms of speech but also towards the individuals who use such forms. Preston explains that people's negative evaluation of a speech or the way of speaking of a group is indicative of the stereotypes that are associated with the individuals who use such linguistic forms. On the other hand, while most Hispanic instructors hold their own Spanish variety in high estimation, some are also influenced by traditional beliefs that undermine certain Latin American varieties of Spanish. In the previous section, we read about a Hispanic instructor who modifies her way of speaking when socializing with Spanish speakers from other regions due to the lack of prestige of her Spanish variety. Individuals engage in this kind of linguistic behavior in order to gain from others particular reactions (Garret, Coupland, & Williams, 2003). In the present context, we can conclude that individuals who modify their Spanish when interacting with others do it in order to claim membership in a group of Spanish speakers whose Spanish has social value.

The current study shows that the textbook is an extremely influential factor in regard to the linguistic model to follow in the foreign language classroom. In other words, the textbook is for many instructors the source of the language policy to be implemented in instruction; therefore, most instructors adhere to the lexical, syntactic, and phonetic patterns displayed by this instructional material even if by doing so, some of them have to modify their own way of speaking. However, the current investigation posits that making the textbook the center of the language policy in foreign language education can be detrimental for the cultural and linguistic identity of the instructor whose linguistic variety contrasts with the one presented in the textbook. As a consequence of this difference, the instructor whose Spanish variety differs from the one emphasized in the textbook may think that their Spanish is not valid for instruction and therefore needs to be replaced by a more prestigious one. In addition, making the textbook the center of the language policy to follow in instruction is also detrimental for the students. By having the textbook as the only language model in instruction, instructors deprive students from the type of language that is used in most everyday casual social interactions. Ramírez and Hall (1990) affirm that the target audience for Spanish textbooks in the U.S. (middle-class students) need to be "provided with what is perceived to be the appropriate linguistic and cultural reality (p 64)." This disconnection between textbook language on one side and the variety held by the instructor or the language used in real-life settings is also discussed by Kramsch (2014), who posits that "classroom reality is not the hybrid heteroglossic reality of the world outside" (p. 300). Moreover, textbooks and other language learning materials should be examined critically and supplemented with authentic resources and diverse perspectives (Linwood & Johnson, 2017)

Furthermore, learning how Spanish is used in different regions is beneficial for the learners of this language because it can prepare them to interact not only with linguistic but also with cultural competence, an aspect that one of the participating non-Hispanic instructors identified as missing from her Spanish variety. In fact, according to Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) "languages learned in school tend to be too formal, too limited in practical registers (i.e. too 'literary'), with relatively little accommodation to real communicative needs, often substantially ignoring pragmatic features entirely" (p. 280). For the current investigation, this problematic situation described by Kaplan and Baldauf stems, in great part, from the notorious role of the textbook as the source of language policy in foreign language instruction.

Findings of this study also show that the legitimization of Latin American Spanish exists only in the frame of culture but not in the frame of instruction. However, this investigation posits that the validity of Latin American Spanish should not be based only on isolated cultural instances presented in textbooks. Latin American Spanish should also be a model to work from, especially since this is the linguistic variety that most students will be faced in the nearby immigrant communities in the U.S.

In their quest for exposing students to a prestigious variety of Spanish, instructors many times deprive learners from learning and practicing linguistic forms that they may encounter in real life scenarios. In the same way, avoiding complex forms such as the conjugation and practice of *vosotros* weakens students' abilities to interact with pragmatic and cultural proficiency with speakers of Peninsular Spanish. This investigation urges Spanish programs to include linguistic variation in a manner that both parts, Spain and Latin America, are represented. While in the end instructors make important linguistic decisions based on their experience and preference with the language, they should expose students to their own variety of Spanish, to the one presented in the textbook, and also to varieties spoken by Hispanic local communities.

The inclusion of authentic material in the lessons of the participating instructors of this investigation resulted in opportunities for students to be exposed to linguistic diversity. The current study considers that such opportunities should be extended and also need to be the focus of instruction. For instance, by exposing students to the form of address *vos* through a song, a participating instructor in this study was able to teach about an important linguistic element of Latin American Spanish. Shenk (2014) affirms that *vos* is used by at least a third of the whole Spanish-speaking population. However, in contrast with its popularity among Latin American native speakers, it is practically excluded from the university Spanish classroom and textbooks (López López, Martínez Franco and Yazan, 2019). Moreover, while v*os* does not make part of the curriculum of this particular Spanish program, *vosotros*, which is used only in Spain, is included in the grammatical explanations of textbooks and is also used and emphasized by several instructors.

The current investigation urges Modern Language departments to have explicit policies regarding the inclusion of linguistic diversity in their programs. This policy should encourage instructors to embrace Spanish from a more diverse perspective. Instead of focusing on prescriptive rules portrayed by textbooks which can implicitly impose negative ideologies towards the target local community, language needs to be viewed as an entity that embraces variation and allows creativity (Shohamy, 2006).

Language planning is exercised by different stakeholders (e.g. textbook editors, language program directors, and instructors). The direct or indirect requirement and/or teaching of only the standard or of a prestigious variety of language is a result of implicit or explicit language planning. However, in line with Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), the choice of the standard will certainly disadvantage members of linguistically heterogeneous communities that may result underrepresented or ignored in foreign language instruction. In fact, Kaplan and Balduaf argue that this type of language planning, "reproduces rather than overcomes sociocultural and econotechnical inequalities as well as inhibits or counteracts multiculturalism" (p. 80). In other words, focusing only on the standard or only on a prestigious variety is ignoring the existence of other Spanishes.

The Inclusion of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the Development of Students' Communication Skills

One of the main goals of foreign language learning is to be able to communicate with members of the target community. Similarly, CLT's main tenet states that language instructors' main concern should be the developing of communication skills. While this goal was shared by all participating instructors of this study, some instructors' practices contrasted with these precepts. Because Some instructors' worried about following the Spanish presented in the textbook and sounding as "neutral" as possible their lessons not only lacked linguistic variation but also contrasted with the way many Spanish speakers communicate with one another. CLT encourages the use of authentic material and the presentation and use of natural language. However, in this study, some of the instructors tended to modify their speech because they thought their students would not understand them if they used their regional variety. Some instructors also paid more attention to linguistic features such as vocabulary and pronunciation than to content. These practices do not align with the precepts of CLT since CLT promotes the use of natural language and the teaching of content rather than just grammar and vocabulary. Moreover, a focus on grammar and pronunciation suggests traces of traditional and outdated methods such as the grammar-translation and the audiolingual methods.

The current investigation is in alignment with Andión Herrero (2009) in that some Spanish instructors feel pressure from academic authorities and materials to teach the standard, which they associate mostly with the Castilian variety. Findings of this investigation are also in alignment with Burns (2018) in that instructors find time constraints and the necessity to prepare students for written assessments. These are reasons why instructors do not include linguistic variation in their lessons. Moreover, the focus on grammar and writing and not on how Spanish is actually used was another point of congruence between these previous studies and the current investigation.

Also, in agreement with previous studies (Garzelli et all., 2018; Bugel & Santos, 2010), the current investigation shows a discrepancy between the language of instruction and the language of the Hispanic immigrant community. Garzelli et al. (2018) had found that regardless of the vast presence of immigrants from Latin America, the use of Spanish from Spain prevails not only in teaching materials, but also in teachers' linguistic choices. The same was true in the current investigation. However, while in previous investigations the preference for a Peninsular Spanish was in part motivated by official language policies, as in the Brazilian case (see Bugel and Santos, 2010), in the current investigation this preference stems from other factors including the massive influence of publishing companies, the personal language ideology of instructors and the management of Spanish programs, which fail to include Latin American linguistic elements in their courses. It is important to note that while Latin American Spanish is indirectly taken into consideration when talking about culture, it does not make part of the direct instruction of many instructors.

FUTURE RESEARCH AND DIRECTIONS

Nonstandard and underrepresented varieties of Spanish represent a rich field of research, and based on the results of the current investigation, they tend to be left out from instruction. One of the reasons why they are ignored is because such varieties are practically left out from textbooks. Therefore, future research could focus on the linguistic and social aspects that influence textbook editors or publishing companies in propagating a certain type of Spanish variety while at the same time ignoring other linguistic varieties that may be more representative of the local context. Future research could also focus on programs in which a textbook is not followed to observe the type of input (linguistic variety) instructors bring to the classroom.

Future investigations can also include a larger group of participants representing more Spanish varieties in order to provide a more thorough explanation of the social and instructional value of the different varieties of the Spanish language. In addition, the group of participating instructors from the current investigation is comprised of graduate teaching assistants, some of whom have no prior teaching experience and have taught only in a coordinated program. Thus, working with a group of full-time instructors who have more years of experience and work more independently could shed light on their perspectives towards Spanish regional varieties.

CONCLUSION

This chapter shows that in the area of foreign language teaching, and more specifically in the teaching of Spanish, Hispanic and non-Hispanic instructors tend to differ in their opinions regarding language prestige and inclusion of linguistic diversity. While most Hispanic instructors hold their own variety of Spanish in high estimation, non-Hispanic instructors tend to find prestige only in the variety that represents North Central Spain. In addition, this investigation shows that the legitimization of the Latin American variety of Spanish exists only in the frame of culture but not in the frame of linguistic instruction, in which the Peninsular variety is the model to follow. Furthermore, this study shows that the Spanish textbook is the main source of the language policy that most instructors tend to follow. Although the language program in which the study took place did not have any specific policies regarding the inclusion of Spanish regional varieties in instruction, some instructors assumed that they needed to strictly follow what is presented in the textbook to help students prepare for their respective formal assessments rather than for using language in real communication.

In this investigation, language planning and management occur at the macro (e.g. Publishing companies) and micro dimensions (e.g. the classroom) because language is not the property of only those who hold the institutional power (Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008). From this perspective, the current study proposes a series of measures that stakeholders should take to ensure the representation of various Spanish varieties in foreign language education. First, textbook creators (publishing companies) can take into consideration research that shows the necessity to infuse textbooks with more linguistic diversity, not just as peripheral elements, but as part of the language being promoted. The expertise of sociolinguists in the devising of such material can guide textbook companies in producing teaching materials that are in closer alignment with the way Spanish is used in different parts of the Hispanic world. Also, program managers or language program directors can make sure that the programs they oversee have specific guidelines in regard to the inclusion of linguistic diversity in the curriculum not just from a cultural perspective but also from the point of view of instruction and communication. In the case of both coordinated and not coordinated programs, assessment tools should include elements that measure the learner's knowledge of not only the standard but also of important underrepresented language forms used by Latin American immigrant communities. Furthermore, Spanish graduate programs play an essential role in the formation of future foreign language teachers. Curricula from such programs should include coursework that demystify the social value of Latin American varieties of Spanish. Finally, this chapter encourages modern language instructors to use their agentive position as language policy makers to deviate from traditional language attitudes that undermine the value of nonstandard and underrepresented language varieties.

Modern language departments must include in their Spanish programs not only the prestigious standard but also other varieties that are usually underrepresented or undervalued. Exposing the foreign language student to only one linguistic model ignores the pluricentric nature of the Spanish language and its linguistic variation. Furthermore, by exposing the student to only a common or standard Spanish, something advocated by macro-level stakeholders such as RAE (Spanish abbreviation for the Spanish Royal Academy), the student is deprived of the social, political, religious, and economic settings in which Spanish develops in different parts of the world.

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Chapter 11
The Great Resignation and Organizational Culture

Cynthia Maria Montaudon-Tomas
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2595-6960
UPAEP Universidad, Mexico

Anna Amsler
https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3183-0878
Independent Researcher, Mexico

Ingrid N. Pinto-López
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1580-1375
UPAEP Universidad, Mexico

ABSTRACT

This chapter analyzes the phenomenon known as the great resignation or the big quit, which entails the massive voluntary resignations or mass exodus of workers that have been taking place in different organizations across the globe. Although the notion has acquired relevance during the COVID-19 pandemic and is connected to reassessing or revaluating work and the fragility of life, it was first developed in 2019 by Professor Antony Klotz of Texas A&M University. Different factors associated with this phenomenon are described, along with changes that will occur in the world of work in order to deal with The Great Resignation.

INTRODUCTION

The great resignation has been at the center of two main controversies. On the one hand, it has been considered as a localized phenomenon (Kelly, 2021) which cannot be replicated worldwide (Domínguez, 2021). It has also been suggested that it refers to specific groups of rebel employees and should not be generalized. In fact, Cristine Lagarde, President of the Central European Bank, has stated that a great resignation similar to that in the United States is not going to be replicated in the Euro Zone except for

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch011

very specific sectors (Lagarde in Cinco días, 2021). On the other hand, it has been established that this will become an unstoppable phenomenon that will mark a new era in work culture in terms of reevaluating life and work. The great resignation has been considered as a type of virus in which other countries are worried that contagions might happen (Miralles, 2022). It will become an important trend in the future of work because people want equitable workplaces where their mental health and wellbeing matters (Williams in Halper, 2021).

A general discontent in the workforce seems to be an underlying condition since employees feel compelled to resign due to work conditions, personal dignity, and even their health. Work-life balance becomes an imperative, and the great resignation is a call to action about working conditions and the meaning of work. It is apparently the first time that employees feel empowered enough to put their desires and needs first (Corbett, 2021).

The phenomenon has also been linked to the health crisis because employees grew accustomed to a higher degree of flexibility and independence through the practice of remote work. Some fear reentering unsafe workplaces (Lepisto, 2021); others are tired of juggling jobs, caregiving, and the pandemic, and are bowing out of the workforce altogether (Andrewsen, 2021a). In this sense, workers are realizing that they would rather explore new working schemes or opportunities instead of being forced back into an office or have strict schedules (Caprino, 2021), believing that now is the time to make a long-contemplated change (Lepisto, 2021). The new Zeitgeist which resulted from the COVID-19 pandemic has forced individuals to rethink how they want to live their lives, and what they are willing to accept or not by recalibrating the notion of value. The health crisis changed humankind, and modified the perceptions of time and space, and even the nature of work.

It is important to state that the problematic situation from which resignations stem cannot be located in a particular industry or sector; it is dependent on the place of work as well as working conditions. Massive resignations are not random, they are a response to work demoralization (Lipman, 2017). They are also not intrinsically related to roles, job descriptions or salaries; it is a generalized workplace issue where the highest resignation rate is among not engaged and actively disengaged employees (Gandhi & Robinson, 2021). This is particularly relevant considering that, according to Gallup's "State of the Global Workplace: 2021 Report", most employees are not engaged or are actively disengaged (Gandhi & Robinson, 2021). This chapter presents a literature review with the aim of identifying the most important factors that influence massive job turnovers, such as age and generation, gender conditions, caring for children or elderly, the pandemic context, and a reevaluation of the meaning of life and work after the pandemic.

BACKGROUND

The great resignation is a term coined by professor Antony Klotz for Texas A&M University before the pandemic reshaped the nature of work. Klotz anticipated that there would be a huge resignation wave based on a few different factors and that many employees would have resigned their jobs with or without the pandemic (Kaplan, 2021). Studies of this phenomenon have been centered on how and why people are leaving their jobs and where this decision is leading (Miralles, 2022). This has led to conclusions stating that this movement is a massive reevaluation of the premise that a job is more than a means to an end (Aratani, 2021).

Interestingly enough, movements like this are not entirely new. Although causes might differ, generalized discontent and mass exodus of workers have been present and persistent throughout history. The great resignation can be compared to the idea of the runaways, running away from work in search for a better life. This is not a recent phenomenon, but a historical and sometimes cyclical one. Between 1600 and 1800, there were important desertions across empires, economic systems, regions, and types of work. Massive exodus of paid workers or forced labor were mainly caused by unpermitted absences, work-related grievances such as violent treatment, and fear of further deterioration of conditions of what was acceptable and what was not. An example is the case of sailors refusing to sail in harsh weather conditions or small allowances. This phenomenon was visible in the military with the desertion of soldiers, and when slavery was common, slave runaways, and massive migrations. Mass desertions are high concentrations of people in similar situations. It also happened among agriculture workers, indentured laborers, convicts, and inmates of concentration camps. In the last century, the world saw the Parisian situationists who painted "ne travaillez jamais" (never work) in the 60's (Fanjul, 2022).

Desertion has existed for thousands of years, violating either legal or moral obligations, and was seen as an act of disobedience. This phenomenon resulted from a rejection of working conditions and the need to find a better future. It shed light on the work people left behind. Mobility was sometimes criminalized, and strategies were established to bind people to their work, having control over the workforce through formal rules, laws, and regulations for the working environment and daily life.

There have been constant flows of desertions. The issues include long-standing sources of discontent and specific incidents that crystalize into feelings of discontent, creating a shift in the sentiments of workers (Donegan, 2021). Dissatisfaction prevails, people are frustrated at the same social discontent that has been showing in the form of protests that have been escalating for the last fifteen years, revealing a historical period of massive unrest across the globe. In a polarized world, protests are expanding, and the COVID-19 pandemic has increased dissatisfaction with the global cultural context (Ittefaq et al., 2022). There are constant crisis, inequality, and a search for justice and civil rights. There is a constant search for better public services, pensions, salaries, dignified work, and fundamental rights (Ortiz, Saenz-Cortez, 2021). Yet, for a long time, in social and labor relations, desertion was not a decision to be taken lightly (van Rossum & Kamp, 2016).

From a gender perspective, apparently, part of the great resignation is actually just mothers forced to resign from their jobs. Women have been leaving the labor force at twice the rate of men. In the US, one third of all mothers in the workforce left their jobs, and shortages in personnel are being felt more acutely in sectors in which women make up the majority of workers such as hospitality, retail and healthcare. Under crisis conditions it is very difficult for women to put their kids in care services due to high costs. Women are not voluntarily leaving the workforce, they are being forced out of jobs with little pay that do not cover childcare solutions which are high cost (Donegan, 2021).

The United States has been at the forefront of this movement. In just four months, from April to June 2021, 11.5 million Americans left their jobs and 48% were actively searching for new job opportunities (Kane, 2021; Andrewsen, 2021b). In Canada, the numbers are a lot lower; nearly 200,000 workers have resigned, yet it seems that a workplace resignation boom may be looming since 33% of the workforce are considering whether to change jobs or not (Gaviola, 2021). The great resignation is creating a contagion effect, and the more people resign, the more other people are considering resigning too.

In Europe, the great resignation has also started to appear. In the UK alone, 4.7% of the workforce have resigned and 38% have considered resigning in the next six months to a year. In Germany, 6% have resigned and one third of German businesses have reported talent shortage, while in the Netherlands, 2.9% of the workforce has resigned and a large portion of the population has opted for different types of self-employment, reporting that for the first time in fifty years there have been more vacancies than unemployed people (Lorimer, 2021). In France, 2.3% of the workforce have left their jobs, while in Belgium, the resignation figure was 1.9% by October 2021 (LLB, 2021).

MAIN FOCUS OF THE CHAPTER

A brief bibliometric analysis was done to identify the most relevant literature on the topic. A search on Google Scholar yielded 108 results by December 2021. Dimensions provided eighteen results while only three hits were found on the Web of Science and four in Scopus, due to the novelty of the topic. Two of the publications are from medical and health areas, one from engineering and one from business and strategy. Because the topic is relatively novel, a vast majority of the available information that has been included comes from different international agencies, consulting companies, and media reports. A literature review is presented with the aim of dissecting some of the factors involved in the great resignation.

Issues, Controversies, Problems

Understanding the Great Resignation

Millions of people are leaving their jobs, and additional millions will wait until the end of the pandemic to do so. Many of them are resigning without having a fall-back plan. Massive resignations are traditionally associated with an economy of abundance, yet the pandemic and post-pandemic world is better depicted as an economy of scarcity in which people protect their employment regardless of the working conditions. The resulting talent flux is contradictory to crisis conditions.

Some motivations to resign were intensified by the pandemic, such as the desire of employees to make up for lost time during confinement conditions, the search for better working conditions, a better understanding of the value of time, and the resistance to return to spending hours a day stuck in traffic or to an office that could lead to possible contagions. Furthermore, many are rethinking what work means and are in search of greater work-life balance and flexibility (Andrewsen, 2021b).

Disengagement and demoralization at work, can be considered as triggers to employee turnover, particularly in toxic corporate culture contexts. These factors have been associated with different dimensions including organizational climate, personal connections, leadership and supervision, recognition and growth opportunities. If companies fail to promote diversity, equity, and inclusion and workers feel undervalued or disrespected (Sull, Sull, Zweig, 2022) it will affect passion and purpose, organizational performance, and life balance, leading to higher turnover rates.

Since the beginning of the pandemic, change has abounded, and because of the crisis, change has no longer been a choice, but a necessary condition for survival (Machado, 2021). This phenomenon helps explain why employees are switching jobs at an accelerated rate in the hunt for better salaries, benefits, or work-life balance (Perry, 2021). Many workers are flocking towards firms that have a strong culture of fairness and empathy (Andrewsen, 2021b). Table 1 presents some of the most relevant notions associated with the great resignation, which help shed some light on the causes and consequences of this phenomenon.

Table 1. Notions associated with the great resignation

Notion	Description	Authors
The great resignation	The higher-than-normal quit rate of American workers that began in the spring of 2021 and continued into the fall.	Klotz, 2019 Fontinelle, 2022
The big quit	People quitting in record numbers. A synonym of the great resignation	Walters, 2021 Manno, 2021
The great discontent	Employees who are disengaged from their jobs and are currently searching for better job opportunities.	Ghandi, V., & Robison, J, 2021 Gallup, 2021
The great dissatisfaction	A feeling of working under strenuous conditions	Ortiz & Saenz-Cortez, 2021 XinhuaNet, 2021
The great attrition	A reevaluation process in terms of people's working lives which includes a reconsideration and reordering of priorities with a focus on wellbeing. This includes looking for more flexibility with work schedules, better wages, and more meaningful work.	Mc Nutt, 2021
Strikestober and Strikesgiving	These are common names given to the great resignation, referring to the month of October when the resignations started escalating and then to the festivities of thanksgiving in the month of November when they continued rising.	Poley, 2021 Ricker & Cohen, 2021
The great desertion	It involves a newfound understanding of opportunities and possibilities which leads people to sway away from work, abandoning, forsaking, and severing connections.	van Rossum, & Kamp, 2016 van der Linden, 2016
The great burnout	As businesses are dealing with less workers, the loyal workers that remained are experiencing burnout, managing greater workloads.	Leonhardt, 2022
The great regret	A shock after leaving a job, entering a promising position that was not that great, realizing the lost opportunity and wanting the job back.	Marks, 2022

Source: Developed by the authors with information from the cited sources.

Variables Associated with the Great Resignation

According to Thomspon (2021), a myriad of factors are driving this trend, most of them related directly or indirectly to the environment created by the COVID-19 pandemic.

Age

A recent study (Cook, 2021) shows that employees in the 30-45 age range have had the highest resignation rates, with an average increase of over 20% in the period from 2020 to 2021. Usually, it is young people aged 20 to 25 who have the greatest resignation rates but it is believed that during the pandemic, which created financial uncertainty and also reduced the global demand for entry-level workers, has prompted young people to stay in their jobs longer than before. Nevertheless, specific groups such as millennials are facing financial problems and disillusionment with their jobs (Aratani, 2021). Resignation rates also dropped for the 60-70 age group.

Gender

According to data from Gusto, a payroll services firm, women are quitting their jobs at a faster pace than men are; the study identified 5.5% of women quitting their jobs in comparison to 4.4% of men (Picchi, 2021). Considering the gender variable makes it harder to generalize the causes behind the great resignation, as women tend to have different reasons for leaving the workforce, reasons that got exacerbated during the pandemic. In most cases, women are not quitting because they have been on personal journeys of self-discovery and reevaluation of the meaning of life and the role of work in it, it's because they don't really have a choice as, during the pandemic, work interfered more than ever with the socially constructed gender roles, including child and elder care, as well as housework. As schools and daycare centers closed, a lot of women had to take on the responsibility of primary caregivers (Holpuch, 2020). "As far as working mothers are concerned, the Great Resignation doesn't reflect women leaving the workforce; it reflects them being forced out" (Donegan, 2021). This phenomenon has led to what has been called the "shecession" or female recession which refers to an economic downturn where job and income losses affect women more than their male counterparts (Holpuch, 2020). In addition to having to care for others, another reason why the health crisis has affected women more is that they are more likely to work in customer-facing jobs like the hospitality and retail industries that were hard-hit by restrictions and social distancing measures.

Career

According to Cook (2021), resignation rates are highest among mid-career employees, which coincides with the general characteristics of people in the 30-45 age group. This phenomenon can be influenced by different factors. On the one hand, transition to remote work could have influenced employer decisions regarding the perception of risk associated with hiring people with little experience because the opportunities for in-person training and guidance are limited, which creates a demand for mid-career employees that, in turn, gives them a higher leverage regarding better job opportunities that might make them leave their current employer. Nevertheless, the uncertainty related to the health crisis might have also pushed employees to stay in their jobs longer than they would have, enduring important changes, more work pressure, stress, and even burnout, and now that the situation allows greater flexibility, more people feel safe to leave and change career paths (Cook, 2021). Thompson (2021) has proposed an interesting perspective on the great resignation, stating that the phenomenon is mostly a dynamic, "free agency" period for low-income workers in particular, who are switching jobs to make more money. Additionally, there is also a moderate surge of early retirements triggered by the pandemic.

Sector or Industry of Employment

The fields of healthcare and information technology are the most dramatically affected by resignations (Jones-Schenk, Trepanier and Jones-Schenk, 2021). This can also be related to the above-mentioned work pressure and resulting stress levels linked to jobs that were in high demand during the pandemic. Health practitioners have been at the center of this issue, especially due to working conditions and burnout (Sheather & Slattery, 2021); they have quit in an average of 3.6% more than in the previous year (Cook, 2021). Apparently, the number of doctors planning to take early retirement is also on the rise (Sheather & Slattery, 2021). In tech, resignations increased by 4.5% (Cook, 2021).

A study conducted by McKinsey (2021) determined that organizations in the leisure and hospitality industry are also at risk of losing employees. Additionally, the education sector also faced this challenge; results show that almost one-third of educators reported that they are at least somewhat likely to leave their jobs (McKinsey, 2021).

Burnout Syndrome

The changes in the way in which people work imposed by the pandemic resulted in schedules becoming blurred, along with the line between work and personal life. It is common for remote employees to feel as if they are living at work (Hayes, Priestley, Ishmakhametov & Ray, 2020). This context has led to increased stress and burnout syndrome. Burnout can be defined as a chronic stress syndrome which leads to continuous feelings of exhaustion derived from work-related activities (Demerouti, Mostert & Bakker, 2010). It is considered a psychological condition derived from long-term physical and mental fatigue that can lead to detachment, cynicism, reduced job performance and satisfaction, and even increased resignation intentions (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, & Christensen, 2005).

According to a survey, burnout is the number one reason as to why people left their previous employer (Schwantes, 2021). The stress related to the transition to remote work, the changes in work schedules, the general uncertainty about the future of work as a whole and one's specific job contribute to burnout, which might leave people feeling unsure of how they want to proceed in terms of their professional life (Stahl, 2021). In this context, it is possible that leaving their current job or organization seems like the best choice in the face of burnout (Valcour, 2018). However, burnout syndrome is not the only underlying reason for the great resignation (Miralles, 2022).

Savings Due to Confinement

In many cases, employees were able to save money for not going out, canceled traveling plans, and lack of social activities (Palomeque, 2021); having the savings provided a sense of security. In a survey conducted by Flexjobs, 65% of pandemic remote workers said they wanted to keep working from home and 58% stated they would look for a new job if returning to the office became mandatory; saving money and having no commute were some of the main reasons behind this (Buchholz, 2021).

New Ways of Working

Work options are increasing, and with technological developments and a world-wide trial run of massive remote work adoption, more and more employers are offering teleworking choices for hard-to-source talent. This means that employees who prefer these types of work arrangements might consider switching to a job that allows them to remain out of an office (McKinsey, 2021). Many organizations are telling employees they have to return to the office, at least part-time; however, as many as one-third of employees say they will resign if they can no longer work from home (Corbett, 2021). The great transition to remote work during the pandemic has had a profound impact on the way people think about the schedules they follow and the places they carry out work from (Hsu, 2021).

According to McKinsey (2021), the growing offer of "location agnostic" positions influence employees' decisions regarding staying at a job, especially if leaders do not handle the transition to hybrid work environments appropriately and in a way that aligns with employees' needs and expectations (McKinsey, 2021). Technology is prepared to do most of today's jobs, especially the least qualified, the least creative and the most repetitive; this is visible in financial services in which tellers have been replaced for machines, and in supermarkets too (Fanjul, 2022).

