THE PRINCIPAL EFFECT: EXAMINING ADMINISTRATORS' INFLUENCES
ON BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE STUDENTS

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

to the faculty of the

DEPARTMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

of

THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

at

ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY

New York

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Submitted Date: __4/21/2022____   Approved Date: __9/30/2022_____

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ABSTRACT

THE PRINCIPAL EFFECT: EXAMINING ADMINISTRATORS' INFLUENCES ON
BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE STUDENTS

Michelle Soussoudis-Mathis

For more than forty years, the United States' public education system's "zero-tolerance" policies, and disciplinary practices rooted in those policies, have negatively impacted and marginalized minority students far greater than the general student body population. Over the years, nationwide studies have identified complex multifaceted predictors of negative disciplinary practices, such as: race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, teacher-student matches, gender, student behaviors and attitudes. Studies indicated clear and undeniable correlations between exclusionary practices, "zero-tolerance" policies and its disproportionate use toward minority students, particularly African American males who can be identified as a specific minority group within a larger minority and racial group. This phenomenon is commonly referred to as "pushout." The goal of the research was to identify principals' perceived equity-focused leadership practices and their relationship to behavioral outcomes for students. Although race/ethnicity is one of the most significant predictors, this study sought to examine a consequential factor that is not widely discussed or researched: the school principal's influence on behavioral outcomes for students. Analyzing structures and practices through a multidimensional approach of Critical Race Theory and Organizational Leadership for Equity Framework can be a key factor in accelerating and building capacity and fostering reflection in others. This study consisted of a survey of high school principals from nine New York counties outside of the metropolitan area. An analysis of

the collected data revealed the following demographic themes: predominant gender of high school principals were men; the majority of the principals identified their race as White, the years of service for the majority of surveyed high school principals was 11-20 years, indicating the administrator demographics are not progressively changing in tandem with that of the populations within the nine counties. The findings from the study identified the principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices and its relationship to student behavioral outcomes for African American male students. The survey offered insight into who is really behind the disciplinary decisions made in schools, and how principals equate infractions and severity of punishment with consequences. The study demonstrated how African American male students are still prone to disciplinary disparities even when perceived equitable leadership practices are activated.

Key words: zero-tolerance, race, discipline gap, African American males, organizational leadership for equity, equity leadership, exclusionary practices, Critical Race Theory, Push out, gender, years of service, student behavioral outcomes.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family and friends that encouraged and supported my journey. This is not a process that can be walked alone. So many people "propped" me up and gave me the green light to pursue this accomplishment to completion. I could not have completed the task without the love and support of my husband Chris, children Madesyn and Imani, mother Madelyn and late night, every night "Roadie" Ms. Veronica. Putting up with "crazy" was no small feat, but the unwavering love, focused conversations, and 'anything I can do to help' attitude is what pulled me over the finish line. I am forever grateful, humbled by your love and most importantly…patience with me. LOVE YOU.

There are a host of others that supported me with their love, kind words of encouragement and overall joy of watching me close out this chapter of my educational journey. I wouldn't want to forget anyone, so I say, "THANK YOU EVERYONE!"

Thank you to everyone who helped me fine tune my research, helped with graphics, proofreading, thought-partnering, statistics lessons, etc. I could not have completed this without your knowledge, expertise and understanding.

Thank you to the St. John's School of Education professors and staff members that prepared me over the years while on the journey, especially Dr. Clemens for taking me on as a mentee and pushing my thinking; Dr. Birringer for picking me up and helping me close out; Dr. DiMartino for listening to me, giving me clear feedback and sitting on my committee; and Dr. Annunziato for sitting on my committee and also offering great feedback and encouragement.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Zero-tolerance (ZT) policies, thought to be the great panacea, were originally designed to curtail gun violence, drug use, gang activity, and aggressive or violent behavior among students within the public school system in the United States. Born out of the nation's fear for its students' safety in the 1980s, emphasis was placed on deterring students' risky, negative, and combative behavior through the use of strict and constricting behavioral practices and policies, such as codes of conduct. Students that violated a school's policy faced disciplinary action ranging from verbal warning, written reprimand, suspension and ultimately dismissal with no recourse or avenues to return. This created total exclusion from the educational system. Thus, the lesson thought to be learned was that the ramifications of a student's poor choices and negative behavior would certainly lead to detrimental academic and life endings. Teachers are initially assigned the role for implementing these behavior practices but do not make the final decision for which students receive punishment or not. Principals or assistant principals ultimately decide whether or not a student will be suspended from school (Mukuria, 2002; Jarvis & Okonofua, 2018).

By the 1990s, ZT and strict codes of conduct were widespread. Federal legislation required states to conform to national standards of exclusionary practices and ZT policies in response to the most egregious student behavior or lose federal school funding (Triplett et. al., 2014).

Yet, more than four decades after its inception, studies continue to conclude that such practices and policies are ineffective. For example, research by Girvan, Gion, McIntosh & Smolkowski, (2017), and Skiba & Sprague, (2008) and the American

Academy of Pediatrics Council on School Health, (2013), show ZT policies are not deterring students from repeatedly violating school codes of conduct. Just the opposite is occurring (Welsh & Little, 2018).

The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) (2016) reported that for the 2013-2014 school year, over 100,000 students were expelled from schools nationwide of which 33, 557 were African American. African American students only comprise 15.5% of the racial/ethnic enrollment in United States public schools as shown in Figure 1, however they represent one third of the expulsion statistics as shown in Table 1.

Figure 1

Racial/Ethnic Enrollment in Public Schools

Figure 1. Percentage distribution of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools, by race/ethnicity: Fall 2000, fall 2017, and fall 2029
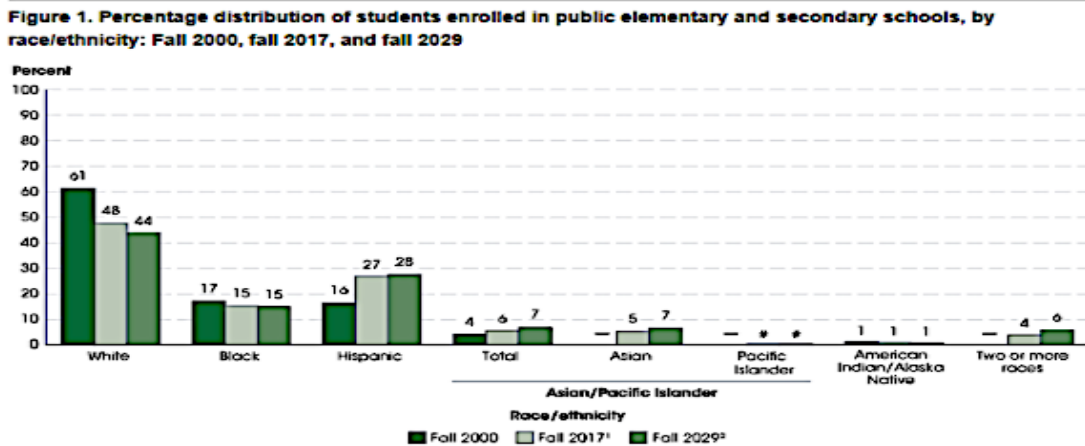
— Not available.
Rounds to zero.
[1] Includes imputations for prekindergarten enrollment in California and Oregon.
[2] Data for fall 2029 are projected.
NOTE: Prior to 2008, separate data on students who were Asian, Pacific Islander, and of Two or more races were not collected; data for students who were Asian included students who were Pacific Islander, and students of Two or more races were required to select a single category from among the offered race/ethnicity categories (White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and American Indian/Alaska Native). Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded data.

Note: Adapted from U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary and Secondary Education," 2000–01 and 2017–18; and National Elementary and Secondary Enrollment by Race/Ethnicity Projection Model, 1972 through 2029. *Digest of Education Statistics 2019*, table 203.50.

When 70% of all expulsions in a large U.S. state were for disruption or other subjective misbehaviors, this signals that bias may have a role in who is suspended (Jarvis & Okonofua, 2018). Behaviors often cited for suspension and ultimate dismissal include being disrespectful/ talking back, refusal to remove headphones/hoodies, and horseplay, all behaviors that are considered subjective (Bell, 2015).

It is important to note that principals are often not witnesses to the student behavior referred for disciplinary action yet may feel compelled to act to maintain safety of the school community as well as support the teacher's decisions for removal.

Table 1

Excerpt from Number of Students Suspended and Expelled from Public Elementary and Secondary Schools by Sex, Race/Ethnicity, and State (2013-2014)

	Number receiving out-of-school suspensions[1]									
	Sex		Race/ethnicity[3]							
State	Total	Male	Female	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Pacific Islander[4]	American Indian/ Alaska Native	Two or more races
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
United States	2,635,743	1,860,002	775,741	843,381	1,042,991	554,498	26,499	8,784	35,756	78,469

	Number expelled[2]									
	Sex		Race/ethnicity[3]							
State	Total	Male	Female	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Pacific Islander	American Indian/ Alaska Native	Two or more races
1	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
United States	111,215	82,787	28,428	49,144	33,557	18,271	790	241	1,944	4,613

Note: Excerpt from U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, Civil Rights Data Collection, "2013-14 Discipline Estimations by Discipline Type." Table 233.3, January 2018. (For complete state-by-state expulsion data see Appendix B.)

Dropout rates and low graduation rates for African American males are exacerbated by suspension and expulsion from schools. As cited by the American Psychological Association's Zero Tolerance Task Force (2008), students of color are

removed from school at a 4:1 ratio, continue to be cited for continuous behavioral problems, and have academic difficulties.   Noting that these are not the only significant contributors to students of color being removed from the educational setting, they are the most recognized and data supported. Sadly, the disproportionate impact is seen from the lowest grade bands, pre-kindergarten and continue as the student matures. Thus, ZT policies and exclusionary practices have become a pipeline of "pushouts," relegated students to increased truancy, low graduation rates, and overall social undesirability (Riddle & Sinclair, 2019).

Principals play a role in cultivating practices of "pushout" for African American students. The "pushout" phenomenon was coined to encompass all factors related to the direct and indirect removal of marginalized students from school settings. "Pushout" takes place when students either leave school voluntarily or are forced to leave (Vermeire, D., 2010). "Pushout" phenomena that make students vulnerable to the "school-to-prison" pipeline can include but are not limited to race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, gender, sexual orientation, and student classification. Racially charged disciplinary practices, lack of school engagement and feelings of unwelcome, are most publicized as the underpinnings of this phenomenon. Findings from Welsh & Little (2018) review suggest that occurrences in classrooms and schools due to the policies and practices of schools, teachers' characteristics and classroom management, and principals' perspectives play an important role in explaining discipline disparities. Variations in the attitudes of principals shape the rates of exclusionary discipline, and the evidence suggests that principals who consider the context and have a clear philosophy that guides

discipline use exclusionary discipline less often relative to principals who strictly adhere to disciplinary policy (Mukuria, 2002; Welsh & Little, 2018).

The New York State Board of Education released frameworks for Cultural Responsiveness, and drafted a Diversity, Equity and Inclusion (DEI) framework. The call to action requires all NY school districts to understand that the results we seek for all our children can never be fully achieved unless we re-focus every facet of our work through an equity and inclusion lens (Young, Jr, 2021). The Department, and the schools and districts it oversees, must use data to establish clear expectations for students and their families. They must set goals and targets that are connected to academic attainment and growth. However, merely reporting the numbers can cause us to focus on the symptoms of structural, institutional, and systemic inequities, losing sight of what lies beneath the surface, at the deeper policy level. The Framework reminds us that real individuals represent each data point. Some who have had educational inclusivity and others, not. The call to action is to uplift the inequities, conduct root cause analyses and implement change that provides all students with an education that equips them to be successful in life.

A combination of recent factors, including budget cuts, more stringent graduation standards, enactment of Every Student Succeed Act (where students may leave failing schools), national teacher shortages, the COVID-19 pandemic, and merit pay for principals with successful schools, pressure school leaders to produce more with less. These factors may directly or indirectly contribute to the exodus of students leaving the educational system. Principals want to maintain "good standing" status for their schools within the definitions of NY state. This unfortunately comes with the added pressure to

meet proficiency standards, have lower suspension rates, and have effectively rated pedagogues. Students who threaten these initiatives are often funneled from the school to maintain the status quo. Federal, state and city policymakers need to review laws and policies that encourage/support the aforementioned factors. Principals may feel the pressure to comply with these mandates that have created inequitable outcomes for some youth as well as perpetuated a learning gap. While steady progress is being made to narrow the achievement gaps between the graduation rates of Black and Hispanic/Latinx students compared to their White peers, remain significant. Statewide dropout rates still remain around 5.1% (nysed.gov, 2021).

When disciplinary policies are no longer primarily exclusionary in nature and no longer target marginalized students, school systems can then focus exclusively on academic improvement. The understanding of adult and student emotional competencies exclusive of race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, gender, and classifications, build learning environments where children can thrive. This is the ideal state of equity. In keeping with the shifts in leadership, Lorri, and Andres Santamaria (2016) have identified a type of educational leader that embodies cultural sustainability, equity, and social justice reform. In diverse school settings, critically conscious leaders need to keep equity and social justice reform at the forefront of their practice. The Core Characteristics of Culturally Sustaining-Equity-Focused Principals are those who:

• "Read" the world and act accordingly through lenses that are critically focused on action addressing inequities in schools based on ethnicity, race, gender, and class. For example, serving on school boards or committees examining core curriculum for cultural relevance, sustainability, and saliency.

• Engage staff, parents, community members and students as appropriate in conversations about how the roles ethnicity, race, gender, and class play out in education.

• Work to build and maintain trustful relationships with individuals in their teaching, leading, and learning communities who are from different backgrounds or experiences.

• Are seen leading by example, actively engaging in education in the classrooms with teachers, students, parents, and community members, rather than being locked away in an office.

• Work directly with community members, inviting and bringing them into the school to participate and engage in the schooling process, thus honoring the community as their constituents.

• Bring staff, teachers, parents, and peers to consensus by prioritizing shared goals and establishing common ground throughout decision-making.

• Are aware of their own marginalization or privilege and the ways in which their positionality and identity impact their leadership practice.

• Show evidence of being present active servant leaders, leading for change and transformation as a higher calling or for the greater good (p.4).

Equity-focused leadership needs to continually cycle through innovation and increased impartiality, become closer to the norm, redistribute power and influence, and diversity is considered a solution rather than a challenge in education (Santamaria & Santamaria, 2016). Principal leadership should be innovative, culturally responsive, and inclusive of all diverse stakeholders.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this non-experimental quantitative study will be to explore the relationship between school principals' perceptions of their equity-focused leadership practices and African American male student behavioral outcomes. School principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices will be the perception scores from a survey. Student behavioral outcomes will be defined as the positive or negative changes to a student's observable actions or what actions a teacher decides the student should be given (Gilmore, 2020). In addition, this study will determine if there are significant differences in principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices based upon gender (male, female, other), years of experience as a principal (1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, 20+ years), and race/ethnicity (African American/Black, Asian, Hispanic/Latinx, White, Other).

The theoretical lens of the Critical Race Theory (CRT) and the Organizational Leadership for Equity (OLE) framework will be explored to explain the relationship between school leaders' equity-focused leadership practices and student behavioral outcomes. In this context school leaders are used broadly and include principals and other high-ranking school administrators.

Research is needed in this area to address the increasing numbers of African American students referred to be removed from classrooms and from the school for their behavioral actions. Grissom, Egalite and Lindsay (2021) posit continued reorientation of the work of school principals toward educational equity and for school districts to prioritize the needs of increasingly diverse student backgrounds is necessary. The importance of principals' effects on student behavioral outcomes and achievement

suggests the need for renewed attention to strategies for cultivating, selecting, preparing, and supporting a high-quality principal workforce. The current study seeks to identify specific markers for equity leadership that can determine more positive behavioral outcomes for historically marginalized populations of students, specifically African American males.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the current study is composed of the CRT and of the Organizational Leadership for Equity framework. Public education is currently configured in ways that CRT can be a powerful explanatory tool for the sustained inequality that people of color experience (Ladson-Billings, 2010 pg. 21). Critical Race Theory was in response to the slow pace of racial reform in the United States in the post-civil rights movement era, and the emergence of neo-conservative policies of the 1980s. The basic tenets of CRT are the normalcy and permanence of systemic racism (Howard, 2008) and looking at who has power and how it is used in a system.

The Critical Race Theory perspective enables discussion about race/ethnicity, class, and gender as an analysis of African American male underachievement. Race/ethnicity still remains one of the least understood elements of our society. CRT provides a suitable framework because it not only centers on race/ethnicity, but it also recognizes other forms of oppression, namely class and gender, which have important implications for African American males as well.

Critical Race Theory within education serves as a framework to challenge and dismantle prevailing notions of fairness, meritocracy, color blindness, and neutrality in the education of racial minorities (Howard, 2008). The theory suggests the structural

functioning of racial bias in the unequal application of school discipline actions. Specifically, this was seen in the widely held association between minorities and super-predator criminality. Social scientist John Delulio propagated a myth of the rise of "superpredators." These superpredators were to be "radically impulsive, brutally remorseless elementary school youngsters who pack guns instead of lunches" and "have absolutely no respect for human life." This false panic paved the way for Zero Tolerance policies that over-criminalized childish behaviors in schools. Consequently, expulsions and suspensions almost doubled at that time (Dolan, 2015). The false narrative also highlights how zero-tolerance policies reactivated itself as a response to school gun violence focused on punishing "dangerous" minorities rather than the mental condition of the White suburban male (Triplett, Allen, & Lewis, 2014). Zero-tolerance provided a convenient mechanism by which schools were able to apply socially constructed definitions of minority students as "violent" or "deviant" in order to justify punishment and exclusion (Watts & Erevelles, 2004).

CRT in education has seen steady growth in its use as an interpretive lens to analyze and challenge racism in primary and secondary schools, and higher education contexts and policy (Amiot, Mayer-Glenn and Parker, 2020). The current study used CRT to examine the ways in which African American male students have become the primary targets of the "pushout" phenomenon through excessive suspension/expulsion consequences in public schools as a result of zero-tolerance policies among other more subtle factors and a school leaders' influence over those actions.

In addition, the current study used the Organizational Leadership for Equity framework to demonstrate how principals can implement equity-focused leadership

practices and policies to make positive changes to student behavioral outcomes. In the absence of a theory of Equity Leadership for education, this framework invites inquiry into how school leaders translate equity commitments into organizational strategies, norms, and collective practices (Galloway & Ishimaru, 2020). Equity necessitates a redistribution of resources and opportunities coupled with transformations in spoken and unspoken norms that guide how people relate to one another (Brayboy et al., 2007; Bryne-Jimenez & Orr, 2013). Three drivers differentiate levels on this continuum of equitable leadership practices:

1) how the problem of educational disparities and actions to address them are framed and enacted, from practices that enact a deficit frame (where disparities are viewed as rooted in the students or their families), toward enacting an equity frame (where disparities are viewed as systemic and historically embedded)

2) how leadership is constructed and practiced; and

3) how inquiry is integrated into leadership and organizational culture.

Table 2 provides a full description of each driver and the continuum (Galloway & Ishimaru, 2020).

It is important to recognize that although organizational change requires activating the collective capacity of all stakeholders, the principal or school leader is a key factor in accelerating and building capacity and fostering reflection in others. Using CRT and drivers within the Organizational Leadership for Equity framework provided insight into the why and how of instituting equity-focused behavioral outcomes for students.

Table 2

Drivers of Equitable Leadership Practices

Drivers	Little or no equity	Emerging	Proficient	Exemplary
Framing disparities and action	Deficit orientation; equality discourse (sameness-as-fairness); assumption of meritocracy; action that supports the status quo and aims to "fix" individuals	Diversity frame (appreciating difference; Bensimon, 2005); beginning to examine disparities, make plans and/or initiate limited equity-focused actions	Equity frame and discourse; taking action to change policies and practices	Equity frame and discourse; *collaborative* action targeting systemic change and addressing issues of power
Construction and enactment of leadership	Principal or district leader as the sole or primary actor/decision-maker with little or no input	Principal invites teachers to be involved in equity work but does not actively build their capacity or consistently engage them	Leadership is distributed amongst educators; considers student, parent, family, community input in actions and decisions	Ongoing collaboration with all members of the school community, particularly with nondominant students/communities (collective leadership)
Inquiry culture	Does not consider data; decisions based on personal ideas or assumptions of principal/district leader	Considers data but does not use it as a catalyst for improvement or reflection	Leadership and teachers use data as a catalyst for changing school and instructional practices and policies	Systems of inquiry fuel an ongoing process of equity-focused improvement

Note: Adapted from "Culturally Responsive School Leadership: A Synthesis of the Literature," by Khalif, M.A, Gooden, M.A, & Davis, J.E., 2016, Review *of Educational Research December 2016*, vol. (86:4), p. 1272–1311

Conceptual Framework

The importance of the principal's perception of equity leadership, racism, and influence over behavioral outcomes for African American male students is one that is second only to the teacher's beliefs. So far, the research community has yet to create an in-depth look at equity leadership practices through a theoretical framework in education that spotlights principal's personal bias, ideology, and socio-political influence where race/ethnicity, oppression, socioeconomic status, and unequal practices are concerned.

From this critical lens, the conceptual framework required a look for explanations and organizational structural changes for understanding and approaching the "pushout" phenomena that causes the overrepresentation of African American males in exclusionary punishment practices and school-to-prison pipelining. To assume African American students are prone to disproportionate punitive offenses for a multitude of subjective incidents without considering the state of racism in America would be negligent.

In order to approach equitable behavioral outcomes for marginalized populations, principal beliefs in the context of race, racism, power, and oppression must be examined. Therefore, the conceptual framework of this study draws upon critical race theory. Critical race theory emerged from the field of critical legal studies (Delgado, 1995; Matsuda, p.963; Lawrence, Delgado, & Crenshaw).

Many urban school districts serving African American students are unprepared to address the widespread incidence of school failure among African American males. However, most theories of school failure address aspects of the problem but not the system as a whole. The use of CRT theory and Organizational Leadership for Equity as a framework for explaining the effects of the U.S. educational system on African American males thus seems promising.

The conceptual framework is illustrated in Figure 2. In this organizational structure, African American students are outliers and ultimately susceptible to the "pushout" phenomena more than the general student population (U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, Civil Rights Data Collection, 2016). It is here that we see African American students are impacted by CRT markers: oppression, socioeconomic status, race/ethnicity, assumptions, and disparities.

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework Illustrating the Effects of Principals' Equity-Focused Leadership
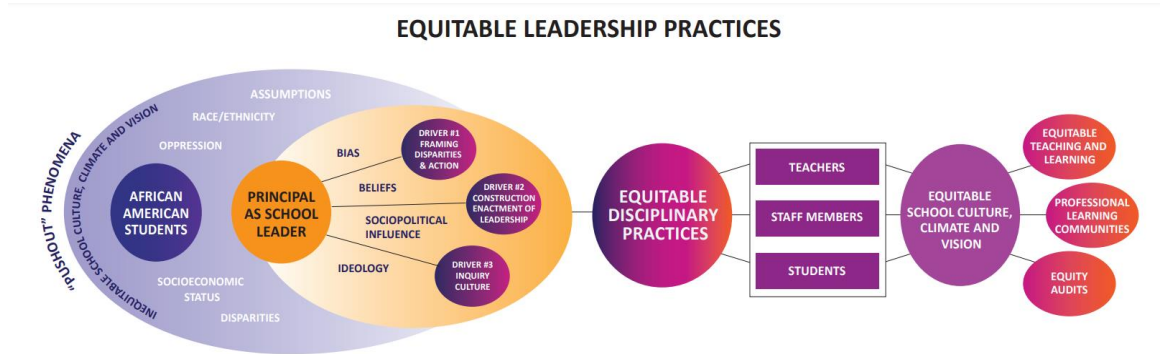
Practices

To better understand and zero in on what happens in a school environment, Figure 2 represents Idealized Equitable Leadership Practices through the incorporation of both CRT markers and OLE drivers. Although not yet an idealized culturally sustaining-equity-focused leadership practice as stated by Santamaria & Santamaria (2016) or Khalifa et. al., (2016), it reveals a series of organizational routines in which public high school principals play a pivotal role in turning equity commitment into organizational norms and collective practices (Galloway & Ishimaru, 2020). The framework identifies a series of organizational routines through which principals foster and sustain efforts to build capacity for equitable leadership practices in their school. Notice the principal is the organizational leader who comes to the task with their own bias, beliefs, sociopolitical influences, and ideology and uses the drivers as an equity lens to ensure African American students are seen in the same context as all students. That is the work of an equitable leader.

Significance of the Study

The most convincing evidence that discrimination contributes to the discipline gap may well come from work on implicit bias more generally, rather than specifically in a school discipline context. It is difficult to imagine that bias applies in the range of educational contexts documented but not in the realm of discipline (Gordon, 2018).

Educators, administrators, and policy makers have an obligation and responsibility to act in service of students who attend public schools. Access to an education is a fundamental right that our government sought to memorialize into law.

Current studies find that African American students are often marginalized and subjected to harsher punishments that directly impact their future access to quality educational institutions, jobs, careers and overall economic growth (Riddle & Sinclair, 2019). Leadership can be pivotal for fostering or constraining such organizational change (Galloway & Ishimaru, 2020). Limited attention has been given to researching strategies and practices in equity-focused leadership needed in order to understand the behaviors, traits, and responsibilities of a school leader in how they approach discipline for all students.

