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Social Justice Education in Rural White Schools

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Social Justice Education in Rural White Schools

Nathaniel Overberg

Creative Component

M.Ed. in Education

June 12, 2019
Introduction to Creative Component

In this creative component, I looked at the inclusion, or lack thereof, of social justice education in rural white majority schools in Iowa. In the first part I look to literature to answer the following questions: What is social justice education?, Why is social justice education needed in rural white majority schools?, Why is social justice usually not a focus in rural white majority schools?, and What are some challenges of social justice professional development? Through the literature review I make an argument and support my argument that social justice education needs to be incorporated better into schools and more specifically into rural white majority schools in Iowa. The second part to the creative component addresses how professional development that focuses on social equity might be constructed and what could be included to increase its effectiveness. The last part discusses why it is incredibly difficult to write an explicit professional development without knowing the rural school’s context. When creating a professional development, the context of the school has to be taken into account and each rural school is different along with the training that the teachers have or have not been exposed to. If the teacher’s training is unknown then the necessary information is not there in order to adequately prepare a professional development. The professional development must build on the previous knowledge the teacher has rather than exposing them to material they are not familiar with. If this is done the teachers will not progress in a helpful way and will not be able to incorporate the material into their classroom.

Part 1: Literature Review of Social Justice Education in Rural Schools

In rural communities, where student bodies are much more homogenous and white than in urban settings, often times social justice education is seen as not needed (Yeo, 1999). Rather, social justice education is often seen as only being relevant when there are high populations of
minoritized students. According to the United States Department of Education, data for the 2015-2016 school year showed that 85% of Iowa rural schools had a non-white population of less than 10%. This includes schools in areas designated as rural fringe (census-defined rural territory that is less than or equal to 5 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural territory that is less than or equal to 2.5 miles from an urban cluster); rural distant (census-defined rural territory that is more than 5 miles but less than or equal to 25 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural territory that is more than 2.5 miles but less than or equal to 10 miles from an urban cluster); and rural remote (census-defined rural territory that is more than 25 miles from an urbanized area and is also more than 10 miles from an urban cluster). Of the other rural schools, 12.7% had non-white student enrollment between 10% and 50% and only two rural schools, or 0.85%, had non-white populations greater than 50%. Based on this data, it is clear that Iowa has many rural schools that are in predominantly white communities and serve predominantly white student populations, so the question of where social justice education should be taught is very relevant to the Iowa context.

**What is social justice education?**

Social justice is defined by Sensoy and DiAngelo (2017) as follows:

> specific theoretical perspectives that recognize that society is stratified (i.e., divided and unequal) in significant and far-reaching ways along social group lines that include race, class, gender, sexuality, and ability. Critical social justice recognizes inequality as deeply embedded in the fabric of society (i.e., as structural), and actively seeks to change this. (p.22)

Based on this, social justice education aims to teach students to see that deeply embedded injustices exist in society and to be willing to work to change them. Social justice education has
evolved from multicultural education, which placed emphasis on changes or additions to traditional curriculum to include attention to marginalized groups. Now the emphasis has moved from culturally responsive teaching and multicultural approaches, often marked by relatively small curricular revisions/additions and celebrations of diversity, which has been insufficient in creating change in schools, to approaches that call for transformations of schools and society (Gorski, 1999). This move toward education with the goal of eliminating inequities in society has come to be called social justice education, and that is the term I will use here. It combines the components of multicultural education and cultural competency with the aim of social change in and through education.

**Why is social justice education is needed in rural white schools?**

Social justice education is needed in rural white schools even when the community may currently lack diversity. In today’s growing global climate, it is no longer a question of whether someone will interact with someone of a different social identity, but when will it happen; and this is becoming increasingly true even in rural communities. According to a study of Iowa in 2016, rural communities decreased in size by 0.37% while metropolitan areas grew by 0.93% (Peters, 2017). With more people from rural communities moving to metropolitan areas, there is an increase in overlap of cultures. There was also an increase in rural areas in populations such as the Amish and an increase in food processing facilities, which often are associated with an increased Latinx population (Peters, 2017). In addition, races, ethnicities, religions, and languages overlap frequently through the use of technology and with people being freer to move around in today’s society. Within this climate, people have to be prepared for the day that their background meets one that differs from theirs. To be better prepared, students need to be taught
how to interact with people from differing backgrounds and experiences and to consider the perspectives of others. This is where social justice education can help better prepare students.

Social justice education can be used to teach material in schools in a different light or viewpoint than traditional schooling would have taught it. By doing this, students are introduced to narratives from underrepresented groups and see the contributions they make (and have made) to society. This is often challenging for students in rural communities, because often they are not exposed to these narratives or viewpoints through personal interactions during their time in school.

Another goal of social justice education is to teach students, including white students, about the societally constructed barriers for members of underrepresented groups. When given the opportunity to understand forms of institutional oppression, students will then be able to determine what their response should be to the barriers. This is important in reaching one of the goals of social justice teaching, that is, social change.

Yeo (1999) reported that in his graduate course, attended by teachers and administrators who were all from rural schools, the students typically argued that social justice education was inapplicable in their communities. This is because their community was seen as monocultural. The teachers and administrators made the argument that social justice education isn’t needed; moreover, it might upset the long-standing social organization of their community. Attitudes such as these interfere with students learning to interact with people from other cultures and reinforce societal structured segregation and injustice.