Not Wanting to Return to the Office

A multitude of workers who had been working remotely do not want to return back to the office for multiple reasons. Some of them are suffering from what has been called "cabin fever" and are afraid or simply unwilling to leave the house after growing accustomed to working from home and getting used to living in social distancing conditions. Others have simpler motives, such as not wanting to spend any more time stuck in traffic during their commutes. Whether it's comfort, routine, or fear, plenty of people refuse to go back to a traditional office job.

Workplace Safety and Occupational Health

Aside from other factors, one of the reasons people might quit amid the pandemic is a worry for their health and wellbeing. The health crisis has led to a reconsideration of occupational health due to the fact that, in remote working conditions, employers were generally not responsible for the physical or mental wellbeing of employees. However, that is not the end of the problem. When organizations started re-transitioning into hybrid or completely face-to-face schemes, new concerns arose with regards to the health and wellbeing of workers (Sull, Sull, Zweig, 2022).

Many departing employees have stated that they did not feel like their employers were taking the necessary precautions and measures to protect them from COVID-19, which has led to plenty of them quitting amid health concerns (Miller, 2021). In a recent study, employees who talked about their employer's response to the pandemic in negative terms were deemed as more likely to quit; the same pattern applies to employees' views on their organization's policies in terms of general health and wellbeing in the workplace (Sull, Sull, Zweig, 2022). Some people are planning to put in their notice after COVID-19 breakouts in the office. Several have stated that working in an environment where vaccines, masks, and social distancing are not mandatory seems terrifying (Miller, 2021).

Workplace Culture and Climate

Some of the most cited factors which employees attribute to quitting relate to perceptions or feelings of being undervalued in their place of work or by their supervisor and the lack of a sense of belonging or fitting in in their organization (McKinsey, 2021). Recent studies have found corporate culture a more reliable predictor of attrition than just compensation. A toxic corporate culture is 10.4 times more impactful than compensation in terms of predicting an organization's attrition rate within its industry (Sull, Sull, Zweig, 2022). Employees are becoming angry and resentful as a result of a demoralizing or toxic workplace (Lipman, 2017).

The core elements that contribute to toxic corporate cultures include failing to promote diversity, equity, and inclusion, as well as unethical behaviors, all of which leads to workers feeling disrespected and to a generalized low morale (Sull, Sull, Zweig, 2022). Low morale affects productivity and retention rates, and it can be a consequence of "providing employees with an unclear career path, ignoring their ideas, being unaware of the effect that messages are giving employees, forgetting about feedback, and making big issues out of little things" (Lipman, 2017).

Resignification of Life and Work

As the new normal starts to set in after a period of chaos, uncertainty, and loss, people are leaving their jobs in search of more fulfilling opportunities in terms of money, flexibility, comfort, and happiness; many employees are rethinking the meaning of work, their own value in relation to being a productive member of society, also how they choose to spend their time, which is leading to a dramatic increase in resignations (Hsu, 2021). The pandemic context and all the changes it entails has also led to workers feeling more empowered in terms of prioritizing their safety, wellbeing, and happiness above their jobs or employers (Liu, 2021).

In this sense, there has been a significant shift in priorities which has incentivized people pursuing their dream career, become self-employed, or even stop working and focus on things like family (Morgan, 2021). In the resignification of work, some premises have been established: people make the job, it is not the job that makes a person; the real life is the one that is lived with family and friends, and a person is not the job that he/she does (Miralles, 2022). There has been a new consideration that people need less to live than what they originally thought this has been related to notions of minimalism. In fact, extreme minimalism is starting to become a trend (Miralles, 2022).

Anti-Work Movements and Job Detachment

Constant change and uncertainty have made large groups of people re-examine their roles as employees and even reflect on the purpose of their work. Some people have gone even further than that, questioning the economic system itself. These groups are part of what has been called the anti-work movement (O'Connor, 2022).

Anti-work has roots in anarchist and socialist economic ideals, defining the work of work as an unfair system that deprives workers of the full value of their output (O'Connor, 2022). This movement seeks to shift from the economic order that limits current work-related practices which people have been protesting, such as fair income, dignity at work, working conditions, workplace safety, and wellbeing.

The whole anti-work conversation is said to be a symptom of a society who has prioritized hard work, business success, and the accumulation of wealth over being dedicated to family, following passions and hobbies, or searching for happiness (Lashbrooke, 2021). Supporters of the anti-work movement maintain that people should work only as much as they need, instead of feeding a system built on generating excess capital or goods for others (O'Connor, 2022).

Hopelessness and Sadness at Work

Sadness, anxiety, loss of motivation, difficulty concentrating, and boredom are some of the symptoms of work depression. When an individual is in a job where they feel a lack of growth opportunities or that fosters complacency, it can generate a sense of lack of worth, making people question the value they have in an organization (Brockway, 2013). Additionally, a negative working environment can lead to mental and physical health issues that in turn can lead to a loss of productivity, absenteeism, and higher turnover rates (Lindberg, 2021). Working in an environment like this can make individuals feel trapped and like they don't want to be there anymore (Brockway, 2013). Any workplace can have the potential to be a contributing factor for depression, it depends on the stress tolerance levels and the support that is made available to employees (Lindberg, 2021).

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Transforming the Great Resignation into the Great Hire

One of the most relevant challenges organizations are now facing is trying to find qualified people in the workforce with the required skills to start rebuilding the global economy (Thompson, 2021), but also keeping them engaged and providing the conditions for them to stay. Great concern has been placed on what the backfire of great resignation will be and where to go from here (Walters, 2021). Retaining talent in the job-hopping world has become a critical issue (AON, 2021). According to the WEF (Mayer & Bravery, 2021), companies can diminish the effects of the great resignation by building and promoting brands that are compelling to employees as well as externally, and that Marketing and HR departments need to work collaboratively to develop and uphold the brand's values consistently across the company.

The great resignation is part of the pandemic epiphany that change is needed. People change because they have to, and in many cases, they are changing because the pandemic has placed the value of the world in a different position (Castelló, 2021). If the past couple of years have taught society and organizations anything, it's that employees want and need more human and humane elements within the world of work, to the point where they are leaving or considering leaving their jobs.

According to McKinsey (2021), employees are tired, burned out, and individuals and organizations are grieving, resulting in trying to find purpose in their work, but also find better working conditions in general. People are looking for more connections and a sense of group identity, as well as better pay, benefits, and other perks. Moreover, companies also need to recognize the evolving employee preferences that remote work has inspired (Andrewsen, 2021b). Nevertheless, it is recommended that once an employee has decided to move on, it is best to wish them well (Andrewsen, 2021a), because an unhappy employee is difficult to manage and will tend to disrupt the effectiveness of the team, and will most likely leave eventually anyway (Monster, 2020). Essentially, if someone is already thinking about finding a new job, there is a good chance that they already have one foot out the door (Son, 2016).

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Future research could focus on empirical studies that consider the variables presented in this chapter, with the aim of providing a better understanding of the issue that is backed by quantitative data. These studies could be done regionally or nationally to generate comparable results that might shed light on how the great resignation is affecting different sectors, countries, and regions.

CONCLUSION

Some state that the great resignation stems from a great discontent due to the human and social costs of the health crisis. In certain countries, millions of workers are trying to maintain their jobs in order to be able to face the economic crisis, although there are important asymmetries in different sectors. The available data cannot be considered conclusive to explain why people are voluntarily leaving their jobs (Castelló, 2021) yet, but it is possible to identify the diverse factors that can be associated with this phenomenon. Individuals leave their jobs for three major reasons: they can voluntarily quit, they can be laid off or fired or they can retire or be forced into retirement. The great resignation seems to be emerging as a troubling trend (Thomson, 2021) because it represents a tidal wave of resignations (Pomerantz, 2021; Thomson, 2021) that seems to detach itself from normal or traditional patterns for people leaving their jobs.

The great resignation has been considered as a matter of power. Initially it was the organizations which held power over the employees, especially, when to hire, or fire or bring an employee back (Miralles, 2022), and now it is the employee who has become empowered. Individuals know what they want, to feel valued by their organizations, to have meaningful interactions instead of transactions, and this will require organizations to listen and understand their employees (McKinsey, 2021). The pandemic and resulting conditions call for a time for empathy (Pearson, 2021).

Professions have been affected in different ways, considering that there has been a silent loss of highly skilled colleagues, mentors, supervisors (Sheather & Slattery, 2021), which can change the whole dynamic of an organization. One of the important questions to ask is whether this phenomenon will end if and when COVID-19 is no longer a problem, or if this will continue to be a lingering issue organizations worldwide will have to deal with (Kaplan, 2021). The big quit goes beyond resigning a job, it appears that the pandemic crisis has created a perfect storm in terms of the need for change. People are not just quitting their jobs; they are also quitting their marriages at growing rates and the life they used to have (Machado, 2021).

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Anti-Work Movements: Groups of people that share a life philosophy where work is not at the forefront of life.

Burnout: A physical and mental state of exhaustion particularly connected to work.

Discontent: A feeling of lack of satisfaction.

Remote Work: Work that is carried out away from the organization's premises using communication technologies.

Resignation: A voluntary decision to leave one's job that is taken to action.

Section 3

Practical Applications for Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging Training

Chapter 12

Including the Exclusive:
A Framework for Diversity and Inclusion Training in Intercollegiate Athletics

Abeni El-Amin
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7506-1658
Fort Hays State University, USA & Shenyang Normal University, China

Ramon Johnson
Kentucky State University, USA

ABSTRACT

This research provides an analysis of Kentucky State University's (KSU) Athletic Departmental Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging (DEIB) training series based on Wolfe's leadership competencies. Utilizing Wolfe's competencies of leaders profile to measure DEIB training effectiveness provided a framework to evaluate the program. Wolfe's four domains are Domain 1: Vision, Values, and Culture; Domain 2: Personal Skills, Mindsets, and Values; Domain 3: Capacity Building for Innovation and Continuous Improvement; and Domain 4: Shared Responsibility and Structures for Continuous Improvement, Innovation, and Assessment. It was found that leaders must focus on the internal complexities of leadership and organizational development, as well as operations. The goal of this chapter is to illuminate areas of growth as well as proficiency in DEIB training. Described is the execution of the DEIB training and development program in an intercollegiate athletic setting at a Historical Black College and University (HBCU).

INTRODUCTION

Including the Exclusive: A Framework for Diversity and Inclusion Training in Intercollegiate Athletics requires rejecting traditional philosophy and purposely identifying weaknesses, lack of knowledge, and organizational objectives to develop institutional leaders. Provided are improvement measures for what went well with the Kentucky State University Athletic Department Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch012

Belonging (DEIB) training series, what is improving, and what needs to be improved. Additionally, the strengths and weaknesses of the DEIB training and development program are highlighted.

BACKGROUND

The Meaning of Including the Exclusive in Relation to Intercollegiate Athletics

Society often perceives athletes as privileged and entitled (Bimper, 2017). This perception is credited to the popularity that athletes possess based on their physical makeup, mental fortitude, and athletic prowess. Unrealistic as it may be, this assessment has prohibited athletes' inclusion, assuming that athletes are always included. The reality is that this idea could not be further away from the truth (Singer, 2008). Ironically, false concepts like this contribute to athletes being overlooked because of their visibility. Whether it is football on a Friday night or an ongoing newsreel on ESPN, the lives of athletes are constantly accessible and allow society to formulate the opinion that athletes do not need anything.

Former athletes can personally attest to the societal omissions related to athletes (Rubin, 2016). High school counselors would work diligently with non-athletes to secure federal grant and aid opportunities and scholarships so that these students could go to college. The same urgency in providing these services to athletes is not as prevalent (Heddy et al., 2017). Counselors assume that athletes had athletic scholarship opportunities or that coaches were facilitating the process, so the need to assist the student-athlete was not their priority (Purdy et al., 1982). On the other hand, coaches assumed that counselors were obligated to assist all students. The result was that everyone assumed someone was completing a task that anyone could have completed but instead, no one did. Consequently, the student-athlete suffers due to societal perceptions and assumptions.

These assumptions continue to manifest more as athletes transition from high school to college. Whether an athlete is a Division I athlete or a Junior College athlete, society assumes that the athlete has access to unlimited resources. Because of the misconception consciously omits the athlete from gaining access to resources and services accessible to non-athletic students (Singer, 2008). The reality in most cases is that athletes need more access to resources because the number of athletic scholarships is limited, and the number of athletes that receive scholarships is even more limited. Tutorial services, mental health services, counseling, time management seminars, and advising are all services that are accessible for non-athlete students; however, the design was not intended for students that have responsibilities and obligations outside of the realm of just being a student.

Additionally, although student services are available, the pressures of athletics do not permit time to take advantage of student services. Moreover, academic scholarship services are not convenient or readily available (Singer, 2008). Outside academics, the athlete has additional responsibilities, whether team meetings, practices, games, private workouts, film study, or media interactions. Indeed, the athlete is overly committed and under-supported.

Supporting an Intercollegiate Athletics Diversity and Inclusion Training Program

Diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) is a societal need. Likewise, the University's responsibility is to prepare students to embrace, acknowledge, and accept the movement that "leaves no one behind. "The Kentucky State University Athletic Department is committed to being a "catalyst of change" in athletics and movements that holistically develop students. KSU Athletics aligns with the University's mission to prepare students for a global society, and DEIB training is evidence-based in achieving this goal. Administrators intentionally sabotage their departments if they do not establish or continue DEIB workshops and training. The proverbial blinders have been removed, and as a department and University, the administration cannot "un-see" what has been exposed (Delgado & Stefancic, 2012).

A DEIB Brown Bag Series was launched in the Athletic Department in the Spring semester of 2022 to provide training to the student-athletes of Kentucky State University. The goal is to attain 100% training participation for all athletes and athletic staff. Administrators seek to incorporate this mandate in the Student-Athlete Handbook and create a series of web-based evaluations and certifications to integrate with existing mandatory training, such as annual drug abuse, sexual abuse, or concussion certifications that athletes and athletic staff must complete.

Further, the Kentucky State University Athletic Department prides itself on being "cutting edge" and a "trailblazer" in DEIB training, support, and execution. Therefore, the objective is to continue DEIB training efforts. Although the department is responsible for student-athletes, institutional leaders must impart DEIB knowledge despite silos and divisions. Therefore, the Athletic Department will offer seminars to all community and institutional stakeholders. Furthermore, providing valuable DEIB information and services is counterproductive as it does not include all institutional stakeholders.

Moreover, Kentucky State University Athletics currently has student-athlete participation of 345 students, with an additional 160 students included in-band and auxiliary organizations. There are approximately 40 staff members that work within the department. Compared to the total on-campus student population of 1300 students and university personnel of 347, athletics counts for a third of the university population "community. "The KSU Athletic Department also collaborates with several departments, including Student Engagement, Advising, Land Grant, Food Service, Finance, and Facilities. Additionally, DEIB awareness information must be disseminated campus-wide on a frequent cycle.

The Impact of an Intercollegiate Athletics Diversity and Inclusion Training Program

Athletics are universal. As a result, diversity and inclusion training profoundly impact intercollegiate athletics. Regardless of age, race, color, religion, gender, socio-economic status, sexual orientation, or sexual preference, athletics has the global capacity to reach all, break boundaries, and drive transformational change (Richter et al., 2021). When one runs fast, swings a bat, makes a touchdown, or shoots a basketball, those who love athletics love the deed regardless of the doer. However, like any other aspect of life, people, in general, need hope. The need to feel unlimited and unrestricted is necessary for growth. Growth can be stifled or stunted if there is no representation of all identifying variants in the arena of athletics. Everyone needs "a hero," and someone who looks like them, acts like them, or can relate to them to support or aspire to be. When there are societal limitations or biased restrictions, we have eliminated the God-given right to dream. Sports has always "eased' its way into being inclusive, especially regarding race. Jesse Owens, Jackie Robinson, and Joe Louis were all respective first of color to break barriers in their respective sports. As controversial as it was, athletic pioneers changed the course. Eventually, athletic pioneers raised awareness that performing as a gifted athlete is not restricted by race and ethnicity. The movement to be inclusive continued to progress when society embraced the likes of Wyomia Tyus in track and field, Althea Gibson in tennis, and the development of the WNBA in professional basketball to remove the boundaries of gender in the world of athletics. Now more recently, athletes like Michael Sams and Brittany Griner have publicly announced their sexual preferences are continuing to break down barriers in athletics, which is the universal platform used to educate. Intercollegiate athletics will be changed and elevated by DEIB awareness because athletics has been the platform for change and the frontrunner in acceptance.

The Role of Administrators and Institutional Leaders in the role of the Intercollegiate Athletics Diversity and Inclusion Training Program

Institutional leaders are responsible for developing academic programs, the student experience, and students' psychological health and safety (Stanley et al., 2019, Steel & Bolduc, 2020). To effectively fulfill these responsibilities, administrators must be aligned with the athlete's expectations and needs. It is difficult to develop programs without doing so. In the world of athletics, no "cookie-cutter" format will satisfy the needs of everyone. Leaders must intentionally develop DEIB programming that is relatable, engaging, and action-oriented. One way that administrators contribute to DEIB institutional excellence is active involvement. Society has surpassed the days of sitting behind a stealth curtain to operate institutions (Scott et al., 2018). Leaders must be transparent in their plans, goals, and strategy. Students need to see DEIB work actively done and know their institution is a producer and a product of DEIB initiatives and effective outcomes. Administrators and leaders alike must be committed to participating in the training's recruitment, execution, retention, and application. DEIB training propels a shift in culture, such as the mentality of Clemson University's Head Football Coach Dabo Sweeny, "ALL IN," not just in words but in mindset and actions. Administrators are responsible for providing DEIB awareness and holding institutional stakeholders accountable.

Kentucky State University Athletic Department Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging (DEIB) Training Series Topics

1. **Diversity Matters Series**
   i. Unpacking Implicit Bias and Micro-aggressions: What are they and how do they affect me?
   ii. Be ALL-STAR! Utilizing the STAR method to construct dynamic and solution-based DEIB initiatives
   iii. A Framework to Build a High-Performing Diversity, Inclusion, Belonging, and Equity Culture
2. **Women's Empowerment Series**
   i. Own Your Accomplishments: Know Your Worth! Owning Accomplishments.
   ii. Wonder Woman: She's Bossy! Unpacking the Stereotypical Notion of the Term Bossy in Women's Leadership
   iii. Raise the Bar (How to Network) Raise the Bar on Women's Leadership
3. **Maximize Organizational Performance: Workplace Communication Series**
   i. Module 1: Workplace Communication for Leaders
   ii. Module 2: Workplace Communication: Intention, Tactics, and Practice
   iii. Module 3: Leading Teams: Building Trust and Commitment
   iv. Module 4: Leadership Fundamentals: Embracing Change
   v. Module 5: Leadership Fundamentals: Leading Innovation
   vi. Module 6: Leading Teams: Dealing with Conflict

vii. Module 7: Leadership Fundamentals: Building Your Influence as a Leader
viii. Module 8: Leading Teams: Fostering Effective Communication and Collaboration

The Role of the DEIB Facilitator

The role of a facilitator is to exhibit leadership and a collaborative mindset by incorporating DEIB training participants into the DEIB training process. The correlation between DEIB training and institutional goals is justifiable (Stanley et al., 2019). However, DEIB training is an individual aspect of organizational culture and exists regardless of the formal or informal facilitator role. DEIB training requires creativity, innovation, and a willingness to develop solutions. A skilled coach is an aspect of DEIB training needed to inspire others with a shared vision and outcome (El-Amin et al., 2021). Having others model what great DEIB behavior is a key component to attaining successful outcomes for participants.

Further, a facilitator assists training participants in DEIB training to attain and support DEIB training in practice. Moreover, outstanding facilitators allow others to ask questions and grow within the DEIB training process. In this vein, the facilitator often provides feedback regarding ideas, innovation, and situations. Also, when providing DEIB training, it is best to understand DEIB training dynamics and institutional objectives.

Facilitators must consider the intentional imperative within DEIB training practices to impact the outcome of DEIB programming. Intentional DEIB training necessitates understanding multiple perspectives from within the institution or on behalf of individuals. There are several ways to develop DEIB training. In the context of general DEIB training, a process whereby a collaborative develops the mission and focus of the training program. This distinction emphasizes that DEIB training is a collaborative and iterative progression, implying that more than just the actions of a leader matter. This is particularly important in a DEIB training context. Leaders and facilitators need to recognize that DEIB training is not necessarily the same as all DEIB training but must be individualized for organizational needs and audiences. For instance, highly directive DEIB training might be appropriate in one population but ineffective in another.

Therefore, planning focuses on DEIB training and allows facilitators to understand and experience solving relational issues using a structured approach in DEIB training. DEIB training skills are comprised of maintaining flexibility and utilizing adaptation skills in various circumstances to achieve the goals, objectives, and missions of participants or organizations. Additionally, aligning the value of DEIB training to institutional goals is an emerging need in executing and attaining organizational culture. Those in DEIB training must effectively develop their coaching and training skills to achieve program effectiveness. Moreover, intentional DEIB training requires executing the DEIB training process, which is critical for evaluating development and alignment metrics to foster an analytical perspective of a facilitator's abilities and program content.

Facilitators face several challenges when conducting a DEIB training program. The observations, examples, and case studies of personal accounts may not fully demonstrate everyday environments, even though observations help train participants to understand organizational diversity dynamics (El-Amin et al., 2021). Additionally, individuals may begin to speak about their past experiences once rapport is built, yet determining whether the individual is telling the truth (or not) can also be a challenge. However, depending on the critical incident, the individual may or may not tell the truth due to additional factors such as not accurately remembering the incident. More than often, when exposed to DEIB training content, individuals may enter a state of shock while training. When recalling the incident, the brain is likely to stress the mind. Therefore, it is significant to gather all information provided and authenticate it to overcome this challenge. Berger et al. (2012) argued that critical incidents and decision briefs are tools to understand program participants better. Innovative facilitators will help participants differentiate the significant dissimilarities between cases and critical incidents. This will lessen the challenge of the overall execution of the training program and minor difficulties that can be avoided before the program.

Moreover, Intercollegiate Athletics Diversity and Inclusion Training Program activities can be very time-consuming. Activities use considerable capacity where DEIB facilitators are completely overwhelmed if they do not plan what will occur during training. That is, determine who will do what, define "what is" within the scope of DEIB and "what it is not," and align the training to the intuitional mission. Moreover, training execution needs to be clear, well-defined and focused.

Likewise, Intercollegiate Athletics Diversity and Inclusion Training activities must be engaging to determine participant experiences and knowledge gained and inference for behavioral change. Even though similar DEIB incidents are presented, the participants may have completely different views of the same topic. It is often difficult to ensure that training participants stay focused on the scope of DEIB content and engagement questions, especially if they have little insight into the topic being discussed or have experienced organizational or institutional trauma. The Intercollegiate Athletics Diversity and Inclusion Training activities must be stimulating to determine psychologically shifts and underlying beliefs of DEIB (El-Amin, 2022). There are various ways that Intercollegiate Athletics Diversity and Inclusion Training Program activities could be conducted. With such variability in modalities, proper planning and scope of work are imperative when looking to implement this type of training.

Evaluating the Intercollegiate Athletics Diversity and Inclusion Training Program

Executing an intercollegiate athletics diversity and inclusion training program requires significant time to address how to engage participants. Although, the Socratic method of questioning participants may elicit engagement or make some participants withdraw. When employing the questioning method, participants provide their lived experiences and may expound with in-depth answers and reasoning. Simple questions like "what do you mean?" are extremely helpful when gathering information from participants without leading them too far in a specific direction. Opportunities for improvement indicated that dividing the work between more than one facilitator would allow a facilitator to focus on only two or three participants to ensure that a single person does not do too much work.

All strategy requires analyzing institutional problems, gaps, and actions. Provided are three alternatives which would vastly improve the activity. Trainers may consider operating as feedback loop facilitators to provide a communal context in meetings and foster reciprocity. In group problem-solving, asking critical questions: what went right, wrong, and can be improved; so, stakeholders feel encouraged to openly share their experiences within a team or on a project (Branscombe & Baron, 2017). The trainer may find challenges engaging stakeholders due to interest in discussion or time constraints. Stakeholder engagement is a persistent obstacle for trainers, yet concerns can be lessened through a well-organized and supportive mutual meeting structure (Newell et al., 2016). The ability of trainers to provide a clear and concise context in facilitation feedback is critical to promoting intercommunication and interconnection.

Understanding gaps and action are paramount to DEIB training success. Indeed, leaders who engage with others improve personally and organizationally. This explanation focuses on four basic factors (innovative ideas, people, transactions, and organizational context). An understanding of how these factors are related leads to four basic problems confronting most leaders: (1) a human problem of managing direction, (2) a process problem in managing innovative ideas into productivity, (3) a structural problem of managing contextual relationships, and (4) a strategic problem of organizational leadership. These four basic problems suggest that these elements work together to provide an overall framework to guide leaders in their pursuit of innovation (Van de Ven, 1986).

The DEIB training experience emphasizes working with cross-functional teams and teaches one the significance of building trusted relationships and inspiring a shared vision with colleagues. Professional training and development facilitators help training participants make real-world DEIB connections and determine solutions. Leaders must clearly understand role expectations and encourage stakeholder engagement (El-Amin, 2022). Training facilitators must actively engage with departmental leadership to maintain the alignment of program goals. From a structural perspective, the utility of stakeholder participation provides deep learning experienced through learning activities and practical connection exercises. As a result, role identification is developed by understanding DEIB definitions, possible causes, constructing solutions, and measuring impacts.

Role identification for DEIB training is necessary to delineate roles within the training program (Smith, 2019). For instance, establishing a DEIB expert to support participants in the training. A trainer's effectiveness declines based on the participant group, institutional change processes, the kind of work, the structure, and the design of institutions (Bost, 2018). These significant changes affect stakeholder attitudes and behaviors in ways that increase the workload. When developing and scheduling DEIB training, organizational factors and stakeholder responses must be considered (Galli, 2018).

Additionally, theoretically relevant and intervening variables that influence work outcomes also indicate program management processes (Smith, 2019). Institutions significantly contribute to the transformation of training participants when their training approaches focus on developing programs that generate new knowledge and skills meant to address multiple social, economic, and environmental issues (El-Amin & George, 2020). Further, training is undertaken in almost all operations (Smith, 2019). Likewise, the most preferred quality in facilitation efforts is transferring implicit knowledge from one program to another. Overtly, institutions contribute to the global economy, which is highly significant because most businesses benefit from the output of the education sector (Galli, 2018). Training or facilitation roles demonstrate how course development takes place in institutions.

Moreover, problems in prospective facilitation efforts must be documented (Bost, 2018). Gaps are highlighted with role identification provides insight into principal factors of course development such as prospective programs chosen with the consensus of all stakeholders, the process of facilitation is well communicated, and possessing leadership values is the most preferred quality sought in the facilitator role (Smith, 2019). As an actionable measure, training by observing or train-the-trainer option for transferring implicit knowledge from one program to another provides continuity.

Ascertaining a process is important for professional development at the intuition of the project to understand agreement, ethos, and the role of the facilitator. As a result, successful onboarding accounts for the facilitator. Attainment of strong working knowledge develops confidence for training, procedural, and decision-making purposes. Administrators must acclimatize the facilitator to the institutional ethos and norms by providing information about the role, including training participants, faculty, staff, partners, organizational culture, and pertinent information.

Problem, Gap, Action (PGA)

Skilled leaders acknowledge deficiencies, issues, and mistakes. Inexperienced leaders interpret everything as great. They operate to satisfy their managers and subordinates alike. Skilled leaders pursue innovation and excellence. Skilled leaders want to improve relationships (leadership) and decisions (technical expertise). Leaders who are doubtful, questioning and indecisive create stagnation.

Problem

Further, this explanation focuses on four basic factors (innovative contributions, individuals, endowments, and institutional context). As a result, an understanding of how these aspects are correlated leads to four basic problems confronting most leaders: (1) a human problem of engagement, (2) a process problem in managing innovative ideas into productivity, (3) a structural problem of managing contextual relationships, and (4) a strategic problem of organizational leadership (Van de Ven, 1986). These four basic problems suggest that these components work together to provide a general structure to guide leaders in their pursuit of innovation (Van de Ven, 1986). Moreover, DEIB innovation considers utilizing stakeholders by making them a priority. Further, institutions experience DEIB innovation and improved service delivery when leaders wield their ability to communicate with many internal and external stakeholders.