Thus, if the postulation is that the use of equity-focused training is not widespread throughout the school system nationwide then leadership strategies and decisions around student discipline contribute to the "pushout" methods leveraged against African American males will ultimately remain. The importance of this study is to identify the relationship between a principal's practice and the impact it has on the behavioral outcomes of African American students.

Forty-two percent of African American male students as young as four years old are experiencing punitive measures that establish pathways to being pushed out by force or voluntarily leaving school in the long term (Howard, 2015). Studies show that disciplinary spikes mostly occur during middle school years, but consistently acknowledge strained student-teacher, student-student, and student-administrator relationships at earlier intervals. (Jarvis & Okonofua, 2019). Ultimately, some students develop a sense of defensiveness, low self-esteem, low academic expectations, and general attitudes of inadequacy.

Statistics indicate that schools with 50% or more African American populations also reported having zero-tolerance policies in place (US Dept. of Ed.; 1997). However, there was no evidence, significant or otherwise, to support the need for such security measures. Events such as Columbine, Sandy Hook, and Parkland shootings gave districts free reign to loosely apply exclusionary discipline practices to any students whom they deemed 'defiant', troubled, or seen not part of the school's fabric. Race/ethnicity in fact, was a significant factor in the decision-making process (Triplett et. al., 2014). Gaps in the current literature exist and the current study aims to provide new research which supports the need to implement equity-focused leadership practices in schools to provide alternative approaches to punitive outcomes for African American male populations.

Connections with Social Justice

Ladson-Billings, (1998) and Alexander, (2010) posed the question, "Do school systems practice institutionalized racism?" (p.18). All students should have equal opportunity to access knowledge without fear of punitive disciplinary conduct codes due to the color of their skin or being culturally mismatched. Regardless of socioeconomic,

gender or racial differences, all students deserve the same opportunities and access to quality education. When blatant signs of disproportionality exist, it is important for those who can make a difference to do so. The current research seeks to explore how school leaders can use equity-focused leadership practices to improve student behavioral outcomes for all students, especially African American males in high schools in the nine counties around the New York City metropolitan area.

Research Questions

Research Question 1

How are principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices, gender, years of experience, and student population size related to principals' perceptions of student behavioral outcomes?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices, gender, years of experience, area poverty or size of student population and principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes.

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices, gender, years of experience, area poverty or size of student population and principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes.

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices when comparing principals' gender and years of experience as a principal?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon gender.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon gender.

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H_0: There will be no significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

H_1: There will be a significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

Research Question 3

How do principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcome practices compare based upon gender and years of experience as a principal?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon gender.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon gender.

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H_0: There will be no significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

H_1: There will be a significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

Research Question 4

How do school principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcome practices compare based upon the principal's race/ethnicity?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon race/ethnicity.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon race/ethnicity.

Definition of Terms

Critical Race Theory

Critical Race Theory is an academic discipline focused on a critical examination of society and culture, through the intersection of race, power and the law (Alexander, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1998).

Culturally Responsive School Leadership

Culturally Responsive School Leadership encompasses a set of behaviors that center on inclusion, equity, advocacy, and social justice in school (Khalifa et. al., 2016).

Discipline Gap

Discipline gap is a concept coined to draw attention to the disproportionate discipline policies and procedures meted out to certain student groups at rates that supersede the groups' statistical representation in a particular school population (Gregory et. al., 2010).

Disproportionality

Disproportionality is the frequency in which one receives punitive consequences greater than their percentage in the population by 10% or more (Harry & Anderson, 1995).

Equity

Equity refers to equal opportunity, but to fairness in processes and outcomes within the context of historical, economic, social, and institutional forces that have resulted in an unequal playing field for minority communities (Brayboy, Castagno, & Maughan, 2007).

Equity-Centered Capacity Building

Equity-centered capacity building is the complex process coupling both structural and technical processes with those that are more social, cultural and political (Petty, 2015).

Equity Focused Leadership Practices

Equity focused leadership practices seek to develop leaders to focus on eliminating inequities and disparities for all stakeholders (Grissom, Egalite and Lindsay, 2021).

Exclusionary Discipline Practices

Exclusionary discipline practices involve the removal of students from classroom learning environments as a form of discipline and punishment (Grissom, Egalite and Lindsay, 2021).

4D Instructional Leadership

4D Instructional Leadership is a framework for principals and school leaders who want to improve instruction through embedded equity-centered practices (Rimmer, 2016).

Hegemony

First coined by Antonio Gramsci (1971) to describe an insidious force of production and reproduction. There are two forces for bring about a hegemonic shift: the widespread, groundswell change in commonsense beliefs that would cause sustainable social change: "organic intellectuals" and "traditional intellectuals" (Lustick, 2017)

In- school suspension (ISS)

In-school suspension is a form of discipline that keeps a student in school but temporarily removed from scheduled classes and other students (Grissom, Egalite and Lindsay, 2021).

Organizational Leadership for Equity Framework

Organization Leadership for Equity Framework consists of "drivers" that differentiate a continuum of equity for a set of ten leadership practices (Galloway & Ishimaru, 2017).

Principal/ School Leader

The principal or school leader refers to the head authoritarian or supervisor in a Pre-K- 12 school (Grissom, Egalite and Lindsay, 2021).

"Pushout" Phenomenon

The "pushout" phenomenon refers to students who leave school voluntarily or are forced out due to school "zero tolerance" policies and disciplinary practices. (Vermeire, 2010)

Out-of-School Suspension (OSS)

Out-of-school suspension is a form of student discipline that removes them from school/campus (Grissom, Egalite and Lindsay, 2021).

Zero-Tolerance Policy

A zero-tolerance school policy imposes strict practices that result in punishment for infractions of a stated rule, with the intention of deterring students' undesirable conduct (US Dept. of Ed., 1997).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The previous chapter introduced the need to identify and review the impact principals' equity leadership practices have on student behavioral outcomes. Chapter 2 will provide a comprehensive understanding of the CRT theoretical framework and the Organizational Leadership for Equity framework, which will guide the study. The review of literature is divided into five sections: 1) Factors Affecting Leadership, 2) Behavioral Policy, 3) Student Behavioral Outcomes and the Discipline Gap, 4) Principal Behaviors and 5) Inquiry Culture. Each section is associated with one of the following Organizational Leadership for Equity's "drivers", the how and why of instituting equity focused leadership practices: 1) Framing Disparities and Action, 2) Construction and Enactment of Leadership, and 3) Inquiry Culture and Equity-Focused Leadership practices. The chapter concludes with a statement of how the current study seeks to extend recent contributions to the principal's ability to practice equity leadership and influence the behavioral outcomes of African American male students.

To better understand emerging challenges facing school leadership and their constituents, the current research seeks to examine factors that influence principals' ability to lead in an equitable manner and how equitable leadership can change the behavior outcomes of African American male students. The research will also explore a subset of difficulties faced by principals who are seeking leadership roles in an educational system where equity in hiring practices needs further examination. The study also discusses the challenges novice principals and principals that teach in smaller schools face when trying to create equitable environments while laying the foundation to

build their credibility and ensuring that the students they teach continue receiving the attention they deserve.

Theoretical Framework

The researcher proposed using Critical race theory (CRT) as a theoretical framework for examining the educational experiences of African American males because race/ethnicity has been and remains by and large undertheorized in education (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1997). CRT is an academic discipline focused on a critical examination of society and culture, through the intersection of race, power, and the law (Alexander, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1998). CRT emerged from the field of critical legal studies (Delgado, 1995; Matsuda, p.963; Lawrence, Delgado, & Crenshaw, 1993), as a response to the slow pace of racial reform in the United States during era of the post-civil rights movement, and the emergence of neo-conservative policies of the 1980's (Bell, 1992; Crenshaw, Gotanda, Peller, & Thomas, 1995; Delgado & Stefancic, 2000).

The six tenets of CRT are connected to the social justice goal of leading to combat racism in education. They are: 1) the permanence of racism; 2) whiteness as property; 3) the importance of counter narratives and counter stories; 4) the critique of liberalism; 5) importance of interest convergence; and 6) intersectionality (Capper 2015; Soloranzo & Yosso 2002). There continue to be additions to the original framework, but these six tenets fully support the study's concept.

Critical Race Theory examines racial inequities in educational achievement in a more probing manner than multicultural education, critical theory, or achievement gap theorists by centering the discussion of inequality within the context of racism (Sleeter & Delgado Bernal, 2003). CRT in public education has been used to spotlight, uncover, and

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dismantle roots of racism in pre-k-12th grade schools and institutions of higher education (Ladesma & Calderon, 2015).   To assist in understanding the dynamics of what is occurring in public high school institutions, the current researcher examined the relationship between principals leading schools with African American male students and their perceptions of those students based on their own genders, race, and years of service.

Critical Race Theory enables and fosters the discussion about race/ethnicity, socioeconomic group/class, and gender as an analysis of African American male underachievement (Howard, 2008). Race/ethnicity, however, continues to remain one of the least understood, and underrepresented elements of our society. CRT provides a suitable framework because it not only centers on race/ethnicity, but it also recognizes other forms of oppression, namely class and gender, which have important implications for African American males as well (Howard, 2008).

Within education, CRT serves as a framework to challenge and dismantle prevailing notions of fairness, meritocracy, color blindness, and neutrality in the education of racial minorities (Howard, 2008). CRT suggests the structural functioning of racial bias in the unequal application of school discipline actions. Specifically, the widely held association between African American males and the label "troublemaker." It also explains how "zero tolerance," which was a response to school gun violence was focused on punishing "dangerous" minorities rather than the mental condition of the White suburban male (Triplett, Allen, Lewis, 2014). Between 1990 and 1999, there were a series of rampage style massacre shootings that crippled the nation in fear. The majority of the incidents took place in small towns that were unfamiliar to the Nation as a whole. The Columbine High school shooting was the most widely publicized. It is

important to note that all of the suspected shooters were not of a minority group or race/ethnicity, yet schools with 50% or more students of color were more than 18 times more likely to use a combination of metal detectors, school police, locked gates, and sweeps than schools with less than 20% students of color after these incidents. The distinguishing factor of the schools that have metal detectors was not the amount of crime in the surrounding neighborhoods or within the school; it was whether or not a large number of Black and Latinx students attended (Patrick, 2021).

CRT in education has seen a steady growth in its use as an interpretive lens to analyze and challenge racism in primary/secondary schooling and higher education contexts and policy (Lynn and Dixson, 2013; Tate, 1997). Yet a gap exists when applying Critical Race Theory to educational leadership and administrative actions addressing racial social injustice in schools (Amiot, Mayer-Glenn & Parker, 2020). The failure on the part of researchers to critically examine the role that race/ethnicity plays in the pursuit of an equitable educational environment may reveal insights into why previous measures have had limited effectiveness for marginalized student populations (Howard, 2008).

Practicing CRT in the classroom is not an easy task. However, the current trend in this area of educational study and research tells us that CRT scholars are building, engaging, and enacting critical race pedagogical practices (Ladesma & Calderon, 2015). When implemented appropriately, it has the potential to empower students of color while dismantling notions of color blindness, mediocrity, deficit thinking, linguicism, and other forms of subordination (Kohli, 2012; Kohli & Soloranzo, 2012).

Researchers Lynn & Parker (2006) posit we move the conversation toward *Critical Race praxis* in K-12 education. As an analysis of racial, ethnic and gender subordination in education, the practice relies predominantly upon perceptions, experiences, and counter hegemonic practices of educators of color (Lynn, 2004). Lynn's 2004 study examined critical race theory and its link to education. A critical race analysis of education might begin to examine the ways that schools participate in explicit forms of racial sorting whereby students of color are not only tracked into lower academic tracks, but are over-represented in special education programs, and 'pushed out' of public urban schools. The development of a critical race project in education can help to move us closer toward developing an understanding that strongly considers the race-effects of schools and schooling processes. However, before we can begin this process, we must clearly articulate the nature of the paradigm we propose to employ (Lynn, 2004).

In the year 2021, nine states passed state legislation to ban critical race theory from U.S. classrooms. Anti-CRT legislation was passed in Idaho, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, Iowa, New Hampshire, South Carolina, North Dakota and Arizona (Arizona's legislation was recently overturned in the State Supreme Court.) Twenty additional states plan on introducing legislation to this effect (Ray & Gibbons, 2021). Oddly enough, only two bills passed have explicitly mentioned the words critical race theory. What is very clear however, is the ban on the discussion and training of educators and students around biases, privilege, discrimination, and oppression concerning race.

With respect to organizational capacity-building for equity, the framework for Organizational Leadership for Equity is utilized. Expectations for addressing

race/ethnicity, class, ability, and other disparities in student outcomes exceed the current capacity of leadership in K-12 public schools (Furman, 2012). Principals play a pivotal role in organizational efforts to build more equitable schools (Theoharis, 2007). The OLE framework requires addressing the structural roots of disparities, including the organizational processes, and learning conditions (Galloway & Ishimaru, 2015).

To examine how principals build and maintain strategies and practices for equity, Galloway and Ishimaru developed the framework to elaborate "high-leverage" leadership practices to mitigate educational disparities. The ten practices include:

1. Constructing and enacting an equity vision,

2. Developing organizational leadership for equity,

3. Supervising for equitable teaching and learning,

4. Fostering an equitable school culture,

5. Allocating resources,

6. Hiring and placing personnel,

7. Collaborating with families and communities,

8. Engaging in self-reflection and growth for equity,

9. Modeling, and

10. Influencing the sociopolitical context.

Although each of the ten practices represent a critical aspect of equitable leadership, the practices as a whole interact and mutually reinforce each other (Galloway & Ishimaru, 2020).

The OLE framework practices combined with the CRT will allow the necessary emphasis to be placed on outcomes not merely on individuals' own beliefs. The

outcomes can be examined and rectified from a top-down approach, a dissection of the structures currently in existence. The critical race theory provides the filter through which to look at U.S. social institutions that have racism woven throughout its regulations, laws, and practices. For schools, administrators are the levers through which policy, and race and ethnic representation intersect. The OLE framework is a tool for principals and their cabinets to reflect on their own developed constructs and interpretations of equitable practices and the impact it has on the student body, namely African American or minority children.

Review of Related Literature

The following databases were used to conduct the literature search: ERIC, ProQuest, Sage and JSTOR. The researcher gathered articles relevant to the topic by utilizing the following keywords/terms into each database: exclusionary discipline, zero tolerance, out-of-school suspension, school discipline, discipline gap, principals/school leaders, equity leadership, race/racism and African American/Black, CRT, gender, women principals, novice principals, years of service, PBIS, restorative justice and alternative discipline.

The literature review performed for this paper collected data on how gender, years of service, race, and style of discipline associated with principals can affect how they lead in an equitable manner. Publications from academic trade associations, academic journals, and accepted and approved dissertations and thesis were used to gather information for this research. The results showed that the aforementioned variables actually affect how principals practice equitable leadership. These effects can influence

how principals influence student behavior, as students are more likely to be positively influenced by principals who share a commonality, i.e.: race, culture, and belief.

After a literature review, it was found that the creation of equitable environments starts by finding people who understand the need for equity within schools. While White principals are certainly able to act as role models for students of color and help them successfully maneuver through their lives as students and into adulthood, there is a need for more representation of principals and teachers of color for Black and Brown students, particularly those living and learning in underserved communities (Grissom, Egalite, & Lindsay, 2021; Grissom, Rodriguez, & Kern, 2017).

The literature also tells us that there are numerous racial and gender-based biases, hurdles and roadblocks principles of color must maneuver themselves when striving to achieve positions of educational leadership. Much like the many challenges and negative stereotyping African American males and students of color face when interacting with the traditional education system, principal candidates of color and principal candidates who are women deal with biases in a traditional power structure that dissuade them from taking leadership positions and becoming principals (Smith & Hale, 2002; Canada, 2006). Thus, for a variety of reasons every year both men and women teachers of color abandon their careers in the educational field within the public school system (Canada, 2006). Hence, their absence creates an enormous reality gap between the goals of creating diversity in race and gender of the teachers working within the classroom setting as well as in leadership positions, and what is actually in place.

Creating a positive and nurturing learning environment is essential to fostering students' self-esteem and often provides the foundation on which their academic success

is built upon (Duncan, 2014). One of the key elements to establishing such an

environment is the implementation of equity leadership practices: those practices seeking

to develop leaders focused on eliminating inequities and disparities for all stakeholders

(Grissom, Egalite & Lindsay, 2021). Principals committed to focusing on equity

leadership practices within their school can provide positive long-term effects on

students' learning and benefit the entire student body: students' academic and personal

development and the overall performance of the schools they attend (Hamilton, Doss, &

Steiner, 2019).

Yet, even in schools where the principal is dedicated to equity leadership

practices, providing students with a quality education and academic experience, there

remains overlooked and underserved students in need of equity and empowerment

more than others: African American and Latinx students. Despite the stereotyping of

underachievement and hyper aggression (Dolan et. al, 2018), the need for reform is

not simply assigned to students of color in major cities. The situation is far more

complex.

Recent research tells us that there is a national trend taking place: a new migration

out of big cities. Students of color are no longer living in designated and predominantly

urban communities in major metropolitan areas. Hence, growing numbers of Black and

Brown schoolchildren are now comprising student populations in suburban townships,

rural communities, and small towns school districts (Fernandez et al., 2014; Canada,

2006; Hoover, 2021). Thus, examples of a need for equity and mindset shifts can be

found no matter the geographical area.

A segment of the student population that is especially affected by this lack of equity is African American males. An already at-risk student population, they are often singled out, made examples of, and experience excessive disciplinary measures that are significantly greater than all other student populations (Losen & Skiba, 2010). Punitive actions that all too often lead to the school-to-prison pipeline.

Scholars Khalifa, Golden & Davis' (2016) research on culturally responsive school leadership (CRSL) argue that of all the leadership expressions, the principal is most knowledgeable about resources, and they are best positioned to promote and support school-level reforms. Describing their work as multicultural and critical multicultural education Khalifa et. al., put emphasis on the *knowledge* of educators and school leaders, and the marginalization facing many people of color, and focuses on building-level leaders, or principals and assistant principals. They found on a district-level, directives are only effective and operative to the extent they are locally enforced. Thus, research suggests that without the principal's sanctioning, promoting, and implementing cultural responsiveness programs, they can run the risk of being fragmented, disorganized and/or short-lived in a school (Khalifa et. al., 2016).

Further, whose synthesis and analysis of the literature identified four clarifying strands in which to frame the discussion: 1) Critical Self-Awareness, 2) Culturally Responsive Curricula and Teacher Preparation, 3) Culturally Responsive and Inclusive School Environments, and 4) Engaging Students and Parents in Community Contexts; and CRSL layers of behavior that center inclusion, equity, advocacy, and social justice in school. Refer to Table 3 for a summary of behaviors in each strand.

Table 3

Behaviors of Culturally Responsive School Leaders

Critically self-reflects on leadership behaviors	Develops culturally responsive teachers	Promotes culturally responsive/inclusive school environment	Engages students, parents, and indigenous contexts
Is committed to continuous learning of cultural knowledge and contexts (Gardiner & Enomoto, 2006)	Developing teacher capacities for cultural responsive pedagogy (Ginsberg & Wlodkowski, 2000; Voltz, Brazil, & Scott, 2003)	Accepting indigenized, local identities (Khalifa, 2010)	Developing meaningful, positive relationships with community (Gardiner & Enomoto, 2006; Johnson, 2006; Walker, 2001)
Displays a critical consciousness on practice in and out of school; displays self-reflection (Gooden & Dantley, 2012; Johnson, 2006)	Collaborative walkthroughs (Madhlangobe & Gordon, 2012)	Building relationships; reducing anxiety among students (Madhlangobe & Gordon, 2012)	Is a servant leader, as public intellectual and other roles (Alston, 2005; Gooden, 2005; Johnson, 2006)
Uses school data and indicants to measure CRSL (Skrla, Scheurich, Garcia, & Nolly, 2004)	Creating culturally responsive PD opportunities for teachers (Ginsberg & Wlodkowski, 2000; Voltz et al., 2003)	Modeling CRSL for staff in building interactions (Khalifa, 2011; Tillman, 2005)	Finding overlapping spaces for school and community (Cooper, 2009; Ishimaru, 2013; Khalifa, 2012)
Uses parent/community voices to measure cultural responsiveness in schools (Ishimaru, 2013; Smyth, 2006)	Using school data to see cultural gaps in achievement, discipline, enrichment, and remedial services (Skrla et al., 2004)	Promoting a vision for an inclusive instructional and behavioral practices (Gardiner & Enomoto, 2006; Webb-Johnson, 2006; Webb-Johnson & Carter, 2007)	Serving as advocate and social activist for community-based causes in both the school and neighborhood community (Capper, Hafner, & Keyes, 2002; Gooden, 2005; Johnson, 2006; Khalifa, 2012)

(continued)

Critically self-reflects on leadership behaviors	Develops culturally responsive teachers	Promotes culturally responsive/inclusive school environment	Engages students, parents, and indigenous contexts
Challenges Whiteness and hegemonic epistemologies in school (Theoharis & Haddix, 2011)	Creating a CRSL team that is charged with constantly finding new ways for teachers to be culturally responsive (Gardiner & Enomoto, 2006)	If need be, challenging exclusionary policies, teachers, and behaviors (Khalifa, 2011; Madhlangobe & Gordon, 2012)	Uses the community as an informative space from which to develop positive understandings of students and families (Gardiner & Enomoto, 2006)
Using equity audits to measure student inclusiveness, policy, and practice (Skrla et al., 2004)	Engaging/reforming the school curriculum to become more culturally responsive (Sleeter, 2012; Villegas & Lucas, 2002)	Acknowledges, values, and uses Indigenous cultural and social capital of students (Khalifa, 2010, 2012)	Resists deficit images of students and families (Davis, 2002; Flessa, 2009)
Leading with courage (Khalifa, 2011; Nee-Benham, Maenette, & Cooper, 1988)	Modeling culturally responsive teaching (Madhlangobe & Gordon, 2012)	Uses student voice (Antrop-González, 2011; Madhlangobe & Gordon, 2012)	Nurturing/caring for others; sharing information (Gooden, 2005; Madhlangobe & Gordon, 2012)
Is a transformative leader for social justice and inclusion (Alston, 2005; Gooden, 2005; Gooden & O'Doherty, 2015; Shields, 2010)	Using culturally responsive assessment tools for students (Hopson, 2001; Kea, Campbell-Whatley, & Bratton, 2003)	Using school data to discover and track disparities in academic and disciplinary trends (Skiba et al., 2002; Skrla et al., 2004; Theoharis, 2007)	Connecting directly with students (Gooden, 2005; Khalifa, 2012; Lomotey, 1993)

Note. CRSL = culturally responsive school leadership; PD = professional development.

Note: Adapted from "Culturally Responsive School Leadership: A Synthesis of the Literature," by Khalif, M.A, Gooden, M.A, & Davis, J.E., 2016, Review of Educational Research December 2016, vol. (86:4), p. 1272–1311

Todd Whitaker (2003, p.30) wrote, "When the principal sneezes, the whole school catches a cold. This is neither good nor bad; it is just the truth. Our impact is significant; our focus becomes the school's focus". This quote amplifies the importance of the principal's role in setting the tone within a school. This includes academic, culture,

climate, and equity expectations. Although teacher-student relationships have been surveyed previously, very few empirical studies identify principals' influences of equitable leadership practices and student behavioral outcomes. The 2004 Wallace Foundation commissioned a school leadership research review which concluded that "leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school" (Leithwood et al., 2004, 2005).

The role of the principal is ever-changing. The administrative seat is very complex and calls for a broad skill set that not only informs student achievement but the creation of a strong school culture. Three overlapping realms of skills and expertise for school leaders to be successful are instruction, people, and the organization (Grissom, Egalite, and Lindsay, 2021). Principals must enlist effective teachers who are capable of embodying cultural responsiveness in a diverse school environment. Racial and ethnic demographics of student bodies are diversifying, yet the Schools and Staffing Survey, the National Teacher and Principal Survey, and the Common Core indicate a very slow climb in diversity of staff. From an equity perspective, Grissom, et al., found that principals can have important impacts on key populations, including low-income students and teachers of color. These impacts can occur through direct channels, such as how they manage student disciplinary actions, or through indirect channels, such as by providing professional development for the teachers to implement culturally responsive teaching practices, and by hiring greater numbers of teachers of color who are influential for students of color. Principals of color may be high-leverage actors in this regard, as they appear especially likely to have positive impacts on both students of color and teachers of color.

How the Gender of Principals Affects Their Leadership

Smith & Hale (2002) wrote that female leaders and their success stories are being told in the media more than ever before. Yet, while women comprise the largest percentage of both teaching profession and educational leadership prep courses, they held less than 33% of high school principal positions (Digest of Educational Statistics, 2007). Hence, if the wave of positive press and real achievements is to be continued, women who are currently enrolled in educational administration programs must graduate with advanced degrees and become leaders in positions traditionally reserved for men (Smith & Hale, 2002).

However, there are many obstacles along the way that impede women gaining success. Smith & Hale (2002) reference sex discrimination as a key intentional and/or unintentional bias confronting women applying for positions in educational leadership. Research by Kruse & Krumm (2018) agrees. In addition to sex discrimination, they cite the following among the major factors in not becoming administrators: personal responsibilities, school politics, longer tenue in the classroom, less developed female leadership networks, and less assertiveness when seeking advancement.