Gaps

Trust relates to how leadership incorporates the experiences of participants. Participation engagement provides an internal gauge of how much influence the participant and training facilitators synergize. Trust is often inequitable for both parties. However, this is not always the case; participants and leaders may have differing levels of trust in each other based on a culture of belongingness (Stanley et al., 2019). Emotions are also an integral part of how trust is experienced; when a participant or training facilitator experiences an emotion, the training facilitator may utilize trust to understand if a participant embraces cultural transformation. The emotional experience can also disrupt trust when the emotions are not warranted, such as elevated fear levels with a new culture or situations where a leader or participant may give far too much or too little trust to the other party.

Action

A culture of trust is a part of all working relationships, built over time to create healthy working relationships. There are ways to measure trust, determine if the trust should be provided, and multiple ways to foster more trust in relationships. Without trust, relationships are extremely hard to manage and lead to many other concerns in the training context. Stakeholders place more trust in those trusted by training facilitators because this allows them to have a foundation of trust in these participants. Likewise, the perception of trust can be altered by many factors. Indeed, the action of laying the groundwork for a new DEIB training and development program is groundbreaking for the KSU Athletic department. The approach was to offer training facilitation that was competent, knowledgeable, and capable of leading teams. There came the point where the training facilitator incorporated experienced guest speakers to support the DEIB ethos.

TRAINING FRAMEWORK

Often leaders and facilitators have a challenging time connecting leadership characteristics and behaviors to stakeholder identification, management, and the success of a training program. As a result, the significance of effective leadership means communicating successfully. It can be difficult for a leader to connect leadership characteristics and behaviors to leadership effectiveness when conveying information with stakeholders because individuals that are part of the DEIB training have certain needs with an expectation that those needs are met. To a degree, stakeholder connection and support determine leadership effectiveness and success. Likewise, collaboration is a key determinate of building trust with teams (Ozyilmaz et al., 2018). Regarding challenges to effective leadership, some projects fail because of poor leadership and communication. As a result, the leader's role is important in inspiring stakeholders and forming an effective working environment to meet training objectives.

Leadership Competency Domain One: Vision, Values, and Culture

In the context of organizational leaders and DEIB facilitators, Wolfe (2017) indicated that the competency of leaders is based upon four domains: Domain One: Vision, Values, and Culture; Domain Two: Personal Skills, Mindsets, and Values; Domain Three: Capacity Building for Innovation and Continuous Improvement; and Domain Four: Shared Responsibility and Structures for Continuous Improvement, Innovation, and Assessment. The vision, values, and culture domain comprise leaders' ability to ascertain a learning environment where all training participants graduate with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to succeed in college, career, and civic life. It emphasizes the significance of forming and maintaining an environment where all voices are valued, and all experiences are viewed as opportunities to learn and grow. The leadership competencies of domain one are to create a shared vision. Thus, preparing training participants for the future via inclusive, learner-centered, personalized approaches; ascertaining and supporting a learning-intensive culture that is asset-based, credible, and celebratory; ascertaining and supporting a learning-intensive culture of risk-taking and continuous improvement; creating norms that foster training participants voice, choice, agency; and foster and maintain connections to the local and global community.

Leadership Competency Domain Two: Personal Skills, Mindsets, and Values

Wolfe (2017) specified that the personal skills, mindsets, and values; domain encompasses the competencies needed for leaders to personally demonstrate the vision, values, and culture characterized in the first domain. These competencies define leaders who model frequent and responsive monitoring of themselves and the education environment to maintain a personalized, equitable, learner-centered school climate. The leadership competencies of domain two provide relevant content, instructional, human development, and technical knowledge and skills; demonstration and effective communication, a commitment to equity and learner-centered, personalized approaches; demonstration of effective change management on an ongoing basis; risk-taking and innovation; and exemplification of being a life-long learner with a growth mindset.

Leadership Competency Domain Three: Capacity Building for Innovation and Continuous Improvement

Wolfe (2017) signified that the skills in the capacity building for innovation and continuous improvement domain define what leaders need to do to develop and perpetuate capacity across the learning community to embrace ongoing change in a learner-centered manner that improves learning. Key competencies in this domain include building capacity for all members of the learning environment and maintaining a culture of growth and improvement. The leadership competencies of domain three indicated the leadership competencies of development and support of an effective team; development of instruction that improves learning; support of a culture of risk-taking and continuous improvement for educators; development of an educator's capacity for assessment for learning and strategic data use; and Conveying strategic and personalized professional learning.

Leadership Competency Domain Four: Shared Responsibility and Structures for Continuous Improvement, Innovation, and Assessment

Wolfe (2017) determined that the shared responsibility and structures for continuous improvement, innovation, and assessment domain consist of the competencies required for leaders to create and maintain a learner-centered system of renewal and improvement and assess outcomes at all levels of the education environment. The leadership competencies of domain four indicated the leadership competencies of creating structures to support and spread innovation; using assessment for and as learning; ascertaining collective accountability; fostering systems that support personalization; enhancing continuous improvement and personalized approaches with the use of technology, and use of communication approaches that enable shared responsibility.

AREAS OF GROWTH, KNOWLEDGE, AND SKILLS

All strategy requires analyzing a circumstance's problems, gaps, and actions. Provided are three alternatives which would vastly improve the activity. In the role of training leader, mentoring and coaching are important for professional development to propel the acquisition and integration of strategy regarding compliance, culture, and the role of all on the project (Bush et al., 2018). As a result, successful collaboration allows a new team to develop a strong working knowledge to advance activities, procedures, and decision-making purposes. Leaders must assist new team members in achieving success by providing a thorough orientation with documents and materials, system logins, structural documents, and other information about the role. Gaps persistent may ensue without benchmarking DEIB training of various institutions.

Leaders frequently gain power by utilizing the existing organizational structure (Scott et al., 2018). For example, hygiene theory is a basic leadership hypothesis (Daft, 2018). An effective leadership style is known as the transactional/laissez-faire leadership model. Transactional leadership is alluring and relies on situational leadership (Blank, 2003; Robbins &Judge, 2017). Laissez-faire is likewise known to decrease impact and provide extra development in resources for representatives and partners to close gaps (Kelly, 2011). The participative leadership style works best with gifted and driven leaders; notwithstanding, leaders who are not as skilled or have reverent leadership capacities are not as powerful (Robbins & Judge, 2017). For situational leadership, a self-motived staff is a key to organizational outcomes. Finally, utilizing leadership practices permits organizations to thrive. Participatory leaders value collaboration to meet project and performance objectives.

Process and culture for the Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging (DEIB) training is necessary to demarcate how the training will be delivered. As a result, professional training and development provide a real-world application to developing successful organizations. Leaders must communicate expectations clearly while encouraging stakeholder engagement in training environments. Training and development efforts were developed in the online course development format. Blackboard was initially identified as the learning management system (LMS) for the KSU DEIB project, yet institutional privacy concerns do not permit contractors to access the system. To alleviate this issue, it was decided that a third-party LMS would be utilized, Google Classrooms. This LMS was chosen because it is complementary, accessible, and unpretentious.

Gaining Stakeholder Trust

The problem with gaining stakeholder trust is building stakeholder collaboration that works for the training partner and the trainer. From a structural perspective, the utility of stakeholder participation provides connections so that one can execute the work efficiently and effectively. A gap Ozyilmaz et al. (2018) indicated that trainers might place resources into expanding trust with stakeholders, yet additionally put resources into building trust to work on stakeholders' perspectives, practices, and execution are important as well. Consequently, when trainers intentionally develop trust, they will positively impact stakeholder engagement, task execution, and leadership practices.

Further, a lack of trust-building may prompt stakeholders to avoid training, thus, reducing the participation rates of those that attend the training. When participants experience negative training circumstances, they may lose confidence in a program, department, or institution. Training and development professionals must have irrefutable confidence in building trust with key stakeholders. Notwithstanding, trust is developed by utilizing training and development, transparency of operations, and effective communications. Further, Schoorman et al. (2007) indicated that training and development in different disciplines reflect trust's causes, nature, and impacts. Prior ways to build trust include attributes of the trustor, the trustee, and program management. A conveyance of trust requires building internal-external stakeholder engagement. Consistency is vital to building trust. As a result, the way to mitigate issues with trust in process and means is to maintain the schedule of operations as outlined.

Trainers must consider planned imperatives within the professional training environment. Training and development dictate the capability to understand multiple perspectives and understand how to adapt when situations arise (Richter et al., 2021). The problem was reduced participation in the training course, yet the plan indicated that the DEIB training would stay on track. There are several ways to develop an understanding of adaptation to the training and development field in professional training, which is a process whereby a training professional innovates and provides training on a particular subject matter. This distinction emphasizes that training and development is an iterative progression, meaning that more than just the actions of the professional matter. It is about the relationship of a trainer to stakeholders, the mindset of each, and how they handle the occurrences they engage in. In this case, no gaps exist because the trainer and stakeholders created a mitigation strategy in the event of rescheduled athletic events which would coincide with the DEIB training. From an actionable standpoint, a command of one's industry and a focus on training and development provide one with a vital understanding and experience in resolving training program issues using a strategic and structured approach (Richter et al., 2021). This helps trainers build assurance in their potential to excel personally and professionally. Likewise, emotional intelligence skills encompass maintaining flexibility and utilizing adaptation skills in innumerable circumstances to achieve goals, objectives, and the scope of training programs. Factors that impact the mindset of adaptation are constraints such as how leaders work through operational changes. Flexibility is a factor in how teams execute effective projects. Additionally, various personality leadership characteristics impact how change is communicated to teams. Encouraging leader-participant interaction is an essential consideration to increase engagement.

Developing a communication strategy requires multiple managing dynamics, periodic status updates on performance against the communication strategy, and meeting strategy targets. Delivering service means providing value, reducing cost, and managing risk to conserve financial resources for programs. Developing a strategic communication strategy necessitates building a comprehensive internal and external communication plan. Conclusively, the keystone of leaders is fostering a solid reputation across the institution. Consequently, satisfying stakeholder demands, refining business procedures, and attaining key performance metrics improve role performance (El-Amin, 2022).

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Emotional Intelligence in DEIB Training

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Kurt Lewin presented strategic change management as a framework and a powerful mechanism for leaders and staff as an actionable consideration. Luwin indicated that strategic change management occurs by unfreezing the issue of trepidation, actualizing the change, and refreezing the concern to implement change (Woodward & Hendry, 2004). Subsequently, acceptance of "change as the only real constant that exists" permits professionals to grasp strategic approaches within organizations. Further, Supriyanto et al. (2020) investigated ways to incorporate innovative technological applications to help program managers. Moreover, Supriyanto et al. (2020) observed the effect of unconventional and creative media, which were the primary innovation applications for programming. The use of social media, for example, WhatsApp, WeChat, Facebook, Instagram, or other online media, provides needed program participants engagement. In addition, communication applications like Zoom, Google Meeting, or Hangout permit trainers to interface with DEIB participants.

Problems frequently exist in developing, executing, and evaluating training. However, the capacity of thoroughly prepared and gifted trainers is mitigated when requirements occur by using a blend of hard and soft skills. For example, the hard skills critical to being a successful trainer are understanding and applying information technology (IT) frameworks, cognizance of programming used for program execution, data analysis, stakeholder management, program evaluation, and planning. From a gap perspective, trainers or administrators may not require as much skill as what was regularly suspected. IT frameworks help make professionals more productive; there are expanded frameworks that training professionals must be aware of.

A Training Mindset

Similarly, the usefulness and capacities of a training mindset require an actionable degree of skill and emotional intelligence (Barreiro & Treglown, 2020). Emotional intelligence is the capacity to be mindful of, control, and express one's feelings and manage relationships. Thus, by applying emotional intelligence, hard skill application better aligns with soft skill performance; the most important skills of a trainer are the capacity to convey to a wide scope of stakeholders (Barreiro & Treglown, 2020). Correspondingly, soft skills are important for a successful trainer for community building, management, conciliation, emotional intelligence, and communication skills appropriate for the appropriate audience.

As a result, skilled trainers maintain a wide scope of characteristics to react to the numerous situations of training needs.

Ascertaining the general aims of the diversity and inclusion training is one of the key processes of the DEIB training. Numerous tools are available to support the various phases of the process. As such, the facilitator is in the ongoing process of presenting training to participants, staff, faculty, and university partners. Identifying the most widely used tools and those associated with successful training for this population requires research and collaboration. Frequent meetings with the staff were necessary to develop specific training to ascertain the division's experiences, processes, and priorities. The facilitator then analyzed, applied, and executed based on the communicated value of the diversity training. Additionally, the team is still working on the best way to market the training to University stakeholders.

One of the diversity and inclusion training objectives was to develop a technological component to elevate the strategic capacity of diversity and inclusion. Further, when higher education organizations incorporate technological innovations, they ease the practice of scaling. The long-term supportability of the Kentucky State University Athletic Department is determined by how the institution manages its internal environment. Although Kentucky State University Athletes make up a small subset of the overall campus community, professional development programs such as these may impact training participants in their careers and the campus culture. Likewise, the Kentucky State University Athletic Department must use this unique offering to capitalize upon an empowering culture for its athletes. Lastly, Kentucky State University Athletic Department's diversity and inclusionary programming focus on the needs of its stakeholders to add value to the division.

From a strategic perspective, value, reliability, and customer experience gain problems of programming advantage. In doing so, facilitators must ascertain a clear framework for evaluation regarding how the experience impacts programming advantage in developing a quality diversity and inclusion program. The program's design must demonstrate an approach to achieving and supporting high-quality output, thus, emphasizing inputs (management practices) rather than outputs (quality performance). Further, collaboration is an advantageous factor that has led to greater satisfaction in Kentucky State University's Athletic Department. Likewise, the focus on the following metrics and performance measurements, identified as (number of participants, level of engagement, quiz participation, survey participation, video views, and course traffic). Evaluation will also occur based on program planning (plan development and assessment); performance excellence (performance management, program succession planning); professional development (stakeholder engagement), and adaptation (the ability to adapt to internal and external changes). Likely there is a need to connect to the larger vision of the University to make a long-lasting impact. Truly without input from the Kentucky State University Athletic Department DEIB representative, departmental training exists in a vacuum. Questions the facilitator must ask to provide for continuous improvement with marketing are: Why is this so difficult? What is going on there to improve participation? What are the barriers, and how do we remove them?

One of the diversity and inclusion training objectives was to develop a technological component to elevate the strategic capacity of diversity and inclusion. Further, when higher education organizations incorporate technological innovations, they ease the practice of scaling. The long-term sustainability of the Kentucky State University Athletic Department is determined by how the institution manages its internal environment. Although Kentucky State University Athletes make up a small subset of the overall campus community, athletes have influence and are often the leaders of their peers. Therefore, professional development programs may impact training participants and improve campus culture. Lastly, Kentucky State University Athletic Department's diversity and inclusionary programming focus on the needs of its stakeholders to add value to the division.

Moreover, problems related to higher education leaders are the inability to identify program issues and program improvements, recruit applicable stakeholders to achieve program goals, and realize efficient processes. Moreover, program performance is a critical aspect of effective and efficient outcomes. Gaps of effective performance include meeting the strategic objectives of the department, the significance of meeting performance initiatives, successful implementation of the diversity program, successful implementation of performance measures, and factors hindering the implementation of strategic performance initiatives (Wolfe, 2017). As an action, the capacity of the facilitator to implement improved performance provides insights into the success or failure of a diversity and inclusion program (El-Amin, 2022). Immediate action encourages participation to ascertain program improvements shown through workshop evaluations.

The Role of Capacity Building in DEIB Training

Capacity building management acumen is an important core competency derived from framing focus and a strategic networking strategy, enabling facilitators and administrators to improve training applications significantly. The facilitator must adhere to the planned process to address problems and more abstract technical issues (identifying participants, assembling training participants, timing, space, and place) that occur in the training process. The focus of this effort was a work in progress as the Athletic Director was inundated with the tasks of their role and had had little time to inform and forge the connection between the CDO and the facilitator. At the facilitator's request, it was implored that appropriate stakeholders were informed of the training, which is vital to the ongoing success of institutional diversity and inclusion training efforts.

Capacity building is important to support DEIB training. Leon (2014) posited that The Chief Diversity Officer (CDO) position has arisen as a principal role that gives strategic direction to DEIB endeavors. The developing number of CDO responsibilities provides insights into this role's significance at the institutional level. Three CDO models or prime examples of vertical power (i.e., collaborative officer, unit-based, and portfolio divisional) provide a structure for institutions to position the CDO role. Institutionally, CDO models range from one-person units to divisional structures. KSU's CDO exists as a one-person unit reporting directly to the President of the University.

Problems frequently exist in fostering collaborations. When fostering the connection between KSU's Chief Diversity Officer, some problems faced were conveying the project's scope, time, stakeholder engagement, and staff capacity. These challenges are resolved with appropriate communication with the CDO. The action – the capacity-building relationship is ongoing. As a result, the CDO serves a robust and consistent role; therefore, the athletic department works collaboratively to inform the CDO by utilizing a systematic approach to integrate the CDO into the DEIB training efforts. Gaps are often closed when program stakeholders ask appropriate questions, such as what procedures are utilized to elevate diversity and inclusion assets? Would the existing training be more effective if the CDO was part of the planning and execution process?

Utilizing a Training Manual

The programming method for DEIB training must be outlined in a DEIB training manual or training plan developed by the facilitator and offers a clearly defined methodical and pragmatic program method. The steps of the DEIB training method are to ascertain the general aims, ascertain plans and requirements, develop specific training, analyze the survey data/ interpretation, and report the data. As a result, the DEIB training manual focuses on the facilitator's process, guides the experience with stakeholder interaction, and creates a well-organized structure for the training. The Kentucky State University Athletic Department provided a predefined population. This level of facilitation is necessary when capacity building with administrators because leaders need information and programming that is well-designed and managed to mitigate time profusion.

The situation, relevance, extant research, and the facilitator's capabilities allow for a greater training program. Administrative stakeholder participation was discussed at various meetings with the athletic department administrators. The purpose of these interactions was to inform other administrators of the programming taking place in the athletic department as a matter of courtesy and to ensure collaboration occurs. Due to the brief period of DEIB training, it may be difficult to bring all stakeholders together. The Athletic Director might proceed with the training given the operational needs of the athletic department. Discussions also may center around building capacity for institutional-wide DEIB training to ensure a practical approach. In contrast, training participants, staff, faculty, and partners must have ongoing access to the training materials to meet their DEIB training needs.

Fostering Collaboration in DEIB Training

Problems frequently exist in fostering collaborations. Administrators are committed to various tasks to satisfy their roles. Nevertheless, their structure impacts how administrators collaborate with departments, divisions, and programs to meet objectives. For instance, the Vice President for Student Affairs is positioned in the hierarchical matrix of the institution and maintains many roles due to the limited capacity at the institution. Their support provides access to training participants and institutional stakeholders. A chief goal of the Athletic Director was to provide access to the DEIB training to participants. Significant action is forming a climate of supportive leadership for the DEIB training program initiative (Leon, 2014).

Further, effective communication coincides with effective leadership. Gaps in the DEIB training relate to accruing sufficient surveys to appropriately assess the training. This is important because the multitude of experiences of respondents creates a dynamic and comprehensive body of information regarding preferred training execution.

Industry-based methods, group interactions, leadership, encouragement, motivation, and other related training development methods to achieve results and support DEIB programming. To identify solutions to problems that impact the needs of the institution. Training and development work more effectively, increase institutional partner satisfaction and improve training performance. Further, training facilitators must engage DEIB training partners by providing a value proposition. Reflection is a particularly important aspect of the learning process that many experts have emphasized as a defining characteristic of professional practice. Fullan (2011) demonstrated that the most productive strategies include assisting training participants, staff, and administrators in developing training and development change skills necessary for institutional improvement. Further, evaluation for learning is crucial to connect data on knowledge to instructional practices that accomplish learning results.

Problems Gaps and Actions (PGA) highlight problems that frequently exist in fostering collaborations. The researcher's role in practice is to uphold academic core values and execution as it pertains to the challenges of the DEIB training. DEIB trainers ensure absolute integrity and consistency in practice by implementing practices through innovative DEIB training development. As the DEIB training leader, strong interpersonal and collaboration-building skills and the ability to effectively build relationships and work through challenging conversations are needed. As the DEIB training leader, providing influence by critically thinking through and conveying context. Developing cohesive solutions by working with collaborators is key as the DEIB training leader.

Evaluation in DEIB Training

Evaluation is extremely helpful as an exploratory tool (Butterfield et al., 2009). Development and planning for survey questions are emphasized. Poorly designed questions yield unneeded data. For example, asking closed-ended questions provides a quantitative measure for data collection, synthesis, methodology, and conveyance. Open-ended survey questions provide participants to provide more contextualized experiences that may support the quantitative or descriptive data. For evaluative purposes, providing a space to provide depth in their survey allows for reflection in the assessment process. Working with The CDO provided a focus for evidence-based data collection. The Diversity Matters Series provided a structured approach for linking existing campus training and Diversity Matters training to for-credit courses to accrue data for reporting and evaluative purposes.

Reflection is a particularly important aspect of the learning process that many experts have emphasized as a defining characteristic of professional practice. This activity aimed to bring together the CDO, The Athletic Director, and the facilitator to determine how to collaborate best. The meeting outcome allowed for more than program planning and institutional planning. Several aspects were determined as actionable items: 1. The three limbs of DEI at KSU (Classroom DEIB, DEIB Training participants Success, DEIB Capacity Building). 2. DEIB Reporting and Evaluation. 3. Linking existing campus training and Diversity Matters training to for-credit courses (accrue data for reporting and evaluation). 4. Upcoming publishing opportunities for faculty, staff, and training participants (see below). 5. Developing a National Model for DEIB Training within Athletics. 6. Developing a KSU DEIB Collaborative (faculty, staff, training participants, and external community partners).

The role of facilitator acumen and a leadership mindset is based on incorporating DEIB training participants into the DEIB training process. The correlation between DEIB training and institutional goals is remarkable. However, DEIB training is an individual aspect of organizational culture and exists regardless of the formal or informal facilitator role. DEIB training requires creativity, innovation, and a willingness to develop solutions. Being a skilled coach is an aspect of DEIB training needed to inspire others with a shared vision and outcome. Having others model what great DEIB behavior is a key component to attaining successful outcomes for participants.

Further, a facilitator assists colleagues in DEIB training to attain and support DEIB training in practice. Moreover, outstanding facilitators allow others to ask questions and grow within the DEIB training process. In this vein, the facilitator often provides feedback regarding ideas, innovation, and situations. Also, when providing DEIB training to others, it is best to understand DEIB training dynamics and intended outcomes for institutional objectives.

Reflection is a particularly important aspect of the learning process that many experts have emphasized as a defining characteristic of professional practice. Facilitators must consider the intentional imperative within DEIB training practices to impact the outcome of DEIB programming. Intentional DEIB training necessitates the capability to understand multiple perspectives from within the institution or on behalf of individuals. There are several ways to develop DEIB training. In the context of general DEIB training, a process whereby a collaborative develops the mission and focus of the training program. This distinction emphasizes that DEIB training is a collaborative and iterative progression, meaning that more than just the actions of a leader matter. This is particularly important in a DEIB training context. Leaders and facilitators need to recognize that DEIB training is not necessarily the same for all DEIB training or situation but individualized for the participant's population. For instance, highly directive DEIB training might be appropriate in one population but ineffective in another.

Problems frequently exist in planning evaluations. Planning focuses on DEIB training and allows facilitators an essential understanding and experience with solving relational issues using a structured approach in DEIB training (Stanley et al., 2019). DEIB training skills are actionable, comprised of maintaining flexibility and utilizing adaptation skills in various circumstances to achieve goals, objectives, and missions of participants or organizations. Additionally, a gap in aligning the value of DEIB training to institutional goals is an emerging need in the execution and attainment of organizational culture. Those in DEIB training must effectively develop their DEIB training skills to maintain the supportability of the program. Moreover, intentional DEIB training requires executing the DEIB training process, which is critical for evaluating development and alignment metrics to foster an analytical perspective of a facilitator's abilities and program content.

Problems frequently exist in conducting evaluations. The facilitator's experience in compiling the evaluation report must be skillful. Butterfield et al. (2009) argued how it is vital to focus on the critical events, incidents, or factors since they support DEIB program advancement, effective conveyance of the DEIB survey, and the experience of the detailed setting or event. Therefore, the anonymous workshop survey is less intimidating than a regular conversation. In the workshop sessions, external community partners seemed much more comfortable sharing their subjective experiences in greater detail; however, not part of the survey instrumentation can be presented as anecdotal data of participants' individual experiences. As a gap action item, Butterfield et al. (2009) further elucidated how data analysis is shown by forming categories that emerge from the data.

Problems Gaps and Actions (PGA) reflect actionable alternatives and growth directly connected to the activity and the leader. Problems frequently exist in fostering capacity building. There are issues in achieving capacity-building success because of integration challenges. For example, capacity-building challenges include external stakeholders. Often this means linking different financial and control systems, building effective working relationships (particularly when management styles differ), resolving problems regarding the status of the newly acquired institution's executives, and the loss of key personnel weakens the acquired institution's capabilities. It reduces its value proposition (Chen et al., 2019). Additionally, problems in achieving capacity-building success provide an evaluation of targeted objectives, due diligence, and the process of appraising institutional DEIB training programs.

How Reflection Improves Strategic Decision Making

Reflection is a particularly important aspect of the learning process that many experts have emphasized as a defining characteristic of professional practice. The Women's Empowerment Series will enhance future career plans. Linking DEIB provides inspiration and tools for success. The ability to stay focused on the educational task is important to understanding a discipline such as DEIB. Organizational leadership inspires others by encouraging employees to embrace diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB). Ethical leadership fosters transparency in reporting DEIB performance analytics. Leadership requires that leaders communicate DEBI performance by clearly conveying the vision of resourcing DEIB initiatives with finances, staff capacity, and policy (Chen et al., 2019). When leadership is specific and utilizes measurement as a decision-making tool, actionable, results-oriented, others follow the vision. Leaders must work collaboratively to ensure that others are part of the envisioning process. In this way, others feel part of the process and the solution.

Reflection practices improve the quality of stakeholder relationships, leading to the improved gap analysis and practice of stakeholder management within education. Reflection allows facilitators to think about all that consists of tasks and processes within an institution. The objective is to improve educational quality and stakeholder engagement. As a leader within education, training, and development, reflection profoundly contributes to educational success. Indeed, decision-making processes improve, and the institution can be successful if educational leaders find and intentionally capitalize on opportunities to advance reflection at all levels to improve instruction, departments, divisions, and the institution. There is a necessity to emphasize the benefits of reflection within management methods. Concluding factors of reflection improve education practices with a focus on decision-making.

The Reflection Connection, Collective Reflection, and its Effect on DEIB Programming

Some colleagues may have difficulty connecting leadership characteristics and behaviors to leadership effectiveness with DEIB reflection activities. The significance of effective DEIB training also means communicating effectively. It can be difficult for a trainer to connect authentic leadership and behaviors to reflection when conveying data with stakeholders because some data is too elevated or superfluous for certain stakeholders. Moreover, stakeholder connection and support determine actions (tasks identification and execution), leadership effectiveness, and success linked to key process indicators (data analytics). Likewise, reflection is a key determinate to building confidence with teams.

Moreover, intentionality can make communication easier as leaders must use good judgment when deciding what, when, how, and whom to collaborate with for authentic leadership. Leadership effectiveness requires reflection, knowledge, commitment, integrity, excellent communications competence, and vision. Regarding challenges to authentic leadership, the leader's role is important in inspiring stakeholders and forming an effective working environment to meet the institution's mission.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Indeed, Richert et al. (2020) expressed that developing an institutional change culture requires intentionality. Although change is difficult, it is frequently fundamental to shift why and how institutions act. Innovation takes a level of preparation to lead training participants through the change shifts expected by prodigious, complex change. Change management frameworks provide evidence-based institutional templates for changemakers. In this way, DEIB innovators aim for significant cooperation in a positive, engaged institutional environment (Sue, 1991). As a result, innovative leaders determine how to make an institutional change despite initial support and capacity (scope, time, resources). Educational innovators shift the emphasis of change interaction from awareness, and action, to individuals executing change;

change from a climate of order and control to one where leaders utilize collaborative decision-making and rethinking change as a fundamental shift in institutional culture rather than a progression of episodic events.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Chief Diversity Officer (CDO): The Chief Diversity Officer (CDO) position has emerged as an executive-level position, which delivers strategic focus for diversity planning and execution efforts (Leon, 2014).

DEIB Initiatives: Organizational efforts to promote awareness of diverse racial, ethnic, and cultural identities within diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging (DEIB) initiatives with intentionality and a desire for change (El-Amin, 2022).