These biases and challenges can often act as a deterrent to women in what is thought of as male roles. For those who decide to venture on the journey, after years of repeatedly being told they are underqualified for a variety of fields, traditionally dominated by men, some women experienced a decline in their self-esteem (Smith & Hale, 2002). Thus, the narrative that women are underqualified is supported and perpetuated by their underrepresentation in educational leadership positions, specifically

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in upper grade band schools. Brenneman (n.d.) writes that the lack of women in leadership roles makes it difficult for aspiring leaders who are women to visualize themselves in those positions. In terms of equity creation, this makes it difficult for teachers who are women and students who are girls/women to effectively navigate the professional and social waters in male-led and dominated environments.

Upon deciding to become a principal, an African American woman not only faces and copes with gender-based biases, but also the challenges that accompany racial bias. However, within an educational system where racial bias can be unconsciously, yet inherently woven into the system itself, the research tells us that sexism weighs heavily on the scale of equal opportunity. Smith (2008) writes that African American men are more likely than African American women to become educational administrators and principals. Additionally, Smith's (2008) research leans on feminist theory to explain the context surrounding African American women's difficulties when becoming and leading as principals. However, while Smith acknowledges that all women struggle to gain power in traditional male power structures, she writes that women of color have a different history and experience that must be accounted for when explaining why there are so many barriers to their entry into principalship. One of these experiences is the double jeopardy they experience when trying to ascend the corporate ladder, as their identities as African Americans compounds the number of biases and competition, they will deal with along the way (Peters, A. L.; Smith, 2008).

How the Race/Ethnicity of Principals Affects Their Leadership

The race of potential candidates can affect their opportunity of becoming principals (Fernandez et al., 2014; Smith, 2008). African American and Latinx principals experience barriers within the system when trying to ascend to higher positions and, at times, get stuck within assistant principal positions for a variety of "*unspoken"* reasons (Canada, 2006). In his scholarship, Canada (2006) writes that African American principal candidates are not the only ones who experience discrimination and leave the field, as teachers and counselors, to pursue more lucrative career options. Their absence affects the ability for these principals to build equitable cultures within their schools.

Additionally, Canada's research found that African Americans leave the profession because of "perceived discipline problems in schools, required entrance and certification exams, and teaching being identified as a stereotypical profession for African Americans" (p. 9-10). The latter reason creates a roadblock in the creation of this problem's solution, as the need for more African American professionals in the field of education has been a long-standing issue. Thus, as the number of African American students within their institutions continue to increase, there is a seriously declining number of professionals who will be able to teach and mentor them (Canada, 2006).

Latinx principal candidates are just as needed, as there is a growing number of Latinx students in suburban areas throughout the United States (Fernandez et al., 2014). According to Fernandez et al. (2014), Latinx students need Latinx teachers and administrators, as having educators who come from similar backgrounds can help students find role models they can look up to during their formative years. Fernandez et al. writes that there are large gaps between the number of Latinx administrators within

California and Texas and the growing population of Latinx students located within those states as well. This gap could mean that there are a low number of advocates for Latinx students located within each school. Much like the absence of African American leaders and educators can prevent African American students from being properly represented, the lack of Latinx professionals means that this group of students is suffering from a lack of representation as well.

Montano's (2016) study focused on Latinx principals but brought up a point about White principals that should not be forgotten. White principals can also properly mentor and develop students. However, it may take more time for White principals to gain trust from students of color and their parents. Montano refers to this as needing more "community facetime" to bridge the gap between White principals' experiences and the needs of students of color (p. 2). Recognizing this is important, as parents and students of color will need to rely on them according to the statistics provided by multiple resources (Ylimaki, Jacobson, 2012; Khalifa, Gooden & Davis, 2016). Thus, even though the presence of more African American and Latinx principals would aid and support creating equitable environments, classrooms, and central offices; the reality is that White principals must be just as invested in creating equitable environments for students of color, as the parents and students of color must be invested in connecting with White principals.

How Principals' Years of Service Affects Their Leadership

The length of principals' years of service has intrinsic effects on their careers. Novice principals, surveyed in Beam et al.'s (2016) research, expressed regret in their

inability to gain more credibility with their peers, teachers, students, and their students'

parents within the first three years of their careers. A reason cited was an absence of

long-term hands-on practical experience within the field. Specifically, Beam et al. states

that many novice principals are armed only with textbook knowledge without experience

or skills to properly apply it in the field. Applying it to real world situations that include

problems related to student discipline, as well as communicating with disgruntled

teachers and peers.

When combined with their overreliance on textbook knowledge, novice

principals' lack of practical experience can be worrisome, as many struggle with the

evaluation of teachers' performance and the recommendation that poorly performing

teachers take the steps needed to improve (Reuland, 2012, p. 1). Reuland (2012) writes

that novice principals may need new training to handle these conflicts in an effective

manner, as there are financial, managerial, and administrative consequences to

mishandling the criticism of underperforming teachers. The avoidance of these conflicts

is not an option, however, as the allowance of underperforming teachers to continue their

negative performance only stunts students' progress and development over the long-term

(Reuland, 2012, p. 1).

Problems underscored by novice principals' insufficient real-life hands-on

experience are the most vulnerable, as they focus on the multitude of responsibilities that

overwhelm them during their first years on the job. Even if they were relocated to a

smaller school with fewer variables, a less experienced principal would remain

accountable for administrative obligations they take once they ascend to principalship.

Learning how to address all these responsibilities at once can prevent the novice from

recognizing the equity-related variables that accompany leading from the highest position within a school.

Reuland (2012) also writes that school districts are suffering from budget cuts that prevent laid off teachers from finding other jobs within their districts. This adds another burden to novice principals' workload, as they must learn how to critique underperforming teachers while also struggling to retain those who can help their students learn more discipline and, at times, function as mentors for students who need them inside and outside of the classroom (Reuland, 2012; Rooney, 2008). The failures of previous administrations can hinder novice principals' development even further, as there is a chance that negative administrations-built cultures that allowed negative performance to subsist without any type of intervention (Beam et al., 2016; Fullan, 2002; Grissom et al., 2021). Beam et al. (2016) states that this can lower novice principals' credibility before they even begin their new jobs since they need to work even harder to gain the trust of the teachers and students they are managing, leading, and developing.

How the Sizes of Schools Affect Principals' Leadership

Regardless of their school's size, principals are responsible for overseeing the academic, administrative, and professional development of their institutions (Hassel & Hassel, 2016). According to Hassel & Hassel (2016), teachers who are supported by great principals can sustain high levels of performance and morale. In many cases, teachers are expected to turn around the direction of their schools single-handedly (Hassel & Hassel, 2016; National Association of Secondary School Principals & National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2013) while also monitoring the progress of

hundreds to thousands of students as they matriculate through their hallways (Hassel &

Hassel, 2016). While all principals are expected to manage the various obligations

included within their job descriptions, there are some principals who are tasked with extra

duties that are unique to the sizes of their schools.

Principals who work at smaller schools are often asked to teach classes in addition

to their managerial and administrative responsibilities. Traditionally, teaching principals

were viewed as professionals who had a "scaled down version" of traditional

principalship and the business-related duties included in it (Murdoch, 2009, p. 32).

However, these principals do not work in a "scaled down version" of their profession.

Many teaching principals work in rural and underserved areas that do not have the

resources to hire many teachers or provide competitive salaries and benefits that would

attract principals who are interested in a high-level of professional mobility (Murdoch,

2009; Cruzeiro & Boone, 2009).

The unavailability of resources hinders school districts and principals from

finding the rural, small school, jobs that may be the best fit for them (Cruzeiro & Boone,

2009). Consequently, many school districts that fall into this category must look to their

pool of teachers to determine who should be promoted to principal positions. According

to Cruzeiro & Boone (2009), the promotion of teachers to become principals is just as

difficult as finding veteran principals to take underpaying jobs. They went on to state,

teachers who held administrative certificates did not want to become principals due to the

stresses associated with the position, lack of support and/or encouragement after

achievements, and the growing complexity of the job's execution (p. 1). In a different

part of the study survey, Cruzeiro & Boone (2009) noticed assistant principals were the

only ones who had positive opinions and attitudes towards the full-time principal

positions they wanted to hold one day.

Additionally, Cruzeiro & Boone's study tells us that principals working in small

schools do so with the knowledge that it would be extremely hard for them to find a

successor if they wanted to step down. Furthermore, principals of small schools who

teach and/or come from teaching backgrounds tend to already understand the financial

difficulties and professional workloads that the teachers they oversee experience every

school year (Meyer & Patuawa, 2020). These insights exacerbate an already troubling

problem in the United States, as there is both a teacher and principal shortage within the

country due to the high levels of stress associated with both jobs.

Principals who work in larger schools focus on the same goals as small school

principals, but Garrett states that they also take an interest in communicating with

students, communicating with staff members, and developing leaders (p. 4). Garrett

(2015) writes that the two large school principals they sampled collaborated with multiple

student groups to discover which shortcomings were developing within their schools and

how they could be addressed before they got too severe. Along with this, the size of their

schools required them to develop leaders within their institutions, as the number of

students and large staff they oversaw required them to have help and sources of

information in all places at once.

Even though there are differences in how small and large school principals

interact with their teachers and students, they all approach problem solving activities with

the same attitude. Garrett (2015) writes that small school principals were more immersed

in their problem solving since there were less people available to take a leadership role. In contrast, principals of large schools leaned on a variety of students, teachers, and administrative staff members to help them address inefficiencies. One of Garrett's notable findings was that the small and large school principals they studied did not perform outreach activities in their communities at a high rate. This was significant because all four principals studied in Garrett's study were leading schools located in low-income areas. This lack of outreach was partially explained by the principals' reliance on extracurricular activities and clubs being the link between the schools and the communities they were located within. With this, there was no explanation of how principals' lack of outreach affected their ability to discipline students and redirect their behavior.

Principals' Use of Alternative Punitive Measure Practices

Severe punitive forms of discipline are those that typically involve suspensions, expulsions, zero tolerance policies, and any other interventions that resemble a form of sentencing or probation (Rafa, 2018; Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummond, 2018). Punitive punishments are used to affect students' behavior and decrease the amount of violent, aggressive, and rebellious acts they perform over time (Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummon, 2018). In the modern era, researchers, state governments, and public schools have realized the ineffectiveness of punitive punishments and the negative consequences their overuse can cause to the emotional, academic, and personal wellbeing of the students who are subjected to them (Rafa, 2018; Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummon, 2018; Grayman, 2019).

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The realization of punitive punishments' ineffectiveness is so widespread that all 50 states have advocated for changes in the redirection of students' behavior in some shape or form. Rafa's (2018) profile on the subject explains that many states have begun focusing on three different areas of policy to address the need for positive behavioral supports in the country's school system. These three areas of policy include:

- Implementing professional development and training programs for teachers, administrators, school resource officers and other school personnel.

- Establishing committees to study alternatives to punitive and exclusionary discipline.

- Reducing the use of punitive disciplinary measures by requiring the use of restorative practices, positive behavioral interventions, trauma-informed schools and other strategies in certain circumstances. (Rafa, 2018, p. 1).

Ideally, achieving advances in these three areas of policy would implement the use and practice of restorative justice in schools. Fronius et al. (2016) write that restorative justice in the school system manifests itself as an alternative system of discipline that removes the use of expulsion or suspension when redirecting students' negative behavior. The restorative concepts and actions associated with this brand of justice considers the long-term future of the children it will be used on. With this, the alternative mode of discipline avoids the negative outcomes that are associated with children who are removed from the school system and, eventually, drop out of it completely (Fronius et al., 2016).

The use of alternative, and restorative, measures of discipline can eventually

empower the students that have been underserved by the education system the most.

Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummon (2018) write that their research was guided by

empowerment theory. Empowerment theory holds that increasing the political,

interpersonal, and individual power of students can lead to positive changes in multiple

areas of their lives (p. 415). According to Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummon, the use of

techniques that empower students from minority backgrounds can help them respond to

the systematic mistreatment they experience throughout their education.

Principals from every background have the ability to implement theories of

discipline and empowerment that can benefit students and positively redirect their

thinking and behavior instead of completely removing them from a social and academic

environment for a set period of time. In one way, principals could view the use of

restorative justice and other alternative means of discipline to assist the teachers who

work with these students on a regular basis. Grayman (2019) writes that the use of

restorative justice also empowers the teachers who answer to principals, as it allows them

to remain connected to the students, they are trying to mentor instead of separating them

and, in unfortunate cases, forcing them to start from square one once the child returns.

The successful redirection of students' behavior involves a collaboration between

principals and the teachers they lead and employ. Grayman (2019) suggests that teachers

can lead students throughout the process of realizing that they are not bad people who do

not deserve to be integrated into society. Starting this process involves getting students

to understand why what they did was wrong and how they can atone for their actions in

the short- and long-term future. Principals who do not recognize this and use punitive

punishment interrupt this process and depower the students they are charged with developing as academics, people, and contributors to society (Grayman, 2019; Jean-Pierre & Parris-Drummon, 2018).

Hilary Lustick (2017) provides a compelling position in her qualitative research. Although findings were limited to four participants and in the context of one school site, African American staff there had a unique vantage point which provided valuable insight into the lives of their students and the ways race, class, and culture had a major impact on how they were handled in disciplinary matters. Her larger year-long multi-case ethnography study in New York City public schools tells a complex story of African Americans in leadership roles in restorative practices and teacher-student relationships. In an educational environment filled with promise, irony, and paradox, she found that White administrators' perceptions of restorative practices differed from the African American educators' perception: balancing justice with order vs. maintaining order in the guise of justice. Lustick suggests the educators were demonstrating W.E.B. DuBois' theory of Double Consciousness found his book, "Souls of Black Folks" (1903 pg. 5). Defined as the inward "twoness" experienced by African Americans because of their devaluation and racialized oppression in a White-dominated society. Thus, being acutely aware of the negative impact systemic racism has on students, and the "twoness" world in which they maneuver, to be successful in restorative practices the African American teachers performed as restorative facilitators and worked behind the scenes (Lustick, 2017). This included providing a "safe space" learning environment for students to engage in restorative practices and fostering and encouraging honest and open dialogue among teachers and students.

Lustick's study found that African Americans staff were aware of the relational qualities and institutionally oppressive realities of their school's restorative discipline policies. Three points of interest emerged:

1. Restorative processes were used to reintegrate a student following a suspension, suspension was also used to restore order and signal to students that the administration had the law on their side.

2. The principal's authority and, by extension, the legitimacy of restorative practices, was bolstered by the presence of zero tolerance policies, even though the principal seemed to have discretion over whether to opt into those policies.

3. Administration's valuation of democracy and progressive education actually obscured racial tensions that interfered with proper trust building among staff and between staff and students (Lustick, pg. 121).

Behavioral Policies

"Bias is woven through culture like a silver cord woven through cloth. In some lights, it's brightly visible. In others, it's hard to distinguish. And your position relative to that glinting thread determines whether you see it at all," says Evelyn R. Carter, a social psychologist at the University of California, Los Angeles (Scialabba, 2017).

Education in the United States is not outlined explicitly in the nation's constitution, it is one of the social functions relegated to individual states. Consequently, states generate legislation and enact laws designed to proscribe the contours of education (Ladson-Billings, 1998). According to best-selling author Malcolm Gladwell, critical examination of the impact of Brown v The Board of Education (1954) ruling, and its

aftereffect reveal a striking example of implicit bias, disproportionately affecting Black schoolchildren in all aspects of their public education, including discipline, disabilities, and gifted program opportunities (Scialabba, 2017). But, unlike the old Jim Crow, there are no obvious signs today signaling the existence of racial bias. If the curtain of bias is not pulled back within the educational system, then the system will continue to operate on a false belief that race discrimination is a part of our past and not our present (Alexander, 2010).

In the reauthorization of Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) 2015, one of the policies included culturally responsive sustaining education into all aspects of public education. New York Senate Bill S2937A, from the 2019-2020 legislative session, was proposed to establish a culturally responsive curriculum, standards appropriation (NYSSenate.gov, 2019). New York State is one of the states that understands the responsibility of education is not only to prevent the exclusion of historically silenced, erased, and disenfranchised groups, but also to assist in the promotion and perpetuation of cultures, languages, and ways of knowing that have been devalued, suppressed, and imperiled by years of educational, social, political, economic neglect and other forms of oppression (nysed.gov/crse, 2019).

The Cultural Responsive Sustaining Education (CR-SE) framework reflects the State's commitment to improving learning results for all students by creating well developed, culturally responsive-sustaining, equitable systems of support for achieving dramatic gains in student outcomes. The framework is intentional regarding the relationship between culture and education, presenting a multi-tiered systems approach for cultural inclusion that broadens what ethnic groups, classes, sexualities, and abilities

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are privileged in the creation and maintenance of traditional education. Educators committed to understanding both the concept of culture and many different cultures can refocus their lens for viewing students' cultures not as "deficiencies to overcome" (Paris & Alim, 2014, p. 87), but as assets who possess vibrant realities and rich reservoirs of knowledge (2019).

This approach to education counters dominant narratives about difference as deficits or as characteristics of students and families that should be remediated or assimilated. While schooling has traditionally privileged the capital of families from dominant backgrounds, CR-SE positions educators to acknowledge, value, and leverage the wealth of knowledge found in communities that have been marginalized (nysed.gov/crse, 2019).

Thus, while the intent of the zero-tolerance policy may have given the impression of being equitable and fair; the implementation of the policy has proven to be detrimental to students of color (Sullivan, Larke, & Webb-Hasan, 2010). The review of literature supported the theme that African American males in particular are disproportionately affected by corporal punishments that stem from the ZT law in the United States. Several researchers cited this disproportionality across school districts throughout the United States. Additionally, in 2001 the American Bar Association (ABA) voted in favor of the abolishment of the ZT law(s) because of discriminatory application and lack of overall oversight and effectiveness (Finley, 2018).

Even though youth crime on school campuses has decreased, ZT policies have been broadened because of the assumption that more students were becoming violent (Sullivan, Larke, & Webb-Hasan, 2010). With the implementation of the ZT policy,

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normal attitudes and rebellious actions of students of color, especially African American males, have been interpreted as acts of violence. School personnel perceive such individuals as not fitting into the "fabric" of the school life. Once labeled, students who are predominantly poor minorities and those with academic problems, were removed from the classroom primarily for nonviolent infractions found in the school's disciplinary policies (Skiba & Patterson, 2000).

Analysis from "Zero-Tolerance," School Shootings, and the Post Brown Quest for Equity in Discipline Policy (2014), revealed that through ZT policies, students of color (particularly African American males) have been punished for the actions of predominantly White, suburban/rural gunmen. Data from seven rampage style school shootings revealed that the populations of minority students attending schools affected by these shootings was in fact rather minute. Yet, principals of schools that had 50% or more minority students reported having ZT policies in place (Triplett et. al., 2014).

Not all administrators, principals and teachers have CRSL skills and behaviors as outlined by Khalifa, et al. (2016), in Table 3 or can, or will, come to interpret and equitably implement ZT policies and restorative practices with sufficient knowledge and empathy to provide insight when interacting with African American students or minority students in an educational environment. However, in order to provide an equitable school, which ensures successful outcomes for all students, principals must be aware of the criteria needed to enable students and staff to perform at their highest level (Mid-Atlantic Equity Consortium, 2021). The Mid-Atlantic Equity Consortium (MAEC) states that if principals work together and collaborate with their staff members to

develop a common vision, they will be able to develop and use equitable practices and policies to create the ideal environment for teaching and learning.

Student Behavioral Outcomes and the Discipline Gap

After more than twenty years of research, evidence unequivocally links urban school discipline policies with severe and punitive punishment, school disaffection, and significant criminal justice involvement for African American youth (Losen, & Martinez, 2013; Skiba et al., 2011). Patterns of disproportionality, a problem referred to as the discipline gap, are documented in most major school districts throughout the United States (Applied Research Center 2002; Gordon, Piana, and Keleher 2000; Monroe 2006 as cited by Monroe, 2006). Ferguson (2000), Rong (1996), and others have argued that discrepancies within institutions are magnified when student gender and socioeconomic status are considered concurrently with students' ethnicity and race. Given the national prevalence of the discipline gap, particularly in urban environments, educators might expect to encounter correspondingly high rates of misbehavior among African American students in K-12 public schools. Notably, however, no compelling research studies support such an ostensibly logical relationship (Skiba 2001; Skiba and Peterson 1999). Rather, the discipline gap appears to stem from a lack of cultural synchronization in the classroom (Monroe, 2006).

In the 2013–14 school year, about 2.6 million public school students (5.3%) received one or more out-of-school suspensions. A higher percentage of African American students (13.7%) than of students from any other racial/ethnic group received an out-of-school suspension. By gender, African American males accounted for 17.6% of that total. The percentage of African American male students who received out-of-

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school suspensions was the highest of male students from any racial/ethnic group (U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, Civil Rights Data Collection, 2016).

The Civil Rights Data Collection, as shown in Table 1, also acknowledged that approximately 111,000 students were expelled from schools that year. African American students made up .04% of that total which were higher than the percentages for students of all other racial/ethnic groups. Researchers S. Jarvis & J. Okonofua, (2018) found that after viewing the same misbehavior by either a White or Black student, principals viewed misbehavior more negatively and endorsed more severe discipline for Black students as compared to their White classmates.

Evidence already suggests that long-established, zero tolerance school discipline policies are not improving student behaviors or institutional culture and climate (Howard, 2008; Bell, 2015; Gregory, Skiba & Noguera, 2010). Racial disparities in out-of-school suspensions (OSS) and office discipline referrals (ODR) highlight evidence of continued school-to-prison pipelining. Many students are sent home without coursework, parental supervision, and no access to support services for reacclimating into school. School policies and practices also indirectly push students into the pipeline through suspension, expulsion, and discouragement. The pipeline disproportionately impacts African American students and students with disabilities (NYCLU.org, 2019).

Welch & Payne (2010) used a sample of over 800 National schools to test the effects of racial composition of students on punitive school discipline. The survey questionnaires were sent out over 3 phases: first to 848 principals, then 310 secondary school students in phase two and 403 teachers in phase three. When all correlations between schools, students and staff were examined, it was found that small schools in

rural areas were more likely to have participated. They found that schools were more

punitive and less restorative when there were more African American students enrolled in

them regardless of the amount of school misbehavior, student economic disadvantage,

school urbanity, or training of faculty and administration (Triplett et al., 2014). This was

the first study to test and support the racial threat hypothesis in a school setting. Racial

threat hypothesis suggests that as the proportion of Blacks increases to Whites,

intensified measures of control will proliferate in response to the perceived growing

threat derived from closer proximity to minorities (Welch & Payne, 2010).

Charles Bell's (2015) research showed African American males were four times

more likely to be suspended than their peers. In addition, an alarming percentage of

African American male suspensions were for subjective rather than objective

wrongdoings. Subjective examples for racial/ethnic groups were loitering, talking back,

excessive noise, wearing hats, or listening to music on earphones were given for African

American students. Objective examples are smoking, vandalism, obscene language,

which were given to White students.

An African American student was assigned a one-day out-of-school suspension

for skipping school. In comparison, a White student was assigned a conference with the

principal for skipping school. The African American student had 19 previous disciplinary

referrals, while the White student had 28 previous disciplinary referrals (Department of

Education/GAO, 2018).

Bell's research mirrors the sentiments written in the study by Lewis, Butler,

Bonner III, & Joubert (2010). The sample was of more than 3,500 K-12 African

American males in a Midwestern urban school district that investigated the discipline

patterns of African American males and school district responses that impacted the

students' academic achievement on state standardized tests. The empirical findings

showed an over-representation of African American male students suspended at double

the rates of their population. They found that African American males were over-

represented in defiant suspensions compared to their White peers; racial discrepancies lay

in dispensation of discipline measures; a proliferation of ZT policies; cultural

misunderstandings and attitudes of school personnel. More work needs to be done

around closing the disciplinary gap and cultural synchronization. Discipline gap is

defined as a concept coined to draw attention to the disproportionate discipline policies

and procedures meted out to certain student groups at rates that supersede (sometimes

drastically) this group's statistical representation in a particular school population.

Explorations reveal such policies may have a negative impact on students in ways

not perceived when these policies were initially conceived (Gregory et al., 2010; Skiba,

Chung, et al., 2014; Welsh, 2017). More profoundly, studies draw clear and undeniable

correlations between exclusionary practices in schools, including ZT policies, and the

disproportionate rate it is being used when dealing with minorities, particularly African

American male students, as opposed to the general student population.

The U.S. Department of Education's office for civil rights reported in 2014 that of

all out-of-school suspensions of preschool-age children, 42% were given to African

American children, compared with 28% given to their White peers (Howard, 2015).

Hence, we find evidence that disproportionality of punitive discipline supersedes age as

well.

A report issued by the U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO) (2018) underscores the disparities in discipline across racial lines for the 2013-14 school year. The Civil Rights Data Collection (CRDC) is a biennial survey that is mandatory for every public school and district in the United States. Figure 3 charts disparities in student discipline nationwide. Within the study, interviews were conducted with federal and state officials such as representatives from several non-federal civil rights organizations and advocacy organizations that represent parents and families, individuals with disabilities, and people from specific racial or ethnic backgrounds, such as Hispanic, African American, and American Indian communities. They also met with academic subject matter experts to discuss issues related to school discipline, including disparities in school discipline and initiatives intended to reduce exclusionary discipline. Officials from a total of 5 districts and 19 schools in California, Georgia, Massachusetts, North Dakota, and Texas where self- reported district data was so diverse. The criterion for selection was based on significant disparities in suspensions for African American students, boys, or students with disabilities, and diversity in size and location (GAO, 2018).