Chapter 13
Reconceptualizing Diversity Training Predictors of Training Success

Shakoor Ward
The Pennsylvania State University, USA

Abeni El-Amin
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7506-1658
Fort Hays State University, USA & Shenyang Normal University, China

ABSTRACT

The results of in-depth meta-analyses of diversity training outcomes reveal that cognitive learning is the strongest effect from diversity training, while smaller effects were behavioral and attitudinal change. Further results of the analysis suggest that successful diversity training occurs when learning is the goal, not impact from behavior or attitude changes. An adapted version of The Kirkpatrick Training and Evaluation Model is highlighted to demonstrate how to design an evaluation that measures actual learning, rather than perceived learning. In addition, the Plus/Delta feedback tool is introduced as an effective evaluation tool to identify what is going well and what needs to change or improve within a training program covering several topics over multiple sessions with a cohort. The chapter concludes with a recommendation that the success of diversity training is evaluated on the degree of learning that occurs in each session, rather than the impact on university diversity initiatives and post-training attitude changes.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers studying motivation and learning within organizations (e.g., Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001) have focused on the context and delivery of diversity training. What is central to understanding the harmony between context and delivery of diversity training is the assortment of information to broaden perspectives as suggested by Avery and Thomas (2004), and to offer sessions

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch013

of inclusivity that will cater to all attendees (Huber, 2013). The authors suggest the task at hand of a diversity trainer is daunting enough, demanding concentrated efforts in delivering quality programs and designing evaluations that speak to the actual effectiveness rather than perceived effectiveness. Better understanding of what is considered "effective" is needed to ensure that diversity training programs are not misevaluated (Holladay et al., 2003).

BACKGROUND

Consistent with the definition of diversity training in Pendry et al. (2007), Bezrukova et al. (2016) define diversity training as "a distinct set of instructional programs aimed at facilitating positive intergroup interactions, reducing prejudice and discrimination, and enhancing the skills, knowledge, and motivation of participants to interact with diverse others" (p. 6).

Kirkpatrick (2006) is a prominent training model that include levels for measuring results, such as the application of what was learned and impact of training. However, these levels involve multiple collaborators with reliance on administrators and other individuals beyond diversity trainers to collect the data and are far less likely to be implemented. Bezrukova et al. (2012) reviewed and examined one hundred and seventy-eight (178) articles whose authors have investigated numerous aspects of diversity training programs in Higher Education and in other workplace settings. Their review revealed only 11 "results-level" data for diversity training (Bezrukova et al., 2012). Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) labeled "results-level" measures as measures relating to grievances, turnover, promotions, and the recruitment of individuals from marginalized populations. Bezrukova et al. (2012) noted that it is rare to see "results-level" data for diversity training (only 11 of 178 in their study).

Kirkpatrick's Training Model seeks to capture increased job performance and maximum results with a four-level approach. Levels one and two are within a trainer's capacity. Level one assesses participants reaction to the training, whether they found it favorable, engaging, and relevant to their jobs. Level two assesses what was learned from the training and whether targeted outcomes were met. This level seeks to gauge the degree to which participants acquired the intended knowledge, skills, and confidence as a result of participating in a training. These two levels can be assessed soon after the training by asking survey questions along with a post-test examination of key points and aims of the training. However, levels three and four are beyond a trainer's "reach" and would involve administrator approval and administrative support. Level three assesses behavior of participants after they have returned to their roles at work. Specifically, whether they are applying what they learned during the training. Level four is more involved than level three. Level four assesses the long-term results associated with the training, and if the targeted outcomes were met. Moreover, since level four is the finality of the model, support systems and accountability become more transparent. Considering the tasks associated with "results-level" data, it's not surprising that only eleven (11) out of one hundred and seventy-eight (178) articles reviewed by Bezrukova et al. (2012) included data associated with Kirkpatrick's level three and level four. Leadership support is necessary.

The role of leadership is to uphold core values as it pertains to human rights and dignity of humankind. Leaders must ensure absolute integrity of stakeholders within their organization; require consistency in practice of regulatory agencies, institutional policies, and practices through collaboration with other leaders, the administration, and government. Leaders must ensure diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging. They can best do so by possessing and exercising strategic leadership, utilizing strong interpersonal and collaborative skills at meetings or with diverse stakeholders, hone the ability to effectively build relationships, and work through challenging conversations as needed (Dorociak et al., 2017). Leaders provide a voice by critically thinking through and communicating issues that are important to them and organizational stakeholders. Leaders develop cohesive solutions, advise, coach, mediate, influence and guide communities in change processes. While some do not think of collaboration as serious business…it is. Collaboration permits leaders to communicate implications of decisions related to aspects of strategy. Leaders should apply breadth and depth of experience, personal knowledge, and analytics to implement and evaluate the effectiveness and efficiencies of diversity training programs and processes. Leaders are key stakeholders and should make recommendations for strategic changes that drive societal outcomes regarding human rights, justice, and equality. In summary, leaders are responsible for implementing diversity training and compliance.

Plenty of research has focused on the outcomes of diversity training (e.g., Combs & Luthans, 2007; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). However, the effects of diversity training at U.S. universities are often linked to employee and student recruitment and selection, employee retention, intercultural conflicts, reports of discrimination and bias, and overall climate regarding diversity related matters. The authors suggest, along with other researchers (e.g., Kulik & Roberson, 2008a), that diversity training is not realistically able to successfully address the scope of diversity matters within university settings. For example, Kalev et al. (2006) report that management ranks within organizations might not see an increase in minority hires following diversity programs on how to increase minority hires. Diversity related outcomes such as increasing cultural competencies and minority staffing goals are long-term and continuous processes, which requires a collaborative approach from key personnel and stakeholders. Diversity training can support long-term goals by influencing more immediate outcomes, for example influencing knowledge and skills that may support "big picture" future diversity goals such as increased minority hiring (Kulik & Roberson, 2008a). The authors suggest that university diversity trainers focus on learning and skill-based outcomes and designing training to enhance those outcomes. Evaluating diversity training based on proximal outcomes provide a more realistic assessment and appropriate accountability on the role of training.

Likewise, Dorociak et al. (2017) indicated that organizing diversity training requires planning, reflection, and execution. Diversity training planning requires more than designing a plan of action; it is about identifying solutions and developing innovative ways to manage diversity training. Utilizing feedback communication with mentors, facilitators, or diversity training exemplars improves diversity training development and implementation, which is value to diversity training excellence. Diversity training planning requires that developers consistently create, edit, and refine diversity training curriculum to align with current realities. Diversity training planning necessitates diligence in both stating the vision clearly and follow up with written documentation for record keeping. Surveying industry standards for diversity topics and training techniques provides program managers evidence-based methods to execute training.

The most common technique used to assess whether a trainee has acquired knowledge is through administering a post-training test. This test should be easy to administer and score, assess key take-aways and objectives from training, have only one correct answer for each item, and administered as a multiple choice or true/false examination. This post-test illustrates level two of Kirkpatrick's model, which recommends an examination of the trainees' knowledge of the training content delivered. Thus, in diversity training, cognitive learning refers to the extent to which attendees acquire knowledge about cultural diversity issues conveyed by the trainer. Stakeholders of diversity training need to see the training as effective and meaningful. Cognitive learning is shown to continue over time, while attitudinal and behavioral learning is proven to diminish over time (Bezrukova et al., 2016). Bezrukova et al. (2016) assessed a meta-analysis of two hundred and sixty (260) independent samples on the effects of diversity training and found "no compelling evidence that long-term effects of diversity training are sustainable in relation to attitudinal/affective outcomes" (p. 1243). Consider the purpose of education and how learning is facilitated and assessed. Arranged by subjects taught, education serves the purpose of facilitating the acquisition of knowledge, skills, abilities, values, beliefs, and societal customs. The learning acquired is assessed through tests in controlled environments as opposed to "real life" settings. Theoretically, cognitive knowledge learned in the classroom or in controlled learning environments, transfers to other settings such as the workplace when prompted. Prompting can occur through cues in the workplace or other environmental stimuli that reminds individuals of what was learned. Each encounter with environmental stimuli related to content learned, reinforces the knowledge gained over time. For example, when writing a letter of recommendation for a female employee or graduate student, a past participant of a diversity training recalls what was learned in the training three months ago about gender-based stereotypes and gender-associated language used that may not address and speak to characteristics outlined for the position. Having to write a letter of recommendation served as a prompt. Participants who have cognitively learned from diversity training use prompting to self-regulate their behavior and develop what they've learned post training (Winne, 2005), reinforcing their knowledge over time.

The national culture of trainees could also impact cognitive-based outcomes. National culture background of training participants is of importance when assessing diversity training, especially when considering major U.S. universities, which are known to enroll a sizeable number of international students and have a celebrated presence of international faculty and visiting scholars. Social stratifications among non-U.S. countries have cultural attitudinal associations on diversity training outcomes addressing U.S. social issues. Theoretical approaches to understanding higher-order human culture exist for better understanding. The most prominent example is Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980, 2011). This model seeks to capture cultural differences by surveying samples of people in different countries, paired by education, experience, and profession (if possible), and publishing country scores from comparing the resulting country averages. In view of Hofstede's reliance on standard attitudinal scales, the model is construable as the attitudinal model of national culture (Voss, Lucas, & Ward, 2014).

Hofstede (1980) introduced the first model of cultural dimensions over 50 years ago. His survey items were in the form of statements reflecting possible beliefs about the expectations that one's society places on one-self (Voss et al., 2014). This first effort produced four cultural dimensions that varied primarily by country, rather than by individual respondent. The four included the well-known power distance, individualism-collectivism (or just individualism), masculinity-femininity (or just masculinity), and uncertainty avoidance. Hofstede's current model has 7-dimensions, but the relevance for this chapter is with two of the four mentioned, power distance and individualism. To illustrate how one might project a cultural expectation based on a definition of each of these dimensions, people in a culture that is high in power distance (e.g., China, France, and the Arab World) expect differences in power to exist, and this expectation guides one's customary patterns of interactions and expectations within society (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). A person who is influenced by a high-power distance culture does not expect any forms of existential egalitarianism. By contrast, a person from a low power distance culture (e.g., Denmark, U.S., U.K.) grows accustomed to making formal requests for needed resources, according to a relatively predictable, egalitarian structure (Voss et al., 2014). Therefore, participants culturally influenced from high power distance societies are often indifferent or ambivalent toward efforts seeking equity and equality for non-dominant social groups and identities (i.e., diversity training), even if they are members of non-dominant groups in the U.S. context. Instead, such a person is culturally influenced to think in terms of tapping into the power structure, such as by nurturing the right relationships (those in power) or avoiding the power structure according to standing in the social hierarchies.

Moreover, Holladay and Quinones (2005) conducted an awareness-based diversity training program and concluded that participants from more individualistic countries such as the U.S., U.K., Germany, and the Netherlands, had more favorable reactions toward diversity training than participants from collectivist countries like Japan, India, and Brazil. Similar to the cultural influence on training participants from high power distance societies, collectivist influenced training participants may be more indifferent or ambivalent than cultural individualists are toward diversity efforts perceived to be addressing selected group identities rather than the whole society or national identity. The impact of cultural dimensions on cognitive-based outcomes is closely connected to social cognitive theory. Simply explained, social cognitive theory identifies how external forces (e.g., learned cultural norms) and internal forces (e.g., your thoughts) impact your learning. Of course, the content and objective of the diversity training may be influenced by cultural dimensions more, less, or not much of a factor. The key takeaway is recognizing that culture can play a role in diversity training outcomes and should be considered when designing programs to maximize positive outcomes from all participants.

MAIN FOCUS OF THE CHAPTER

In the tradition of diversity training research, theoretical approaches to improving the transfer of learning to a measurable outcome exist with a potential for organizational impact, but there has been little effort to moving the theoretical approaches to practice. Educational settings such as U.S. universities place emphasis on the necessity of diversity training, yet there isn't consistency regarding empirical data identifying the features of diversity training that contribute to its effectiveness (El-Amin, 2022; Holladay, & Quiñones, 2008; Madera et al., 2013; Weaver & Dixon-Kheir, 2002). There has been progress in research that has focused more on attitude change compared to skill-based or knowledge change (Paluck & Green, 2009; Perry et al., 2009). This may be due to researchers prioritizing attitude change or perhaps wanting to understand better why attitude change is a weaker outcome in diversity training compared to other outcomes (e.g., reaction, cognitive learning). An area of critique and criticism associated with measuring attitude change within diversity training is that diversity training subject matter challenges worldviews and deals with issues that are often considered emotional or subjective (Law, 1998). Thus, participants' starting points may vary regarding attitudes and emotional connections to the subject matter.

Issues, Controversies, Problems

Notwithstanding, as the marketplace for goods and services increases, so does the demand for diverse workforces (Aamodt, 2015). As a result, organizations must embody diversity within their operations. Simply having a diverse worker populace is no longer enough for an organization to be successful in today's difficult economy. Organizations must understand diverse cultures, diversity of thought, and various cultural philosophies. Organizational diversity promotes the individuality inside an organization, acknowledging that each person can contribute with different, modern, and novel ideas and solutions. Workers from a variety of backgrounds and experiences can supply a range of views on matters and for that increase productiveness and performance. Diversity incorporates various competencies while increasing employee retention and productivity (Herring & Henderson, 2015). Affirmative action can be improved by implementing diversity, inclusion, belonging, and equity initiatives. Diversity programs must motivate high quality intergroup collaboration, reduce partiality and division, and promote principles of humanity (Aamodt, 2015). From the organization's viewpoint, diversity training is characterized as elevating inclusion about individuality within the work environment. Further, these distinctions restrict or enhance the way people collaborate while at work. Issues of Affirmative Action (AA), Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), and sexual harassment are significant concerns, yet provide a massive opportunity to improve diversity, inclusion, equity, and belonging practices via training and appropriate evaluations of training.

University diversity training evaluations often follow a standard evaluation model used by other organizations, which too often tend to focus on participant reactions rather than assessing knowledge gained from a training (Bennett, 2006). Curtis and Dreachslin (2008) reports that affective-based outcome is the most common outcome evaluated within diversity training. Kalinoski, Steele-Johnson, D. Peyton, Leas, Steinke, and Bowling (2012) defined affective-based outcomes as "measures of internal conditions drive perception and behavior." Kraiger et al. (1993) definition includes "measure of attitudes and motivation." However, some research has suggested that training alone is not feasible for changing fundamental attitudes toward others (Bendick et al., 2001). This finding coincides with the idea that attitudes often assessed in diversity topics are usually strong and are commonly resistant to change (Dalege et al., 2016). This limitation seems rational considering a diversity training session in university settings is often one contact (one-offs) of one to three hours in duration. To hold the trainer responsible for changing a lifetime of nurtured attitudes within a highly constrained learning session should not be an expected outcome, although one cannot totally rule out the possibility. Attitudes often vary with encounters and other impressionable stimuli in moments. Further, as individuals advance through phases of self-reflection, they become more knowledgeable about the importance of effective workplace communication (Knapp et al., 2017). At the professional level, regardless of experience of individuals, the task focus is on increasing the individuals' awareness of the positive and negative impacts of diversity and inclusion; therefore, stakeholders must focus on reflection which enables individuals to progress towards greater levels of awareness. Likewise, implicit bias or bias creates a complex dynamic that should diminish with diversity training.

Research examining the effects of diversity training on cognitive-based outcomes is not as common as affective-based assessments, although the effects of cognitive-based outcomes has consistently been observed in past diversity training research as having effects for change (Holladay & Quiñones, 2008). Kalinoski et al. (2012) defines cognitive-based outcomes as "measures of verbal knowledge, knowledge organization, and cognitive strategies" based off Kraiger et al. (1993) definition. Kalinoski et al. (2012) meta-analytic evaluation of diversity training outcomes reported larger effects on cognitive-based outcomes relative to affective-based outcomes. Yet, cognitive-based post-training assessments are not a standard of diversity training evaluations because changing attitudes is a primary goal of diversity training, therefore affective-based outcomes are most frequently evaluated (Curtis & Dreachslin, 2008). Holding attitude change as the standard measurement for evaluating diversity training is analogous to being "in the weeds" (i.e. too problematic or so much work that it is too difficult to capture sustainability) of measuring outcomes and contributes to the overall mixed reviews of the beneficial effects of diversity training. Indeed, Kalinoski et al. (2012) proposed several reasons why measuring attitude change is problematic when assessing the effectiveness of diversity training. One reason is that trainees might already have favorable attitudes toward diversity prior to training, and current research methods are unable to separate the effects of having a favorable attitude prior to training compared to the attainment level of favorable attitude post-training (correlation vs. causation).

There have been studies reporting evidence of successful diversity training attitudes that transferred to workplace settings (Majumdar et al., 2004; Roberson et al., 2009). However, there is no persuasive evidence, outside of "fuzzy" data, that long-term positive attitudes and affective outcomes from diversity training are sustainable. One reason is that reactions and attitudes are still volatile post-training and can be easily influenced by media and participant encounters. For example, someone who holds negative biases, prejudices, and stereotypes against Arab Muslims before participating in diversity training that address ethnicity, culture, and religion may experience a positive reaction and a positive shift in attitudes immediately post-training. Yet, this positive shift is delicate and may reverse back to pretraining attitudes in response to media accounts of Arab Muslim terrorism, social injustices in the Arab Muslim world, or negative encounters with Arab Muslims or those assumed to be Arab Muslims. Priming studies illustrate how salient positive vs. negative individual exemplars (e.g., Michael Jordan vs. OJ Simpson) have both been shown to curb attitudes toward Black American stereotypes (Dasgupta and Greenwald, 2001). Dasgupta and Greenwald (2001) conducted the experiment by examining whether exposure to pictures of admired and disliked exemplars can reduce automatic preferences for one identity group over another identity group (i.e., reducing preference for White American over Black American). The results revealed that exposure to admired Black Americans significantly weakened automatic pro-White attitudes for 24 hours beyond the treatment but did not affect explicit racial attitudes. The findings suggest that exposure can modulate implicit attitudes over the short-term as a reaction to the exposure. However, unlike a controlled testing environment, the types of exposure (positive vs. negative; good vs. bad; favorable vs. unfavorable) one can experience is beyond control, especially over the long-term.

In addition, Smith et al., (2006) has broadly criticized diversity research for the absence of guiding theory and an absence of agreement about the measurement of training effects. An outcome of "change" is often considered a primary goal of diversity training. What type of change? Who needs change? Why should one change? Change from what to what? How do you measure sincere change? Is change temporary or sustainable? Do all participants of a training receive the same change? Does change have utility for social and political interests? Research results are mixed. Bendick et al. (2001) suggests attitude change toward others is not a practical outcome of diversity training. Other research conducted has found positive effects on attitude change (Bailey et al., 2001; Robb & Doverspike, 2001). Research results evaluating affective-based outcomes are inconsistent (Kulik & Roberson, 2008b). Kalinoski et al. (2012) defines affective-based outcomes as "measures of internal states that drive perception and behavior" (p. 1082). There's evidence to support knowledge, and skill-based change albeit with inconsistent results (Paluck & Green, 2009; Perry et al., 2009). Inconsistent and mixed results from diversity training is directly an outcome of not being a discipline and not functioning under guided theory. Indeed, diversity programs are inclusive of many disciplines, broad conceptual and theoretical underpinnings, as well as varied interests and subject matter that has no borders and may even include competing values and interests. All that considered, Kalinoski et al. (2012) suggests the weaker and mixed research results say more about how researchers have evaluated diversity training than the effectiveness of diversity training. Diversity training often provokes more emotionally stimulated responses than other types of workforce training that is geared toward more decisive and agreeable job practices, thus much of literature treat diversity training as a separate branch of training (Hanover & Cellar, 1998; Law, 1998). The separation is due to content; however, the well-established training evaluation methodologies that are found in such fields as training and development, organizational and workforce development, organizational behavior, and education are just as applicable to evaluating diversity training as other training. A case for utilizing these established and well reputed practices is presented next.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Bezrukova et al. (2016) defines diversity training as a "distinct set of instructional programs aimed at facilitating positive intergroup interactions, reducing prejudice and discrimination, and enhancing the skills, knowledge, and motivation of participants to interact with diverse others" (p. 1228). A role of a diversity trainer is to encourage critical thinking in participants. Thus, diversity training may adopt a guided practice consisting of three interwoven stages: 1) exposing participants to innovative ideas, 2) facilitating understanding of the content, and 3) developing well-supported and reasoned arguments that challenge existing thinking.

The first stage is to expose participants to innovative ideas. The exposure can be represented in many different forms and has stronger effects when design and delivery combine different learning styles. According to Kolb and Kolb (2005), effective learning occurs when a learner "touches all the bases," including feeling, thinking, acting, or reflecting through combined and multi-instructional methods. Using the different technological tools and media offers the participant a wider contact zone with the target subject.

The second stage is to ease understanding of content. Combining different training approaches and methods is helpful to achieve this. For example, collaborative learning can be useful during discussion time. It focuses on preparing the learners to solve problems collaboratively in ambiguous situations. Knowledge exploration and application play significant roles in the learning process. Through collaborative learning, each participant can help their group identify or address a problem that reflects a wide range of perspectives and is thus more complete and more comprehensive. In addition, by using a constructive approach, participants are empowered in their own learning, and they lead the way by reflecting on their experiences. This process centers participants as co-constructors of their own learning. Creating an environment where participants feel psychologically safe questioning and reflecting on their own processes, either privately or in-group discussions is essential. It is also important to create diverse activities that lead the participants to reflect on their prior knowledge and experiences. Examples of diverse activities are videos and other eLearning, simulations, hands-on, role-playing, case studies, games, and trainer-led activities. Incorporating a thoughtful variety of activities into the program and training structure can help reach the greatest number of participants. Avery and Thomas (2004) mention the importance of infusing training with variety or providing perspective-broadening information to best reach and connect to all participants (Huber, 2013). Therefore, it is highly recommended to use various techniques and methods to peak participant interest and motivate interest in the material.

The third stage is to inspire participants to think beyond their existing knowledge. Through this stage, the participants can become thoughtful and critical thinkers. They will be able to evaluate what they see and hear, and present solid arguments. To reach this level, a trainer might assign participants to work in small groups and answer questions related to target subjects with supportive evidence based on their experiences. Through group work, every participant can share their own opinions with others and provide feedback to one another. Therefore, having participants work together provides opportunities for them to think critically while interacting with their peers.

Further, Bezrukova et al. (2016) meta-analytical research analyzed results from sixty-five (65) studies (N= 8465) and suggest that "a focus on proximal outcomes and on how we can design training to enhance those outcomes will benefit our understanding of diversity training" (p. 1077). Other researchers (e.g., Kulik & Roberson, 2008b) arrived at the same conclusion. Proximal outcomes include valid and reliable knowledge, and transferable skills gained by participants. In comparison, distal outcomes of diversity training include more diverse hiring rates and staffing goals, and an improved campus climate. Often, diversity training and programs are weighted heavily as a solution to distal outcomes and removes focus from accountability of leadership personnel, faculty, and other key staff personnel within a university structure charged with addressing personnel matters and student affairs. Continuous improvement of proximal training outcomes might eventually lead to improvement on distal outcomes, but it requires a cooperative effort with shared purpose in addition to training.

Again, the Kirkpatrick Model of Training & Evaluation has been a standard method globally for learning and development professionals for over 50 years (Kirkpatrick Partners, 2021). As a reminder to the previous introduction to the model, the evaluation method outlines four levels of outcomes that we might consider following a learning and development session: reaction, learning, behavior, and results. Level 1 (Reaction) and Level 2 (Learning) are straight forward common post-training evaluations. Participant reaction simply gauges how the participant felt about aspects of the training (e.g., the degree to which it was engaging and relevant). Participant learning simply gauges what was learned from the training. Levels 3 (Behavior) and 4 (Results) is undoubtedly more difficult to evaluate in a survey. Behavior gauges the degree to which participants apply what was learned during the training to their work environment. Results are demonstrated targeted outcomes because of the training. Levels 3 and 4 can be gauged in some manner by being deliberate to include questions that gauge participants interests and intentions to apply what they've learned and if they believe they will be successful. Although much of diversity outcomes are not fixed and can fluctuate due to contextual factors and human inconsistencies, by asking participants about their intended behavior and ability to achieve targeted outcomes can provide a much better evaluative judgement of the training outcomes (Ward, 2020). The Appendix is an example of a survey instrument utilizing the Kirkpatrick Model for a diversity training delivered to university graduate students within the broader topic of Workplace Respect (See Appendix). Levels 1 and 2 are required quantitative response sections within the instrument. Levels 3 and 4 assessments are embedded in the first quantitative response section of the instrument (see Level 1 section of Figure 1) and the optional response qualitative section following Level 1 responses.

Conducting a training program consisting of multiple sessions with a cohort presents opportunities to discover how the participants are learning (relative to cognitive outcomes) and what adjustments can be made collaboratively by the trainer and cohort by soliciting feedback from the cohort midway through a training series or periodically. Using a formative feedback tool is a method intended to provide opportunities to discuss the shared responsibility and continuous improvement toward intended results. Established instructional methods, program design, and assessment practices from the fields of education, training and development, and other disciplines dependent on teaching and learning methods are recommended resources for diversity training due to sharing a commonality of addressing psychosocial variables even though the subject matter of these disciplines are not as emotionally charged as diversity topics.

As a result, the Plus/Delta tool created by the Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching (CELT) at Iowa State University covers how to deliver, collect responses, and utilize the findings of the Plus/Delta feedback tool within diversity training (see Figure 2). Additionally, the upper-left column asks participants to identify what is working to enhance learning in the program. The lower-left column asks

Figure 1. Level 1 and optional section of instrument
Source: (Authors, 2022)

LEVEL I: REACTION											
	Strongly Disagree										Strongly Agree
1. I understood the learning objectives.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. I am confident that I will be able to apply what I learned in this session on the job?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3. My learning was enhanced by the knowledge and experiences shared by the facilitator.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. I was comfortable with the pace of the program.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5. I found the room atmosphere to be comfortable.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6. I am committed to try to apply what I have learned.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7. I was engaged with what was going on during the program.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8. The activities and exercises aided in my learning, discovery, and/or reflection.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9. I would recommend this program to my co-workers if asked.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

(Optional) Please provide comments to help us improve this session in the future:

A. From what you learned and reviewed, what will you be able to apply as a graduate student in your department?

B. How committed are you to applying what you learned and reviewed to your work/academic environment?

C. What other feedback would you like to share?

Note. Response number 2 applies to Level 3: Behavior and optional response A. applies to Level 4: Results.

participants to identify what they are doing to enhance their learning in the program. The upper-right column asks participants to identify what needs to change or become better in the program to enhance learning. The hidden benefit of this question is that it does not lead participants to comment on a targeted quality of the program. Participants might identify content, delivery methods, trainer knowledge, or other features of the program. The lower-right column asks participants to identify what they need to do to enhance their learning in the program.

Anonymous feedback is typically collected online to provide "safety" to participants and allow critiques and criticisms without concern. However, anonymity may not be required for a cohort if relatedness, connections, mutual respect, and psychological safety are established prior to using the Plus/Delta feedback tool. The Plus/Delta questions can be offered online (e.g., Survey Monkey, Qualtrics, etc.) or delivered in-person in creative ways. For example, a four-quadrant chart could be drawn on "sticky note" wall pads and placed near the exits of the meeting room. Participants could be provided with "sticky notes" and place their responses in the appropriate quadrant while exiting after the session concluded. If desired, anonymity can be provided by the trainer exiting the meeting room first and then return to gather the feedback after participants have exited. Feedback gathered midway through a multiple session diversity series or program helps the trainer identify what changes can be made for the remaining sessions (e.g., new delivery and learning approaches) from what cannot change prior to the next time the topic is offered (e.g., content).

The Plus/Delta feedback and similar evaluation methods replicate the Continuous Improvement Model used in disciplines promoting organizational development and change. The term "continuous improve-

Figure 2. Plus/Delta tool example

Plus	Delta
What is helping me to learn in this training?	What changes are needed in this program to improve learning?
What am I doing to improve my learning in the diversity training series?	What do I need to do to improve my learning in this program?