Figure 3

Students Suspended from School Compared to Student Population, by Race, Sex, and

Disability Status, School Year 2013-14

This chart shows whether each group of students was underrepresented or overrepresented among students suspended out of school. For example, boys were overrepresented by about 18 percentage points because they made up about 51% of all students, but nearly 70% of the students suspended out of school.

Percentage of all students	Underrepresented ◄ ► Overrepresented
White 50.3	17.8
Black 15.5	23.2
Boys 51.4	18.3
Girls 48.6	18.3
With disabilities 11.7	13.2
Without disabilities 88.3	13.2

Percentage point difference
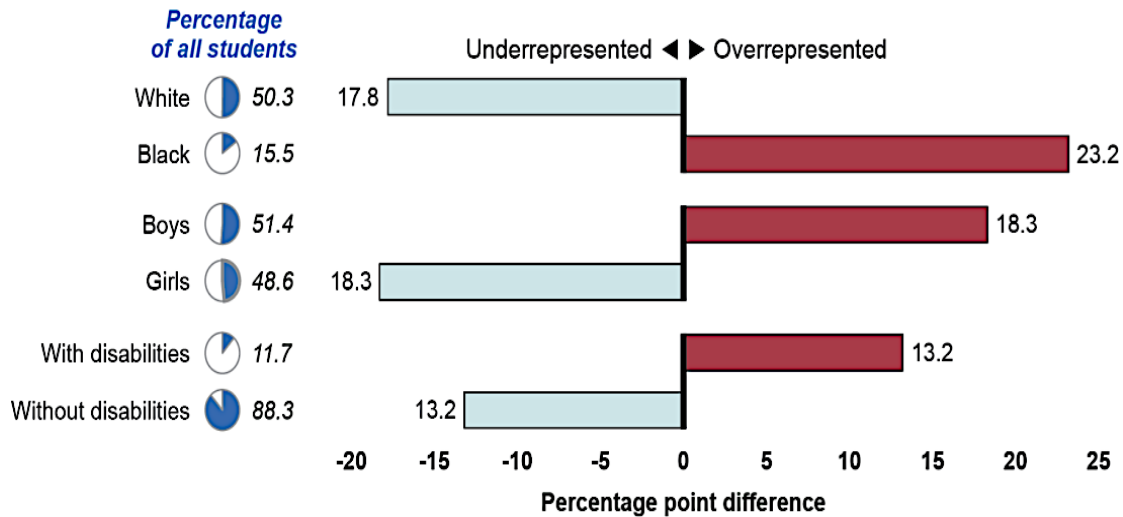
Source: GAO analysis of Department of Education, Civil Rights Data Collection. | GAO-18-258

Based on GAO findings, state education officials in all five states where

interviews occurred have made changes to their state's laws. For example, California

now prohibits suspensions and expulsions for children in grades K-3 for acts of willful

defiance; and no matter the student's age, suspensions may not be used until all means of

correction fail to bring about proper conduct. In Massachusetts the law states that school

administrators are now required to consider ways to re-engage students in the learning

process and that expulsion only be used after other remedies and consequences have

failed. The state now requires all schools to provide educational services to all students

that are suspended. Additionally, officials in all of the participating school districts are

implementing alternative discipline models that emphasize positive behavioral

interventions and supports (PBIS), restorative justice (RJ) practices, and social emotional

learning (SEL) (GAO 2018).

To mitigate the suspension outcomes for subjective behaviors, the U.S.

Department of Education (2014) created the following checklist as shown in Figure 4:

Figure 4

Promoting Equitable Discipline

Climate and Prevention	• **Engage in deliberate efforts to create positive school climates** • **Prioritize the use of evidence-based prevention strategies, such as tiered supports** • **Promote social and emotional learning** • **Provide regular training and supports to all school personnel** • **Collaborate with local agencies and other stakeholders** • **Ensure that any school-based law enforcement officers' roles focus on improving school safety and reducing inappropriate referrals to law enforcement**
Clear, Appropriate, and Consistent Expectations and Consequences	• **Set high expectations for behavior and adopt an instructional approach to discipline** • **Involve families, students, and school personnel, and communicate regularly** • **Ensure that clear, developmentally appropriate, and proportional consequences apply for misbehavior** • **Create policies that include appropriate procedures for students with disabilities and due process for all students.** • **Remove students from the classroom only as a last resort, ensure that alternative settings provide academic instruction, and return students to class as soon as possible**
Equity and Continuous Improvement	• **Train all school staff to apply school discipline policies and practices in a fair and equitable manner** • **Use proactive, data-driven, and continuous efforts, including gathering feedback from families, students, teachers, and school personnel to prevent, identify, reduce, and eliminate discriminatory discipline and unintended consequences**

Note: Adapted from U.S. Department of Education, OCR 2014

The Hanover Research's report (2018) captured best practices and effective resources to implement these practices. Their research found that one or all of the following alternative approaches are utilized in many districts throughout the United States; PBIS, SEL and RJ practices. Although the authors of the report cite examples of SEL and restorative justice programs in several school districts reduced overall rates of exclusionary discipline, those practices did not eliminate racial disproportionality in discipline. Hence, even when schools implement alternatives to suspensions like restorative practices, particularly in urban schools, suspension, and subsequent "pushout" rate for African American and Latinx students can remain substantially higher than for students who are White. Such observations suggest that an explicit focus on equity in disciplinary interventions is necessary (Best Practices In Mitigating Suspension Rates, 2018).

Lustick conducted a case study of three New York City schools, drawing on data from two of the three schools from her year-long multicase ethnography from 2014-2015 school year. In her research Lustick sought to explain why such racial disproportionality in disciplinary practices occurred in schools that used restorative practices (Lustick, 2017). In doing so, she explored the relationship between racial disproportionality in discipline and racial bias. The study examined restorative practices built on the assumption that school discipline was driven by hegemonic beliefs, the dominance of one group over another, often supported by legitimating norms and ideas. Additionally, it included the theory that sustainable social change, and abolishing zero tolerance practices could be accomplished through an "organic intellectual" process: the implementation of restorative practices (Lustick, 2017).

Lustick's study focused on two sites: Riveredge (K-12) and Plainview (6-12). By NYC department of education standards, the schools were considered small; having less than 100 students on a grade level. The selected schools had already enacted restorative practices and trained staff for a minimum of a year prior to the conducted study. Each school's student population was composed of mostly students of color and the teaching staff was predominantly White. The student body population profile is as follows: Riveredge: 260 students of which 92% were Black and Latinx. Less than 7% were White. Plainview: 550 students; 97% Black and Latinx. 2% were White. Riveredge's principal is White (Cody). Plainview's is Asian (Kinu). Though they had different administrative styles, both Cody and Kinu hired "deans"/coordinators to facilitate discipline processes in their school. The coordinators were young, non-White staff from the same neighborhoods as their students (Lustick, 2017). The majority-White faculty and administration depended on these coordinators to "bond with, contain, and compel obedience from students of color" (Lustick, 2017). Data collected were based on observations of restorative practices; structured interviews with administrators, teachers and students; and document analysis. It is important to note that both schools were successful in maintaining a suspension rate that was so low there actually was no figure available.

In 2014, New York City's Mayor Bill De Blasio, responded to an outcry from parents and education advocacy groups protesting against the city's ZT policies and stringent School Discipline Code (Harris, 2014). African American students were significantly affected by the "pushout" phenomena more than White students or students of color: Latinx and Asian (Harris, 2014) and, further contributed to racial

disproportionality in suspensions. Thus, there was a concerted effort for nonpunitive

alternatives to ZT policies that emphasize repairing damage and harm rather than

punishing misbehavior (Lustick, 2017). The NYCDOE prohibited suspensions for

subjective infractions such as failure to remove hats/hoodies, loitering and talking back.

Vincen, Swain-Bradway, Tobin & May (2012) disaggregated data from 155

elementary schools and 46 middle schools over 4 states to find that Black students were

consistently overrepresented in the students receiving secondary support. School wide

positive behavioral support was associated with lowered exclusionary practices; however,

it was the white students who benefited from the decrease whereas the Black students

remained overrepresented (Vicent et al, 2012).

Implementing restorative practices can potentially serve as a means of changing

the hegemonic forces of social control that has led to systematic marginalization of

students of color, particularly African American students. Lustick's research revealed

that Riveredge and Plainview remained successful in keeping suspension rates low, but

their aim to significantly lessen racial and other types of disproportionalities through

discipline was not sufficient enough to have a sustainable positive effect. Restorative

practices ultimately reinforced traditional ideas of discipline and order in both schools.

To successfully implement RJ practices, it would require leadership from the principal

and staff; and collectively they would have to become organic intellectuals, addressing

discipline matters by building relationships with the students and reflection on cultural

and racial differences as necessary. Although the restorative framework presents an

opportunity to resist traditional discipline structure as well as historical racial inequalities

in schools; ultimately, both administrations failed to address racism in the school policy

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(Lustick, 2017). More work needs to be done around cultural synchronization. Thus, Riveredge and Plainview restorative practices became a means of reinforcing and reproducing inequality.

Researchers Clayton, Robertson, & Sotomayor (2020) focused on a case study to highlight the promotion of excellence through equity. The research focused on five schools (two elementary, two middle, one high school) in the mid-Atlantic school district that had implemented PBIS for four years prior to the inception of the study. Interviews, focus groups and target observations were conducted over two visits at each site. Although there was a decrease in the gaps between demographics, the majority of the schools were 40-50% White and 20-40 % African American. Overall populations at the school varied from 400 to 1500 students total. The research team found four recurring themes: 1) the benefits of PBIS, 2) the importance of school culture, 3) the power of relationships and 4) challenges and next steps. It was noted that the most significant change occurred at the elementary levels. Participants noted the importance of collecting data across schools, trends helped teachers think about how to address individual student needs and the overall improvement in behavior. The dramatic shift in thinking was a challenge and the overall breath of work appeared overwhelming at times (Clayton, et. al., 2020).

Construction and Enactment of Policies

In a comprehensive study by Welsh & Little (2018), the researchers conducted a literature synthesis of 183 empirical studies that were published after 2010 that sought to document and explain a) the disparities in disciplinary outcomes in K-12 schools within the United States b) the effectiveness of alternatives to exclusionary discipline policies

and practices. Findings suggest that the occurrence of what is deemed to be misbehavior in the classrooms due to the policies and practices of the school, teachers' demeanor and classroom management style, and the principal's perspective and approach play a pivotal role in explaining discipline disparities. Additionally, the inequality in disciplinary outcomes may be better explained or attributed to the behavior of teachers and principals in schools, rather than students' characteristics such as misbehavior, poverty or race/ethnicity. Although the review did not encompass the entire collection of scholarly literature, the study offered a thorough overview that was robust in two important areas (Welch & Little, 2018).

For example, teachers may misinterpret the behavior of African American male students. Thus, becoming frustrated, distancing themselves emotionally, and/or resorting to overly punitive responses to deal with the "problems." It often leads to an exchange of words which are seen as an act of defiance and the student is removed from the classroom. Teachers always seek to maintain control. Once that authority is challenged, punitive measures are sought, and the incident is no longer handled 'in-house' (Howard, 2015).

Amiot, Mayer-Glenn & Parker (2020) studied an administrative leadership team at a majority racially diverse middle school in the Mountain western region of the U.S. found that the CRT tenet of Whiteness as property operated and placed the importance of White culture, history, and knowledge over that of African Americans, Latinx, Tribal Nations, Asian American and Pacific Islander cultures and knowledge in the classroom. This was because many White teachers believed in the ideal of educational equity for all students, but this meant that educators possessed the property of knowledge, skills,

assessment, and the right behavior to judge how students of color can attempt to acquire academic property in the classroom (Amiot, Mayer-Glenn & Parker, 2020). The case study school had an enrollment of 754 students spanning 6, 7, 8th grade. The school demographics consisted of 65% Latinx, 12 % White, 10% Pacific Islander, 7% African American and 4% other. The researchers relied on the counter story and counter narrative methodology within CRT to document and present salient parts of the leadership team's challenging school's normative conviction of viewing the world one way and purposefully attempting to disrupt liberal ideology and school organization. The two leaders conducted a series of informal and formal conversations about race/ethnicity with staff, collected survey data from students and 49 teachers and held meetings with Latinx parents. The CRT lens was used as a methodological interpretive framework to analyze the intervention actions. Findings from an equity audit revealed that systems and structures were set up to accommodate teachers and staff but not the students and parents. Teachers that had significantly lowered expectations and pace of instruction also had high incidents of discipline issues when the discipline referral data was disaggregated. One teacher had 422 office referrals in one school year. This research supports the idea for discussions and practices around setting rigorous academic expectations for all students and shifts in mindset to acceptance that all students are capable.

The application of appropriate consequences is certainly a tool for teaching students that actions have consequences in a lawful society. However, unless accompanied by positive consequences or alternative goals, administrative reaction has caused and will continue to cause dire results (failing grades, loss of school time, retention, etc.) (Fallon et. al., 2017).

Inquiry Culture: Examining the Data

Inquiry culture looks at how leadership and teachers examine data and how it is utilized as a catalyst for improvement or reflection. In 2014, the National Center for Education Statistics indicated that 50% of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools reported a racial identity other than White. Many identified as African American (16%) and Hispanic/Latinx (25%), while others identified as Asian/Pacific Islander (5%), American Indian/Alaskan Native (1%), or two or more races/ethnicity (3%) (Fallon et. al., 2017). According to the National Center for Education statistics, most public-school teachers identify as White (82%) and female (76%) (NCES, 2017). Researchers theorize that cultural mismatch or misunderstanding between teachers and students, racial stereotyping by school staff, and/or conscious or unconscious racial bias by teachers contribute to disproportionality in disciplinary action (Fallon et. al., 2017).

Teachers may lack professional development opportunities during which they are encouraged to consider students' culture and the educational context to prevent misinterpretation of student behavior. As example, if a student has his/her head on a desk or used inappropriate language to escape or avoid a difficult task, a teacher might interpret the behavior as exhibiting lack of motivation, disinterest in learning, and/or signs of a behavior disorder (Fallon et. al., 2017).

The 2015 national educational leadership standards revisions recognized equity and cultural responsiveness as a core leadership responsibility (NPBEA, 2015). The researchers sought to answer the following question: How do principals engage with teams of educators to build organizational capacity that identifies disparities and develop equitable practices at their schools? Through the lens of organizational leadership theory,

the researchers conducted a comparative case study of two school leadership teams who were currently engaged in this work. Both schools were in the Pacific Northwest region: School A was a middle school, and School B was K-8. The schools' populations averaged 600 and 450 students respectively. Both schools had approximately 45-50% white students. The African American populations varied. School A had 33% Black and Latinx populations. School B had 28% Black and Latinx populations. Each principal invited members of the school community to participate in the equity team. However, the middle school included representations from all community stakeholders; while the k-8 school only included members of the teaching staff. A school years' worth of observations of approximately 20 monthly meetings and 27 extensive semi-structured interview notes were analyzed. The study found that not all stakeholders shifted their mindset to a more equitable approach to student interactions. Analysis of inquiry data was seldom referenced in order to diagnose issues and the collective actions were limited. Thus, research supports the current study by acknowledging that a deep dive into the data might frame the need to make executive change and that time is required to make lasting, sustainable impact.

Relationship Between Prior Research and Present Study

Although there are peer-review articles citing the importance of teacher perspectives in disciplinary decisions, it is ultimately the school leader who makes the final decision (Jarvis & Okonofua, 2018;Welsh & Little2018; Theoharis, 2007). Researchers, Jarvis & Okonofua (2018), make note of the importance of the school leaders' role in disciplinary outcomes for students. In a review of a large district in a

Southeastern state, 85 school leaders from 21 middle schools and 18 high schools participated in a mixed design study. The average years of service for this sample was seven. No other demographic information was collected to protect the anonymity of the principals. Principals were given 20 minutes to review a sample narrative of a student referral and rate the severity of the behavior and the likelihood of continued misbehaviors, teacher irritations and how they would discipline the student. The results suggested that there was no significant change in discipline due to race/ethnicity after one incident but after the second occurrence, Black students were penalized more harshly than White students. Data suggested that teachers/administrators often looked at the Black student as a 'troubled' student who had a pattern of causing mischief. The study supports the current discipline trends of possible targets because of labeling or racial identity.

Principals and teachers can affect a child's trajectory into and through the pipeline to prison in at least four ways; relationships, attitudes and social emotional competence, contributions to the conditions for learning and responses to student behavior (Coggshall, Osher & Colombi, 2013). Competencies are necessary to promote positive interactions with children and their families to redirect away from the exclusionary path. Response to behavior involves policy and institutionalized practices, which often focus on punishment, exclusion, and external discipline (Osher, Bear, Sprague, & Doyle, 2010).

In Coggshall, Osher & Colombi's 2013 nationwide poll of teachers, 95% of respondents reported "ensuring that students who are severe discipline problems are removed from the classroom and placed in alternative programs more suited to them" is a "very effective" or "somewhat effective" strategy for improving teacher effectiveness

(68% and 27% respectively). The authors stated the belief in "the power of punishment"

confounded with high behavioral expectations with low thresholds for triggering punitive

sanctions, together with a lack of skill regarding how to respond to problematic behavior,

can allow small incidents to grow into bigger ones. Thereby unnecessarily escalating

problem behaviors and contributing to students' subsequent involvement in the justice

system. The author's research is in direct alignment with this current researchers'

position that policy, lack of cultural awareness and lack of equity training continue to

exacerbate the prevailing state of education.

Race-neutral perspective purports to see educational deficiency as an individual

phenomenon. This view posits that people are and ought to be color blind. Although this

is a laudable goal, it positions racism at the individual level and ignores other ways in

which it functions in society (Lopez, 2003). Thus, as a consequence, classroom teachers

are engaged in a never-ending quest for "the right strategy or technique" to deal with "at-

risk" African American students. When these strategies or skills fail to achieve desired

results, the students, not the techniques, are found to be at fault.

In 2014, the Department of Education and Department of Justice jointly issued a

Dear Colleague Letter (DCL) on racial disparities in school discipline. The letter stated

the aim was to help public school administrators discipline without discriminating on the

basis of race. It then summarized recent racial disparities in discipline, as reported in the

Civil Rights Data Collection (CRDC), suggestions for policy and practices that could

serve to help states and districts avoid violations. Additionally, it urged schools to reduce

the use of suspension and other forms of exclusionary discipline, focusing instead on

positive approaches.

The adoption of an equity-focused lens inspires principals to reconsider their leadership behaviors. In light of equity considerations, principals are asking questions such as how their actions will remove barriers and create opportunities for historically underserved groups, as well as promoting access to critical resources and support for the success of all students. However, adopting these actions and practices can confront institutional policies. Policies that may be currently inhibiting "certain members" of the school community from achieving their full potential (Grissom, Egalite & Lindsay, 2021).

Equity practices that promise a measure of success are typically grounded in instructionally focused interactions with teachers to affect equity in a broader public-school community. Where principals, teachers and students have an opportunity and potential to reduce discipline disparities and advance change by implementing organizational change from within. Researchers and practitioners who focus on equity state that a school environment conducive to learning is fair, equitable, and has a high level of buy-in from all stakeholders to increase student achievement (Richards, Aguilera, Murakami, & Weiland 2014). However, equity practices are not the standard and are still emerging as a common consistent approach to equalizing student behavioral outcomes.

Grissom, et al., (2021) and Welsh & Little (2018) state the following are positive practices that can be introduced by principals and incorporated in their school's organizational structure:

• Manage discipline and racial disparity gaps.

• Diversify workforce and integrated models that improve teacher-student relationships.

• Change the mindsets of teachers, and support staff, to meet the needs of marginalized students.

• Build and foster a school climate and culture that is inclusive of diverse cultures and ethnicities while affirming cultural responsiveness rather than assimilation.

• Understand students' conditions while continuing to communicate high expectations. But nonetheless, interventions that are not color blind or race neutral exposes principals and staff to the difficult realities of the marginalized groups within their organizational structure.

Equitable principals embrace approaches that recognize alternatives to punitive measures for African American students. Four alternative practices have picked up traction. Districts nationwide have begun using one or more of the following practices:

1. Response to Intervention (RTI)- multi-tiered approaches to identify and address learning and behavior needs of students (Newman, 2020).

2. Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS)- attempts to restructure disciplinary practices through a school-wide set of systems and practices used to improve or maintain a school climate focused on building a sense of safety, respect, well-being and a shared vision and common language (Noguera, 2003; Clayton, Robertson, and Sotomayor, 2020).

3. Social Emotional Learning (SEL)-attempts to target misbehavior via teaching social and life skills (Gregory & Fergus, 2017).

4. Restorative Justice Practices (RJP)-attempts to restore/repair relationships affected by misbehavior (Anderson, et. al., 2014).

PBIS and RJP have evidence to support the promise of office referral and suspension reductions but not as an elimination (Skiba, 2015). Inconsistent collection and disaggregation of data has led to gaps in the literature (Anyon et. al., 2016; Payne & Welch, 2015). Alternative approaches to exclusionary discipline have not led to lasting differential benefits for students who have been disproportionately affected by exclusionary discipline and raises important conceptual and empirical questions about the complex path to reducing disparities in disciplinary outcomes (Welsh & Little, 2018). More longitudinal research is required to study the long-term impact of equitable practices. Recognizing the impact of equity-focused principals as agents of change lays the foundation to closing the opportunity and achievement gaps for unserved students of color. Researchers are optimistic.

Conclusion

A principal's ability to practice equity leadership and influence the behavior of African American male students is heavily influenced by their own professional, ethnic, and gender backgrounds. The research cited within this paper shows that principal candidates from minority backgrounds need equitable environments just as much as the students and parents who are calling for it. Students who interact with teachers and leaders who look like them are more likely to view them as role models and become positively influenced by them (DePaoli, Atwell, & Bridgeland, n.d.; Khalifa, Gooden, & Davis, 2016). Among the takeaways is that principals from minority backgrounds could be used as conduits and bridges instead of providers of punishment and redirection. Thus, the interpretations of the data and their implications can be seen as positive steps in

closing representation gaps between principal diversity and the rapidly changing student populations.

When posing the question of why punitive punishment is ineffective, the research found that principals who saw the negative effects of it themselves, and the negative outcomes, all too often walk away from the industry. Knowing these personal narratives, even on a second-hand basis, can help principals advocate for their students and create equitable environments that allow everyone to have a place at the table and negotiate for themselves. Principals who focus on this type of empowerment tend to positively affect their schools from the top down, as collaborating with teachers can also help influence students who have problems with discipline. By leaning on teachers who deal with students first hand, principals can create plans of action that keep students in class and help them realize why they perform negative behaviors (Jarvis & Okonofua, 2019).

In the future, research can examine the absence of equity educational leadership's direct impact on students' opinions and attitudes in the school system. Although this subject matter was briefly touched upon in Canada's (2006) research, more data from school districts must be obtained for further review and analysis.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this nonexperimental quantitative study was to explore the relationship between school principals' perceptions of their equity-focused leadership practices and the relationship with their perceptions of the student behavioral outcomes in public high schools. High school principals from nine counties in New York state were surveyed. The analysis of quantitative data consisted of statistically analyzing scores collected from the instrument. The quantitative design benefited this study as the effects of race, gender, years of experience as a principal, and size of student population were examined to statistically analyze relationships among variables and their impact on student behavioral outcomes. The results may be generalizable to other school districts with similar data and demographics.

This chapter will provide an account of the proposed hypotheses and methodology of the study.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1

How are principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices, gender, years of experience, area poverty, and student population size related to principals' perceptions of student behavioral outcomes?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices, gender, or years of experience, and principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes.

H_1: There will be a significant relationship between principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices, gender, or years of experience, and principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes.

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices, and their gender and years of experience as a principal?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon gender.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon gender.

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H_0: There will be no significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

H_1: There will be a significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

Research Question 3

How do principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcome practices compare based upon gender and years of experience as a principal?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon gender.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon gender.

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H_0: There will be no significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

H_1: There will be a significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

Research Question 4

How do school leaders' perception scores of student behavioral outcome practices compare based upon the principal's race/ethnicity?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon race/ethnicity.

H_1: There will be a significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon race/ethnicity.

Research Design and Data Analysis

The current study employed a nonexperimental research design to explore the relationship between equity leadership practices, race/ethnicity, gender, years of experience, and student behavioral outcomes. A non-experimental study has no active independent variable and no random assignment of subjects.

To answer the first research question, how are principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices, gender, years of experience, and student population size related to principals' perceptions of student behavioral outcomes, a multiple regression was conducted. The rationale for choosing this analysis was that multiple regression would allow the researcher to investigate the relationship between the variables. The predictor variables included race/ethnicity, gender, years of experience of the participant, along with the principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices. The dependent variable was the principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes. The level of significance chosen for rejection of the null hypothesis was $p < .05$.

Six assumption tests were conducted with the data in order to make sure that the analysis would be reliable and valid. They are as follows:

1. The relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable is linear.
2. There will be no multicollinearity.
3. The values of the residuals are independent.
4. The variance of the residuals is constant.
5. The values of the residuals are normally distributed.
6. There are no influential cases biasing the model.