Note. Adapted from the Plus/Delta tool created by CELT at Iowa State University

ment" is used across industries to describe a process representing an ongoing effort to improve results (American Society for Quality, 2022). At the diversity training level, continuous improvement can refer to using timely, accurate data to regularly inform and improve trainer practice. Likewise, Flumerfelt and Green (2013) suggested continuous improvement allows relevant actors (i.e., trainers and participants) to reflect on their efforts, identify areas of improvement, try potential solutions to what needs to improve, observe, and evaluate interventions, and adapt interventions based on data collected (e.g., Plus/Delta). Diversity training evaluation methods improve when diversity trainers and administrators utilize valid and reliable outcome measuring tools, guided practices and methodologies, and research and established practices from disciplines that focus on educational and training deliveries and evaluations.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The implications of this chapter should be very appealing to diversity trainers and HR administrators involved in university-wide diversity initiatives. For instance, trainers and HR professional development administrators can focus on the quality of training and realistic evaluations, specifically as it relates to measuring cognitive-based learning outcomes rather than holding diversity training responsible for "moving the needle" as it relates to diverse hires and increased retention, as well as the accountability of the overall campus climate relating to diversity matters. Diversity trainers should have intense focus on the objective of helping people work effectively with different others. Trainers are accountable for the features of the training and assessing learning that will enable practitioners to continuously improve and enhance the transfer of learning from the training venue to where attendees perform their job. For example, Kulik and Roberson (2008), and Knippenberg and Schippers (2007) report significant effects from a variety of instructional methods, particularly delivery that includes social interaction. Social interaction is like a workshop style of delivery, which includes exercises and other forms of active delivery, rather than a training that is dominated by a passive delivery (e.g., lecture or video) format. Many current video-format diversity training has a testing component to assess what was learned. However, social interaction is missing, and video-format alone is often not the preferred choice when opportunities to interact with trainers and other participants is an option. Evidence-based research comparing outcomes from different modes of delivery could verify if there are significant differences.

Another important characteristic of diversity training research concerns the lack of theoretical framework incorporated to guide inquiry. Paluck (2006) and Pendry et al. (2007) work on diversity training has been very influential in presenting investigative understandings on diversity training. Yet, Bezrukova et al. (2012) review reveals that diversity training remains fairly atheoretical in the ways they are conducted and evaluated. Evaluating diversity training will benefit and improve from developing theory-based training programs.

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions were presented as an example of theory-based guidance to help better understand dimensions of diversity within U.S. universities and consider non-identifiable diversity characteristics of training participants. Holladay et al. (2003) and Kaplan (2006) tried to better understand how participants' outcomes are influenced by the framing of diversity training. For instance, Holladay et al. (2003) concluded that a training frame using an inclusive and broader focus of the training (e.g., race, gender, and age, etc.), as opposed to a focus on one group (e.g., only gender) reduced participant criticisms and backlash. This outcome provides theoretical guidance toward inclusive characteristics (e.g., cultural dimensions) when attempting to offer training that focuses on a more general and inclusive approach and attempts outcomes that are better received by all participants regardless of individual identities.

Kirkpatrick's four level evaluation model has remained one of the most frequently used frameworks for the evaluation of training programs, yet it may be underutilized among diversity professionals unfamiliar with training and development evaluation methods within the branches of Human Resources and Management fields, including Leadership Studies, Organizational Development, Workforce Education, Organizational Change, and other disciplines focused on learning and performance. However, within standard diversity training, limitations exist with evaluating level three (behavior) and level four (results) of Kirkpatrick's model. Levels three and four are common university outcomes tied to diversity, and may include data on student enrollment, employee and student satisfaction, turnover, employee recruitment and selection, and promotions. Leadership must be supportive and are instrumental in providing necessary access and resources for longitudinal studies to better assess diversity training outcomes.

The Plus/Delta feedback tool was introduced as a continuous improvement evaluation method for diversity training covering multiple sessions (e.g., a series) with the same cohort. This tool asks participants to reflect on their continuous improvement and inform the changes needed for both the trainer and participants to enhance the learning experience. Unlike other conventional diversity training assessments, it helps participants take ownership and accountability of their role and think about what they can contribute to enhance the learning (i.e., PLUS), and what could improve in the training to help enhance their learning (i.e., DELTA) (Helminski & Koberna, 1995). Evidence-based research implementing a continuous improvement model would inform the utility of a continuous improvement approach to advancing diversity training outcomes.

CONCLUSION

Diversity training is the primary response to improving diversity initiatives. Yet, much of these goals are not practical of diversity training outcomes. While they are hopeful outcomes of training, these goals remove the focus of accountability from administrators, faculty, and human resources personnel. Diversity training is among the many "change traps" of higher education's diversity efforts. Change traps is a term used to describe the same efforts done repeatedly to address diversity problems, yet with very few success stories to model. Reconceptualizing diversity training predictors of training success begins with the evaluation criteria and process. Diversity trainers must distinguish their responsibility from other university personnel when it comes to training outcomes. In other words, what determines a successful training? What outcomes are within the scope of a trainer's impact? Training interventions can be successful although institutional diversity goals are lagging due to the limitations of training and the collaborative effort required from a plethora of higher education personnel also charged with improving campus diversity goals. Institutional support is an important condition affecting longitudinal outcomes of diversity training.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Affective-Based Outcomes: Perception and behavior are driven by measures of internal conditions.

Change Traps: The same efforts done repeatedly to address diversity problems.

Cognitive Learning: In diversity training, refers to the extent to which attendees acquire knowledge about cultural diversity issues conveyed by the trainer.

Continuous Improvement: A process representing an ongoing effort to improve results.

Diversity Training: A distinct set of instructional programs aimed at facilitating positive intergroup interactions, reducing prejudice and discrimination, and enhancing the skills, knowledge, and motivation of participants to interact with diverse others.

Social Cognitive Theory: Identifies how external forces (e.g., learned cultural norms) and internal forces (e.g., your thoughts) impact your learning.

APPENDIX

Figure 3a. Kirkpatrick model for a diversity training

Learning and Development Session Participant Survey

Session Title: ______________________________

Delivered By: ______________________ Date: ______________

The following training evaluation is derived from The Kirkpatrick Model of evaluating trainings. The result of this assessment helps the Professional Development Coordinator to strategically develop effective learning sessions. Upon completion of the learning session, participants are strongly encouraged to complete this evaluation form.

Instructions: Thinking about the session you just completed, please indicate to what degree you agree with each statement using this rating scale:

Strongly Disagree 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Strongly Agree

LEVEL I: REACTION											
	Strongly Disagree										Strongly Agree
1. I understood the learning objectives.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. I am confident that I will be able to apply what I learned in this session on the job?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3. My learning was enhanced by the knowledge and experiences shared by the facilitator.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. I was comfortable with the pace of the program.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5. I found the room atmosphere to be comfortable.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6. I am committed to try to apply what I have learned.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7. I was engaged with what was going on during the program.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8. The activities and exercises aided in my learning, discovery, and/or reflection.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9. I would recommend this program to my co-workers if asked.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Figure 3b. Kirkpatrick model for a diversity training

(Optional) Please provide comments to help us improve this session in the future:

A. From what you learned and reviewed, what will you be able to apply as a graduate student in your department?

B. How committed are you to applying what you learned and reviewed to your work/academic environment?

C. What other feedback would you like to share?

After reading each statement, please select either True or False that best represents the materials, outcomes and takeaways conveyed in the learning session, even if it conflicts with your personal view.

LEVEL 2: LEARNING		
	TRUE	FALSE
10. Workplace civility usually is demonstrated through manners, courtesy, politeness, and general awareness of the rights, wishes, concerns, and feelings, of others.		
11. A weakness-focused social influence strategy is characterized by communications and expressions of how subordinates may impede goal striving and attainment.		
12. Workplace misunderstandings will naturally decrease with a very diverse workforce		
13. The differences among people have no influence on perspectives of what is appropriate or inappropriate behavior.		
14. Values, beliefs, attitudes, and norms are shaped by environmental and other nurturing influences since birth.		
15. It's often easier to agree on what behaviors are considered uncivil compared to agreeing on what are civil behaviors?		
16. Our cultural perspectives and lived experiences have no influence on how we understand our interactions		
17. If you are informed, and carefully contemplate and analyze a situation, then it's not possible for you to be wrong.		

Appendix A. Assessment for "Reducing Workplace Conflict: Promoting a Climate of Respect and Inclusion." Created on 2/14/2020

Chapter 14
Strategies for Mitigating Bias in Training and Development

Quinton L. Marks
Honeywell Corporation, USA

Bilal El-Amin
Midway College, USA & Lexington-Fayette County Schools, USA

Abeni El-Amin
Fort Hays State University, USA & Shenyang Normal University, China

ABSTRACT

This chapter will examine the importance of mitigating bias in training and development, which provides internal and external scanning, thus mitigating bias in selection, promotion, compensation, information sharing, and implicit biases. Further, bias in training and development arises when training participants are intentionally or unintentionally targeted because of individual aspects of the "Big 8," consisting of race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender identity, ability, religion/spirituality, nationality, and socio-economic status. Akin to research, information bias results from misleading training participants by providing incomplete information or showing imaging that is not representative of a diverse group of people. Additionally, DEIB training and development leadership and risk factors are addressed.

INTRODUCTION

The mission statements and values of global organizations have similarities with a universal bias system. Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging (DEIB) practice in organizations allows for positive relationships with external stakeholders (Lawrence & Weber, 2020). The internal workforce relationship with organizational leaders encourages DEIB business strategies, including training and development management, transparency, and DEIB standards training. Furthermore, not all DEIB issues in business are similar. There are specific DEIB issues across a few diverse organizational functions, such as the training and development function, which is a significant component of a business firm. Organizational

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch014

leaders, external funders, government, legal authorities, and labor unions depend on such open assessment to settle crucial decisions. Fairness, respectability, sincerity, and proficient are necessities of professional functions. Therefore, the effect can be challenging for organizations when these qualities are missing (Lawrence & Weber, 2020).

Additionally, DEIB extends to publicizing, networking, and selling items or hiring internal stakeholders. The human resource department regularly interfaces most with stakeholders. Outside the firm, external stakeholder organizations and different firms provide promotion to organizations. Training and development create specific DEIB courses to mitigate issues of workplace aggression. One issue in promoting DEIB underscores honesty and straightforwardness in publicizing and promoting (Lawrence & Weber, 2020). Featured are subtleties of the professional exercises of conduct for each. Such strategies and exercises are to provide direction to directors and workers when they experience a DEIB predicament. As a result, DEIB compliance is instrumental within business functions (Lawrence & Weber, 2020).

DEIB Training and Development Management

Training and development management contributes to the globalization of markets and production. The globalization of products and markets is possible with technological changes (Ahrens et al., 2019). Changes in training and development have a marked effect on the globalization of products and markets and how consumers purchase and use products. New developments in training and development are a key contributing factor in the globalization of markets and production. Companies utilize training and development in many areas of organizational, supply chain, and procurement. Indeed, these advancements allow companies to get their products to consumers quicker by reducing wasteful operations that have longer lead times. Having online access to markets allows the consumer to purchase online banking, and products are delivered quicker due to warehousing distribution centers receiving orders (Lawrence & Weber, 2020). The development of immediate communication and the use of data collection allows for markets to process orders globally.

Moreover, data collection of consumer habits and feedback from sales has allowed companies to reach more customers. Further, competition affects a firm's decisions. Global wealth refers to assets that a person accumulates and owns at a point in time, while training and development may measure wealth in two ways: wealth and income (Lawrence & Weber, 2020). Global training and development and the circumstances reflect these nuances. There are unique challenges of globalization. Frequently, organizational firms are challenged to customize products essential to serve customers. Global organizations empower higher organizational volume to serve business sectors. A pragmatic approach uncovers global businesses' overall advantages under circumstances of forecast vulnerability, process intricacy, and various degrees of responsiveness (Ahrens et al., 2019).

Training and Development Bias

Training and development bias is of the most perplexing and quickly changing aspects of business bias in organizational practices. DEIB difficulties in this field include invasions of security; the collection and capacity of, and admittance to, personal and business information, through internet business transactions; confidentiality of electronic mail communication; copyright protection concerning software, music, and licensed innovation; cyberbullying; and various others (Lawrence & Weber, 2020).

Additionally, the attention to variety and the sociopolitical conditions leads to discrimination and marginalization, and power relationships drive leaders to consider foundational questions. First, attention to individuals' DEIB insights from various foundations and accounts expands the view and definition of bias. Second, characterized is the working environment. Third, some approaches consider an organization's culture (James & Burton, 2003; Schaeffer & Mattis, 2012;). Regarding government regulation, global nations outline a slow yet reformist course of organizational activities and recommend a compliance with equitable treatment of stakeholders, which means to provide training activities, including collaboration, appropriation, information management, development, and a social environment of inclusion and belongingness (Montealegre, 1999).

Bias in Training and Development Management

Issues may arise in training and development management because of time sensitivity and establishing quick methods to achieve training and development management objectives. For instance, utilizing tools such as training and development methods to mitigate DEIB issues. Distinguishing and moderating bias are essential strides in overseeing training and development management. As a result, train-the-trainer methods must measure and examine training and development management bias. Another method is determining training and development management risks (Carbone & Tippett, 2004). An appropriate training program design identifies and estimates standards for training and development. By increasing the value of the risk evaluation measure, another measure is based on a risk score and made accessible to the training and development management (Carbone & Tippett, 2004).

The advantages of planning include an increased focus on DEIB issues, ranking risk contingency planning, improved team collaboration in the DEIB strategy process, and the creation of enhanced risk controls (Carbone & Tippett, 2004). Understanding DEIB strategy involves understanding the essential factors that add to cultural bias. These biases are frequently the equivalent, paying little thought to the idea of the responsibility. The initial phase in DEIB strategy is risk awareness. When risk review is completed, risk examination is utilized to recognize the probability the bias that have been captured will occur (Cervone, 2006). While there are a few proper techniques that can be utilized for DEIB strategy, many training and development management utilize some sort of matrix-based choice cycle for breaking down and assessing cultural risk. The best training and development managers maintain open lines of correspondence through their organizations (Cervone, 2006).

DEIB strategy is one of the critical opportunities for mitigation measures. Various instruments, including software enhancements, are accessible to help the distinct levels of the DEIB strategic measure. Training and development can be detrimental to organizations that do not fully perform a risk analysis of using training and development before being adequately tested. Organizations have spent valuable resources and time learning and working through software interfaces and compatibilities. Having technological software glitches can also cause dissatisfaction with customers who depend on products to be delivered accurately and on time. Correction to software can also be costly and consume a tremendous amount of time to resolve. This is critical to training and development management success. Also, this is true when working to resolve customer complaints. Executing containment and root cause is not always the case, which is similar to resolving cultural dilemmas when time constraints are approaching. Training and development managers must maintain cost and time to execute effective outcomes by using DEIB strategy tools and methodologies to ensure success.

Opportunity in Organizations as a DEIB Construct

Eliminating issues of gender, diversity, and equity requires an organizational commitment to equity. Fine et al. (2020) determined that diversity's organizational benefits are essential and informed by evidence regarding business employee's differences and their relationship with vocational behavior and outcomes. Equity-based gains in workplace diversity initiatives reduce discrimination and combat androcentrism. Instrumental benefits of workplace diversity to organizations include increasing team and organizational performance, innovation, occupational well-being, and organizational governance. A positive relationship between occupational well-being and governance is most applicable. Leaders must imbue grounded diversity initiatives that are comprehensive and evidence-based to achieve comprehensive workplace diversity benefits.

Scholl and Cooper (2011) determined that gender pay equity issues have emphasized using job assessments in eliminating gender-based pay differentials. Specifically, job assessments' reliability and validity, especially generic forms of job assessment, have been analyzed. The procedure of gender pay equity engenders comparable worth determination. Job assessments were performed on a group of male-dominated and female-dominated job descriptions utilizing system protocols and the Factor Evaluation System (FES). Interestingly, metrics of reliability and convergence were calculated. In conclusion, salaries were calculated using different elements. The results indicated that there is a solid correlation between market pay rates and present salaries of different genders.

DEIB Leadership

Transformational leadership is a consideration for training and development management teams. When functioning within the transformational model, the leader works through individualized consideration to followers, intellectual motivation, inspiration, doing what is right, and charisma. Organization leaders facilitate a sense of mission by providing knowledge opportunity and instruction to the team members by fostering self-worth, desire, belief, and respect. The facilitation of team member transformation through effective leadership is essential in both face-to-face and virtual teaming scenarios.

Leadership is viewed as a significant part of cultural development. There are a few motivations that offer that transformational leadership is of specific importance in the training and development management team's activities. Moreover, there is often a lack of theoretical and empirical work on leadership in cultural-based associations (Keegan & Sanctum Hartog, 2004). The transformational leader's endeavors to accomplish results past what is typically expected by motivating a feeling of significance about the training and development management team's central goal, by animating proficient training and development management team members to consider the issue or undertaking recently, and by accentuating the overall objectives which are close to an individual's responsibility (Keller, 1995). Growth for everyone on the training and development management team can lead to long-term benefits for the organization overall. Fostering positive inner personal accomplishments, increased intellectual knowledge, and business acumen will enhance the organizations' overall workforce as a valuable commodity for future business needs. Moreover, transformational leadership is described as the capability of a leader to inspire and move supporters to act, keeping them persuaded and put resources into the bigger objectives while accomplishing more modest main jobs (Hughes, et al., 2020). Transformational DEIB leaders are those who build and create relationships with their subordinates, rather than utilizing adherents for an agreement or to just arrive at an objective, the last option is more regularly alluded to as a conditional authority (Bauman & O'Brien; 2019; Amenorvi, 2020; Hayes, 2020; Hughes, et al., 2020).

DEIB leaders often exhibit a combination of both autocratic and democratic leadership styles. Autocratic leadership is defined as those with ultimate authority and power over others. These DEIB leaders tend to make choices based upon their own ideas alone and do not listen to their team or seek input from others. Democratic leadership is defined as shared leadership, or a leadership style in which members of the group take a participative role in the decision-making process. This type of leadership can apply to any organization, from private businesses to schools to the government and religious groups. The authoritative leadership style is a form of leadership for visionary DEIB leaders who set expectations, and lead with confidence while engaging and motivating followers. These DEIB leaders are exceptionally at us words to captivate and motivate an audience. Their visionary leadership are prevalent and captivate their followers by conveying visions. Affiliative leadership is defined as a people's leader. People who display affiliative leadership are in tune with the emotions and feelings of the people that they lead (Hughes, et al., 2020). The affiliative leadership style makes connections with diverse groups to promote harmony amongst all people. Pace-setting leadership is when DEIB leaders push their people hard by setting goals (Hughes, et al., 2020). Servant leadership is the style in which DEIB leaders put the needs and assessments of others before themselves (Qiu & Dooley, 2022). Utilizing the servant leadership style is an effective way to build the trust. Notwithstanding, effective leadership can come in many distinctive styles, traits, and techniques. DEIB leaders must get their message across to their followers and make plans and establish goals to achieve the desired results.

Building Team Efficacy Through DEIB Training and Development

Team leadership styles vary, with each leader having a distinctive leadership trait that is unique and does not correlate with a consistent pattern for leadership. Various leadership models are well suited to allow for the project and team success (Roeder, 2013). The term "leadership style" focuses less on a person's traits or qualities and instead looks specifically at their behaviors. Reviewing leadership styles is universally referred to as the behavioral theory of leadership (Roeder, 2013).

The behavioral theory of leadership is a hypothetical system where leader impact is dissected, and elements and cycles hidden subordinate work behavior is proposed. A plan wherein basic guessed determinants and ways affecting the work behavior of a subordinate are distinguished is recommended (Ashour, 1982). Explicit behaviors of leadership impact are reasoned from the plan and distinguished from experiential, intellectual, and blended ways to deal with the impact (Ashour, 1982). The impacts of these behaviors on persuasive, learning, and ecological determinants of behavior are inspected considering operant, intellectual, and social learning writing and leadership writing. Various mediator factors deciding the limits of leader impact are distinguished (Ashour, 1982).

Moreover, the behavioral theory of leadership looks at the complex behaviors of a leader and catalogs those traits into distinctive leadership styles. Generally, most corporate workforce employees are driven by established goals and incentives, while a small segment is more galvanized by shying away from issues. Leadership structures influenced by individual partiality for targets and strategic goals versus complications will determine the impact of the desired leadership style (Roeder, 2013). Additionally, Trait theories contend that successful leaders share various standard character qualities, or "traits." Early trait theories said leadership is a natural, instinctual quality that does not have (Mind Tools, 2021). Research finds that

Trait theories contend with recognizing traits and characteristics. Trait theories maintain respectability, compassion, decisiveness, and amiability, which are helpful when driving others (Mind Tools, 2021).

Finally, some leadership styles have the probability to genuinely cause tension with the workforce while dealing with challenging tasks external of their job situation. Creating additional stress ensures adverse outcomes and risking aggravating the project team into a breakdown environment (Roeder, 2013). Utilizing an essential leadership style during a calamity is paramount to maintain an upbeat leadership style and empathetic of the leadership behavior will be more effective and deliberate inactions, including the use of language from issues to goal targets communicated with the team (Roeder, 2013).

DEIB Training and Development Strategy

Five decision making tools that may be used in professional training and development are the autocratic process, the group process, consultative process from the normative decision model, the decision tree method and the LMX method (Hughes et al., 2019). The goal of the training is to provide facilitation, so learners understand the different methods and how to apply them. The Autocratic method is when the leader makes the decision based on all the information gathered. It is strategic to base a decision off data compared to opinion. The consultative process provides consultation with others on the team to gain input on a decision or situation. This method is good to use when decisions affect another stakeholder. The group process is when decisions are made as a group and are discussed openly until a solution is reached. The decision tree process is also a good method to use to map out all the possible outcomes of a solution based on a single decision (Hughes et al., 2019). The LMX method known as the Leader Member Exchange Theory is when decisions are based off linkages and relationships. This is a good method to use for relationship building between leaders and followers. These are five decision making tools that DEIB training and development facilitators can use to mitigate workplace conflict through training, simulation, application, and reflection.

Further, leadership assessment tool inventories must be utilized to evaluate leader and stakeholder disposition for tasks and in team development. *The Leadership Assessment Tool Inventory* has eight categories that evaluate leadership tendencies, behaviors, and traits. The eight categories are: cognitive style, gaining power and influence, effective empowerment and delegating, team development behaviors, using influence strategies, diagnosing poor performance and enhancing motivation, diagnosing the team for team building, and creativity. *The Team Development Behaviors Assessment* has six categories. The categories are: diagnosing team development, managing the forming stage, managing the conforming stage, managing the storming stage, managing the performing stage, and managing team meetings. *The Diagnosing Poor Performance and Enhancing Motivation*. The seven categories are diagnosing performance, establishing expectations and goals, facilitating performance (enhancing ability), link performance to rewards and discipline, using salient internal external incentives, distributing rewards equitably, and providing timely and straightforward performance feedback. *The Effective Empowerment and Delegating Assessment* has nine categories. The categories evaluate: personal mastery experiences, modeling, providing support, arousing positive emotions, providing information, providing resources, organizing teams, creating confidence, and delegating work.

CHANGE MANAGEMENT IN DEIB TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

DEIB strategy uses training and development, which provides an impetus for change and improvement in the long term (Edwards et al., 2019; Das et al., 2020). The driving force for improvements originates from stakeholder criticism, which is conveyed back to the producer a lot quicker by the customer. When the producer gets stakeholder criticism, their reaction time should be quicker to meet the assumptions for the stakeholder. Utilizing DEIB training and development methodology, root cause analysis, corrective action methods, and cycle information following methods have improved efficiency, training and development controls, and expanded consumer loyalty. An illustration of how organizations show concern for stakeholders is found in leadership and DEIB training and development execution inside organizations. The connection among administration and accomplishment stages in DEIB training and development executions, permitting the recognizable proof of characteristics more worthwhile to achievement in DEIB training and development managements: observable, communicative, stimulating, reliable, directed, leading by example, adaptable, perceive DEIB training and development as a philosophy, clearly define roles and responsibilities, and able to build. While more associations focused and administration focused on the area, and the more modest the organization, the more prominent the requirement for the solid initiative to effectively carry out DEIB training and development in taking part organizations to meet fruitful consumer loyalty results (Dabholkar, 2015; Laureani & Antony, 2017).

DEIB strategy and formal and informal control training and development processes are applied through various mechanisms; thus, control training and development processes are implemented for cultural development and by investigating why training and development managers and user stakeholders implement different methods of control training and development processes. Kirsch (1997) discovered that users and information training and development managers are critical in controlling systems. Similarly, it was found that stakeholders implement a portfolio of control training and development processes, which include formal and informal training and development processes. Portfolio management is a critical determinant in attaining success in training and development management (Brewer & Dittman, 2013). Control training and development processes are often overlapping and redundant mechanisms to ensure training and development (Pheng, 2018).

Further, preexisting mechanisms of formal control, such as designing different mechanisms with or supplementing the mechanisms of formal control with mechanisms of informal control to improve processes, is ideal. Likewise, questions of cause and effect are critical to assessing the performance of programs and improvement (Mayne, 2008). The different types of performance reports are described herein. These reports make up critical pieces of information used for training and development management performance reporting. There are four kinds of performance reports. They are overall performance reports, status reports, improvement reports, and exception reports (Brewer & Dittman, 2013). Further, risks exist at each level, and bias should be owned and managed at the appropriate level. Some bias identified at higher levels will be delegated to the training and development management team. And other DEIB issues may be escalated to higher levels if they are best managed outside a cultural. There are trends, and emerging practices for DEIB strategy, which include but not limited to non-events risk. The training and development manager is often accountable for the delivery of the cultural outcomes of an organization.

Process DEIB strategy considered from an alternative viewpoint. In any case, the risk is an inalienable property of each business process, and methods are expected to recognize, address, and investigate business process bias. The shortfall of such strategies is a concern because both operational risk alleviation and legitimate consistency rely upon organizational risk. The subject of DEIB strategy regarding business process management is related to bias and scientific categorization and applied in the examination and documentation of business processes. This reflects a contemporary perspective with objectives, DEIB constructs, and DEIB strategy (Rosemann & Zur, 2005).

CONCLUSION

The role of stakeholder collaboration in business is to uphold core values and execute the challenges stakeholders face. Firms must ensure absolute integrity and consistency in practice by implementing regulatory, organizational policies, and practices through innovative strategy. Strategic leaders possess interpersonal and collaboration-building skills, effectively building relationships and working through challenging relationships and conversations with stakeholders. Strategic leaders provide a voice by critical discernment and communicating issues. The benefits of stakeholder collaboration are developing a depth with internal and external relationships—improved relations with personnel, customers, suppliers, government, and society.

Additionally, improved corporate social responsibility (CSR) improves public perception with stakeholders (Lawrence & Weber, 2020). Also, business leaders provide leadership by critically and DEIB thinking through issues related to stakeholder managers. Business professionals and leaders develop cohesive solutions, direct, influence, and guide internal and external stakeholders. Business professional development warrants that business practitioners must in organizational implications of business decisions related to organizational development. Business practitioners apply breadth and depth of experience, acumen, organizational knowledge, and analytics to implement and evaluate the effectiveness of programs and processes. Business professionals and leaders make recommendations for strategic changes that drive successful outcomes. Moreover, organizational professionals and leaders execute DEIB strategy to achieve strategic objectives internally and externally.

Indeed, adherence to professional programs mitigate and reduce risks associated with failure to comply with DEIB compliance (Branscombe & Baron, 2017). Organizations endeavor to maintain social standards by ensuring that all employees adhere to compliance policies through consenting to norms of the organization Compliance is achieved through training (Li et al., 2019). As a result, these policies are fundamental to organizational structure and employee well-being. The benefit of utilizing these policies is to ensure a feeling of security and trust in the organization (Branscombe & Baron, 2017). With compliance programs in place, employees can report inconsistencies in private to maintain moral practices. For example, compliance and bias programs promote and increase the capacities of the organization's watchdog offices. Moreover, bias programs enhance assessment protocols. Compliance policies allow organizations to regulate employee's behavior. The benefit of utilizing compliance policies is to reduce and mitigate issues relating to DEIB behavior.

Finally, execution and improvement of training and development management face various challenges in the existing society and organizations (Branscombe & Baron, 2017). However, these challenges require effective strategy of those who impact social structures. Training and development management methods can help organizations develop their efficiency for the successful operation of organizational activities. Leaders must understand how a culture wrought with bias affects intra culture dynamics to develop practical bias or behavioral conformity. Effective tools for developing a culture of inclusiveness are strategic planning and psychological assessment of internal stakeholders. Cultures that embrace diversity and inclusion improve performance in the industry and at the company level. Incorporating training and development management into organizational strategic planning helps companies to manage available resources.