To answer research question two, what is the relationship between principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices, and their gender and years of experience as a principal, a two-way between-subjects ANOVA was conducted. The rationale for choosing this form of analysis was to compare the mean difference between groups that were split on two different variables (or factors). In addition, by using the two-way ANOVA, it allowed for the understanding of interactions between two independent variables on the dependent variable/factor. Furthermore, the interaction term found in a two-way ANOVA informed the researcher as to whether the effect of one of the independent variables on the dependent variable was identical for all values of the other independent variable as well as inversely. The two-way ANOVA determined if a statistically significant interaction appeared, and if there were any simple main effects.

The independent variables were gender and years of experience. The dependent variable was the principals' perception scores. The level of significance chosen for rejection of the null hypothesis was $p < .05$.

The assumption tests conducted for the two-way between-subjects ANOVA were as follows:

2. The dependent variable is continuous.

3. The independent variables will be categorical, independent groups.

4. There will be independence of observations.

5. There will be no significant outliers.

6. The dependent variable will be approximately normally distributed for each combination of the groups of the two independent variables.

7. There will be homogeneity of variances for each of the combinations of the groups of the two independent variables.

To answer research question three, how do principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcome practices compare based upon gender and years of experience as a principal, the two-way between-subjects ANOVA was conducted. As with question two, the rationale remains the same: this form of analysis was to compare the mean difference between groups that are split on two different factors. Additionally, by implementing the two-way ANOVA, it allowed for the understanding of interactions between two independent variables on the dependent variable/factor. Moreover, the interaction term found in a two-way ANOVA informed the researcher as to whether the effect of one of the independent variables on the dependent variable was identical for all values of the other independent variable as well as inversely, and if a statistically significant interaction was found, it must be determined if there were any "simple main effects," and if so, what they were.

The independent variables were gender and years of experience. The dependent variable was the principals' perception scores of the student behavioral outcomes. The level of significance chosen for rejection of the null hypothesis was $p < .05$.

The assumptions test conducted were as follows:

1. The dependent variable is continuous.

2. The independent variables will be categorical, independent groups.

3. There will be independence of observations.

4. There will be no significant outliers.

5. The dependent variable will be approximately normally distributed for each combination of the groups of the two independent variables.

6. There will be homogeneity of variances for each of the combinations of the groups of the two independent variables.

To answer research question four, how do school leaders' perception scores of student behavioral outcome practices compare based upon the principal's race/ethnicity, the one-way between-subjects ANOVA was utilized. The rationale for choosing the one-way ANOVA was that it would measure and determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the means of two or more unrelated and different groups. To assure that the results were valid, it was required that the data pass six ANOVA assumptions. It should be noted that the ANOVA was an omnibus test statistic and would not provide information on which specific groups were statistically and significantly different from the other. However, the test would reveal if two groups are significantly different.

The independent variable was the principals' race/ethnicity. The dependent variable was the principals' perception scores of students' behavioral outcomes. The level of significance chosen for rejection of the null hypothesis was $p < .05$.

The assumption tests conducted were as follows:

1. The dependent variable will be continuous.

2. The independent variable will consist of two or more categorical groups.

3. There will be independence of observations.

4. There will be no significant outliers.

5. The dependent variables will be approximately normally distributed for each level of the independent variable.

6. There will be homogeneity of variances for each level of the independent variable.

Reliability and Validity of the Research Design

There were known threats to the non-experimental research design. For example, the internal validity threats of subject characteristics, location, and data collection characteristics may have taken place. In order to minimize the effects of those possible threats, the researcher attempted to standardize the conditions under which the study took place. All administrators received the online survey with the same format.

For the internal validity threat of subject characteristics of principals, it should be noted that the recent social unrest and new awakening to the racial injustices in the United States may have actually impacted the number of participants in this survey, and which principals were comfortable completing the survey. The principals may or may not have had similar characteristics. The study and questions were developed well in advance and were in no way shaped by recent social unrest. The answers from those who participated may be shaded due to the current social environment of the country. Thus, even though the respondents were anonymous, their answers may be tainted, and they may have given responses that were politically correct rather than accurate.

To minimize the threat of location, the surveys were administered remotely, which were time and cost effective, reached a large number of respondents, provided a broad range of data that could be collected and analyzed, and allowed for respondent anonymity.

The possible threat of data collection characteristics was standardized as only the researcher administered the survey instrument. In addition, since the researcher collected the data on gender, race/ethnicity and years of experience, the responses were analyzed to determine if there were any significant differences due to these variables. However, by their very nature, surveys are inherently flawed due to the lack of control over sample size of the responses and participant truthfulness in responding to questions presented. Those principals who participated may not have felt comfortable providing honest answers that could have presented them in a negative or unfavorable light.

The statistical conclusion of reliability of measures could be a possible threat. However, the researcher used a survey which had already been tested with high reliability, which did not inflate the estimate of the error variance.

The Sample and Population

Sample

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) indicated in the 2011 Youth report that about one-fourth of public-school students in grades 9 through 12 had been suspended and three percent had been expelled in 2007. This same report spotlighted that an indirect effect became the highest retention rates for African American students in this same grade band at 2.9 %. These findings suggested that high school principals should be the focus of the researchers' study to determine who was suspending the students and why.

Table 4

Description of Participants

Category	Number		%
Gender			
Male	30	..	65.2
Female	16	>	34.8
Race			
White or Caucasian	36		78.3
Black or African American	7		15.2
Hispanic or Latino	2		2.2
Asian or Asian American	1		2.2
American Indian or Alaska Native	0		0.0
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	0		0.0
Another race	0		0.0
Multiracial or Biracial	1		2.2
Years as an Administrator			
1-5	5		10.9
6-10	7		15.2
11-15	16		34.8
16-20	13		28.3
21 or more	5		10.9
Years in Current Location			
1-5	19		41.3
6-10	12		26.1
11-15	7		15.2
16-20	5		10.9
21 or more	3		6.5

In the current study, a description of principals from NYS public high schools, along with similar demographics of other principals was provided after the survey was conducted. The sample represented the target population as it was matched with the regional demographics from the U. S. Census Bureau (see Appendix C). Of the 46 principal participants, 78.3% identified as White and 65.2% were male. The national statistics from the 2015-2016 teacher and principal survey reported White male, non-Hispanic principals as 81% (NCES, 2016). Although the survey does not specifically

disaggregate by grade band, the participant breakdown from the researcher's survey was in alignment with National averages.

To see how data provided by participants fit an existing theory (i.e., model, framework, or explanation) was the intent of the researcher (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The analysis of quantitative data consisted of statistically analyzed scores collected from the instrument. The quantitative design benefitted this study as the effects of race, gender, years of experience as a principal, and size of student population were examined to statistically analyze relationships among variables and their impact on student behavioral outcomes. The results may be generalizable to other school districts with similar data and demographics.

The target population for this study was a cross-sectional sample of principals from 212 public high schools, which were in existence/operating as of January 2021, in the nine counties surrounding the New York City metropolitan area: Dutchess County, Nassau County, Orange County, Putnam County, Rockland County, Suffolk County, Sullivan County, Ulster County, and Westchester County. County profiles are found in Appendix D. They outline the geography, general population, racial/ethnic/Hispanic profile, education, and poverty levels for children under the age of 18. The profile compares the county to the medians for the entire United States.

To obtain a representative sample, the researcher used the Directory of Public and Nonpublic Schools and Administrators in New York State held by the Information and Reporting Services (nysed.gov). The educational database included the email addresses of the public-school personnel in the NYS. The information was updated nightly indicating that the contacts were the most up to date. The researcher sent emailed

correspondence out to identified sample participants of public high schools only. Forty-six participants responded.

The list of schools' demographics was also compiled from the NYSED database. Only public high schools, grades 9-12, were identified for participation in the study. Private, religious, and specialized population schools such as military schools were omitted.

Participating principals were selected from the pool of public high schools and emails were sent to a total of 212 potential participants. Five notifications were received for undeliverable emails, leaving 207 potential participants. Based on Cohen's Power and Sampling Table, a response sample size of 20%, or 41 participants, were needed to meet the acceptable minimum required to run the regression of perception scores to identify significance. There was a power of .80 (80%) certainty that an existing effect would be found in the sample.

Population

Population is defined as the totality of elements, subjects, or members from which it is possible for a researcher to collect data (Tashakkori & Teddle, 2009). The New York State education system comprises 800 public school districts, from 62 counties (nysed.gov). The researcher selected nine counties that existed on either side of the 'upstate/ downstate' imaginary line. Each county had its own distinct and special profile. According to the US census profile data, each area was diverse according to race/ethnicity, education attainment, overall population, and poverty levels for children under the age of 18 years old. The most recent data for all nine counties can be reviewed in the Appendix D section.

Instruments

To measure principals' perceptions of their equity-focused leadership practices and student behavioral outcomes, the researcher implemented a three-part, 26 question survey that took no more than 5-7 minutes to complete as shown in Appendix E. Part One and Two of the instrument were created by Panorama Education. The researcher selected the Panorama Equity and Inclusion Survey (panoramaed.com, n.d.) questionnaire because it provided schools and districts with a clear picture of how students, teachers, and staff think and feel about diversity, equity, and inclusion in school. The survey can help schools and districts track the progress of equity initiatives through the lens of staff and students, identify areas for celebration and improvement, inform professional development, and signal the importance of equity and inclusion to the community. In addition to customizing surveys and questions, the research company provided access to "open-source" pre-developed surveys/questions for educators use. The current research utilized both customized and "open-source" questions. The researcher selected the panorama equity survey because the survey has been used in 49 US states in over 17,000 districts.

Part Three of the questionnaire included case study scenarios from a survey created by S. Jarvis & J. Okonofua, (2018). The research team conducted a study on the bias effects of school leaders. The case scenarios presented narratives of student misbehavior and how the school principal viewed such actions by White or African American students. The responses sought to identify patterns of discipline severity based on race/ethnicity. This research also sought to identify patterns of behavioral outcomes

based on bias and race. The researcher contacted the research team to ask for permission

to use the scenarios and it was approved as shown in Appendix G.

Evidence of reliability and validity already existed for both instruments. The Part

3 questionnaire had been used for two previous studies, one which has the same name of

the Survey, Two Strikes. The survey had been previously presented to a group of

teachers as well as a group of administrators to capture responses about race, discipline,

and labeling. The survey had been granted "open-source" usage to other researchers.

The Panorama Equity and Inclusion Survey was developed in partnership with the

RIDES (Reimagining Integration: Diverse & Equitable Schools) Project at the Harvard

Graduate School of Education to provide schools and districts with a clear vision of how

students are thinking and feeling about the topics of racism and culture and climate in

their school communities.

In development of the survey, the Panorama team began by reviewing the existing

literature and instruments designed to capture responses about equity, race, inclusion, and

diversity. Multiple rounds of feedback from practitioners and scholars in the fields of

education and survey design were enlisted to adhere to best practices in the field. The

survey was presented to a focus group at an educational conference on equity. The group

weighed in on word choice and streamlined the survey questions. Panorama piloted the

survey in 22 diverse districts across the United States.

Reliability was assessed through a coefficient alpha, which is a measure of signal-

to-noise (DeVellis, 2016). The survey developers conducted exploratory factor analyses

on one randomly selected half of the data (stratified by school) and reserved the other

half for confirmatory factor analyses. To verify that survey data was appropriate for

factor analysis, they examined the item intercorrelations, conducted Bartlett's test of sphericity, and calculated the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value. All indicators revealed that the items correlated with each other at sufficiently high and significant levels (mean r = .31), with evidence of underlying latent factors (Bartlett's p < .0001; KMO = .94). The scales demonstrated "good" reliability and exceeded the typical sufficiency threshold of .70.

Table 5

Scale Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) for Panorama Survey

Sample	CAA	DI
Exploratory	.83	.85
Confirmatory	.83	.84
Overall	.83	.84

Panorama referenced Samuel Messick's (1995) work to indicate that "validation" of a survey scale was an ongoing process. To address the structural validity, evidence of model fit through confirmatory factor analysis results (specifically, comparative fit indices and root mean square error of approximation) were utilized. Confirmatory factor analysis determined whether a set of items measured a particular number of constructs. See Table 6 below of the results.

Table 6

Results from Complimentary Factor Analysis for Panorama Survey

Statistic	1-factor solution (separate analysis)		1-factor solution (combined analysis)	2-factor solution (combined analysis)
	CAA	DI		
X^2	805	1603	8305	3104
	df=20	df=9	df=77	df=7
p	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
RMSEA	0.08	0.14	0.14	0.08
(90% CI)	(0.08-0.09)	(0.14-0.15)	(0.14-0.14)	(0.08-0.09)
CFI	0.94	0.91	0.70	0.89

Note. Adapted from the PanoramaEd Validity Report for Equity and Inclusion Survey, 2019

The components of the online survey were as follows:

Part One consisted of demographic questions that focused on the personal profile of the participants: race/ethnicity, gender, and years of service as an administrator. Years of service were grouped in five-year milestones. Part One began with the purpose of the study which was to identify equity-focused leadership practices and their relationship to behavioral outcomes for students. The directions outlined the format, approximate time for completion and the following ethical elements: 1) right to not answer question(s), 2)

right to withdraw without penalty, 3) no harm or risk will come as a result of participation, 4) responses would be anonymous and would be kept confidential.

Part One questions were multiple choice in style. Each participant had to check the box that best described their gender, race/ethnicity and years as an administrator and years at their current location as principal administrator.

Part Two of the survey consisted of questions that: 1) Disaggregated the student and staff demographic within the school by race/ethnicity and gender. 2) Encompassed the identification of types of behavioral models in use and the fidelity in which they are utilized, intervention services, data inventory and services provided to students and staff. 3) Who was tasked with handling and administering the disciplinary outcomes to students. Part Two survey questions utilized a multiple-choice format, fill in the box and Likert scale response type.

Part Three of the survey concluded with two case study scenarios centered on the research of Jarvis & Okonofua (2018). Their study found that principals authorized and sanctioned more severe discipline for African American students compared with White students. Based on the study, and data mined from the outcome, the researcher replicated and implemented their survey scenario model. The two case studies presented a student(s) referral for misbehavior in the classroom; being disruptive and failure to comply with teacher directive. The student was differentiated from the other by names that inferred a particular race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status (S. Lieberson & E. Bell, 1992). Students' attire was also included to identify one student from the other, as well as act as an inferred indicator of race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status (E. Morris, 2005). Implicit bias are those attitudes and stereotypes that we all hold based on

our experiences (Scialabba, 2017). Thus, in each case the principal was asked to identify

if the student was a non-threatening mischief-maker, a probable problem or

troublemaker. They were then asked to select their choices in the behavioral outcomes

for the student's infraction described, as well as the unlikely or likelihood of future

recurrence. The survey concluded with a question designed to identify the number of

days of detention if suspension was not an option. The answer format was checkbox and

Likert scales from either five to seven options.

Procedures for Collecting Data

The successful completion of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) procedures

allowed the researcher to collect data (see Appendix A). The researcher communicated

by email to 207 public high school principals via their work assigned email addresses

found on the NYSed.gov directory. All potential participants were sent an email of

introduction/informed consent and letter of interest to take part in the study. Based on

IRB guidelines, the letter stated the purpose of the study. The participants were asked to

complete a survey/questionnaire via Survey Monkey, an online survey tool. Participation

was purely voluntary, and they could cease their involvement or not answer questions at

any time. The researcher identified the time allotment of approximately 5-minutes

upfront and the confidentiality and anonymity of responses. Most importantly,

participants were ensured that their involvement in the study was deemed to be one of

minimal risk and would cause no harm or discomfort greater than answering questions

encountered in daily living. The letter of interest included a hyperlink to the survey.

Part One and Part Two question responses were collected by clicking into pre-

filled drop-down boxes. Part Three case scenarios utilized a Likert scale response. The

entire digital survey took no more than seven minutes to complete. Upon submission, the responses were collected unanimously and received back into the researcher's Survey Monkey account for further analysis. Since this was an online survey, all responses were collected when the participant selected the submit button at the end of the survey. Data were kept secure, encrypted and password protected by the researcher. No identifying login or passwords were required from the participant to access the survey link. No personal information was asked that breached confidentiality of the participants. All responses were collected and tabulated by the researcher at the sunset of the survey window. The survey window for participation initially was planned to remain open for a period of five (5) weeks. Due to a low response rate, the window remained active for twenty (20) weeks. The letter of interest was sent out every seven days over the duration of the initial open survey window period of five weeks for a total of five emails. The email reminders were sent out on Mondays, Fridays, and a Saturday in attempts to increase the response rate. In addition to the initial attempts to receive responses, the letter of interest was sent an additional three times for a total of eight attempts. Administration of the survey caused no harm. All communication was through email and the survey link which was disseminated via the researcher.

Research Ethics

Ethical considerations are recommended for research studies as all participants have moral and legal rights (Folkman & Sales, 2000). For this study, the researcher ensured that all of the participants remained anonymous. Informed consent was emailed to each participant explaining the premise of the study and their human rights protections should they choose to participate.

The form letter of consent included a right to privacy and confidentiality clause. All participants were guaranteed that the survey data was password protected. The survey was not harmful to participants and certified proper use of information collected. The researcher ensured participant's contribution was completely voluntary and that they could exclude themselves from the research at any time during the survey window. No further collection or analysis of data would commence. All participants had the right to compose their own informed responses. The consent form also had an access link to the survey. Should they click on the hyperlink, it was understood that they agreed to take part in the survey. The researcher also informed the participants that the data would be used in a presentation of the research findings and all identifiable points altered to maintain anonymity. The data was protected in an encrypted, password protected spreadsheet. The results were accessed on one private computer that was password protected and not accessible to any other users. When not in use, the computer was kept locked in a desk drawer.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this non-experimental research was to explore the relationship between school principals' perceptions of their equity-focused leadership practices and the relationship with their perceptions on the student behavioral outcomes in public high schools. The design was non-experimental since the researcher utilized data from an existing group based on variables that the researcher did not manipulate. This chapter presents findings from four research questions in the current study. These results provide a frame of reference for the chapter five discussion.

Forty-six NYS high school principals participated in the equity leadership practices survey. Majority of the responses captured were from White men who averaged eleven to twenty years' experience as an administrator.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Equitable Leadership Perceptions

Gender	years_exp_adm	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
.00	.00	.1379	.35093	29
	1.00	.0000	.	1
	Total	.1333	.34575	30
1.00	.00	.1667	.38925	12
	1.00	.2500	.50000	4
	Total	.1875	.40311	16

Total	.00	.1463	.35784	41
	1.00	.2000	.44721	5
	Total	.1522	.36316	46

Research Question 1

How are principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices, gender, years of experience, area poverty, and student population size related to principals' perceptions of student behavioral outcomes?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant relationship between principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices, gender, or years of experience, and principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes.

For the first research question, a multiple regression was the statistical analysis that was utilized to determine the significance for the null hypothesis. The rationale for selecting multiple regression as the statistical analysis was because it examined the relationship between the variables (Laerd Statistics, 2018). For the first research question, the predictor variables were race/ethnicity, gender, years of service, along with the principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices. The student behavioral outcome scores were the dependent variable. An alpha level of .05 was chosen to test the significance of each null hypothesis.

The data were screened, re-coded and there were no missing values and no coding errors reported. No responses were removed. Prior to running the multiple regression

analysis, the six assumption tests were conducted. The relationship between the independent and dependent variables was linear, as was demonstrated with scatterplots. There was no multicollinearity in the data as the highest correlation was gender with principal perceptions of student behavior outcome scores, $r = .166$, $p = .005$. When viewing the Collinearity statistics in the SPSS output, the VIF scores were well below 10 (gender = 1.474, race = 1.583, years of experience= 1.188, principal perception of equitable leadership practices= 1.057) and the tolerance scores were above 0.2 (gender = .632, race = .632, years of experience= .842, principal perception of equitable leadership practices= .946).

Therefore, the multicollinearity assumption was met. The values of the residuals were independent as were noted by the Durbin-Watson statistic, which was close to 2 (Durbin-Watson = 1.695). The variance of the residuals was constant, which was identified by the plot showing no signs of funneling, which suggests the assumption of homoscedasticity has been met. The values of the residuals were normally distributed, which was evidenced by the P-P plot, as the dots were closely placed near the line. Finally, there were no influential cases of biasing or outliers evident in the data, which was verified by calculating Cook's Distance values, which were all under 1.00 (.000, .186, .024, .039).

A multiple linear regression was conducted to predict the principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes based on race, gender, years of experience and the principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices. The regression model was not significant $F(4,41) = .292$, $p=.881$), with an R-squared value of .028. Based on the multiple regression, it was estimated that principals' perception scores of

student behavioral outcomes increased by .213 points for every equity leadership score

point. It was also estimated that a female principal would have .180 perception points less

than a male principal with all other independent variables equal and a non-white principal

would have .415 points lower perception score than an otherwise equal White principal.

Also, a principal who belongs to any age group as defined by coding of the Age variable

is expected to have .567 lower perception score than a principal who would belong to the

age group directly below his own group. As a result of no significant results, the

researcher retained the null hypothesis. The researcher did not have sufficient evidence

in the data to say that there was a relationship with a high degree of certainty.

Table 8

Summary of the Multiple Regression Analysis for Principals' perception scores

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	*Std. Error*	*Beta*	*t*	*P*
(Constant)	3.552	.361		9.831	<.001
Nonwhite	-.415	.815	-.095	-.509	.613
Female	-.180	.731	-.048	-.246	.807
years_exp_adm	-.567	.970	-.098	-.585	.562
per_eq_lead_pr act_scale	.213	.793	.043	.269	.790

Dependent Variable: Prin. Perceptions of student behavior outcomes

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices, and their gender and years of experience as a principal?

Hypotheses

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon gender.

H_0: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of equity-focused leadership practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H_0: There will be no significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

For the second research question, a two-way between-subjects Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was the statistical analysis that was utilized to determine the significance for the null hypothesis. The Two-Way Between-Subjects ANOVA was selected as the statistical analysis because it examined if there was an interaction effect between two independent variables on the dependent variable (Laerd Statistics, 2018). For the second research question, the two independent variables were gender and years of service. The principals' perception scores were the dependent variable. An alpha level of .05 was chosen to test the significance of each null hypothesis.

The data were screened. There was one additional value that was a duplicate and removed. The data were recoded to change string variables into numeric and to reset default measurement levels to more accurately represent the data. No coding errors reported. The six assumption tests for the analysis were conducted prior to the ANOVA to determine if the data was appropriate to run the analysis (Laerd Statistics, 2018).

All 46 participants completed a survey to examine if their perceived equity-focused leadership practices (independent variable) had any impact on the principals' perceived scores of student behavioral outcomes (dependent variable). Gender and years of service were two categorical variables. The dependent variable (principal perception of equity-focused leadership practices) was measured on a continuous scale. A score of one meant that the person perceived themselves as not having equitable leadership practices. A score of 20 indicated that they did perceive themselves to have equity-focused leadership practices (Range 1-20). The independent variables were categorical in nature. The Shapiro-Wilks test for normality indicated that all groups of data (gender and exp. years) were statistically normally distributed. The test for homogeneity of variance showed that Levene's statistic was not significant as evidenced by the Levene's test of Equality of Error Variances result, $F(2,42) = .165$, $p = .848$ therefore no evidence that the groups would have heterogeneity in variance was found and it can be assumed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is met.

Results for the study indicated that the main effect of principals' equity-focused leadership practices did not show a significant difference in the years of experience, $F(1,42) = .016$, $p = .901$, as is shown in Table 9. The researcher retained the null hypothesis. However, the years of experience of 5-11 years had the highest means ($M = .2000$, $SD = .447$) while the 1-4 years of experience had the lowest means ($M = .1463$, $SD = .358$). The main effect of gender was not significantly different in the means of the males and females, $F(1,42) = .407$, $p = .527$. The researcher retained the null hypothesis. For gender, the means for the females were higher ($M = .1667$, $SD = .389$) while the male's means were lower ($M = .1379$, $SD = .351$).

Table 9

A Two-Way Analysis of Variance of Gender and Years of Experience on Perception
Scores of Equity-Focused Leadership

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Corrected Model	.070[a]	3	.023	.167	.918
Intercept	.225	1	.225	1.61 0	.211
Female	.057	1	.057	.407	.527
years_exp_adm	.002	1	.002	.016	.901
female *	.036	1	.036	.256	.615
years_exp_adm					
Error	5.865	42	.140		
Total	7.000	46			
Corrected Total	5.935	45			

a. R Squared = .012 (Adjusted R Squared = -.059)

In addition, there was not a significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience, $F(1,42) = .256$, $p = .615$. The null hypothesis for the interaction effect was retained. This indicates that female principals with 5-11 years of experience scored the highest on the equity-focused leadership practices.

Research Question 3

How do principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcome practices compare based upon gender and years of experience as a principal?

Hypotheses

H$_0$: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon gender.

H$_0$: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon years of experience as a principal.

H$_0$: There will be no significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience as being a principal.

For the third research question, a two-way between-subjects Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was the statistical analysis that was utilized to determine gender and years of service on the perception scores of student behavioral outcomes. The Two-Way Between-Subjects ANOVA was selected as the statistical analysis because it examined if there was an interaction effect between two independent variables on the dependent variable (Laerd Statistics, 2018). For the third research question, the two independent variables were gender and years of experience. The principals' perception scores of the student behavioral outcomes were the dependent variable. An alpha level of .05 was chosen to test the significance of each null hypothesis.

The data were screened, and there were no missing values and no coding errors reported. No responses were removed. The six assumption tests for the analysis were conducted prior to the ANOVA for validity and reliability (Laerd Statistics, 2018).

Forty-six participants completed a survey to compare the relationship between gender, years of experience and perception scores of student behavioral outcomes (dependent variable). Gender and years of service were two independent categorical variables. The dependent variable (principal perception of student behavioral outcomes)

was measured on a continuous scale. A score of 1 indicated that they had perceived

scores of low student behavioral outcome impact (theoretical Range 1-60). The

independent variables were categorical. The Shapiro-Wilks test for normality indicated

that all groups of data (gender and exp. years) were statistically normally distributed. The

test for homogeneity of variance showed that Levene's statistic was not significant as

evident by Levene's test result, $F(2,42) = .302$, $p = .741$, therefore no evidence that the

groups would have heterogeneity in variance was found and it can be assumed that the

assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results for the study indicated that the main effect of principals' perceptions on

student behavior outcomes did not show a significant difference in the years of

experience, $F(1,42) = .198$, $p = .659$, as is shown in Table 10. The researcher retained

the null hypothesis. However, the years of experience of 5-11 years had the highest

means ($M = 3.4390$, $SD = 1.858$) while the 1-4 years of experience had the lowest means

($M = 2.8000$, $SD = 1.483$). The main effect of gender was not significantly different in the

means of the males and females, $F(1,42) = .085$, $p = .772$. The researcher retained the

null hypothesis. For gender, the means for the males were higher ($M = 3.5333$, $SD =$

1.756) while the female's means were lower ($M = 3.0625$, $SD = 1.948$). In addition, there

was not a significant interaction effect between gender and years of experience, $F(1,42) =$

0.004, $p = .951$. The null hypothesis for the interaction effect was retained. Males who

had 5-11 years of experience had the higher means ($M = 3.5517$, $SD = 1.785$). Female

principals with the same years of experience had a slightly lower mean ($M =$

3.1667, $SD = 2.082$). There is no appreciable difference in perceptions of student

behavioral outcomes between gender. This indicates that an increase in the number of

women administrators would not increase the perception of student behavioral outcomes for Black male students.

Table 10

Analysis of Between-Subjects Effects of Gender and Years of Experience on Perception Scores of Equity-Focused Leadership

Source	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Corrected Model	3.128[a]	3	1.043	.301	.825
Intercept	113.656	1	113.656	32.788	<.001
Female	.295	1	.295	.085	.772
years_exp_adm	.686	1	.686	.198	.659
female * years_exp_adm	.013	1	.013	.004	.951
Error	145.589	42	3.466		
Total	671.000	46			
Corrected Total	148.717	45			

a. R Squared = .021 (Adjusted R Squared = -.049)

Research Question 4

How do school leaders' perception scores of student behavioral outcome practices compare based upon the principal's race/ethnicity?

Hypotheses

H₀: There will be no significant difference in principals' perception scores of student behavioral outcomes practices based upon race/ethnicity.

For the fourth research question, a one-way between-subjects Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was the statistical analysis that was utilized to determine significance of race/ethnicity on the perception scores of the student behavioral outcomes. The One-Way Between-Subjects ANOVA was selected as the statistical analysis because it examined if there was any statistically significant difference between the means of two or more unrelated and different groups. For the fourth research question, the independent variables were the principals' race/ethnicity. The dependent variable was the principals' perception scores of the student behavioral outcomes. An alpha level of .05 was chosen to test the significance of each null hypothesis.

The data were screened, re-coded and there were no missing values and no coding errors reported. No responses were removed. The six assumption tests for the analysis were conducted prior to the ANOVA for validity and reliability (Laerd Statistics, 2018). The Shapiro-Wilks test for normality indicated that both groups of data were statistically normally distributed. The test for homogeneity of variance showed that Levene's statistic was not significant as evident by Levene's test result, $F(1,44) = .383$, $p = .539$, therefore no evidence that the groups would have heterogeneity in variance was found and it can be assumed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is met.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the differences of race/ethnicity on the principals' perception scores of student behavior outcomes. An analysis of variance showed that the effect of race/ethnicity on principals' perception scores of

student behavioral outcome practices was not significant $F(1,44)= .522, p=.474$. There

was no statistically significant difference in school leaders' perception scores of student

behavioral outcome practices based upon the principal's race/ethnicity. Thus, the null

hypothesis was retained.

Table 11

Analysis of One-Way between subjects Analysis of Variance Effect of Race/Ethnicity on Perceived Student Behavioral Outcome Scores

	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	1.745	1	1.745	.522	.474
Within Groups	146.972	44	3.340		
Total	148.717	45			

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The concluding chapter provides a summary of the study, which details a brief discussion, limitations, summary of the research findings, implications for practice, and possibilities for future research. The discussion in this chapter is organized by the research questions and how those findings are relevant to the literature. As a nonexperimental quantitative study, it sought to explore the relationship between school principals' perceptions of their equity-focused leadership practices and the relationship with their perceptions on the student behavioral outcomes in public high schools.

Implication of Findings

The framework for the study is multidimensional to accentuate the importance of one's perception of biases, beliefs, sociopolitical influences and ideologies. Although Organizational Leadership for Equity (OLE) set the frame for translating equity commitments into organizational strategies, norms and collective practices (Galloway & Ishimaru, 2020), CRT provided the critical lens to comprehend the complex structures of race and colorblindness (the minimization of race and racism, denial, distortion, and/or refusal to acknowledge) (Alexander, 2012).

Integrating critical race theory (CRT) to examine the practices of principals in relation to their gender, race and years of service provided insight into the "who," "why" and "how'" of the instituting of equity-focused behavioral outcomes for students of color. Critical race theory in education linked to advocacy administrative actions has the potential to disrupt structural barriers and obstacles to students of color (Amiot, et. al., 2020). Administrators need to move away from the idea that all students are the same and that color does not apply. The data revealed that principals were even less likely to

acknowledge disruptive behavior or provide disciplinary action after the second infraction. However, when prompted to give a consequence to that infraction, most did so even though they acknowledged no significant wrongdoing. The root cause for why this was the finding needs to be further investigated. It is important to note that the current research findings were different from the last two disseminations of this survey in 2015 and 2018 from the consenting researchers Okonofua/ Eberhardt and Okonofua/Jarvis. Their studies found that participants were more likely to acknowledge the behavior after the second infraction along with a consequence of removal.

One of the criticisms of CRT and the idea of counter-storytelling as a methodological tool is its perceived lack of analytical rigor and objectivity, and the ability to verify or confirm the accuracy of the accounts offered by the victims (Howard, 2008). Surveys, however, are very subjective and rely heavily upon one's perception of the question asked, therefore supporting the validity of the importance of how people feel, act and respond. Several states/districts have enlisted the use of student perception, learning environment and school administrator surveys through PanoramaEd to identify what is happening in each school. The survey data collected is one indicator used to acknowledge some of the disproportionate practices within schools, districts, cities within the majority of the United States (nces.ed.gov). In the current study, the principals responded to questions of frequency of behavior and consequences for students that may be identified as an African American male. The participants exhibited low frequencies for administering negative behavioral outcomes that were overly punitive, but also identified a low level of diversity in staff and student makeups. For example, 64% of respondents identified their staff as being "slightly diverse." For school communities that lack

diversity, enacting equity audits and activating culturally responsive curriculum and pedagogy can be challenging if they don't see the need for it.

Relationship to Prior Research

Previous empirical research has identified principal's perspectives as playing an important role in explaining discipline disparities (Welsh & Little, 2018). However, the present scholarship intersects more than just the responsibility of the principal. Although principals are at the head of the chain of command, the gatekeepers to their school's cultural factors and environment, it is indeed the Assistant Principals (AP) that handle the majority of issues relating to disciplinary actions for all students. The pivotal role of the assistant principal in executing behavioral outcomes for the student body, inclusive of the African male population, is quite impactful. Zero-tolerance policies as well as current alternative behavior supports are overwhelmingly decided by the assistant principal. Seventy-eight percent of principals acknowledged that their assistant was responsible for handling the discipline. Even more so than the dean (34%) who typically administers and enforces school policies related to discipline and student attendance.

APs play an unexpected, yet significant and overlooked role within the school setting in keeping with recent study commissioned by The Wallace Foundation, a national organization dedicated to fostering equity and improved learning for students and is keeping with national trend and direction of job reasonability for APs. Drawing on national data and across six states, the second in a series of reports commissioned by the Foundation on school leadership and its impact on students, researchers Goldring, Rubin, & Herrmann (2021) found that the job of APs increasingly included instructional leadership, management and student discipline. Interestingly, their findings coincide

with researchers Katina Pollock, Fei Wang & Cameron Hauseman (2017) work commissioned by the Ontario Principals' Council, in Canada. Their research found that APs there are also experiencing a change in their work tasks including taking on many responsibilities of the principal: student discipline and internal school management; not merely working longer hours.

Traditionally, principals often function as CEOs, goodwill ambassadors, as well as confidants and cheerleaders to students and staff alike. As principals, their schools must be reputable academic institutions and solvent businesses, must be strong contributors to the growth of the community around them, and provide places where students' learning environment is nurturing, and novice and veteran teachers can grow their careers (Garrett, 2015; National Association of Secondary School Principals & National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2013). Principals can directly intervene with punitive punishments, alternative punishments, the building of relationships, and, in the case of teaching principals who work at small schools, the oversight of their academic progress and education (Rafa, 2018; Moffitt, 2007; Smith et al., 2015; Murdoch, 2009).

However, today, research tells us that those responsibilities are being increasingly shared with APs; whose numbers have increased 83% over the past 25-years from 44,000 to 81,000 while over the same period the percentage of schools with APs increased from one-third to one-half of schools nationwide (Goldring, Rubin, & Herrmann, 2021). Additionally, with 75% of principals having spent time as APs, the position of AP is an important stop on the road to becoming Principal (Goldring, Rubin, & Herrmann, 2021).

Thus, APs unexpected, yet significantly changing nature of work and role within this study, and the educational public school system, has far reaching implications on types of disciplinary practices they implement and its impact on students, particularly students of color, as they perhaps rise to the position of principal. This, however, requires a discussion about the flexibility and sensitivity APs must have when metering out punishment, and that they recognize the sometimes elusive, yet tangible needs of African American male students. These needs may differ from the rest of the student population. Once recognized, the APs responses should be in line with behavioral intervention practices such as Restorative Justice (RJ) or Positive Behavioral Intervention and Support (PBIS). It should be noted that not all of the respondents to this research survey used some form of behavioral intervention in their school. Programs were as follows: Restorative Justice (60%), Positive Behavioral Intervention and Support (46%), Other-please specify; included none as a response (26.67%), Stanford Harmony (3.33%), The Leader in Me (3.33%), and Other (3.33%).

There are instances, however, where an AP as well as the principal may not interact with a student until it is time to discipline them (Grayman, 2019). Based on the literature, this type of relationship can often harm students of color, as they are more likely to be suspended for light infractions or, in extreme cases, no infraction at all (Grayman, 2019, para. 3). Therefore, the presence of a diverse academic staff is important, as the students who are underserved by distant principals need advocates who can intervene on their behalf. This may be the most impactful way to describe how principals can indirectly affect students' behavior. The recruitment, hiring, and retention of a diverse staff, particularly APs, can provide more targeted educational services to

students while also elevating the effectiveness and empathy of the students learning within.

The research design for this nonexperimental quantitative study invited participants to share personal perspectives on how comfortable they were with talking about race and thinking about their students who were of different races/ethnicities. The majority of respondents believed that they ran school environments that were quite positive and were comfortable with talking about race/ethnicity, 47% respectively. However, when the population of minority students was low, the higher the school climate positivity rate and the comfortability in talking about race and racism. We should not assume that when the discussion of race arises, it is concerning the race(s) of the minority student population. It could very well be in relation to the majority race of the staff and student body which further explained a higher level of comfortability. This correlation needs to be further investigated.

Bringing racial, ethnic, cultural, and gender diversity to leadership roles in schools can have long-term benefits; particularly in schools with a student body rooted in minority communities. When speaking of equity leadership, (Association of California School Administrators, 2018; Lewis, 2021; Hassle & Hassle, 2016; Xu, 2018) research states that school principals have a direct impact on students' ability to succeed and become more motivated in their education. The researcher's data supported current scholarly reports that identified a need for racial and gender diversity in the leadership role. Women make up almost 52% of the leadership seat in the U.S., but not in the high school grade band (NCES, 2017). The current research identified 34.8 % women

respondents, of which only 17% were minority women. Representation of men who identified as minority was even smaller at 4.3%.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals and the National Association of Elementary School Principals (2013) state that principals with strong leadership skills are the deciding factor in whether high-quality teachers decide to remain with a school. Specifically, the organizations write that strong principals can influence how beginner teachers advance within the profession. Good principals tend to develop younger teachers and help them transition into the field. Lesser principals, however, can expose everything that is difficult about the teaching profession and make novice educators afraid to continue their journeys (Moffitt, 2007; National Association of Secondary School Principals and the National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2013, p. 5). The current research noted that overwhelmingly, the respondents had 16 or more years of service. It is unclear why newer principals choose not to respond. A host of factors can include, non- tenured, overwhelmed with work and unable to find time to complete the survey, personal opinions that are not popular, uncomfortability with the topic, to name a few. It can be assumed that seasoned administrators feel more comfortable within the profession to reflect on their leadership practices or are closer to retirement and have the freedom to offer input without fear of retaliation.

More specifically, the survey analysis identified four emerging themes:
1. Predominant gender of high school principals surveyed were men (65.20%).
2. Majority of the principals surveyed identified their race as White (78.30%).

3. The years of service for the majority of surveyed high school principals was 11-20 years. Breakdown is as follows: 11- 15 year: 34.80%, and 16-20 years: 28.3%.

4. Demographics of student body populations and administrators were not progressively changing in tandem.

For example: As African Americans, Latinx and other minorities migrate from major urban and metropolitan areas to areas outlined in this study, the student bodies in those geographical areas are becoming more racially, ethnically, religiously, and culturally diverse (US Census, 2019). Yet, this research data tells us that the majority of the principals are White males. What is more, although the majority (41.30%) of the principals have been at their present school for five years or less, collectively (89.20%), years of service range from a period of six-to more than 21 years. Examining the data a bit closer we find that 17.40% of the principals had from 16-to more than 21 years of service at the same school. Hence, while the student body is evolving, the principals and their leadership positions remain stagnant. The infusion of new candidates are not represented in the data. It appears that long standing administrators are circulated through the principal vacancies within the surveyed counties.

Each principal identified discipline outcomes for Daquan, a fictitious African American male student case study. In the scenario, we find the student had involved himself in two teacher/school infractions that escalated over time 1) disrupting the class, and 2) refusal to comply with the teacher's directives.

In infraction 1, the majority of principals responded that the student's behavior was only slightly to not really severe, nor did it require disciplinary actions. For infraction 2, we find even lower reports on severity of behavior and garnered no

disciplinary actions. Daquan was not identified as a troublemaker, however respondents believed that his behavior was indicative of a pattern. Although the infractions occurred during instructional time, the hindrance on the teacher's class period was rated low. When we look at the data, we see that his behavior was not considered to be problematic in the learning environment, however in the absence of suspension, the majority of participants still opted to give 2 days of detention to the fictional student. In comparison to the study findings of Jarvis and Okonofua (2019), the principals in their district survey did identify the fictitious student as being problematic and requiring a consequence after the second infraction.

When evaluating how this information relates to principals' ability to influence equity, it is evident that principals can reduce the amount of bias within their schools by paying attention to the environments they create for their students. The Association for California School Administrators (2018) writes that principals must recognize the historic imbalances of power between race, ability, gender, financial background, etc. as they work to create equity within their own school. The underwhelming presence of Latinx and African American administrators and teachers provides an example of this recommendation, as students of color are more likely to be punitively punished than White students (Grayman, 2019).

Principals in small and large schools show an interest in their students' wellbeing and social and academic development (Garrett, 2015). Unlike the racial and ethnic background of principals, the size of their school does not appear to affect how they are able to build equitable and empowering environments. However, there were expressions of teaching principals being upset at management-related issues such as intruding into

their classrooms throughout the course of the school year in Murdoch's (2009) research. One reason for this was a sense of the teaching principals' disappointment for taking time away from their classes to handle administrative and core business tasks they felt were different from overall purpose. In this demographic of principals, many of Murdoch's respondents felt a sense of joy and purpose from being able to teach students directly. However, this did not mean that small school principals were more invested than large school principals in the long-term benefit and success of their students.

Limitations of the Study

This nonexperimental quantitative study sought to explore the relationship between school principals' perceptions of their equity-focused leadership practices and the relationship with their perceptions of the student behavioral outcomes in public high schools. Quantitative research methods represented a useful and effective approach to understanding (Creswell, 1998) the "perceptions of principals' equity leadership in connection to factors such as race, gender, years of service" as related to behavior outcomes for Black males students. Quantitative methods emphasized objective measurements and the statistical, mathematical, or numerical analysis of data collected through polls, questionnaires, and surveys, or by manipulating pre-existing statistical data using computational techniques. Quantitative research focused on gathering numerical data and generalizing it across groups of people or to explain a particular phenomenon (Babbie, 2010; Muijs, 2010). By using quantitative methods, researchers can better understand how widespread a phenomenon, belief system or biased action can be.

Although this research produced compelling data, there were a number of limitations that impacted the validity of the data collected and interpretation of that data.

One of the limitations included small sample size. There was a limited pool of responses; out of 207 emails sent, there were only 46 participants over a 20 week open survey window. Hence, given the number of emails sent, a small percentage of principals participated in the survey.

The study sampled nine New York Counties that represented a mix of city, suburbia, and rural areas. However, data collected did not identify the geographical area of each of the schools because some counties were very small, and anonymity would have been compromised. Hence, the inability to identify and insure a diverse geographical location, the data cannot be generalized throughout New York state or the United States.

Due to the current social and racial climate and the Black Lives Matter movement, in the United States, no one wants to appear biased or insensitive to gender or racial inequities and injustices. Although it was very clear in the instructions that all the identities would be unknown, there might have been more than a slight bit of hesitation in taking part in the survey, particularly after the questions were read and digested. Perhaps questions appeared to be "loaded" to principals who did not participate. In addition, for participants who do not want to be perceived as biased or insensitive, it could be inferred that their responses were inflated regarding equity practices when interacting with Black male students.

Research outcomes for African American male students in a purposefully selected set of counties in New York State is limited and does not focus on other racial and gender identities. The demographics present in this nonexperimental study are narrow. Hence

they cannot be generalized to address a significant population of African American male students in all high school settings or any other group of students.

As an African American female principal, the researcher carried professional knowledge, information that may have biased and influenced the approach to the subject matter. With over twenty years as an educator, the researcher had the opportunity to experience multiple settings that broaden their understanding of how Black male students were disciplined.

Gender, race/ethnicity, and years of experience were limited variables that could have been expanded to include others such as area demographics, poverty, title 1 status, free or reduced lunch, size of school, etc.

Although the original survey window was specified to be five weeks, the window stayed open for twenty weeks. To encourage more participation, the time allotment for the study could have been extended.

Finally, COVID-19 has challenged and stressed the traditional school setting. From 2020-2022, attendance levels in schools were significantly lowered as classes went to virtual and remote learning, thus becoming part of a new norm. Consequently, altering the interactions logged between teachers, students and administrators that garner data on student behavior outcomes for infractions. This could also explain the low participation rate among principals.

Recommendations for Future Practice

Significant implications for future equitable principal practice, and outcomes for African American male students can be derived from the survey findings in this research including the importance of diversity hiring practices throughout the United States.

Studies concluded that principal racial and ethnic diversity is an important determinant of the racial and ethnic diversity of a school's teaching faculty (Grissom, Egalite & Lindsay, 2021).

Another aspect of schools that can restrict educator capacity is educator evaluation systems that privilege towards student's academic achievement over the other important outcomes for children and youth (Coggshall, Osher, & Colombi, 2013). Current evaluation systems that support the quick removal of students perceived as unable to perform, i.e.., students with disabilities or individualized educational plans should be considered for revision.

It is to the advantage of school districts and preparation programs to address equity vision development and culturally responsive pedagogy needs through increased ongoing professional learning, internships, mentorship, equity audits and consistent data analysis. An example of professional learning can be sensitivity training within preparation programs for administrators. As educational servants in increasingly racially, ethnically, and socioeconomically diverse communities, communities that might differ from their own backgrounds, should take into consideration what could be happening beyond the student's classroom environment. More thought should be given to factors that potentially drive student's adverse actions. Today, more than ever, there is a need to redefine the purpose of educating the whole child. However, if the educational system continues to take the approach of administering discipline from a code manual, we are doubling down on students that possibly have challenging factors that already have severe implications, including poverty, shelter, and food insecurities. Challenges that affect their academic performance and behavior. Educators who are culturally aware,

have the disposition/ knowledge to establish supportive relationships with students and the capacity to utilize positive behavioral approaches must be afforded the time, and structure to enact those critical capabilities.

Widespread adoption and continued implementation of alternative disciplinary programs where results are analyzed. The US Department of Education's (2014) Guiding Principles report called for schools to deliberately put forth efforts that create positive school climates and the implementation of proportional, developmentally appropriate consequences. Discipline tactics should emphasize constructive interventions that offer tiered supports in the classroom setting.

Recommendations for Future Research

Although the research produced a small pool of responses, nonetheless, based on what was learned, there is a compelling case for a reexamination. Key examination areas are principals who practice equity leadership, the relationship between the principal and AP, leadership style and its impact on the AP, as well as how the pool of school leaders has diversified, and their equity leadership practices onward minority students.

Principals who practice equity leadership can address equity deficiencies by creating cultures that encourage colleagues, teachers, and students to practice alternative forms of discipline and cultural synchronization. The intentional creation of opportunities for students from minority backgrounds to clearly state what they need from their school community needs to be prioritized by its leader. One way to fast track this creation of equity is to hire principals who effectively represent the students. The principal's record on suspension, professional development offerings around equity and cultural responsiveness, community engagement and relationship building with students

offer examples of effectiveness factors/drivers.   As the current data analysis identified

veteran administrators in new school environments, candidates such as these should have

a plethora of evidence to this effect to share with hiring committees and community

stakeholders. Administrative candidates should exhibit the diversity of the student bodies

they supervise. Innovative thinking that encompasses organizational leadership for

equity should be evident within the culture of the school community. However, there are

barriers that prevent this from happening. Barriers such as anti-CRT State legislations,

lack of diversity and support for minorities and women administrator candidates,

traditional European themed curricula, colorblind ideologies, and fixed mindsets to name

a few. Thus, research that examines how principals develop and lead through equitable

practices needs further attention. Systemic policies and their subjective implementation

toward students of color hinder permanent changes for these students.   An in-depth root

cause analysis should be conducted to identify the reasons why alternative discipline

measures have had minimal impact on punitive consequences for African American

males.

Critical race theory and cultural responsiveness in education need to be further

dissected so that school boards, staff, and parent bodies understand the differences of

each and their individual importance to the transformation of school leadership and

learning environments. Although the literature in connection to equitable leadership in

education through a CRT lens is new and limited, the three drivers from the

Organizational Leadership in Equity framework served as a complimentary tool through

which turning equity commitment into organizational norms can happen.

Consequently, research on principals' attitudes and perceptions of African American male student behavior is necessary to better understand how to quell the disproportionality of exclusionary discipline practices used. Principals are gatekeepers to the school to prison pipeline. Inquiry work that includes equity audits and disciplinary report analysis can begin the development of sustainable practices that can move the needle.

The researcher recommends conducting the same survey five years from now to examine if the pool of newly hired administrative candidates has diversified to resemble the cultural/ethnic changes found in the student populations/ communities that they serve.

Research should be conducted to collect additional information regarding the role of the assistant principal, including their gender, race, years in position of leadership, as well as the collective belief of the administrative cabinet around behavioral outcomes for all students. The relationship between the principal and the assistant principal needs further examination. Leadership style and its impact on the assistant principal is critical. If the AP role also comprises the discipline of students and other interactions with staff and the overall community, it is imperative that the administrative cabinet have one vision, one mission and one prescribed way of carrying it out.

Training and supervision of assistant principals need to be better aligned to that of the principal. If the expectation is that APs grow through the ranks to become principals, it is most important that equity leadership practices are a focal point of administration programs as a whole.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the role equity leadership preparation will play in the future is paramount. Equity in education is not an isolated or additional program to be put into practice at a later date and time. Indeed, there is currently a gap where leaders and staff should use an equity lens to guide their beliefs, practices and decision-making. Higher education shares a great responsibility in designing preparation courses that encompass more than theory and curriculum. Teaching equitable practices that are utilized in school systems needs to be a bare minimum expectation for course work completion. Leading with equity and balance are not skill sets that come about haphazardly. They must be planned for, practiced, refined, and revised. All, which should happen in a higher ed. setting prior to being at the helm of a school where real students can be negatively impacted. Universities and colleges have a responsibility to review their current offerings and ensure that equity-focused leadership courses are part of the curriculum.