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Section 4

The Impact of Mentoring and Digital Transformation on Education Management of Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging Practices

Chapter 15
Culturally Relevant Mentoring:
A Differentiator for Institutional Change

Sylvia Wilson Thomas
University of South Florida, USA

Saundra Johnson Austin
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6432-0896
University of South Florida, USA

Tonisha B. Lane
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1063-2744
Virginia Tech, USA

Alishea Rowley
Florida A&M University, USA

Allyson Watson
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3201-8278
Florida A&M University, USA

Brenda L. Walker
University of South Florida, USA

Lidia Kos
Florida International University, USA

Christine Dome
Florida International University, USA

Helena Mariella-Walrond
Bethune-Cookman University, USA

Gwen Lee-Thomas
Quality Measures, LLC, USA

ABSTRACT

This chapter presents an overview and a conceptual approach of culturally relevant mentoring at an institution of higher learning from the lens of the authors. There are various types of mentoring approaches that demonstrate the opportunity for institutional leaders to align their strategic initiatives with the academic and career success of dissertators, postdoctoral researchers, and early career faculty. This work places a focus on culturally relevant mentoring as a tactical approach for creating strategic dialogue of critical consciousness to produce core values, institutional commitments, and strategic plans that reflect the culture of all stakeholders. Culturally relevant mentoring promotes active acknowledgement of cultural contributions, inclusive social context, and equitable and just strategies for institutional climate change that will differentiate an institution from its peers in higher education.

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch015

INTRODUCTION

According to the National Academy of Sciences, mentoring is "a professional, working alliance in which individuals work together over time to support the personal and professional growth, development, and success of the relational partners through the provision of career and psychosocial support" (National Academies, 2019). Furthermore, mentoring is an "intentional relationship focused on developing self of relatively unseasoned partner/mentee/protégé through dialogue and reflection; an implicit focus on development of the next generation in the context of interpersonal relationships" (Hall, 2002). In higher education, mentoring is an essential career development phenomenon that has been approached from three dimensions, "mentoring students by faculty, mentoring junior faculty by senior faculty, and mentoring in the career development of administrators."

Regarding mentoring dissertators, postdoctoral researchers, and early career faculty (DPEs), mentees from underrepresented or underserved groups, particularly in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM), often require a more cultural and relevant experience (Atkins et al., 2020). As authors from underrepresented groups and with degrees in STEM, social science, and education fields, we lend our academic and career experiences to this work as mentors and mentees. In particular, mentors have been pivotal in the direction that our careers have taken. In essence, our mentors are culturally relevant leaders (CRL) who have moved beyond the institutional barriers to develop intentional relationships with the foresight to challenge the inequities in higher education (Bertrand Jones, Guthrie, & Osteen, 2016).

Studies have shown that early career researchers desire mentorship to achieve their scholarly career goals (Boeren, Lokhtina-Antoniou, Sakurai, Herman & McAlpine, 2015; Thomas, Bystydzienski, & Desai, 2014). Pressures exist throughout their journey that includes making tenure, negotiating salaries, balancing career and personal goals, and collaborating with other professionals to build a network. Faculty women of color (WOC) experience these same pressures. Yet, their career success suggests a different type of mentoring, whether formal or informal (Thomas et al., 2014). A peer mentoring model that focuses on the formation of WOC in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) has emerged. For example, after a weeklong intensive research bootcamp, early career faculty WOC in STEM intentionally formed a sister circle and began mentoring one another regarding their scholarship goals. They formed their own counterspace to aid in their success. Counterspaces are spaces and places that facilitate the intersectionality of one's identity and one's psychological well-being (Case & Hunter, 2012; Howard-Hamilton, 2003). Their sister circle can be described as culturally relevant mentoring.

The authors present an overview, a conceptual approach, and a case study of culturally relevant mentoring (CRM) at institutions of higher learning. The case study focuses on WOC in STEM and depicts the methodology and implementation across three Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs- Florida A&M University, Bethune-Cookman University, and Florida Memorial University), one Hispanic Serving Institution (HSI-Florida International University), and one predominantly White institution (PWI-University of South Florida) with a social science construct and evaluation. These institutions formed the National Science Foundation (NSF) sponsored Florida Alliance for Graduate Education and the Professoriate (FL-AGEP), Improving Pathways in the Professoriate for Women of Color in STEM. As partners, the Alliance provides professional development and mentoring to doctoral candidates, postdoctoral researchers, and early career faculty WOC.

Specifically, mentoring approaches lend an opportunity for institutional leaders to align their strategic initiatives with the academic and career success of diverse faculty, students, and investigators. This work places the importance of focusing on culturally relevant mentoring as a tactical approach for creating strategic dialogue of critical consciousness to produce core values, institutional commitments, and strategic plans that reflect the culture of all stakeholders. Culturally relevant mentoring promotes active acknowledgement of cultural contributions, inclusive social context, and equitable and just strategies for institutional climate change that will differentiate an institution from its peers in higher education.

"Culturally relevant" and "culturally responsive" have been cited in the literature as synonymous foundationally, but in practice, culturally responsive action focuses on strategies and practices, while culturally relevant action empowers stakeholders to implement shared, equitable, and just strategies that directly impact the quality of life. *From the authors' knowledge, this is the first time culturally relevant mentoring (CRM) has been defined as an enabling alliance that empowers individuals, mentor and mentee, to utilize, embrace, and acknowledge cultural differences as strengths for growth and development.* A CRM approach includes supporting career, psychosocial and cultural awareness connections. Also, CRM garners a foundation that mentors are genuine, trustworthy, intentional, culturally aware, and supportive (Edney, 2019). Mentors should recognize that all students and professionals may have equal chances or potentials, but some do not have equal access and opportunity supported by the exact needed resources for equity. CRM can become the differentiator for credible academic institutions and leaders, increased research endeavors, enhanced recognition, and improved institutional commitment.

The authors present a definition of culturally relevant mentoring and present the potential for mentoring to impact the higher education system. CRM can provide a glide path for institutional leaders to align their strategic initiatives with a tactical approach from a lens of critical consciousness leading to core values, institutional commitments, and strategic plans that reflect the diverse culture of the institution. The chapter begins with the background of mentoring, then the authors describe in further detail the evolution of various types of mentoring, mentoring in higher education, and the concept of culturally relevant mentoring for WOC. A case study follows referencing CRM as a counterspace for WOC and offers a perspective on the impact of a CRM approach on mentors, mentees, the institution and opportunities for longitudinal development. The chapter concludes with implications of a CRM approach for institutions that strategize for organizational change that will differentiate the institution as an inclusive and diverse top tier research university of academic excellence.

BACKGROUND

Mentoring is an enabling, traditionally one-on-one relationship that fosters the growth and development of individuals. It integrates the functions of advising, counseling, tutoring and coaching to engage students and professionals in the rigor of scholarship, research, and lifelong planning. The relationship involves an experienced individual (mentor) who influences the behavior, habits, performance and progress of a less experienced person (mentee or protégé). This experience can also be reciprocated in what has been coined "reverse mentoring" (Chen, 2013; Morris, 2017).

The literature confirms that mentees in effective mentoring relationships experience fewer adjustment problems, especially regarding early socialization to institution and campus resources and contacts (Thomas, 2014). Also, mentees advance at a faster pace and are more productive. Further studies indicate that mentees are more responsible for the choices they make. They experience academic and career success and better performance because of contact, support and nurturing received during mentoring. This results in less isolation and marginalization, enhanced opportunities, and an increase in self-confidence and self-motivation. (Smith & Thomas, 2014)

Furthermore, formal and informal mentoring has evolved from new approaches and conceptual frameworks of several different types, which may include peer, ladder, virtual/online, and culturally relevant (Edney, 2019; Osula & Irvin, 2009; Mass Mentoring Partners, 2016; Sanchez, Colon-Torres, Feuer, Roundfield, & Barardi, 2014). It is known that the function of effective mentoring is to create a culture that develops and enables by: (1) Establishing a climate where developing individuals, particularly students, is recognized as a valued activity; (2) Preserving, sharing and passing on academic and professional protocol, knowledge and skills; and (3) Providing opportunities for empowerment and self-determination, which transcend age, ethnicity, gender, generation, physical and mental disabilities, and race.

Evolution of Mentoring

In institutions of higher learning, mentoring can support a roadmap for global longitudinal impact through research productivity, partnership and community engagement, and workforce development. Over the course of several years, mentoring (formal and informal) alliances have evolved from new approaches and conceptual frameworks, branching into several different forms per Figure 1 (National Academy of Science of Engineering and Medicine, 2019): dyad, triads, collective or group, and network mentoring (Adapted from National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2019). Figure 1 illustrates what the authors have used as building blocks for methodologies of a CRM model, noting the importance of a mentoring network as in Figure 1D (Network). Furthermore, mentoring engagement taps into multiple forms of mentoring – peer/ladder mentoring, online/virtual mentoring, protégé research/discipline specific mentoring, culturally relevant mentoring, and network mentoring to implement programmatic models across institutions for strategic development opportunities (Edney, 2019; Osula & Irvin, 2009; Mass Mentoring Partners, 2016; Sanchez et al., 2014).

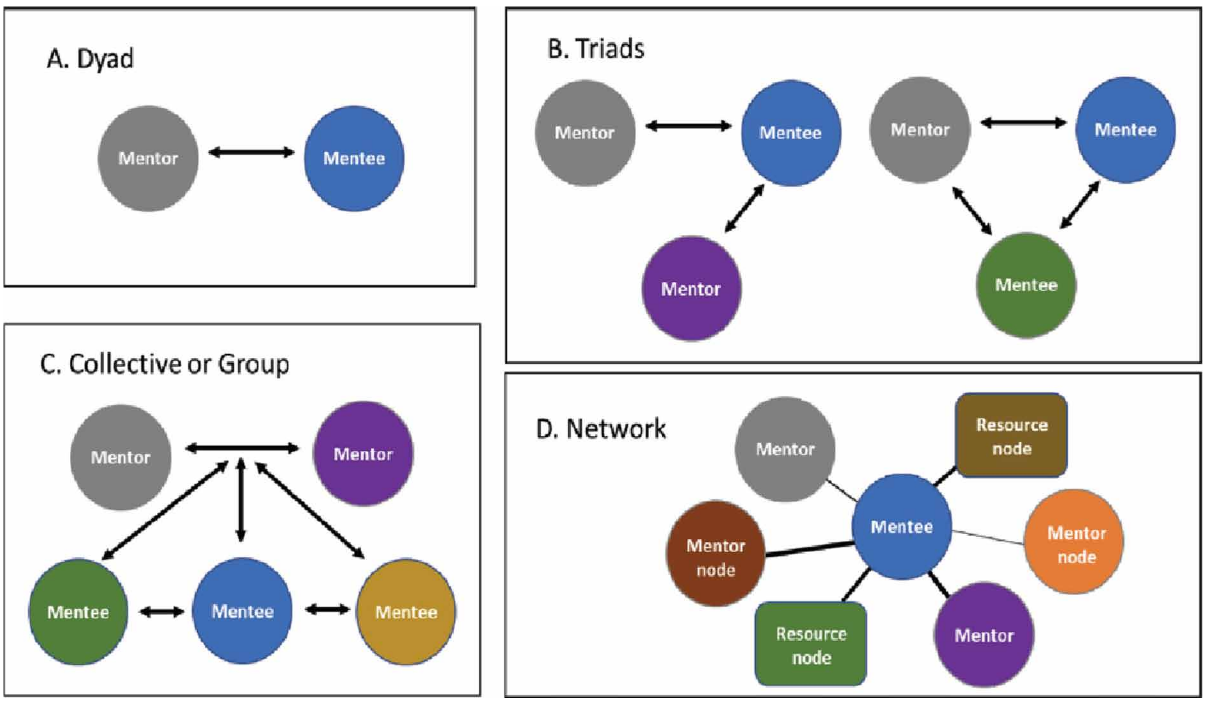
Peer/Ladder Mentoring

Typically, peer mentoring occurs between individuals at the same career level across disciplines as one-on-one or in a group, face-to-face or virtually. An extension of peer mentoring is ladder mentoring by which, in the same discipline, one individual is at a slightly higher level in skills and knowledge. The value of peer/ladder mentoring includes establishing diverse relationships, building collaborative networks, and creating synergistic relationships that might not otherwise exist (Jacelon, Zucker, Staccarini, & Henneman, 2003).

Online/Virtual Mentoring

When it comes to online/virtual mentoring alliances, the use of online mechanisms to further develop and maintain relationships is key. These initial interactions may occur in person, yet are maintained through online sources, such as connecting at professional conferences and the connection continues through follow-up email messages, meetings in cloud-based video conferencing platforms. The mentoring experience is further diversified when the online/virtual mentoring engagement opportunities exist with national and international expert mentors. One online source for connecting with mentors and developing grounded mentoring relationships is MentorNet. The online mentoring platform is “a

Figure 1. Mentorship structures. (A) Dyadic pairing (one mentor and one mentee). (B) Two triads (two mentors and one mentee; one mentor and two mentees). (C) Collective or group mentoring (two mentors and three mentees). (D) Network mentoring (mentee with two mentors, two mentorship nodes ((i.e., a group of peer mentors), and two resource nodes (i.e., a mentorship-intensive social media forum). NOTES: Lines with arrowheads indicate bidirectional engagement; Line weight indicates the mentoring relationship strength for a person (i.e., mentor) or group of mentors (i.e., a mentor node, such as professional mentors) or a resource node (website, online resources, program, or social media presence). (Adapted from National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2019)



free membership network for women in Engineering and Science that matches students, post-docs, and early-career researchers across universities and within industry" (MentorNet, 2022).

In addition to online mentoring, faculty success can also be achieved through on-demand mentoring (National Center for Faculty Development & Diversity, 2022). The FL-AGEP Alliance emphasizes the National Center for Faculty Development & Diversity (NCFDD) as a resource for longitudinal faculty development. Also, a key component of the FL-AGEP model is assigning mentors to FL-AGEP Scholars to bolster their academic journey and career goals.

A study showed that effective mentoring requires strong mentoring networks as a system of support from individuals with diverse backgrounds and strengths (Smith, Calderwood, Dohm, & Gill Lopez, 2013). The adoption of a community of practice (CoP) model was used to facilitate the mentoring of faculty based on the practical and conceptual dilemmas they faced. Such mentoring was done as members of the Committee for Mentoring (CfM).

Other types of mentoring support form a web of mentoring. The National Center for Faculty Development & Diversity (NCFDD) contends that academic professionals should identify and continue to cultivate a web of mentoring support comprised of mentors, sponsors, and collaborators. Another aspect of mentoring are role models, as they are also critical to the mentoring network. In such a network, mentors are individuals who can help with addressing at least one need. For example, supporting a mentee in the proposal writing process that focused on a novel research project in the mentee's field of study. Second, mentors can serve as sponsors. They are individuals who can speak on behalf of the mentee when the mentee is not present. Lastly, mentors serve on annual review committees and make tenure and promotion decisions, to name a few examples.

The third web of mentoring support comes in the form of collaborators, who are people or groups with whom the individual professionals collaborate to accomplish various professional goals. Included in the network of collaborators are role models, i.e., established professionals that the mentee can emulate. They could engage with each other in a relationship that guides the career of the new professional. To this end, the authors note there is a need to expand beyond the traditional one-to-one mentoring relationship, which may not be the most effective or efficient way of mentoring new and emerging scholars. The mentoring map is a tool that NCFDD uses to help professionals consider their various sources of support necessary for accomplishing their professional goals.

To use the NCFDD tool, professionals should begin by identifying the following: 1) What do I need? 2) How can I get there? 3) Who are the individuals I might need? Once professionals identify responses to these questions, they should complete the mentoring map that entails nine group types or areas of need. These group types or needs include identifying individuals (or groups) who can help with accomplishing professional development, emotional support, safe space, intellectual community, role models, accountability (for what really matters), access to opportunities, sponsorship, and substantive feedback.

The NCFDD provides tools and strategies that help participants to thrive in academia, achieve writing and research goals, and establish a network of mentors and collaborators.

Mentee Research/Discipline Specific Mentoring

There is a research component to the evolution of mentoring. A research focused mentoring alliance provides connectivity between faculty and student, faculty and faculty, and faculty/student and collaborator. This type of mentoring is typically based upon the scholarly interest/passion/activity shared between mentor and mentee.

Network Mentoring

A mention of the network mentoring concludes the section on the evolution of mentoring. A network of mentoring alliances consists of multiple mentors strategically aligned to support a mentee. Network mentoring is "a diverse network of mentors (formal and informal) who may be drawn from many places (internal and external) and who serve in different roles so that multiple needs are met, sometimes referred to as a "constellation of mentors" (Sorcinelli, & Yun, 2007; De Janasz & Sullivan, 2004). Furthermore, mentoring is an "intentional relationship focused on developing self of relatively unseasoned [learning partner/mentee] through dialogue and reflection; an implicit focus on development of the next generation in context of interpersonal relationships" (Hall, 2002, p. 147, as cited in Knippelmeyer & Torraco, 2007).

MENTORING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

In higher education, mentoring is an essential career development phenomenon that has been approached from three dimensions; "mentoring students by faculty, mentoring junior faculty by senior faculty, and mentoring in the career development of administrators" (Merriam Thomas, Zeph, 1987, p. 200). This process is fostered through formal (programmed) and informal (upstaged) learning relationships for effective career development (Lunsford et al., 2017; Lane & Cobb-Roberts, 2022; Nemiro et al., 2011). However, effective mentoring has been a challenging process due to organizational culture, gender, and race related issues that continue to impact access to mentoring for women and underrepresented groups (Gibson, 2006), specifically in STEM fields. Hence, Mullen et al. (2008) cautioned that formal mentoring relationships "not only potentially compensates for situations bereft of faculty bonding but also better positions college leaders to meet their goals of retention and success while generating widespread cultural change" (p. 45).

Institutional leaders have identified several advantages to mentoring in academia, such as cultivating organizational relationships, fostering synergistic connections (Lane & Cobb-Roberts, 2022). Other examples of such advantages include supporting leadership development, develops big-picture thought leaders, facilitating the diversification of knowledge, opening channels to share and manage organizational knowledge, recognizing potential leaders for succession planning, supporting recruitment and retention, increasing interdisciplinary research activity, spawning innovation and technical knowledge, promoting career progression, and championing diversity and inclusive and equitable efforts.

In view of this literature, institutions can embrace the strategy of empowering and supporting diverse and inclusive talent through a culturally based mentoring lens as a glidepath to accomplishing institutional goals.

CULTURALLY RELEVANT MENTORING

In alignment with two foundational tenets of Ladson-Billings' Culturally Relevant Pedagogy, cultural competence and socio-political consciousness (Ladson-Billings, 1995), culturally relevant mentoring (CRM) actively acknowledges cultural contributions, inclusive social context, and equitable and just strategies for changing the climate to differentiate the institution from peers in higher education. With CRM, mentors provide pathways to opportunities and help individuals attend to their psycho-social needs having synergy with the advancement in the academy (Lane & Cobb-Roberts, 2022).

A mentoring alliance may consist of the following components: formal and informal mentoring; mentor-mentee training, mentor-mentee match program, networking and collaboration events, and career progression activities. Objectives of a CRM session can be viewed as:

- Clearly defining the mentoring framework for supporting and strengthening alliance methodologies while considering cultural differences
- Assisting mentors and mentees with cultural approaches for engagement strategies
- Describing components of a mentoring plan (roles/responsibilities/expectations; effective mentoring; accountability and assessment)
- Identifying resources to sustain efforts toward a long-term mentoring alliance as cultural climates change

Culturally Relevant Mentoring Counterspaces

The facilitation of environments that facilitate empowerment, transformation, and psychological well-being among marginalized populations can be attributed to what is known as counterspaces (Case & Hunter, 2012). Marginalized populations are typically groups excluded from economic, mainstream, cultural, or educational life due to gender identity, race, sexual preference, physical ability, ethnicity, social or immigration status, age, and/or language. "These spaces may exist in physical structures or include the presence of participants in an organization that advances the needs of a certain racial or ethnic group" (Howard-Hamilton, 2003, p. 23). Counterspaces provide spaces of safety, survival, or refuge and of collective understanding of barriers or microaggressions (Ong et al., 2018).

Ong et al. (2018) cite that disenfranchised individuals are able to be their whole selves when counterspaces are presented as options. The framework also results in feeling a sense of belonging (Casad et al., 2021). Lastly, the experience can lead to an intact psychological self, which is well documented for persisting in the academy (McGee, 2021).

Black women professionals in higher education were studied to determine the enhancement of their skills, knowledge, and competencies to successfully traverse their workplace (West, 2017). The researcher's findings indicated a "culturally homogeneous experience, infused with a variety of culturally responsive resources, that was delivered via a culturally intentional curriculum" (West, 2017, p. 1).

Per an Association of American Colleges and Universities' article (Crutcher, 2014), cross-cultural mentoring involves an ongoing, intentional, and mutually enriching relationship with someone of a different race, gender, ethnicity, religion, cultural background, socioeconomic background, sexual orientation, or nationality.

The two concepts cited above provide a strong basis for the authors to establish and develop a framework that would address persistent challenges of mentoring WOC.

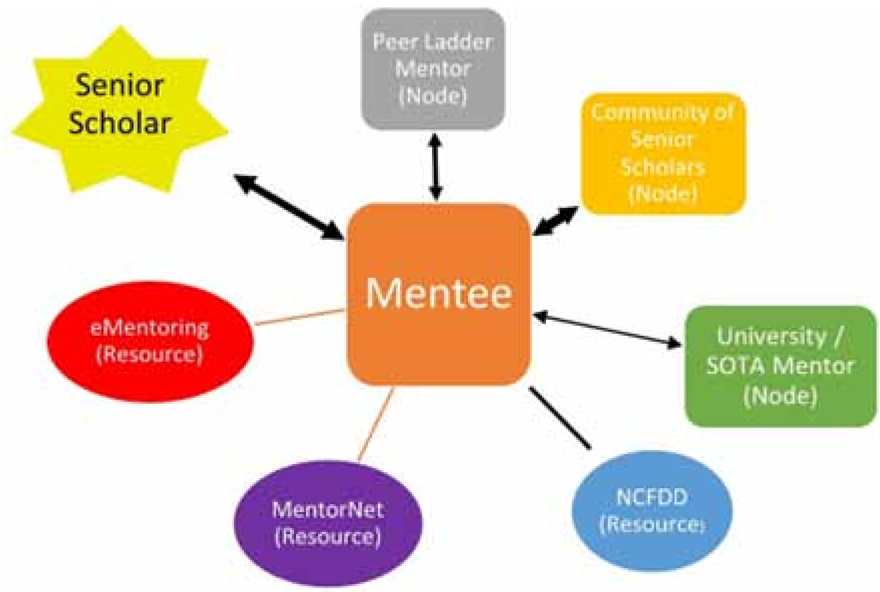
A Case Study: CRM Counterspace for Women of Color

In an effort to initiate institutional change through culturally relevant mentoring, university-based and federally funded mentoring programs are on the horizon. The authors have the opportunity to implement the National Science Foundation (NSF) sponsored FL-AGEP: *Improving Pathways in the Professoriate for Women of Color in Science, Technology, Engineering and Technology (STEM).* These are WOC who are tenured senior scholar mentors and early career mentees and are primarily presenting their perspective of their experiences and observations of a more comprehensive National Science Foundation study.

The project addresses the issue of: (1) advancing underrepresented female faculty in STEM, particularly at the senior levels; and (2) the retention of underrepresented female post-docs and graduate scholars for careers in academia. The FL-AGEP Alliance seeks to provide a structured mentoring and professional development program model that facilitates the transition and advancement of doctoral, post-doctoral, and early-career faculty women of color in the STEM professoriate.

Our observation denotes that the FL-AGEP Alliance bridges CRM practices with program/organizational methodologies to establish an initial mentoring alliance that facilitates peer mentoring among participants and network mentoring. The FL-AGEP Alliance uses three mentoring building blocks for CRM by women of color for women of color (Figure 2) to include 1) mentee(s) to Senior Scholar (star); 2) three mentorship nodes (rectangles) - peer or ladder mentors, Community of Senior Scholar men-

Figure 2. FL-AGEP mentoring network (mentee with one Senior Scholar mentor {star}, three mentorship nodes {rectangle} (i.e., peer or ladder mentors, faculty-to-post doc-to-dissertator; Community of Senior Scholars; University and SOTA Mentors), and three resource nodes {oval}. NOTES: Lines with arrowheads indicate bidirectional CRM (culturally relevant mentoring) engagement; Line weight indicates the mentoring relationship's importance to the model



tors, University and Sisters of the Academy (SOTA) mentors; and 3) three resource nodes (ovals) for sustainable and longitudinal mentoring.

SOTA envisions that every Black women who enters the academy will flourish. The mission of SOTA is to facilitate the success of Black women in the academy by fostering research and scholarship collaboration. Mentoring is a key component to SOTA's culturally responsive socialization framework.

Complementing the diversity of the FL-AGEP women of color participants, Senior Scholar mentors are tenured, skilled and experienced mentors who are guided by their learned experiences, cultural awareness (field and gender), reflective style and philosophy, and continuous mentoring of former mentees/proteges. The Community of Senior Scholars are women of color who are STEM researchers and leaders in the professoriate.

The authors observed that the primary mentoring relationship (mentee to senior scholar) and the mentoring alliances (nodes) presented opportunities for bidirectional CRM (culturally relevant mentoring) engagement. The Senior Scholar mentors learned from the mentees and vice versa when engaging in cultural experiences for WOC in the academy. Further observations indicated a very high mentoring relationship as important to the CRM model to be the community of senior scholars working as a collective to mentor one mentee.

Based on the experience of the authors, being aware and closely connected to the cultural relevance of women of color in STEM was critical to the selection of Senior Scholar mentors in this case, to further emphasize empathy and sensitivity to FL-AGEP participants' experiences, expectations, and enhance the overall mentoring impact. Below are strategies used to recruit, select, and train these experienced, skilled, and tenured women of color to establish a Community of Senior Scholars.

Senior Scholar Recruitment and Selection Strategies

The authors designed a Senior Scholar engagement plan to help establish a community of senior scholar mentors for the FL-AGEP project to provide mentorship grounded in culturally relevant mentoring (CRM) practices. The CRM approach was developed for engagement beyond the career to include psycho-social connections between mentor(s) and mentee. It should be noted that CRM can also be applied across the various types of mentoring relationships described earlier, i.e., peer mentoring, etc. With the FL-AGEP Alliance being housed at institutions in State of Florida to include the University of South Florida (USF), Florida Agricultural & Mechanical University (FAMU), Florida International University (FIU), Bethune Cookman University (B-CU), and Florida Memorial University (FMU), the team implemented a tactic to recruit a qualified pool of senior scholar mentors (tenured faculty) from across the state of Florida. It was also strategic to engage WOC senior scholar mentors and minority-serving organizations from across the region to promote, support, or advocate for broadening participation of women of color in STEM.

The authors found that the following engagement plan was highly effective in developing a database for a FL-AGEP Community of Senior Scholars:

Strategy 1

Outreach to Senior Scholar mentors in universities and colleges across the state of Florida to communicate goals of the FL-AGEP and extend invitations to participate

Tactics

1. Schedule presentations, information sessions and/or webinars to familiarize potential Senior Scholar mentors to FL-AGEP
2. Gather recommendations of Senior Scholar mentors from FL-AGEP leaders, advisory boards, and leadership team through emails, surveys, and verbal nominations
3. Maintain a pool of Senior Scholar mentors who can potentially participate in annual mentoring activities
4. Disseminate an invitation of interest and commitment for specific mentoring activities to Senior Scholar mentors
5. Work with institutional department chairs and graduate schools within the FL-AGEP and institutions external to the Alliance to promote Senior Scholar engagement in the FL-AGEP project

Strategy 2

Partner with State and Regional URM fellowship programs to engage Senior Scholar mentors

Tactics

1. Gather recommendations of Senior Scholar mentors from Florida Education Fund (FEF) programs & schedule an information/vendor booth at the annual and/or spring FEF meeting, and disseminate invitation of interest
2. Identify the National GEM Consortium regional institutions and disseminate invitation of interest and commitment to mentoring activities to Senior Scholar mentors
3. Host a recruitment table at the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) Annual Teaching & Mentoring Institute to engage potential Senior Scholar mentors and then disseminate invitation of interest and commitment to mentoring activities to Senior Scholar mentors

Strategy 3

Promote and highlight engagement of Senior Scholar mentors

Tactics

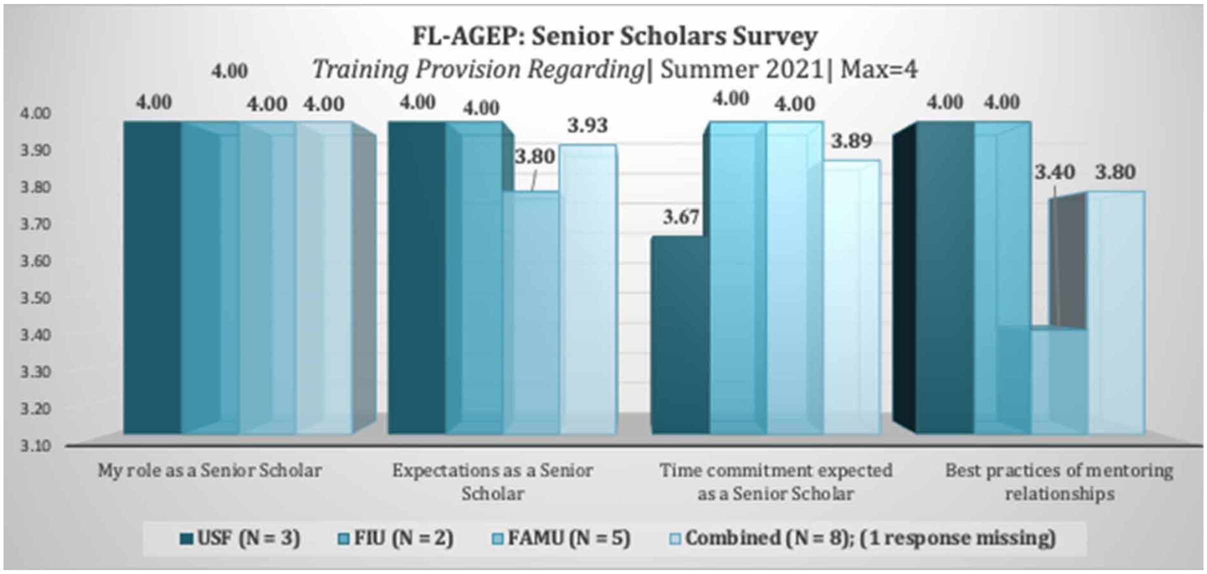
1. Feature accomplishments and engagement of mentees and Senior Scholar mentors on the FL-AGEP Alliance Facebook page, FL-AGEP main website, FL-AGEP newsletter, institutional communication outlets, and other social media avenues e.g., Instagram. Tik Tok, etc.

The authors observed these tactics to fulfill the goal of developing a CRM community of senior scholars for STEM disciplines. Given the proportionally lower population of women in STEM, recruiting WOC STEM senior scholar mentors can be very challenging. According to a 2021 National Science Board report on women, minorities, and persons with disabilities in science and engineering, women make up only 27% of the science and engineering workforce with WOC comprising only 5% of the science and engineering workforce (National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics, 2021). Despite this challenge, the FL-AGEP Alliance was able to establish an initial database of approximately 40 STEM senior scholar WOC during the first year of recruitment.

FL-AGEP Alliance Mentoring Collaborative Learning Components

The Center for the Improvement of Mentored Experiences in Research states that “Effective mentoring can be learned, but not taught...There is certainly no book that can tell us how to deal with every student or situation, but a systematic approach to analyzing and discussing mentoring may lead us to a method for tackling the knotty challenges inherent in the job” (Center for the Improvement of Mentored Experiences in Research, 2021). With this in mind, the authors delivered a collaborative virtual training for FL-AGEP senior scholar mentors to share learned experiences and dialogue regarding certain culturally relevant mentoring components, which will continue to evolve with literature, new research, and societal events (Thomas, Johnson Austin, Walker, Lane, & Watson, 2022; Thomas, 2014; Adams, 1998a, 1998b, 2002; Mentoring Action Plans - www.mentoringconnection.com; NCFDD). Approximately six collaborative learning sessions, spanning three hours in length, highlighted the FL-AGEP partnership with the Sisters of the Academy (SOTA) Research BootCamp structure of mentoring and an overview of the National Center for Faculty Development and Diversity (NCFDD) model.

Figure 3. FL-AGEP senior scholar training survey



To evaluate a key component of the CRM model, which is the WOC senior scholar training, in Summer 2021, senior scholar mentors completed a survey provided by the external evaluator firm, Quality Measures, LLC, regarding their experiences (Figure 3). Senior scholars indicated that they were very prepared (4/4) to serve as mentors as a result of attending the Senior Scholar training. Additionally, Senior Scholar mentors across all three Research Bootcamps indicated high averages regarding expectations (3.93/4), time commitment (3.89/4) and best practices for teaching (3.8/4).

The authors concluded that the collaborative learning sessions assisted mentors in solving mentoring dilemmas, contemplating mentoring topics for discussion, dealing with culturally biasing experiences as WOC in STEM, sharing resources and approaches to address bias/injustice/" only one" syndrome, and providing direct and indirect tactics for implementing a CRM FL-AGEP model.

Collaborative learning components the authors found to be beneficial to senior scholar mentors are in Table 1.

The authors acknowledge that when collaborative learning components were implemented FL-AGEP women of color began to successfully navigate their academic journey, which became evident through:

- Establishment of writing groups
- Interdisciplinary authorships or authoring interdisciplinary publications
- Attendance at professional development conferences
- Requests for support of professional development
- Senior scholar mentors supporting the goal of increasing women of color in the professoriate.

In summary, the senior scholars had an overall positive impact on the mentees, particularly regarding their research focus, which is critical to the mentees' contributions to an institution's research enterprise.

The reader may ask "*What cultural experiences did tenured WOC mentors bring to the CRM senior scholar role and was this experience synonymous with mentee experiences?"*

Table 1.

Learning Components	*Description*
Mentor Roles, Responsibilities, and Expectations	Role is to support successful outcomes of mentee and provide access to community of senior scholar mentors; Responsibility and expectation is to assistance with successfully navigating the academic journey and provide guidance that is geared towards advancing the mentees' professional growth and empowering mentees to embrace cultural relevance
Function of Effective Mentoring	Function of effective mentoring is to create a culture that develops, enables, and is equitable, and focuses on establishing an environmental climate where developing individuals, particularly women of color, is recognized and valued; Effective mentoring establishes goals, action steps, meeting times, forms of communication, confidentiality, feedback styles, and a continuous assessment of the plan and goals
Short-term Accountability Measures	Assessment tools are to aid in establishing a mentoring plan, including Senior Scholar Engagement Assessment, Participant Expectation Assessment, Participant Readiness Assessment, and Participant Skill Assessment. External evaluators also conduct surveys to gauge the involvement of Senior Scholar mentors
Mentoring Topics using a CRM lens	Through a CRM lens discuss topics of career planning, time/project management, academic planning, personal/professional needs inventory, graduate/professional needs inventory, graduate/professional education, skills audit – building the portfolio, building contracts/ networks, problem solving/conflict resolution, as well as important traditions, protocols, and policies of an institution – norms, standards, methods of operating, history, values, structures, faculty trends

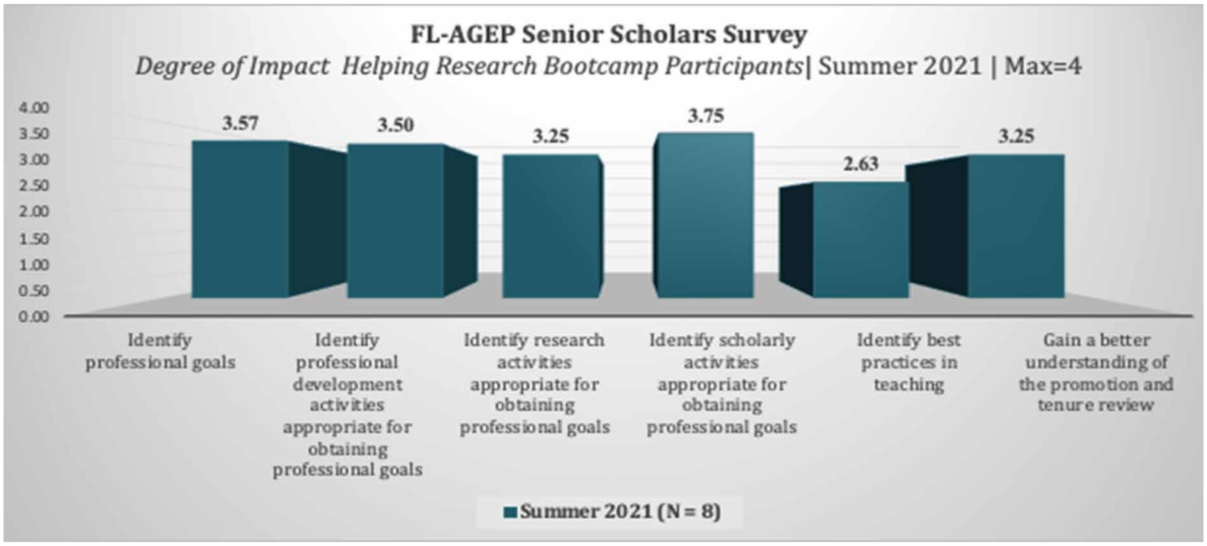
The WOC mentors shared and elaborated on their tenure and promotion (T&P) experiences in the academy, activities for professional development, advancing research activities, scholarly activities to advance goals, and best practices for teaching as a WOC. Some of these experiences included being the only one, having to say "I am not available at this time" for additional community engagement activities that don't promote my research, navigating the political climate of higher education for WOC, publishing with internal and external peers, maintaining a classroom presence, preparing an impactful CV, developing teaching and research, diversity and equity statements, finding academic collaborations, building your brand, negotiating salaries, and navigating scholarly platforms e.g. ResearchGate, Google Scholar, etc. Figure 4 gives a snapshot of how senior scholars viewed their impact on mentees during a research bootcamp. It should be noted that many of the bootcamp sessions were geared toward research and not necessarily teaching practices.

Outcomes of the effective CRM consisted of coaching, demonstrating, teaching, interacting, assessing, and counseling, and through these activities the mentees continue to gain an understanding of skills and competencies that are required to meet performance expectations in the academy, as well as the attributes and qualities that lead to success.

Structured and Sustainable Longitudinal Development and Mentoring

The authors recommend the following as longitudinal activities for mentoring and development which have been successfully employed by the FL-AGEP:

Figure 4. FL-AGEP senior scholars research bootcamp impact survey



National Center For Faculty Development & Diversity (NCFDD) Membership

National Center for Faculty Development & Diversity (NCFDD) institutional memberships provide scholars across an institution with tools and strategies that help each to thrive in academia; achieve writing and research goals; and establish a network of mentors and collaborators.

FL-AGEP utilized the NCFDD for sustainable CRM by implementing the following for online/virtual experiences:

1. Encouraged mentee and Senior Scholar Mentor connections through NCFDD
2. Provided a one-year membership to the National Center for Faculty Development & Diversity and engaged institutional leadership to get commitments for institutional membership
3. Conducted a NCFDD mentoring map session as part of FL-AGEP longitudinal faculty development

Additional longitudinal development initiatives, which further strengthen a CRM model, include

1. **Research Symposium:** An annual research symposium can provide a platform for participants to present their research, promote recruitment and retention, and catalyze research collaborations.
2. **Faculty Development:** Longitudinal faculty development opportunities such as guest lectures, invited research talks, teaching and mentoring workshops, and teaching demonstrations can be offered.
3. **Tracking:** Longitudinal tracking of career progression for mentees, e.g., WOC in STEM.
4. **Longitudinal mentoring strategies:** Networking and mentoring should continue at the institutional level for sustainability of a CRM model

DIFFERENTIATOR

Institutional leadership, faculty, staff, and students constitute a plethora of cultural groups the academy seeks to serve, and the cultivation of these groups to contribute to society is even more critical. Very important is the accountability of the institution to better serve these stakeholders in a manner that is culturally appropriate.

Enhancing the cultural relevance of stakeholder contributions at an institution is paramount to reputation, recruitment, funding, ranking, and societal impact. CRM can facilitate the opportunity for institutional leaders to align strategic initiatives with academic and career success of stakeholders of all cultures.

As an example, mentees from the FL-AGEP Alliance, having been engaged in the FL-AGEP CRM model, have been recognized by their institutions and have experienced outcomes that include promotions from assistant professor to associate professor, recognized as first authors on high impact journals, and became post-doctoral associates.

FL-AGEP senior scholars and mentees, who implemented CRM, have been promoted to leadership positions in alliance institutions, and the authors note this as a transformative action by alliance institutions to embrace diversity of thought, talent, intellect, and women.

The authors note that a CRM model at institutions of higher learning will promote a more inclusive climate to create more equitable and productive research environments where early career, post doc, and dissertator WOC will be successful. With this in mind, as the research productivity of this stakeholder group is enhanced, thus will the research enterprise, collegial interactions, female faculty retention, and climate of the institution be enhanced as well.

The authors continue to evaluate the CRM model to articulate the distinct impact across the different types of institutions they serve, HBCUs, HSIs, and PWIs. Further analysis and evaluations are being conducted to address sustainability of the CRM model.

CONCLUSION

From the evolution of mentoring, the authors embraced the methodology of network mentoring and developed a strategy for a concept for a culturally relevant mentoring model for institutions of higher education. The authors, being WOC themselves, embraced the CRM work and actively participated in providing real-life experiences to evaluate the impact of a CRM model through a case study for WOC in STEM. Each of the authors have been engaged in the process, methodology, and evaluation of the CRM model with a few personal reflections on the process.

Senior Scholar, Full Professor, Electrical Engineering: "Being a women of color in engineering has presented challenges and sometimes roadblocks, that I have navigated through mentoring. These challenges may have been in the form of doubts, false perceptions, and "nay-sayers" and I shared these experiences with my mentees. We discussed strategies to navigate the system and life as a WOC in STEM"

Senior Scholar, Senior Administrator and Full Professor, Environmental Engineering and Science: "As a woman of color in engineering, I often found myself in the position of having to 'convince' others of my competency and objectivity, from students to senior administrators, in a way that my white, male colleagues did not. Mentoring helped me to develop strategies to navigate these spaces and I work with *my mentees to help them develop the strategies that work for them. It is never the same, but there are patterns that are consistent*

Early Career STEM Professional, "As a woman of color, I have often experienced being offered opportunities that are not commensurate with my credentials and received strategies from mentors on how to promote my brand."

In summary, mentors that practice CRM give their mentees an edge when they provide their mentees with the four Ps – process, permission, protection, and planning. When it comes to process, mentors provide 'how to' strategies for mentees to use for problem solving. Mentors give their mentees permission to try out new ideas and the okay to function. The bond of a mentor and mentee provides a form of protection that creates a trusting environment that often shields them from outside attacks. Lastly, the mentor-mentee relationship provides a planning opportunity to document the support for a mentoring alliance plan. There are also benefits that the mentor receives when the four Ps are implemented. The benefits for the mentor include increased visibility, personal satisfaction, broadened awareness, and leaving a legacy - "each one, teach one," resulting in career promotions.

Furthermore, through a culturally relevant mentoring approach, the authors assess that institutions of higher learning can utilize this model to 1) increase research productivity and enterprise, 2) enhance national recognition, 3) improve institutional commitment and strategic impact, and 4) nurture credible academic leaders.

A concept for CRM has been explored and implemented in this work and has been found to foster the preservation, sharing, and passing on of academic and professional protocols, knowledge and skills. It was also observed that empowerment and self-determination, which transcends age, ethnicity, gender, generation, and race, were also attributes that mentors must provide to mentees. By adapting and implementing a culturally relevant mentoring approach, institutions will have a framework that is transformative and will have a critical impact on institutional programs, practices, goals, and strategic mission.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The Florida Alliance for Graduate Education and the Professoriate (FL-AGEP) was funded by the National Science Foundation (Awards: 2055302-Florida Agricultural & Mechanical University with subaward to the University of South Florida and Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, 1916044-Florida Memorial University, 1916068-Bethune-Cookman University, and 1916094-Florida International University). Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the view of the National Science Foundation.

The authors acknowledge Dr. Tamara Bertrand Jones, President of the Sisters of the Academy (SOTA) and Associate Professor of Higher Education in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at the Florida State University. In addition, we acknowledge Dr. Devonna Foster Pierre, Director of Equity, Diversity and Inclusion at St. Petersburg College, St. Petersburg, Florida as SOTA's liaison to the FL-AGEP Alliance.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Culturally Relevant Leaders (CRL): These are leaders who have intentionally brought to power their positionality in spaces and places that often are not available to those with less power. They broke institutional barriers to challenge the status quo in a way that offers individuals (mentees) a pathway to success.

Culturally Relevant Mentoring (CRM): An enabling alliance that empowers individuals, mentor and mentee, to utilize, embrace, and acknowledge cultural differences as strengths for growth and development.

Institutional Climate and Culture: Is an important relationship that embodies institutions of higher education and establishes the tone and tenor for future progress, particularly related to diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging.

Mentoring: The practice that takes place among a mentor and mentee or a mentor and a group of mentees, whereby the mentor shares their knowledge, skills, and experiences to grow and to further develop the mentee(s).

Women of Color: Women who are African American or Black, American Indian or Alaskan Native, Hispanic or Latino, and Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islanders.

Chapter 16
The Digital Transformation of Education Amidst COVID-19:
Some Critical Reflections in the US Context

Robert Currey
Christian Brothers University, USA

Babu George
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2791-828X
Alcorn State University, USA

ABSTRACT

COVID-19 is a major inflection point in the civilizational development of the contemporary society as it passes through various phases of industrial revolutions. Pre-COVID-19, the technological realm was ready to trigger a major disruption, but the societal realm was putting pauses upon it. The wrath and fury that ensued as COVID-19 became a global pandemic in the span of a few months meant that there was no choice but to embrace the digital in all its ramifications. Certain industries underwent this transformation organically, albeit quickly. This chapter attempts to portray the digital transformation of education just before and during COVID-19 and then goes on to discuss how the cultural shift into the digital-dominant, post-COVID-19 world could lead to disruption in the educational industry, potentially displacing "old school" models with new technologies and practices.

INTRODUCTION

Education has been very reluctant to embrace digital technologies, primarily due to the firmly held belief that high touch face to face interactions in physical spaces is critical to learning; factors such the unwillingness of the teachers to master the educational technologies, glaring digital divide, unavailability of custom-made educational technologies, etc., contributed to this (Djan & George, 2016; George & Nair, 2016; Khatun, George, & Dar, 2021). However, the early adopters of digital education quickly proved that, rightly executed, it was no way an inferior alternative. Also, the sudden influx of exogenous

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-6684-4803-8.ch016

innovators into the educational space made traditional providers realize that they may face soon face an existential crisis, if not changed fundamentally and quickly. This led them to the hunt for radically new bases of competitive advantage in education; as we write this paper, the educational landscape has become a crucible for some of these most pathbreaking developments in any social sphere. Even public school systems have embraced this wave in big ways with a spending of more than $3 billion a year on digital content alone, nationally (Herold, 2016).

The Covid-19 Pandemic in the Spring of 2020 forced educational institutions to rapidly adapt their traditional in-person instruction to online (remote / non-physical) learning (Schleicher, 2020). It has been one of those only 'one-of-its-kind' challenges (Daniel, 2020). Without having any readymade alternative, governments around the world were quick to close down schools and colleges (Zhu & Liu, 2020). The use of internet technology and applications such as video conferencing and learning management systems (LMS) were critical to make the transition to exclusively online learning relatively seamless, however the degree of effective implementation and successful adaptation varied across institutions, as a 100% digital educational environment was uncharted waters for most (Batubara, 2021). An involuntary mass cultural shift was initiated, resulting in new priorities and preferences for educational stakeholders, consequently germinating new possibilities and offerings that may have never gained traction without the fertile ground of opportunity cultivated by a global pandemic, serving as the catalyst for "educational recalibration" to current and future needs (Aristovnik et al., 2020; Lall & Singh, 2020). It is equally likely that Covid-19 merely exposed a future that has already been with us for some time, a future that escaped the radars of all but those who were closely working on it.

This paper offers glimpses into the lived experiences of educators and educational administrators regarding the digital transformation of education just before and during Covid-19, and then discusses how the cultural shift into the digital-dominant, post-Covid-19 world could lead to disruption in the educational industry, potentially displacing "old school" models with new technologies and practices.

TECHNOLOGY IN EDUCATION

The Pre-Covid-19 educational world in general had already adopted technology to make teaching/learning more effective for students and educational administrators (Chen et al., 2018; George & Paul, 2020). Student hardware such as laptops and tablets, as well as tools such as Learning Management Systems (LMS) were essentially required in the educational industry, and many educators were starting to experiment with a myriad of 3rd party web apps to improve the classroom experience, for example, gamified quiz and polling applications to increase engagement and make learning more fun (Ilomäki & Lakkala, 2018). Conversations around educational reform had already been happening for years, especially around how technology could be used to improve education (Gulicheva et al., 2018). In fact, there was an entire industry dedicated to the development of this educational technology called "Ed-Tech" (Ritter, 2021). Most classrooms pre-Covid-19 were not 100% digital though - learning was still conducted largely as it always had been: physically in-person. It seemed most digital tools developed were useful in augmenting the traditional classroom learning environment, however there had also been applications and technologies developed with the goal of creating entirely new possibilities in pedagogy utilizing artificial intelligence (Dickson, 2017). Just like in most every other industry pre-Covid-19, technological development and implementation was constantly expanding the limits of educational capabilities, enabling an entirely new world of seemingly endless possibilities (Hall, 2020).

THE COVID-19 JOLT

When Covid-19 arrived to play its role on the world's stage, the traditional "offline" education system had to adapt quickly (Kumar, 2020). The immediate "simple" solution was to create online virtual classrooms utilizing video conferencing software such as Zoom, and then handle document management, assignments, and gradebooks through an LMS. This solution certainly allowed schools to continue operations as closely to "business as usual," but there were initial challenges and shortcomings to remote learning that did not take long to become clear (Ali, 2020). There were many quirks teachers had to consider in a remote classroom: Should cameras be on or off? How will disruptive students be disciplined? Should lectures be recorded or not? How to ensure students are paying attention? How to increase engagement? How to ensure students aren't cheating on assessments? The main problem we perceived as teachers was the lack of relationships between the students and the teacher, as nobody was accustomed to managing the teacher-student relationship online like that before: it was a new kind of social skill that had to be developed. Students themselves seemed to not have any problems managing their pre-existing relationships with classmates, as a large part of their relationships were already virtual through private text messaging groups and social media. What was missed out on online however was the organic personal interactions between classmates before and after the bell rang, the ease of meeting new people, and the class social dynamics that could only happen in a physical classroom. In short, the main thing missing was the "human" relationships in education – the virtual world of web conferencing was a poor substitute for the "real thing" in many ways (Gonzalez et al., 2020).

There were some personal benefits to online education such as being in the comfort of home, no commute, and most importantly: more time. With more time, people could work on relationships with family, better stay on top of tasks, work on passion projects, improve the house, etc. However, it wasn't all rosy: there were some extreme challenges for many (especially those with young families). Because many daycares and schools were closed, parents that could work remotely had to not only manage their job, but also their children (a full-time job itself), and parents that could not work remotely were in a very difficult situation, many having to request a paid leave from their employer utilizing the FFCRA (Department of Labor, n.d.). For single people, staying at home was isolating, which left many in a state of depression up to triple the normal rates (McKoy, 2021).

The shattered dreams broke many, but many also found this as an opportunity to reflect and reinvent their lives (Trzebiński, Cabański, & Czarnecka, 2020). Finding meaning in life beyond the material situation was important for people to continue to live (Schnell & Krampe, 2020). We believe all these challenges allowed society the opportunity to reflect on the "big questions" such as why we are here, what is our purpose, what is meaningful, what is best for us and families, what is work/life balance, is this the best way of doing things, etc. Education is a big part of many people's lives, so perhaps people even questioned the purpose of education itself and how effective it is at preparing people for life in general. The shortcomings of an already increasingly outdated educational system became especially apparent with the shift to remote learning as many educational institutions were not prepared for long term success in that environment. There was no "normal" anymore, only an undefined "new normal," which was frightening in that there was "fear of the unknown" but exciting in that there could be developments for society that could eventually be much better than pre-Covid-19 times.

Covid-19 as Catalyst for a New Era in Education

There is much that can be said about the economic situation the Covid-19 Pandemic caused, but we will limit the discussion to educational institutions. In the case of the United States, the governments at various levels stepped in and provided emergency funding for educational institutions, and at the time this paper was written, "Emergency funds available to institutions and their students under all emergency funds total $76.2 billion" (US Dept. of Education, 2021) This money was mainly used for two reasons according to the IRS:

(1) to defray the institutions' expenses, including lost revenues and payroll for employees and (2) for "emergency financial aid grants to students for expenses related to the disruption of campus operations due to the COVID-19 pandemic (including eligible expenses under a student's cost of attendance, such as food, housing, course materials, technology, health care, and childcare)" (IRS, 2021).

Some pros of this funding were that educational institutions were able to weather the storm financially and obtain the necessary resources needed for themselves and students to operate remotely (Groenewegen, Hardeman, & Stam, 2021). However, the questions we wonder about are: Was this money used to artificially prop up institutions in the short term that were going to die a natural death in the free market in the long term? What was the opportunity cost of this funding – would there been a larger net benefit to society if this money was invested in something else other than the grants? At this point, it may be impossible to quantify the opportunity cost. At the end of the day, the money enabled a substantial shift in educational culture - molds were broken, and society entered a new digital education frontier abundant with possibilities.

The educational system as we have known it up to this point in time has had limited innovation, especially when compared to the general rate of innovation of other things in society. Additionally, the cost of education has been immensely inflated especially over the last few decades and the cost vs benefit is becoming increasingly questionable. For many years, students have depended upon institutions to disseminate knowledge they couldn't get anywhere else and "certify" them with a diploma upon successful completion of courses. Most people are motivated to succeed in their education by the career opportunities they may have after jumping through the required educational hoops, and traditionally the better the "brand" of the school attended, generally the better the quality and selection career of opportunities. Companies want good employees, and people want good jobs; traditionally the top companies have relied upon educational institutions to provide them with a continuous pipeline of high-quality candidates. Society preaches equality, but not everyone has the means, accomplishments, or opportunities necessary to be able to score the grades and standardized test scores to attend top ranked institutions. Standardized tests such as the ACT or SAT have been a major component of what many universities have relied upon to provide some sort of indicator that a student would be ready for college material, but how well a student does on the ACT is generally determined by the quality of the education received in high school. Access to quality education is limited, and unfortunately, it's often the ones who need it most who are unable to attain it.

It's our belief that the post-Covid-19 world will eventually be able to provide better educational and professional outcomes for students, and a significant part of that education will be accessed online. While there are drawbacks to online education (mainly the "human" social element as discussed earlier), there are many also benefits such as cost effectiveness, low overhead, scalability, global access, individualization, and ease of modification for improvements. Imagine an educational platform that can publish high quality "courses" and then analyze the user data to then make rapid modifications necessary for improving both the user experience and value provided. A great example of an organization doing exactly this already is Khan Academy, whose mission "is to provide a free, world-class education for anyone, anywhere." Platforms like Khan Academy are set up for students to learn independently, which has been shown to be effective as people learn at different paces. In a classroom setting, if a student gets behind, they may not learn the required material to understand the next topic, which then decreases their chances of being successful in the class, possibly even causing them to convince themselves that they are "not smart," which of course is likely not true - it's just a lack of true understanding that can be remedied with more instruction and practice. If the student was learning individually on a digital platform, the software could be constructed so that the student could not advance without proof of successful application of required knowledge, and it could be "adaptive," identifying and focusing especially on "problem areas," strengthening weaknesses and preventing "gaps" in understanding, which would better ensure learning outcomes (Lempinen, 2020).

THE RESURGENCE OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

It seems that laser targeted specialized education, certification programs, micro-credentials, and nano-degrees, all aimed at equipping job seekers with specific skillsets may be the next big thing (Cheng, Watson, & Newby, 2018). Decentralizing technologies like the blockchain might accelerate its acceptance (Chukowry, Nanuck, & Sungkur, 2021). This model cuts out the general educational institution middle-man, benefiting both the educational consumer and the employer by saving them both large amounts of time and money (Brabazon, 2016). An example of this is Google's career training and certification program. Anybody of any background can choose a career path and complete the online training courses for free to gain a certification from Google in a specific skillset, which provides assurance to employers there is a certain level of competency achieved (Google, n.d.). Similarly, there's other companies like the online educational company Coursera that partner with corporations (for example, Facebook, Intuit, IBM) to create online training courses geared for specific job roles (Coursera, n.d.).

If the goal of a company is to generate profit, and the goal of the individual is to generate income for themself through the provision of their labor, then the company would be most benefited by someone who had specific training for specific company requirements. These certification programs create a pipeline of qualified candidates for niche company needs, which has a benefit to the company in three ways: (1) lower training costs (2) quicker ROI (3) increase in supply of labor reduces the cost of labor. For the job seeker it makes them more competitive for specific jobs compared to other people who do not hold the specific niche professional certifications. This professional certification education model is still relatively new, so it may take a while for the free market to decide which certification "providers" are more reputable compared to others.