As school administrators, we must ask ourselves if the work we currently do helps to transform the lives of the marginalized students that we serve. It is our responsibility and obligation to have the courageous conversations around race, equality, equity and excellence. We must challenge, investigate, and dismantle educational policies and practices that serve as divides for attainment of success for some children. The DEI framework reminds us to be vigilant and guard against the danger of a single story (Young, Jr, 2021). Giving students opportunities to share and learn from multiple perspectives widens the current, narrow and often singular points of view that might not be valid but often go undisputed. With awesome power comes awesome responsibility. Structural and historical norms that were ingrained in racist policies and practices, need

to be kept in the past. Society can no longer afford to allow the upcoming generation of learners to become collateral damage when those power structures and policies no longer serve or represent future best interests.

APPENDIX A: IRB APPROVAL

* External Email

Federal Wide Assurance: FWA00009066

Nov 15, 2021 8:03:57 AM EST

PI: Michelle Soussoudis
CO-PI: Joan Birringer-Haig
Dept: Ed Admin & Instruc Leadership

Re: Initial - IRB-FY2022-127 *THE PRINCIPAL EFFECT: EXAMINING ADMINISTRATORS'*
INFLUENCES ON BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE STUDENTS

Dear Michelle Soussoudis:

The St John's University Institutional Review Board has rendered the decision below for
THE PRINCIPAL EFFECT: EXAMINING ADMINISTRATORS' INFLUENCES ON BEHAVIORAL
OUTCOMES FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE STUDENTS.

Decision: Exempt

PLEASE NOTE: If you have collected any data prior to this approval date, the data must
be discarded.

Selected Category: Category 2.(i). Research that only includes interactions involving
educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures,
interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory
recording).

The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the
identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through
identifiers linked to the subjects.

Category 2.(ii). Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests
(cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures,
or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording).

Any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research would not
reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the
subjects' financial standing, employability, educational advancement, or reputation.

Sincerely,

Raymond DiGiuseppe, PhD, ABPP
Chair, Institutional Review Board
Professor of Psychology

Marie Nitopi, Ed.D.
IRB Coordinator

CAUTION - External email. Do not click links or open attachments unless you recognize the sender and know the content is safe.

APPENDIX B: 2013-14 DISCIPLINE ESTIMATIONS BY TYPE

Table 233.30.   Number of students suspended and expelled from public elementary and secondary schools, by sex, race/ethnicity, and state: 2013-14

State	Number receiving out-of-school suspensions[1]										Number expelled[2]									
	Total	Sex		Race/ethnicity[3]							Total	Sex		Race/ethnicity[3]						
		Male	Female	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Pacific Islander[4]	American Indian/ Alaska Native	Two or more races		Male	Female	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Pacific Islander	American Indian/ Alaska Native	Two or more races
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
United States	2,635,743	1,860,002	775,741	843,381	1,042,991	554,498	26,499	8,784	35,756	78,469	111,215	82,787	28,428	49,144	33,557	18,271	790	241	1,944	4,613
Alabama	59,129	40,077	19,052	18,841	37,614	1,214	156	28	251	727	1,379	1,053	326	387	892	26	0	1-3	1-3	61
Alaska	6,526	4,832	1,694	2,152	385	408	163	206	2,591	524	108	89	19	22	9	14	0	1-3	37	12
Arizona	57,055	42,110	14,945	17,268	6,410	26,296	471	201	4,670	1,187	434	327	107	157	39	191	1-3	4	22	13
Arkansas	33,585	23,608	9,977	13,216	17,134	2,029	103	84	148	381	846	625	221	492	224	54	5	1-3	14	9
California	249,111	184,217	64,894	49,660	42,997	133,414	7,978	2,097	3,001	6,944	8,741	6,999	1,742	1,938	1,346	4,643	241	58	109	249
Colorado	38,673	28,197	10,476	14,869	4,530	16,743	363	72	450	1,463	1,306	1,066	240	508	167	519	15	7	25	46
Connecticut	21,523	14,721	6,802	6,059	6,293	7,427	206	(*)	94	421	1,222	1,006	216	499	340	301	9	0	4	20
Delaware	11,459	7,537	3,922	2,759	6,494	1,109	79	9	54	212	115	84	31	40	61	11	0	0	0	1-3
District of Columbia	9,471	5,898	3,573	61	8,783	474	17	9	7	46	112	67	45	1-3	103	5	0	0	1-3	0
Florida	136,931	98,570	38,361	39,427	60,625	31,078	697	102	411	4,123	155	120	35	51	64	30	0	0	1-3	7
Georgia	126,549	87,764	38,785	25,592	85,137	10,198	779	129	168	3,610	2,768	2,058	710	787	1,669	147	12	17	7	100
Hawaii	6,497	4,650	1,847	633	173	534	1,217	3,299	45	412	8	6	1-3	0	0	1-3	1-3	1-3	0	0
Idaho	7,445	5,695	1,750	5,161	114	1,623	48	30	193	139	168	135	33	100	4	49	1-3	0	9	1-3
Illinois	139,521	94,651	44,870	28,808	76,744	26,887	797	87	279	3,477	2,682	1,898	784	1,058	1,210	228	20	0	11	114
Indiana	69,891	49,417	20,474	32,584	24,674	6,385	284	20	150	4,472	5,229	3,660	1,569	2,743	1,305	546	19	5	16	235
Iowa	12,980	9,466	3,514	7,637	2,930	1,430	120	23	85	711	180	157	23	131	24	18	1-3	0	0	4
Kansas	19,861	14,509	5,352	9,059	4,982	3,948	160	29	326	1,244	787	604	183	417	121	146	6	1-3	17	65
Kentucky	33,336	24,335	9,001	21,906	8,849	1,088	89	20	49	1,131	353	276	77	280	42	14	0	0	1-3	12
Louisiana	59,380	40,200	19,180	14,995	37,069	1,407	194	26	315	663	4,397	3,230	1,167	991	2,937	55	7	1-3	24	41
Maine	6,015	4,458	1,557	5,151	374	135	33	4	39	76	189	148	41	164	8	4	0	0	0	7
Maryland	45,772	31,425	14,347	9,858	28,189	4,039	403	33	150	1,561	786	574	212	73	618	41	1-3	1-3	4	14
Massachusetts	40,494	28,701	11,793	15,272	8,937	13,138	724	22	135	1,571	327	254	73	173	47	65	1-3	0	1-3	26
Michigan	114,844	79,742	35,102	47,847	54,346	6,671	785	53	939	3,491	2,239	1,686	553	1,226	764	142	18	0	14	58
Minnesota	28,258	20,140	8,118	11,981	10,139	2,780	603	20	1,439	1,060	840	642	198	495	177	67	14	0	31	45
Mississippi	47,813	32,503	15,310	10,746	36,188	630	88	9	67	50	1,418	1,071	347	331	1,062	10	6	0	1-3	6
Missouri	51,905	36,657	15,248	25,991	21,765	2,036	271	56	227	1,205	3,124	2,111	1,013	2,274	478	235	1-3	8	18	101
Montana	5,276	3,810	1,466	2,901	63	154	14	7	2,022	67	204	141	63	84	1-3	6	0	0	89	18
Nebraska	13,056	9,391	3,665	6,015	3,288	2,464	130	14	416	671	918	674	244	350	279	187	12	0	29	53
Nevada	20,845	14,921	5,924	5,611	4,820	8,062	390	197	309	1,088	1,898	1,428	470	347	347	793	36	14	15	95
New Hampshire	9,105	6,689	2,416	6,647	658	1,197	122	16	41	124	34	26	8	33	0	0	0	0	0	0
New Jersey	59,240	40,780	18,460	14,324	25,635	16,959	1,019	39	67	606	200	157	43	82	74	36	1-3	0	0	5
New Mexico	21,060	14,173	6,887	3,977	639	13,769	11	11	2,033	455	1,955	1,380	575	295	80	1,400	13	0	99	60
New York	88,032	61,285	26,747	33,087	34,424	15,224	1,142	71	633	1,616	2,490	1,868	622	1,360	633	343	21	0	20	54
North Carolina	101,924	72,183	29,741	28,901	52,807	11,012	495	81	2,510	3,899	870	655	215	247	449	91	4	1-3	20	42
North Dakota	2,304	1,661	643	1,232	180	89	11	1-3	749	6	93	71	22	28	21	6	0	0	38	0
Ohio	125,976	88,165	37,811	59,601	50,817	5,298	488	51	177	7,094	31,059	22,594	8,465	19,501	7,698	1,025	94	27	59	1,709
Oklahoma	38,622	27,667	10,955	15,186	10,549	5,804	155	87	4,627	1,960	7,318	5,150	2,168	2,528	2,288	987	15	13	881	589
Oregon	23,282	17,479	5,803	13,785	1,244	5,420	271	164	593	1,369	1,159	906	253	714	35	267	9	9	41	65
Pennsylvania	97,711	67,221	30,490	35,376	44,221	12,341	762	55	125	3,515	1,899	1,420	479	991	493	294	7	1-3	6	81
Rhode Island	8,777	6,227	2,550	3,551	1,395	2,984	121	9	123	392	61	40	21	32	4	17	0	0	1-3	6
South Carolina	76,755	52,380	24,375	23,713	46,387	3,232	207	51	226	1,903	2,851	2,176	675	883	1,775	80	10	0	16	63
South Dakota	3,634	2,620	1,014	1,971	250	233	32	1-3	983	104	36	28	8	15	4	1-3	0	1-3	14	0
Tennessee	66,130	45,490	20,640	22,676	38,759	3,258	298	29	96	663	4,245	3,200	1,045	1,595	2,299	221	15	4	4	50
Texas	246,474	173,302	73,172	35,826	76,431	118,651	1,728	233	832	3,689	7,821	6,093	1,728	1,692	1,890	3,669	57	7	68	125
Utah	10,711	8,222	2,489	6,257	350	3,061	127	234	372	231	148	120	28	65	4	43	7	1-3	5	1-3
Vermont	3,257	2,379	878	2,770	121	40	12	1-3	63	50	44	33	11	39	5	0	0	0	0	0
Virginia	72,448	51,235	21,212	24,401	37,324	5,649	668	71	189	2,817	819	634	185	314	310	119	11	1-3	6	45
Washington	48,972	36,844	12,128	23,513	5,056	11,989	1,091	660	1,388	3,839	3,496	2,726	770	1,580	266	1,001	82	49	125	281
West Virginia	20,724	15,070	5,654	18,154	1,773	171	20	4	14	315	491	403	88	431	43	6	1-3	0	1-3	4
Wisconsin	34,494	24,495	9,999	14,234	14,280	3,860	241	22	709	1,030	1,088	825	263	494	444	98	7	0	23	14
Wyoming	2,910	2,233	677	2,129	65	456	14	4	176	95	105	93	12	74	1-3	18	0	0	8	1-3

[1] An out-of-school suspension is an instance in which a student is temporarily removed from his or her regular school for disciplinary purposes for at least half a day (but less than the remainder of the school year) to another setting (e.g., home or behavior center).

[2] Expulsions are actions taken by a local education agency that result in the removal of a student from his or her regular school for disciplinary purposes, with or without the continuation of educational services, for the remainder of the school year or longer in accordance with local education agency policy. Expulsions also include removals resulting from violations of the Gun Free Schools Act that are modified to less than 365 days.

[3] Data by race/ethnicity exclude students with disabilities served only under Section 504 (not receiving services under IDEA).

[4] Connecticut Pacific Islander data are suppressed and excluded from the Pacific Islander U.S. total pending further data quality review.

NOTE: Student counts between 1 and 3 are displayed as 1-3 to protect student privacy. Detail may not sum to totals because of privacy protection routines applied to the data. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, Civil Rights Data Collection, "2013-14 Discipline Estimations by Discipline Type." (This table was prepared January 2018.)

Survey Participants		
Total Count	46	100%

Gender		
Male	30	65.2%
Female	16	34.8%

Race		
White or Caucasian	36	76.6%
Black or African American	7	14.9%
Hispanic or Latino	2	4.3%
Asian or Asian American	1	2.1%
American Indian or Alaska Native	0	0.0%
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	0	0.0%
Another race	0	0.0%
Multiracial or Biracial	1	2.1%

Number of years as an administrator		
1-5	5	10.9%
6-10	7	15.2%
11-15	16	34.8%
16-20	13	28.3%
21 or more	5	10.9%

Numbers of years working in current location		
1-5 years	19	41.3%
6-10 years	12	26.1%
11-15 years	7	15.2%
16-20 years	5	10.9%
21 or more years	3	6.5%

How ethnically diverse is your staff?		
Not at all diverse	8	17.39%
Slightly diverse	29	63.04%
Somewhat diverse	9	19.57%
Quite diverse	0	0.00%
Very diverse	0	0.00%

How racially/ ethnically diverse is your student body?		
Not at all diverse	3	6.8%
Slightly diverse	12	27.3%
Somewhat diverse	9	20.5%
Quite diverse	9	20.5%
Very diverse	11	25.0%

How would you describe the culture/ climate of your building?		
Not at all positive	0	0.0%
Slightly positive	4	8.7%
Somewhat positive	15	32.6%
Quite positive	21	45.7%
Very positive	6	13.0%

How comfortable are you with discussions about race/racism?		
Not comfortable at all	0	0.0%
Slightly comfortable	2	4.4%
Somewhat comfortable	12	26.7%
Quite comfortable	19	42.2%
Very comfortable	12	26.7%

APPENDIX D: NINE COUNTY DEMOGRAPHICS TABLE

DEMOGRAPHICS FOR NINE COUNTIES SURROUNDING THE NEW YORK CITY METROPOLITAN AREA: DUTCHESS, NASSAU, ORANGE, PUTNAM, ROCKLAND, SULFOLK, SULLIVAN, ULSTER AND WESTCHESTER

	DUTCHESS COUNTY	NASSAU COUNTY	ORANGE COUNTY	PUTNAM COUNTY	ROCKLAND COUNTY	SULFOLK COUNTY	SULLIVAN COUNTY	ULSTER COUNTY	WESTCHESTER COUNTY
POPULATION	293,754	1,356,509	380,085	98,787	324,422	1,483,832	1,483,832	178,665	968,890
RACE & ETHNICITY									
White alone	78.2%	68%	74.1%	86.9%	70.7%	80.7%	79.8%	84.5%	64.3%
Black or African American	10.5%	11.7%	11.0%	3.1%	12.3%	7.8%	8.0%	6.0%	14.9%
American Indian and Alaska Native	0.3%	0.3%	0.4%	0.2%	0.2%	0.3%	0.3%	0.2%	0.4%
Asian alone	3.5%	9.7%	2.7%	2.1%	5.9%	3.9%	1.7%	1.9%	6.0%
Native Hawaiian & other Pacific Islander alone	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%
Some other race alone	3.8%	7.3%	8.2%	5.7%	8.3%	5.0%	5.7%	3.1%	11.4%
Two or more races	3.5%	3.0%	3.5%	2.1%	2.7%	2.3%	4.6%	4.2%	3.1%
Hispanic or Latinx (regardless of race)	12.2% +/-	16.9% +/-	20.5% +/-	15.0% +/-	17.7% +/-	19.3% +/-	16.0% +/-	10.2% +/-	24.7% +/-
POVERTY (in children under 18)	11.6%	6.7%	18.1%	3.9%	24.1%	9.1%	23.8%	17.2%	10.4%

2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates—United States Census Bureau

DUTCHESS COUNTY, NY PROFILE

Dutchess County, New York
County, or equivalent in New York
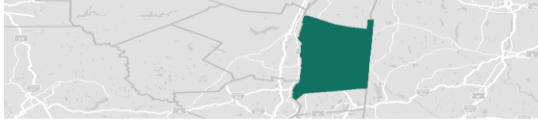
Covering 795.4 square miles, Dutchess County, New York is the 26th-largest county in New York by area. Dutchess County, New York is bordered by Berkshire County,Ulster County,Columbia County,Orange County,Putnam County, Fairfield County,and Litchfield County.

POPULATION
293,754

MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME
$81,219

POVERTY RATE
9.0%

BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR HIGHER
35.0%

People and Population

Age and Sex
42.2 +/- 0.2

Median age in Dutchess County, New York

38.1 +/- 0.1

Median age in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Age Range in Dutchess County, New York

Under 5 years - 4.6%

18 years and older - 80.9%

65 years and older - 17.1%

Race and Ethnicity

Race
293,754 +/- *****

Total population in Dutchess County, New York

324,697,795 +/- *****

Total population in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Race in Dutchess County, New York

White alone - 78.2%

Black or African American alone - 10.5%

American Indian and Alaska Native alone - 0.3%

Asian alone - 3.5%

Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone - 0.1%

Some other race alone - 3.8%

Two or more races - 3.5%

Education

Educational Attainment
91.1% +/- 0.5%

High school graduate or higher in Dutchess County, New York

88.0% +/- 0.1%

High school graduate or higher in the United States

Table: DP02
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Education Attainment in Dutchess County, New York

High School or equivalent degree - 26.8%

Some college, no degree - 18.4%

Associate's degree - 10.9%

Bachelor's degree - 19.0%

Graduate or professional degree - 16.0%

Poverty
11.6% +/- 1.7%

Children under 18 in poverty in Dutchess County, New York

18.5% +/- 0.2%

Children under 18 in poverty in the United States

Table: DP03
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Children Under 18 in Poverty in Dutchess County, New York by County

3.9%   6.7%   13.9%   18.3%   24.1%   39.2%

128
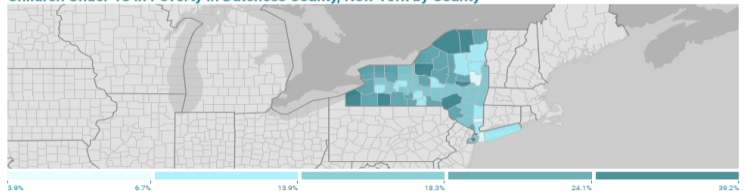
Nassau County, New York
County, or equivalent in New York

Covering 284.7 square miles, Nassau County, New York is the 54th-largest county in New York by area. Nassau County, New York is bordered by Westchester County,Bronx County,Fairfield County,Suffolk County, and Queens County.

POPULATION	MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME	POVERTY RATE	BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR HIGHER
1,356,509	$116,100	5.6%	46.0%

People and Population

Age and Sex
41.7 +/- 0.1
Median age in Nassau County, New York

38.1 +/- 0.1
Median age in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Age Range in Nassau County, New York

Under 5 years - 5.5%

18 years and older - 78.3%

65 years and older - 17.5%

Race and Ethnicity

Race
1,356,509 +/- *****
Total population in Nassau County, New York

324,697,795 +/- *****
Total population in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Race in Nassau County, New York

White alone - 68.0%
Black or African American alone - 11.7%
American Indian and Alaska Native alone - 0.3%
Asian alone - 9.7%
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone - 0.0%
Some other race alone - 7.3%
Two or more races - 3.0%

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Hispanic or Latino
16.9% +/- *****
Hispanic or Latino in Nassau County, New York

18.0% +/- 0.1%
Hispanic or Latino in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Hispanic or Latino (Regardless of Race) in Nassau County, New York by County
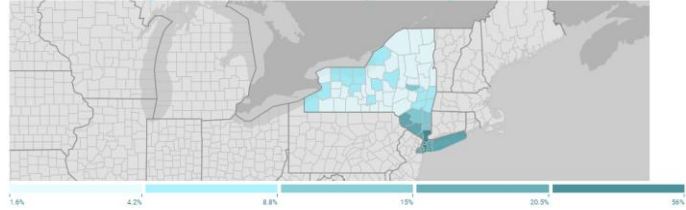
Education

Educational Attainment
91.4% +/- 0.2%
High school graduate or higher in Nassau County, New York

88.0% +/- 0.1%
High school graduate or higher in the United States

Table: DP02
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Education Attainment in Nassau County, New York

High School or equivalent degree - 22.7%
Some college, no degree - 14.8%
Associate's degree - 7.9%
Bachelor's degree - 25.3%
Graduate or professional degree - 20.7%

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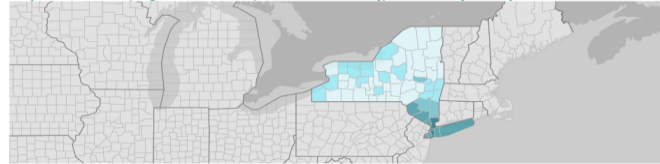
Poverty
6.7% +/- 0.5%
Children under 18 in poverty in Nassau County, New York

18.5% +/- 0.2%
Children under 18 in poverty in the United States

Table: DP03
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Children Under 18 in Poverty in Nassau County, New York by County
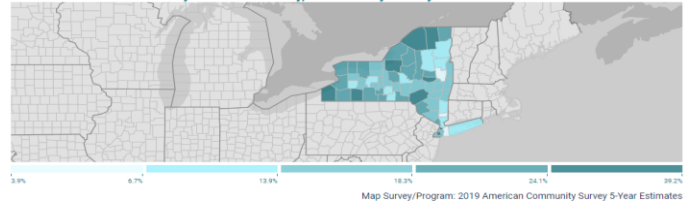
Map Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

ORANGE COUNTY, NY PROFILE

Orange County, New York
County, or equivalent in New York
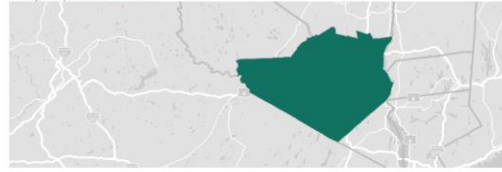
Covering 812.1 square miles, Orange County, New York is the 24th-largest county in New York by area. Orange County, New York is bordered by Pike County,Sullivan County,Ulster County,Rockland County,Putnam County, Sussex County,Dutchess County,and Passaic County.

POPULATION	MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME	POVERTY RATE	BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR HIGHER
380,085	$79,944	11.6%	30.3%

People and Population

Age and Sex
37.0 +/- 0.2

Median age in Orange County, New York

38.1 +/- 0.1

Median age in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Age Range in Orange County, New York

Under 5 years - 6.6%

18 years and older - 74.4%

65 years and older - 13.7%

Race and Ethnicity

Race
380,085 +/- *****

Total population in Orange County, New York

324,697,795 +/- *****

Total population in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Race in Orange County, New York

White alone - 74.1%

Black or African American alone - 11.0%

American Indian and Alaska Native alone - 0.4%

Asian alone - 2.7%

Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone - 0.1%

Some other race alone - 8.2%

Two or more races - 3.5%

Hispanic or Latino
20.5% +/- *****

Hispanic or Latino in Orange County, New York

18.0% +/- 0.1%

Hispanic or Latino in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Hispanic or Latino (Regardless of Race) in Orange County, New York by County
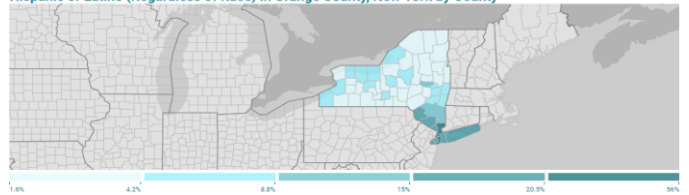
Poverty
18.1% +/- 1.3%

Children under 18 in poverty in Orange County, New York

18.5% +/- 0.2%

Children under 18 in poverty in the United States

Table: DP03
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Children Under 18 in Poverty in Orange County, New York by County
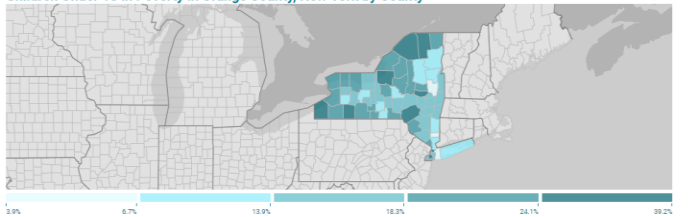
PUTNAM COUNTY, NY PROFILE

Putnam County, New York
County, or equivalent in New York
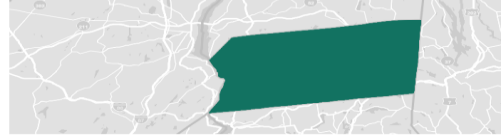
Covering 230.3 square miles, Putnam County, New York is the 55th-largest county in New York by area. Putnam County, New York is bordered by Westchester County, Orange County, Rockland County, Fairfield County, and Dutchess County.