The Special Case of Blockchain Technology in Education

One of the most transformational and exciting technologies in the world right now is blockchain, and we have yet to see it fully applied in the educational industry (Chen, Xu, Lu, & Chen, 2018). According to an academic paper on future innovative educational applications using blockchain technology by Guang Chen (2018), overall, blockchain may be utilized to create a balance between the learning process and the outputs. Because of its decentralization and immutability, blockchain may theoretically solve the problems of information asymmetry and trust among strangers. Because the knowledge and value are disclosed and maintained jointly, it assures authenticity. It provides a reliable platform for talent investment. Employers can use this information to connect you with a job that is a good fit for your talents. The radical transparency offered by these technologies make it extremely difficult for manipulations and malpractices in education and professional achievements. The learning outcomes associated with a specific program of study may also be set in a decentralized manner, making the concept of an academic credential as an expiry-less achievement go away. All these said, although blockchain technology has an incredible disruptive potential across many industries, we are yet to see sustainable ecosystems around blockchains working large enough scales (Haugsbakken, H., & Langseth, 2019).

If education becomes less centralized and more decentralized, then that will change the entire "old school" educational landscape. New players could enter the educational industry to provide online education using smart contracts, rewarding cryptocurrency tokens on a blockchain instead of paper degrees (Ma & Fang, 2020). The market would have to decide over time what tokens were truly valuable, but thanks to the transparent/public nature of blockchain, it would likely not take long as blockchain ledgers can easily be analyzed and evaluated. This could potentially displace institutions that did not have their education records on a blockchain, or those that could not adapt to a more decentralized educational marketplace.

CONCLUSION

A quarter century years ago, the internet, personal computers, and smartphones were not in public use. The educational environment was completely analog. Over the past 25 years, there has been an incremental adoption and application of technology by educational institutions, becoming more digitally reliant as technology progressed. Covid-19 was the event that took education completely digital on a global scale. Although that was only the case temporarily, it shifted the culture around education and opened the door to massive opportunities for both educational providers and consumers, especially in the digital education space. Blockchain will certainly be applied to the educational industry, but the technology is still relatively new, and we have yet to see exactly how it will impact the current global educational landscape.

To stay relevant in this post-Covid world, currently established educational institutions must carefully evaluate what their consumers current demands are as well as doing their best to forecast potential future demands. Offering students options such as fully online classes and hybrid learning could increase revenues. Other options for generating additional revenue for institutions could be making investments into niche professional training/certification courses online, potentially partnering with local/regional companies in the creation of courses that equip students with specific skills for local jobs. The future is exciting for the education industry in general, however current players must not be comfortable doing the "same old thing" and must put major emphasis on keeping current with technological developments, consumer demands, as well as continuous evaluation of institutional strategy to increase the likelihood of staying relevant in the next generation of education.

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About the Contributors

Abeni El-Amin, Ph.D., Ed.D., D.PC., MPsy - I/O, LSSMBB, is a globally recognized thought leader on diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging. She helps organizations develop a culture of belongingness through innovative and thought-provoking trainings. Based on two decade's worth of research, Dr. El-Amin believes that to achieve organizational safe spaces we need to fix organizational cultures. Dr. El-Amin is an author, international university lecturer, trainer, and speaker. Dr. El-Amin is the editor of Implementing Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging Management in Organizational Change Initiatives and Implementing Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Belonging in Educational Management Practices - IGI Global. Dr. El-Amin is co-founder of Titan and Mogul, Inc., a global consultancy that provides lean six sigma and HR consultancy focusing on DEIB to improve organizational culture.

* * *

Rick Ainsworth is the former Executive Director of the Center for Excellence in Engineering and Diversity (CEED) at UCLA Samueli School of Engineering since 1989. As the Founder of CEED--a comprehensive K-20 organization, Mr. Ainsworth for CEED focused on recruitment, retention, development, and graduation of underrepresented engineering and computing students. He wrote and served as Co-Principal Investigator for various National Science Foundation, and Principal Investigator for Corporate, California State and K-14 projects. CEED has been cited in Science Magazine as a BEST exemplary recruitment and retention program. Other notable accomplishments include over $400,000 a year in scholarships. Ainsworth led the development of the Introduction of Engineering Disciplines course for first-year underrepresented engineering students, and Co-PI overseeing the Mathematics Engineering Science Achievement (MESA) project supporting over 921 K-12 urban school students and their teachers. He obtained a Bachelor of Science from the University of Southern California in Urban Planning/Administration and an M.S. in Urban Planning with minor in Law from USC School of Law.

Anna Amsler is an independent consultant and researcher affiliated to the Observatory of Competitiveness and New Ways of Working. She holds a Bachelor's Degree in International Relations and a Master's in Political Communication and Marketing, having worked in private and public institutions in areas related to public policy, strategic planning, and project evaluation.

Virginia Booth Womack's commitment to diversity and inclusion in academia has spanned her adult life. She served as principal of a private inner-city Christian school for several years and served in industry as an engineer and production manager, specializing in lean manufacturing. Since 2004, Virginia has used her engineering background to address retention and academic performance gaps between underrepresented minority engineering students and the majority population. First-year retention rates for underrepresented minority students have grown from 63% to 95%- and first-year academic performance increased by 40% during her tenure. She hopes to reinforce her work as a practitioner with scholarly research that may contribute to broadening the participation of underrepresented minority students in STEM fields. She earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Industrial Engineering and a Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology from Purdue University. Virginia is currently pursuing a Ph.D. in Engineering Education at Purdue University with a focus on African American student access and success in engineering.

Amanda Connelly is a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership program at Monmouth University. She has her BA and MA in English Literature from Monmouth University, as well. Amanda has been an adjunct instructor since 2014, teaching FIrst-Year Composition and Literature courses at both four-year and two-year institutions across New Jersey.

Robert Currey is a graduate student in the School of Business of Christian Brothers University. Technological innovation in education management is one of his areas of scholarly interests.

Darryl A. Dickerson is an Assistant Professor of Mechanical and Materials Engineering at Florida International University, a former Board Chair and Chief Executive Officer of the National Society of Black Engineers, and a former President of the National Association of Multicultural Engineering Program Advocates (NAMEPA). His research focuses on transforming multiscale mechanobiological insights into biomanufacturing processes enabling the creation of personalized, fully functional engineered tissues. His research group, the Inclusive Complex Tissue Regeneration Lab (InCTRL), does this through multiscale characterization of complex tissues, fundamental studies on biophysical control of induced pluripotent stem cells, and explicitly building inclusion into research design and execution. This connects to his broader vision to make engineering spaces more diverse, more equitable, and more inclusive, where he has nearly 20 years of experience in developing and implementing strategic initiatives to broaden participation of historically excluded groups and create inclusive environments in engineering.

Christine Domé is a Senior Success Coach for the office of Student Access & Success at Florida International University (FIU) and serves as the Project Coordinator for the NSF FL-AGEP at FIU. She has over ten years of experience working with programs that serve underrepresented, low income, first generation students. Ms. Domé serves as a committee member of the National First-Generation Day celebration, where across the country, colleges and universities celebrate First-Generation students. She also has experience working with federal grants and TRiO programs, where she has served as a committee member for the Ronald E. McNair Postbaccalaureate Achievement Program Research Conference and their annual STEM symposium. Ms. Domé is a member of the National Society of Leadership and Success. She is a first-generation graduate with a Bachelor's degree from FIU in Organizational Communication and is currently pursuing her Masters of Science at FIU in Global Strategic Communications with a certificate in Conflict Resolution and Consensus Building with an anticipated graduation in Summer 2022.

Bilal El-Amin works with students and communities from different ethnic and economic backgrounds. His passion is to work with students who are at-risk and suffer with academic or behavioral issues. Through Mentorship and Programming, he teaches students positive mindset building skills, financial literacy, and life/social skills to become the best version of themselves! Mr. El-Amin also has a background in Project Management, Leadership, Human-Resources, and as a Community Engagement Specialist.

Amy Freeman holds a Ph.D. in Workforce Education and Development and Master of Science degree in Architectural Engineering, both from The Pennsylvania State University. Her doctoral dissertation focused on factors that increase graduation rates for underrepresented students in engineering. Dr. Freeman's research area is the examination of processes, pedagogy and human factors that are involved in the early development and production of a STEM professional. She has managed, created and implemented successful STEM intervention programs for over 20 years. She a recipient of the Presidential Award for Excellence in Science, Mathematics and Engineering Mentoring, sponsored through The White House. She is currently the Director of the Penn State Millennium Scholars Program and Associate Research Professor of Engineering.

Babu George is Professor and Dean (Interim) in the School of Business of Alcorn State University, MS, USA. He holds a PhD in Management, a DBA in International Business, and an EdS in Higher Education Innovation and Leadership. He is a graduate of Harvard University's Institute for Educational Management. Previously, he served on a diverse range of academic-administrative roles at various universities, including Fort Hays State University, University of Nevada Las Vegas, Alaska Pacific University, University of Southern Mississippi, among others. Besides, he holds visiting professor designations at more than fifteen universities around the world. He has published more than 200 research papers in international scholarly journals. His latest books include Progress in Green Economics (2022-Bentham), Digital Transformation in Business and Society (2020 – Springer Nature), International Case Studies in the Management of Disasters (2020 – Emerald), Strategies for Promoting Sustainable Hospitality and Tourism Services (2020 – IGI Global), and The Changing Landscape of Global Businesses (2019-Cambridge Scholar). As a teacher and researcher, he is inspired by the interdisciplinarity of knowledge interconnecting disciplines and professions. He was born and raised in a remote little village in Kerala, in the southernmost region of India; he migrated to the US under the USCIS Outstanding Researcher program. He is an avid traveler and something that he celebrates deeply is the beauty of diversity in cultures; he has traveled, either for leisure, work, or volunteering, to more than 70 countries.

Althea Green joined the Uniformed Services University (USU) November 2012 after serving thirty-five years as an active duty enlisted soldier. As inaugural director of the Enlisted to Medical Degree Preparatory Program (EMDP2), she designed and implemented a pipeline that provides enlisted service members the prerequisite coursework and other requirements to be accepted to medical school. Started in 2014, EMDP2 is the first post-baccalaureate premedical program in the Department of Defense and over 90% of its graduates have earned acceptance to medical school. Her military background includes duties in a variety of medical organizations, with leadership responsibilities at every level from tactical to strategic. Achievements during her military career have been wide-ranging and impactful: from leading the implementation of new organizational structure to support wounded soldiers and families, to successfully overseeing one of the largest retraining efforts of military medics in the Army's history (impacting over 50,000 soldiers), to restructuring Army Medicine's senior enlisted ranks to diversify assignments and provide more equity in promotions to the highest enlisted ranks. She culminated her Army career as the 16th Command Sergeant Major of the Army Medical Command and Senior Enlisted Advisor to the Army Surgeon General/Commander Army Medical Command. The recipient of numerous military awards including the Distinguished Service Medal and the Legion of Merit, she was inducted into the Order of Military Medical Merit and was also honored as a Distinguished Member of the Army Medical Department Regiment. A first generation college graduate, she has earned a PhD in Educational Leadership and is a member of the Alpha Sigma Lambda National Honor Society. Dr. Green was born in Trinidad and graduated from high school there, as well as St. Croix US Virgin Islands.

Marquis B. Holley is a Justice, Equity, Diversity, and Inclusion (JEDI) professional that has taught from Kindergarten to Senior-level in higher education. He uses social justice advocacy to work with students, faculty, and staff professionals. His classes/presentations focus on Critical Thinking and Diversity-based research through educational practices on a local, national, and global level. Dr. Holley's research highlights the misuse and abuse of Black and Brown faculty and staff professionals in higher education, and how these correlate to student progress/disdain.

Natasha Johnson is a Clinical Instructor and director of the M.I.S. program in Criminal Justice Administration at Georgia State University. A career educator since 2001, her research is focused on critical theory, equity, and social justice leadership, particularly within the K-20 sector. Her other research areas include intersectionality, educational law, policy, and governance, and curriculum development. Dr. Johnson holds multi-state reciprocity and has previously worked as a teacher, guidance counselor, assistant dean, instructional leader, and curriculum developer in New York, Mississippi, and Jamaica, W.I. She is a 2019 UCEA David L. Clark scholar, a 2020 GSU CETLOE Faculty Teaching Fellow, and her work is published in the popular press, Taylor & Francis, the Routledge Focus series, Sage, Criminal Justice Review, and Psychology of Violence among others.

Ramon Johnson is the Athletic Director for the Kentucky State University (KSU) Athletic Department. As a KSU Alum, Johnson was a dual sport athlete at Kentucky State in football and track and field, and was a four year letterman in both sports. Johnson was a member of the 4x100 meter relay team that competed in the NCAA Division II National Championship in 1992. He served as the Associate Athletic Director with Dayton Public Schools, where he played an influential role in creating processes to better serve the students, coaches and the community. He also assisted in retaining eligibility in the Ohio High School Athletic Conference (OSHAA). As a project manager, Johnson spearheaded a $14 million renovation of Perc Welcome Stadium and other high school facilities throughout the district. Johnson also served as an Assistant Athletic Director of athletic compliance at East St. Louis Sr. High School. Along with being the Assistant Athletic Director Johnson served as the head coach for track and field where he secured multiple state championships, along with multiple state championships as the assistant football coach. Johnson earned his Bachelor's degree in Physical Education with a Minor in Recreation and a Master's Degree in Education from McKendree University in Lebanon, Illinois.

Saundra Johnson Austin has dedicated her career of over 20 years to promoting diversity, equity, and inclusion of K-12 students and professionals in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) education and careers. Her research is grounded in the effective implementation of STEM curricula in urban middle schools. She is the project coordinator for the National Science Foundation Florida

Alliance for Graduate Education and the Professoriate (FL-AGEP) at the University of South Florida (USF) and for the USF Project Racism in School Exclusionary Suspensions (RISES). She earned a BS in Civil Engineering from The Pennsylvania State University, an MBA from the University of Notre Dame, and Doctor of Education in Organizational Change and Leadership from the University of Southern California. Dr. Johnson Austin has held leadership positions in the secondary and post-secondary education, industry, and non-profit sectors.

Lisa Knight is a Learning and Development Facilitator with the Program Wide Positive Behavior Support Project within Florida Center for Inclusive Communities at the University of South Florida. Lisa is also a second-year Doctoral Student in the Ed.D Education Innovation Program at the University of South Florida. Lisa has over 15 years of experience in the Early Childhood Education field, which includes speech therapy, teaching, serving Part C families through Early Intervention, and overseeing disability and mental health services in Head Start. She has served as the USF Black Faculty and Staff Association Vice President of Staff and Administration and currently serves as the Board of Directors for New Vision Behavioral Health, Inc. Her research interests include examining the usage of preschool suspensions and expulsions in the public education system.

Lidia Kos is currently Professor of Biology, Associate Dean of the University Graduate School and Associate Vice President of the Office of Research and Economic Development at Florida International University (FIU). She received a BS in Biology from Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, Brazil and a PhD in Neurobiology from UC Berkeley. She was a Fogarty Fellow at NIH where she did post-doctoral studies. Her research focuses on development and pathogenesis of pigment cells. She uses mouse molecular genetics to understand the molecular basis of neural crest differentiation and melanoma. She has extensive experience teaching undergraduate and graduate students in cell, developmental and molecular biology. She has mentored numerous undergraduate and graduate students as well as postdoctoral fellows in her laboratory. In the Graduate School she oversees over 9.000 students in masters, specialists and doctoral programs. She is responsible for all academic and administrative matters related to graduate education at FIU. She has served as the Executive Editor for the journal Pigment Cell and Melanoma Research and is currently in its editorial board. She has served as a member of grant review panels for NSF, NIH, and AHA and is currently on the NIGMS TWD review panel. She has been funded by NIGMS, NIAMS and AHA and is currently the PI or CO-I on an NSF Bridge to the Doctorate, FL-AGEP and an NIGMS T32 training grants at FIU.

Tonisha B. Lane, PhD, is an assistant professor of Higher Education in the School of Education at Virginia Tech. She received her Ph.D. in Higher, Adult and Lifelong Education from Michigan State University. Dr. Lane studies the experiences and outcomes of underrepresented groups in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM). Her research also focuses on the representation, retention, and well-being of Black students and professionals in higher education. Using a variety of methodological designs, and with the support from Spencer Foundation and the National Science Foundation, she has explored underserved, undergraduate researchers in remote research environments amid COVID-19; pre-college, undergraduate, and graduate learners in STEM enrichment programs; and the recruitment and retention of early career women of color faculty in STEM. Dr. Lane's published work can be found in CBE-Life Sciences Education, Equity and Excellence in Education, and Urban Education.

Gwen Lee-Thomas is the CEO of Quality Measures, LLC, a Virginia-based consulting firm specializing in program and project evaluation and capacity building. With over 23 years of experience in project evaluation and organizational development for over $120M in federal and state funded projects, Gwen consistently works collaboratively with her clients to maximize evaluation outcomes. As an external evaluator, Gwen has conducted over 120 evaluations in various areas with an emphasis in STEM-H related curriculum and research experiences at various 2-year and 4-year colleges and universities across the U.S. as well as state and federal agencies. Gwen utilizes her experiences as an executive assistant to two college presidents, graduate faculty member at two research universities, and accreditation support services to several institutions to ensure that her work with clients meets the needs of the evaluation and align with relevant entities and stakeholders.

Giovani López López teaches Spanish and German at Fort Hays State University. His research Interests include Spanish forms of address and the inclusion of linguistic diversity in language teaching.

Helena Mariella-Walrond is a Professor of Education at Bethune-Cookman University. An accomplished educator, her research interests include educational justice, culturally responsive teaching, curriculum theory and design, assessment and multicultural education. She has significant experience with curriculum and academic program development, academic policies, assessment and regional and discipline specific accreditation. She has a BA and MA in Anthropology and a PhD in Social, Historical and Philosophical Foundations of Education.

Quinton L. Mark's career path has led to leadership roles in executive coaching, lean manufacturing, and Quality within the automotive and aerospace industries. Some career achievements include streamlining operations, instituting quality improvements, and ensuring QS, TS, ISO9001, and AS9100 Quality Management certification requirements. Marks has written and co-authored several peer reviewed articles. Marks has a Lean Six Sigma Black Belt from Purdue University, Bachelors degree in Organizational Leadership from Thomas Edison State University, Masters in Strategic Management from the University of the Cumberlands, and pursuing a Ph.D. in Business Administration with a concentration in Project Management from the University of the Cumberlands.

Sandra P. Martinez Franco teaches Spanish at Fort Hays State University.

Cynthia Montaudon-Tomas is a full-time professor and a business consultant at the Business School at UPAEP. Since September 2018, she became head of the Observatory on Competitiveness and New Ways of Working, which deals with numerous issues related to social problems and creates awareness about current and future social needs. She has obtained a Post Doctorate Certificate In Organizational Leadership from Regent University in Virginia, USA; a Ph.D. in Strategic Planning and Technology Management from UPAEP, in Puebla, Mexico; a Ph.D. in Business from the University of Lincoln in Lincolnshire, UK, and three masters degrees: one in Quality Engineering from the Universidad Iberoamericana in Puebla, Mexico, another in Communication and media from the Jean Moulin, Lyon II University in Lyon, France, and the last one in Business Administration from the Tec de Monterrey in Mexico.

LaSonya L. Moore is a passionate social justice and equity change agent. She is driven by what she has coined “teacher/educator persistence,” the characteristics and attributes that enable urban educators to remain in economically disadvantaged, low-performing schools. Her research focuses on boundaries between sets of interdependent relationships, educational, social, economic, political, and cultural trends. Dr. Moore is an Exceptional Education faculty member in the College of Education at the University of South Florida. She has experience as a Principal Designee, Assistant Principal, and Behavior Specialist, in preschool thru secondary education. She has earned degrees in special education, educational leadership, and urban special education leadership. She has worked with university professors (nationally and internationally) school districts and principals of K-12 schools to maximize the teaching and learning experiences for all students, parents/families, and community members, and organizational support to increase urban educators' persistence. In 2017, Dr. Moore was selected as the Florida CASE Outstanding ESE Administrator of the Year. She is the current President of the Florida Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders.

Tracy Mulvaney is Experienced Assistant Dean for the School of Education with a demonstrated history of working in the higher education industry. Skilled in Lesson Planning, Educational Technology, Instructional Design, Public Speaking, Accreditation, Program Review, Supervision, and Curriculum Development. Strong education professional with a Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) focused on Educational Leadership from Northern Arizona University.

Susan Pagano is the Program Manager for Business, Career, & Technology Training at Brookdale Community College and a doctoral student in Educational Leadership at Monmouth University.

Alyssia Parris-Coates is the Director of Development for Diversity and Inclusion, a major gift fundraiser, and a member of the Senior Leadership Team for Brown University Advancement Division. She serves as the academic liaison for the Center for the Study of Race and Ethnicity in America, the Center for the Study of Slavery and Justice, and the Office of Institutional Equity and Diversity. In this capacity, Dr. Coates works collaboratively with leadership across the academy to increase awareness of the Diversity and Inclusion fundraising priorities among all Brown alumni. She is building a donor pipeline to cultivate strong relationships and increase engagement and philanthropy among alumni of color. Dr. Coates presents at national conferences and works with higher education institutions about strategies to increase engagement and philanthropy among donors of color. Dr. Coates formerly served for 25 years at the University of Notre Dame in the following leadership roles. Regional Director of Development; major gifts fundraiser for the Boldly Campaign. Enrollment Division Senior Leader and an Assistant Professional for the College of First Year of Studies. She was the Director of Admissions Office for Outreach and Engagement Recruitment, Office of Pre-College Programs, and Trio Upward Bound and Educational Talent Search Programs. Dr. Coates began her career at Notre Dame as a Recruiter for GEM, the National Consortium for Minorities in Engineering and Science. Dr. Coates started a national early outreach recruitment model and established a Notre Dame presence across the United States to identify and recruit 7th-10th-grade students to cultivate a pipeline of highly talented students for selective colleges and universities. Dr. Coates is an advocate for education and presented annually at national and regional conferences, community churches, and organizations. Dr. Coates was awarded her Ph.D. in Organizational Leadership from Andrew's University. She is a graduate of Binghamton University with a bachelor's in Rhetoric and Literature, a Master's in Education and Counseling, and her specialist in Educational Leadership and Student Personnel from Eastern Michigan University. She is a native New Yorker and spent her formative years in Trinidad and Tobago, West Indies.

Ingrid Pinto López is a university professor, researcher, and consultor at Business School of UPAEP University, recognized by the National System of Researchers (SNI Conacyt). Ph.D. in Strategic Planning and Technology Management. Currently coordinator of the competitiveness observatory and new forms of work, coordinator of the international arbitration of the Latin American Association of Accounting and Administration Schools ALAFEC, member of Barcelona Economics Network and the Illustrious Latin American Academy of doctors.

Beatrice Rogers is an Educational administrator with broad experience in student success initiatives. Direct experience with supplemental instruction; parent initiatives; general education; first-year seminar course administration; first-year advising; undeclared student advising; advising technology; course management platforms; and outcomes assessment. Experience with Experiential Education (service learning and cooperative education), educational and career planning, and advisor training. Teaching experience includes Freshman Seminar and Information Technology courses.

Alishea S. Rowley is an associate professor and tenured faculty member in the department of Educational Leadership and Counseling at Florida A&M University. Dr. Rowley has a combined 16 years of experience as a certified School Counselor and Licensed Mental Health Counselor. Her research focuses on mental health issues with multicultural populations and women of color in the professoriate. Dr. Rowley has 10 years of teaching experience in the professoriate and has a passion for preparing culturally competent counselors to meet the needs of a changing world.

Omar Vargas-González is a Professor and Head of Systems and Computing Department at Tecnologico Nacional de Mexico Campus Ciudad Guzman, professor at Telematic Engineering at Centro Universitario del Sur Universidad de Guadalajara with a master degree in Computer Systems. Has been trained in Innovation and Multidisciplinary Entrepreneurship at Arizona State University (2018) and a Generation of Ecosystems of Innovation, Entrepreneurship and Sustainability for Jalisco course by Harvard University T.H. Chan School of Health. At present conduct research on diverse fields such as Entrepreneurship, Economy, Statistics, Mathematics and Information and Computer Sciences. Has collaborated in the publication of over 15 scientific articles and conducted diverse Innovation and Technological Development projects.

José G. Vargas-Hernández, M.B.A., Ph.D., Member of the National System of Researchers of Mexico and a research professor at Tecnológico Mario Molina Unidad Zapopan formerly at University Center for Economic and Managerial Sciences, University of Guadalajara. Professor Vargas-Hernández has a Ph. D. in Public Administration and a Ph.D. in Organizational Economics. He has undertaken studies in Organisational Behaviour and has a Master of Business Administration, published four books and more than 200 papers in international journals and reviews (some translated to English, French, German, Portuguese, Farsi, Chinese, etc.) and more than 300 essays in national journals and reviews. He has obtained several international Awards and recognition.

Brenda L. (Townsend) Walker is a Professor at the University of South Florida in the College of Education. She earned her Bachelor's Degree in Psychology and her Master's degree at Central Michigan University in Emotional Impairment. She attained her Doctorate from the University of Kansas in Behavior Disorders and Learning Disabilities. A true proponent of lifelong learning, Dr. Walker also earned her

Juris Doctor from Stetson University College of Law. In addition to teacher-education, she is a lawyer interested in civil rights, education, and poverty laws. Dr. Walker published a number of journal articles, book chapters, a children's book, "One Love," and co-authored a behavior management textbook. Her publications focus specifically on turnaround schools, school suspensions and African American girls, special education overrepresentation, and the school to prison pipeline. She has dedicated her career to improving outcomes for children and families in urban and high poverty communities.

Shakoor Ward is Penn State's Professional Development Coordinator in the Affirmative Action Office (AAO). Dr. Ward delivers DEI professional development sessions, including presentations, training, workshops, classes, search committee briefings, and webinars. He advises leaders and human resources staff about cross-cultural communication issues and concerns that affect inclusion and other human performance problems. In addition, Dr. Ward is a study member of Penn State Research Professionals Network and currently contributing to a university project investigating inclusion among STEM professionals at Penn State University. Dr. Ward has a dynamic history of advancing diversity and inclusion in previous scholarly and practitioner leadership roles in both domestic and international settings. He was a Global Educational Consultant for eight years, providing a multitude of culturally inclusive workforce education and development services to Higher Education institutions and non-profit organizations.

Allyson L. Watson serves as Dean of the College of Education at the Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University. Dr. Watson has focused her research on innovation in education, STEM in urban education, women and faculty of color in higher education, and urban school and university partnerships. She is a full professor and tenured graduate faculty with substantial teaching and research experience in educational research, advanced educational measurements and statistics, public school relations, and instructional strategies. Dr. Watson spent over 20 years teaching and leading in Tulsa, Oklahoma. Her work in north Tulsa shaped her passion for encouraging teachers to include accurate history within culturally responsive pedagogy.

Sylvia Wilson-Thomas, Ph.D., is the Interim Vice President for Research and Innovation, President & CEO, University of South Florida (USF) Research Foundation. She is a Professor in Electrical Engineering, affiliate faculty in Medical Engineering, and former Assistant Dean (Engineering) at the USF College of Engineering in Tampa, Florida. Dr. Thomas mentors students in the areas of electrical engineering in her Advanced Materials Bio and Integration Research Laboratory. She is a Senior Member of the National Academy of Inventors (NAI) and a fellow of the American Institute for Medical and Biological Engineering (AIMBE). Over her 20-year career in academia and industry, she has produced 12 patents and patent disclosures. She holds B.S. and M.S. degrees in Electrical Engineering from Vanderbilt University and Ph.D. in Electrical Engineering from Howard University.

Samuel Lamar Wright, Sr. has a doctorate in Special Education Administration and Supervision from the University of South Florida, where he worked as a Student Affairs professional for most of his career. Before retiring in 2013, he was the inaugural Student Ombudsman where he assisted USF students both at the undergraduate and graduate levels. He also served as adjunct professor in the Department of Africana Studies. As a former elected official in Boynton Beach, he has distinguished himself as a community servant and serves on the Superintendents Transition Team in Hillsborough County. With his consulting business- Dr. Samuel L. Wright Consulting, LLC –he serves as a Community Consultant for

Project RISES. Other activities involve fundraising, event planning, and programming for educational institutions and non-profit organizations.

Hany Zaky is an international scholar. His diverse teaching capacities throughout his career have provided him with the ability to work effectively with diverse linguistic learners. His research interests include using Technology to enhance Teacher Reflection, Action Research, Reflective Teaching, Educational Technology, Literacy Assessment and Evaluation, Professional Development for Diversity, Culturally Responsive Pedagogy, and Language Teachers' Identity.

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