POPULATION	MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME	POVERTY RATE	BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR HIGHER
98,787	$104,486	5.0%	39.6%

People and Population

Age and Sex
44.2 +/- 0.2

Median age in Putnam County, New York

38.1 +/- 0.1

Median age in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Age Range in Putnam County, New York

Under 5 years - 4.4%

18 years and older - 79.9%

65 years and older - 16.7%

Race and Ethnicity

Race
98,787 +/- *****

Total population in Putnam County, New York

324,697,795 +/- *****

Total population in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Race in Putnam County, New York

White alone - 86.9%

Black or African American alone - 3.1%

American Indian and Alaska Native alone - 0.2%

Asian alone - 2.1%

Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone - 0.0%

Some other race alone - 5.7%

Two or more races - 2.1%

Hispanic or Latino
15.0% +/- *****

Hispanic or Latino in Putnam County, New York

18.0% +/- 0.1%

Hispanic or Latino in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Hispanic or Latino (Regardless of Race) in Putnam County, New York by County

1.6% 4.2% 8.8% 15% 20.5% 56%
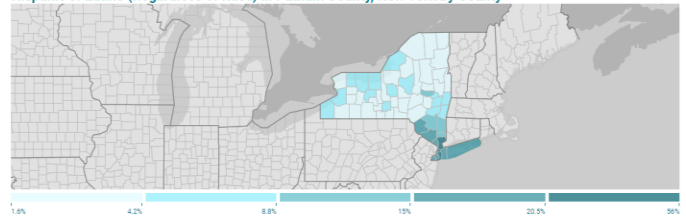
Poverty
3.9% +/- 1.2%

Children under 18 in poverty in Putnam County, New York

18.5% +/- 0.2%

Children under 18 in poverty in the United States

Table: DP03
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Children Under 18 in Poverty in Putnam County, New York by County

3.9% 6.7% 13.9% 18.3% 24.1% 39.2%
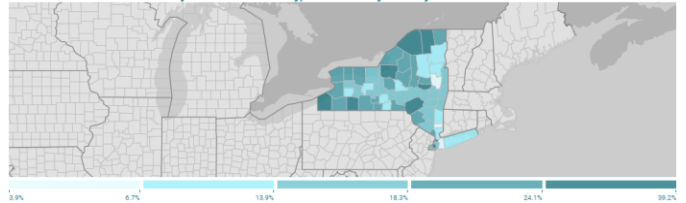
ROCKLAND COUNTY, NY PROFILE

Rockland County, New York
County, or equivalent in New York

Covering 173.4 square miles, Rockland County, New York is the 57th-largest county in New York by area. Rockland County, New York is bordered by Westchester County,Orange County,Putnam County,Bergen County, and Passaic County.

POPULATION	MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME	POVERTY RATE	BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR HIGHER
324,422	$93,024	13.9%	41.1%

People and Population

Age and Sex
36.0 +/- 0.1

Median age in Rockland County, New York

38.1 +/- 0.1

Median age in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Age Range in Rockland County, New York

Under 5 years - 7.9%

18 years and older - 72.0%

65 years and older - 15.5%

Race and Ethnicity

Race
324,422 +/- *****

Total population in Rockland County, New York

324,697,795 +/- *****

Total population in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Race in Rockland County, New York

White alone - 70.7%

Black or African American alone - 12.3%

American Indian and Alaska Native alone - 0.2%

Asian alone - 5.9%

Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone - 0.0%

Some other race alone - 8.3%

Two or more races - 2.7%

Hispanic or Latino
17.7% +/- *****

Hispanic or Latino in Rockland County, New York

18.0% +/- 0.1%

Hispanic or Latino in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Hispanic or Latino (Regardless of Race) in Rockland County, New York by County

Poverty
24.1% +/- 1.9%

Children under 18 in poverty in Rockland County, New York

18.5% +/- 0.2%

Children under 18 in poverty in the United States

Table: DP03
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Children Under 18 in Poverty in Rockland County, New York by County
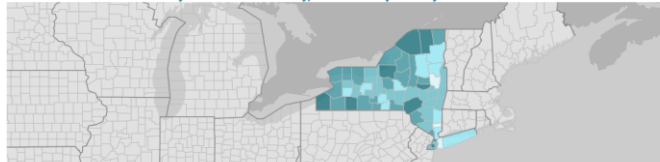
SUFFOLK COUNTY, NY PROFILE

Suffolk County, New York
County, or equivalent in New York
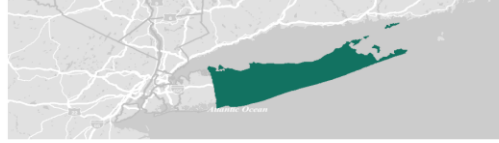
Covering 911.5 square miles, Suffolk County, New York is the 20th-largest county in New York by area. Suffolk County, New York is bordered by Washington County,Fairfield County,New Haven County,New London County, Nassau County,and Middlesex County.

POPULATION	MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME	POVERTY RATE	BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR HIGHER
1,483,832	$101,031	6.9%	36.3%

People and Population

Age and Sex
41.5 +/- 0.1
Median age in Suffolk County, New York

38.1 +/- 0.1
Median age in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Age Range in Suffolk County, New York

Under 5 years - 5.4%

18 years and older - 78.6%

65 years and older - 16.5%

Race and Ethnicity

Race
1,483,832 +/- *****
Total population in Suffolk County, New York

324,697,795 +/- *****
Total population in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Race in Suffolk County, New York

White alone - 80.7%
Black or African American alone - 7.8%
American Indian and Alaska Native alone - 0.3%
Asian alone - 3.9%
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone - 0.0%
Some other race alone - 5.0%
Two or more races - 2.3%

### Hispanic or Latino
19.3% +/- *****
Hispanic or Latino in Suffolk County, New York

18.0% +/- 0.1%
Hispanic or Latino in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Hispanic or Latino (Regardless of Race) in Suffolk County, New York by County
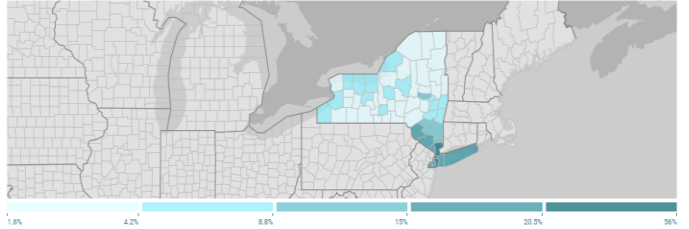

Poverty
9.1% +/- 0.8%
Children under 18 in poverty in Suffolk County, New York

18.5% +/- 0.2%
Children under 18 in poverty in the United States

Table: DP03
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Children Under 18 in Poverty in Suffolk County, New York by County

133
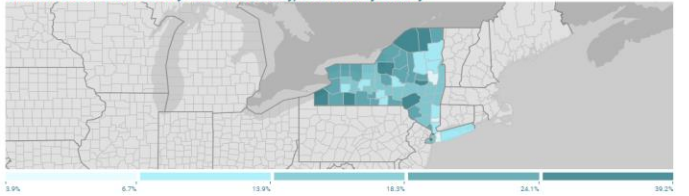
SULLIVAN COUNTY, NY PROFILE

Sullivan County, New York
County, or equivalent in New York
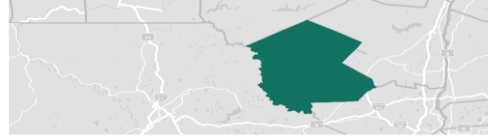
Covering 967.9 square miles, Sullivan County, New York is the 18th-largest county in New York by area. Sullivan County, New York is bordered by Pike County,Ulster County,Orange County,Wayne County, and Delaware County.

POPULATION
75,116

MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME
$57,426

POVERTY RATE
15.2%

BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR HIGHER
24.8%

People and Population

Age and Sex
42.8 +/- 0.4

Median age in Sullivan County, New York

38.1 +/- 0.1

Median age in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community
Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Age Range in Sullivan County, New York

Under 5 years - 5.7%

18 years and older - 78.8%

65 years and older - 18.5%

Race and Ethnicity

Race
75,116 +/- *****

Total population in Sullivan County, New York

324,697,795 +/- *****

Total population in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey
5-Year Estimates

Population by Race in Sullivan County, New York

White alone - 79.8%

Black or African American alone - 8.0%

American Indian and Alaska Native alone - 0.3%

Asian alone - 1.7%

Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone - 0.0%

Some other race alone - 5.7%

Two or more races - 4.6%

Hispanic or Latino
16.0% +/- *****

Hispanic or Latino in Sullivan County, New York

18.0% +/- 0.1%

Hispanic or Latino in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey
5-Year Estimates

Hispanic or Latino (Regardless of Race) in Sullivan County, New York by County
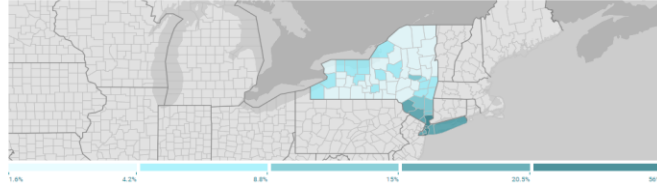
Poverty
23.8% +/- 4.2%

Children under 18 in poverty in Sullivan County, New York

18.5% +/- 0.2%

Children under 18 in poverty in the United States

Table: DP03
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey
5-Year Estimates

Children Under 18 in Poverty in Sullivan County, New York by County
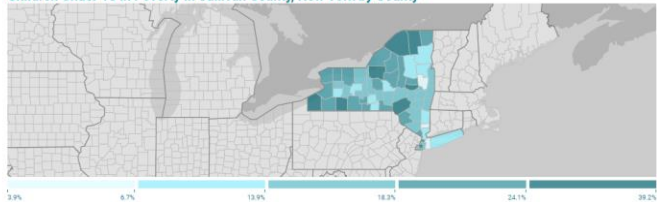
ULSTER COUNTY, NY PROFILE

Ulster County, New York
County, or equivalent in New York
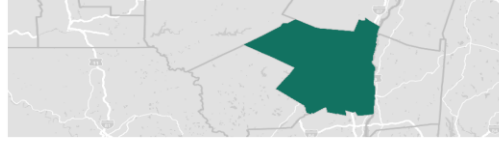
Covering 1,123.9 square miles, Ulster County, New York is the 12th-largest county in New York by area. Ulster County, New York is bordered by Sullivan County,Columbia County,Orange County,Delaware County,Dutchess County, and Greene County.

POPULATION	MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME	POVERTY RATE	BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR HIGHER
178,665	$64,304	13.8%	32.5%

People and Population

Age and Sex
44.0 +/- 0.1

Median age in Ulster County, New York

38.1 +/- 0.1

Median age in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Age Range in Ulster County, New York

Under 5 years - 4.4%

18 years and older - 82.1%

65 years and older - 19.2%

Race and Ethnicity

Race
178,665 +/- *****

Total population in Ulster County, New York

324,697,795 +/- *****

Total population in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Population by Race in Ulster County, New York

White alone - 84.5%

Black or African American alone - 6.0%

American Indian and Alaska Native alone - 0.2%

Asian alone - 1.9%

Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone - 0.1%

Some other race alone - 3.1%

Two or more races - 4.2%

Hispanic or Latino
10.2% +/- *****

Hispanic or Latino in Ulster County, New York

18.0% +/- 0.1%

Hispanic or Latino in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Hispanic or Latino (Regardless of Race) in Ulster County, New York by County
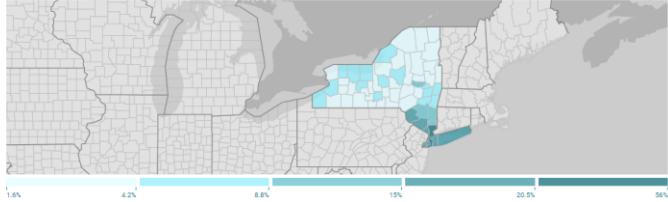
Poverty
17.2% +/- 2.3%

Children under 18 in poverty in Ulster County, New York

18.5% +/- 0.2%

Children under 18 in poverty in the United States

Table: DP03
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates

Children Under 18 in Poverty in Ulster County, New York by County
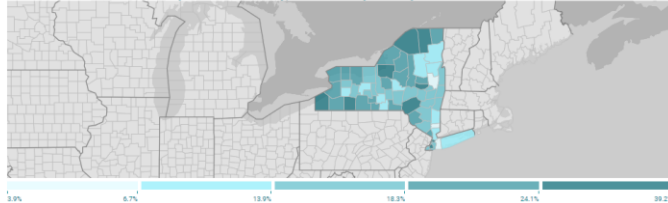
Westchester County, New York

County, or equivalent in New York

Covering 430.4 square miles, Westchester County, New York is the 47th-largest county in New York by area. Westchester County, New York is bordered by Bronx County,Rockland County,Putnam County,Bergen County, Fairfield County,and Nassau County.

POPULATION	MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME	POVERTY RATE	BACHELOR'S DEGREE OR HIGHER
968,890	$96,610	8.8%	48.9%

People and Population

Age and Sex

40.9 +/- 0.2

Median age in Westchester County, New York

38.1 +/- 0.1

Median age in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey
5-Year Estimates

Population by Age Range in Westchester County, New York

Under 5 years - 5.6%

18 years and older - 77.8%

65 years and older - 16.7%

Race and Ethnicity

Race

968,890 +/- *****

Total population in Westchester County, New York

324,697,795 +/- *****

Total population in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey
5-Year Estimates

Population by Race in Westchester County, New York

White alone - 64.3%

Black or African American alone - 14.9%

American Indian and Alaska Native alone - 0.4%

Asian alone - 6.0%

Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone - 0.0%

Some other race alone - 11.4%

Two or more races - 3.1%
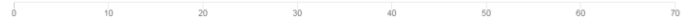
Hispanic or Latino

24.7% +/- *****

Hispanic or Latino in Westchester County, New York

18.0% +/- 0.1%

Hispanic or Latino in the United States

Table: DP05
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey
5-Year Estimates

Hispanic or Latino (Regardless of Race) in Westchester County, New York by County
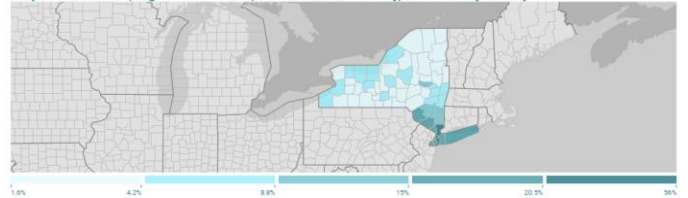
Poverty

10.4% +/- 0.8%

Children under 18 in poverty in Westchester County, New York

18.5% +/- 0.2%

Children under 18 in poverty in the United States

Table: DP03
Table Survey/Program: 2019 American Community Survey
5-Year Estimates

Children Under 18 in Poverty in Westchester County, New York by County
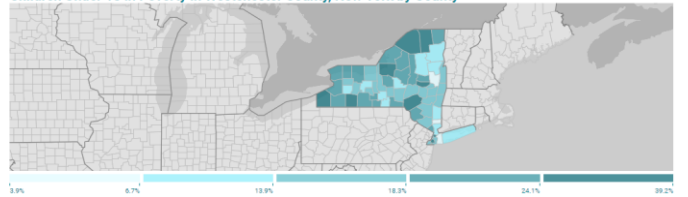
APPENDIX E: SURVEY

Directions

Thank you for participating in this survey. I would like to get feedback about your experiences with this survey. Your responses will help me determine if there are significant differences in principals' perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices based upon gender, years of experience as a principal, and race/ethnicity. I will do this by asking a series of demographic, school culture/climate questions and 2 scenarios taken from actual office referrals.

I am particularly interested in your perspective as an experienced principal/school leader. Please answer as openly as possible about your current school community as well how you would manage the imagined community outlined in the end of the survey.

All responses will be protected and confidential.

Please read each question carefully and then answer the following questions. Completion of this survey is your indication of consent to take part in this study.

1. What is your gender?

☐ Male

☐ Female

☐ Non-Binary

2. Which race/ ethnicity best describes you?

☐ White or Caucasian

☐ Black or African American

☐ Hispanic or Latino

☐ Asian or Asian American

☐ American Indian or Alaska Native

☐ Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander

☐ Another race

☐ Multiracial or Biracial

3. Number of years as an administrator

☐ 1-5   ☐ 16-20

☐ 6-10   ☐ 21 or more

☐ 11-15

1

4. Numbers of years working in current location

- [ ] 1-5 years
- [ ] 6-10 years
- [ ] 11-15 years
- [ ] 16-20 years
- [ ] 21 or more years

5. How ethnically diverse is your staff?

- [ ] Not at all diverse
- [ ] Slightly diverse
- [ ] Somewhat diverse
- [ ] Quite diverse
- [ ] Very diverse

6. How racially/ ethnically diverse is your student body?

- [ ] Not at all
- [ ] Slightly diverse
- [ ] Somewhat diverse
- [ ] Quite diverse
- [ ] Very diverse

7. How would you describe the culture/ climate of your building?

- [ ] Not at all positive
- [ ] Slightly positive
- [ ] Somewhat positive
- [ ] Quite positive
- [ ] Very positive

8. How comfortable are you with discussions about race/racism?

- [ ] Not comfortable at all
- [ ] Slightly comfortable
- [ ] Somewhat comfortable
- [ ] Quite comfortable
- [ ] Very comfortable

9. Does your school engage in equity-centered professional development/practices?

- [ ] Almost never
- [ ] Once in a while
- [ ] Sometimes
- [ ] Frequently
- [ ] Almost always

2

10. How often do you think about what students of different races, ethnicities, or cultures experience?

- [ ] Almost never
- [ ] Once in a while
- [ ] Sometimes
- [ ] Frequently
- [ ] Almost always

11. How effective has your school been at advancing equity for all students?

- [ ] Not well at all
- [ ] Slightly well
- [ ] Somewhat well
- [ ] Quite well
- [ ] Extremely well

12. Who handles behavioral intervention at your school?

- [ ] Teacher
- [ ] School safety
- [ ] Guidance counselor
- [ ] Dean
- [ ] Assistant Principal
- [ ] Principal
- [ ] Other

13. What behavioral intervention programs are utilized at your school?

- [ ] Restorative Justice
- [ ] Sanford Harmony
- [ ] Cloud 9
- [ ] The Leader in Me
- [ ] PBIS (Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports)
- [ ] other

14. How often are students referred to the office for misbehavior?

- [ ] Almost never
- [ ] Once in a while
- [ ] Sometimes
- [ ] Frequently
- [ ] Almost always

15. How often do students receive out-of-school suspensions?

- [ ] Almost never
- [ ] Once in a while
- [ ] Sometimes
- [ ] Frequently
- [ ] Almost always

3

16. What type of infractions receive out-of school (OSS) suspensions? check all that apply

☐ Wearing hoodies   ☐ Disrupting class

☐ Smoking   ☐ Fighting

☐ Using drugs   ☐ Gang activity

☐ Cursing/ talking loudly   ☐ Carrying weapons

☐ Other (please specify)

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_____
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17. Please take a moment to imagine yourself as a principal at this imaginary school. Imagine your typical day as a principal.

     You are a principal at a junior high school located in a middle income neighborhood in New York State.

     The average student-teacher ratio is 26 students to every one teacher at the school.

     The stories were collected from office referral records involving a misbehaving student. Please read each story carefully and answer the questions that follow as though you were the actual principal at the school.

A student named Daquan has been sent to your office with the following referral: Daquan is consistently disrupting the class environment by strolling around the classroom at random intervals, getting tissues from the tissue box multiple times during a 50 minute class, throwing items constantly; in general, Daquan circulates around the room, up and down the rows to see what other students are doing, if they have eyes on him, and disrupts the flow of the lecture or activity the class was participating in.

How severe was Daquan's behavior on a scale of 1-7? 1= Not at all severe, and 7= Extremely severe

☐ 1= Not at all severe   ☐ 5

☐ 2   ☐ 6

☐ 3   ☐ 7= Extremely severe

☐ 4

18. How severe was Daquan's behavior on a scale of 1-7? Please enter a number from 1 to 7, where: 1= Not at all severe, and 7= Extremely severe

☐ 1=Not at all severe   ☐ 5

☐ 2   ☐ 6

☐ 3   ☐ 7= Extremely Severe

☐ 4

4

19. How severely should Daquan be disciplined on a scale of 1-7? Please enter a number from 1 to 7, where: 1= Not at all severe, and 7= Extremely severe

- [ ] 1=Not at all severe
- [ ] 2
- [ ] 3
- [ ] 4
- [ ] 5
- [ ] 6
- [ ] 7= Extremely severe

20. 3 days later, Daquan misbehavior again...
The student has been sent to your office again with the following referral:

Daquan is sleeping in class. I tell him to pick his head up and get to work. He only picks his head up. He chooses to rest it on his hand and continue to sleep. So I ask him one more time and again, Daquan refuses to do his work. I ask him to leave and go to the office to talk about why he won't do his work and choosing to sleep. He refuses to this as well.

How severe was Daquan's behavior on a scale of 1-7? Please enter a number from 1 to 7, where: 1= Not at all severe, and 7=Extremely severe

- [ ] 1= Not at all severe
- [ ] 2
- [ ] 3
- [ ] 4
- [ ] 5
- [ ] 6
- [ ] 7=Extremely severe

21. How severely should Daquan be disciplined on a scale of 1-7? Please enter a number from 1 to 7, where: 1= Not at all severe, and 7= Extremely severe

- [ ] 1=Not at all severe
- [ ] 2
- [ ] 3
- [ ] 4
- [ ] 5
- [ ] 6
- [ ] 7= Extremely severe

22. How likely is it that you would say that this student is a troublemaker?

- [ ] 1=Not at all likely
- [ ] 2=Slightly likely
- [ ] 3=Moderately likely
- [ ] 4=Likely
- [ ] 5=Extremely likely

5

23. To what extent is Daquan hindering the teacher from maintaining order in the class? Please enter a number from 1-7, where: 1= Not hindering at all and, 7=Hindering a lot

☐ 1=Not hindering at all
☐ 2
☐ 3
☐ 4

☐ 5
☐ 6
☐ 7=Hindering a lot

24. To what extent do you think this student's behavior is indicative of a pattern?

☐ 1= Not at all
☐ 2=Slightly indicative
☐ 3=Moderately indicative

☐ 4= Indicative
☐ 5=Extremely indicative

25. To what extent do you worry that this can become a pattern across students?

○ 1= Not at all
○ 2=Slightly indicative
○ 3=Moderately indicative

○ 4=Indicative
○ 5=Extremely indicative

26. If you were encouraged to give detention instead of suspensions, how many days of detention would you assign to this student?

☐ 0 days
☐ 1 day
☐ 2 days
☐ 3 days
☐ 4 days
☐ 5 days

☐ 6 days
☐ 7 days
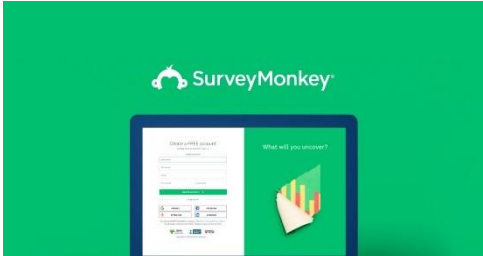☐ 8 days
☐ 9 days
☐ 10 days

6

APPENDIX F: INTENT LETTER

Dear Principal/ School Leader,

My name is Michelle S. Mathis, and I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership at the Graduate School of Education, St. John's University, Queens, NY. I am writing to invite you to participate in a study designed to help me determine if there are significant differences in principal perceptions of equity-focused leadership practices based upon gender, years of experience as a principal, and race/ethnicity and student behavioral outcomes. I would like to get more feedback about your experiences with this survey. Your responses will help me determine if there are significant differences in principals' perceptions.

The survey is very brief and will only take approximately 5 minutes to complete. If you wish to participate, please click the link below to go to the survey Web site (or copy and paste the link into your Internet browser) to begin the survey.
Survey link: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/3Q5B3XG

Equity Leadership Survey
Take this survey powered by surveymonkey.com. Create your own surveys for free.
www.surveymonkey.com

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate, choose not to answer specific questions, or withdraw at any time without consequence. If you decide to participate, that will constitute informed consent. The researcher will not have access to your email address, IP address, your identity, or the identity of your school, as Survey Monkey will not collect any email addresses on the surveys. All collected data will be destroyed at the end of the legally prescribed period, which is three years.

There are no known risks associated with your participation in this research beyond those of daily life. Although you will not receive any remuneration or direct benefit, the results of this study may help to promote a greater understanding and benefit of equitable leadership practices, particularly for minority students, African American males.

If you have any questions or concerns about my study or your participation, or if you wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact me, Michelle S. Mathis at (516) 531-3554, or my mentor, Dr. Joan Birringer-Haig at (516) 678-9761 or at birringj@stjohns.edu. You may also contact the Coordinator of the Institutional

Review Board at St. John's University, Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe at (718)990-1955 or at digiuser@stjohns.edu.

Your support in completing this short online survey would be greatly appreciated to make known the perceptions of principals about equitable leadership practices for all students. As fellow educators, our voices through research can be shared to identify best practices.

Thank you in advance for your consideration to participate in this study on instructional leadership.

Sincerely,

Michelle S. Mathis
Michelle S. Mathis
Doctoral Candidate, Administrative and Instructional Leadership
St. John's University

APPENDIX G: SURVEY PERMISSION REQUEST

Hi Ms. Soussoudis,

 Thank you for reading my article! Your research project sounds interesting and worthwhile. I would be very interested to learn about what you find. The materials from my study are publicly available and available for you to use. I would just ask that you cite my paper as the source.

 Best of luck!

Shoshana

On Fri, May 7, 2021 at 9:43 AM <MICH > wrote:

Good Morning Ms. Jarvis,

My name is Michelle Soussoudis. I am a Principal and St. John's University doctoral student. I am currently researching the "Pushout" Phenomena, specifically the principal's influence on student behavioral outcomes for Black males. I have read your report, The School Deferred: When Bias Affects School Leaders and am very interested in the instrument utilized. I think that the narratives were spot on and accurately revealed subconscious bias around race and discipline. I respectfully request the use of the narratives as part of a survey I plan to send out to approximately 200 high school principals in counties that surround New York City. The survey seeks to identify the principal's perception of behavioral outcomes based on their gender, race/ethnicity and years of service. I am available to answer any additional questions you may have while considering the request. I thank you in advance for your consideration of this request.

Educationally Yours,

Michelle Soussoudis

--

Shoshana Jarvis

National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellow
Doctoral Student, Management of Organizations Group
Haas School of Business
University of California, Berkeley

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