A benefit of utilizing social justice education in white rural schools is that it would allow for students to be better citizens. By understanding and recognizing the societal barriers that limit the progress of minoritized groups, students would be able to be an ally for change as they
become more engaged in their community. Students could help be proponents for change and trying to create a more equitable community and global society (Eppley, 2016). When students are allowed to recognize the societal barriers that have been established, they are then allowed to choose what they want to do about them.

**Why is social justice not a focus in rural white schools?**

The unfortunate reality is that many teachers are not prepared to teach their students in ways that address social justice. The result then becomes that students are not encouraged to challenge dominant narratives to which they have been socialized. In Fedynich and Garza’s (2016) study, they surveyed and interviewed teachers in a rural Georgia school about social justice in their school. What they found was that many of the teachers felt they were not supported by the administration in trying to implement social justice education and that they were left with vague instructions on how to include social justice education in their classrooms. After the survey, the authors found that the majority of teachers supported the idea that student teachers should have social justice education training incorporated into their teacher preparation programs and more resources should be used to educate current teachers.

Another harsh reality is that many rural communities do not want their students learning from a social justice perspective. Yeo (1999) reported that, in his graduate courses, his students (rural educators and administrators) did not see the relevance of social justice teaching. Yeo went on to say that rural schools may not want to incorporate social justice teaching because they see it as “another irrelevant program imposed by ‘outsiders’” (p.3). Many rural communities are built upon society’s dominant narratives, though many of these represent classism, sexism, racism, and bias against non-dominant religions. Sensoy and DiAngelo (2017) define oppression as a “set of policies, practices, traditions, norms, definitions, and explanations, which function to
systematically exploit one social group to the benefit of another social group” (p.61). Oppression can be unintentional as Sensory and DiAngelo (2017) write, “the prejudice and discrimination is built into the society as a whole and becomes automatic, normalized, and taken for granted” (p.62). This causes many to hesitate and resist social justice education because social justice education demands teachers and students wrestle with issues of social class, racism, sexism, poverty, and religion, which they often have not had to think about. If change occurred to lessen the impact of these forms of oppression, there is a fear that the white populations would lose the advantages that they have enjoyed.

An additional reason rural white schools do not teach with social justice shaping their curricula is their lack of understanding of changing demographics. Yeo said it best in his 1999 article:

…in many rural schools (and therefore their local communities) there seems to exist a lack of knowledge about and/or unwillingness to acknowledge the existing and/or increasing demographic diversity of their areas and communities. In general, this is equally true of other issues of difference, such as socioeconomic status, gender, language, and religion. It is this denial of difference that both suggests the need for the infusion of multicultural education into rural schools and will engender profound resistance to it. (p.5)

Many communities are not willing to admit there is or will be demographic change happening in rural communities and throughout their state, so they see no reason for a change in the education their students receive.

An example of the resistance to professional development that focuses on social justice issues was seen in the Central New York region by Payne and Smith (2018) when analyzing
responses to the Reduction of Stigma in Schools (RSIS) program. The RSIS is a professional development program that was designed to have a “greater potential to give educators the tools and knowledge necessary for disrupting policies and practices that marginalize LGBTQ students and, thus, impact school climate” (Payne & Smith, 2011, p.175). Payne and Smith (2018) conducted an evaluation study on the first three years of the RSIS program which included semi-structured interviews with 11 educator workshop participants, 322 written evaluations completed at the end of the workshop, follow-up questionnaires completed by 11 key participants, thick descriptive field notes recounting all introductory meetings with school personnel for three years, phone and email exchange records for all school contacts, the content delivered for each RSIS presentation, and an in-depth interview with the first RSIS graduate student intern responsible for delivering the program (p.195). From their interactions with school administrators, they found that many administrators were not aware if their student bodies included students who identified as LGBTQ, and if they did, they were unaware if they faced any discrimination in the school. Many administrators were hesitant to provide professional development that focused on LGBTQ issues for a number of reasons. One reason was, if they didn’t have students who identified as LGBTQ, their teachers did not need the training. Another reason administrators were hesitant was because they were unsure how the community would react to teachers receiving this training. One principal said they would have to talk to their community and community leaders before agreeing to the professional development being taught to their teachers. The issue with this mindset, as Payne and Smith point out, is that the principal was saying that the LGBTQ community was not a part of their community but rather a subgroup or separate group from the majority, which inadvertently is what is being taught to their students. This way of thinking would also affect students who identify in other minoritized groups. Without social equity
teaching students are only receiving the white dominant narrative so any student identifying other than white and male would be made to feel as separate and less than. Continuing to teach how it has always been taught is to continue to neglect certain students, rather than making all feel accepted and valued. This way of thinking is one reason that social justice is often not being addressed in rural white schools.

What should be done in rural white schools?

In order for rural students to be competitive in the world and to be effective citizens, there needs to be an increase in social justice education in rural schools, even if they are predominantly white institutions. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2013), nearly half of all school districts in the United States are located in rural areas along with nearly twenty-eight percent of all public elementary and secondary schools. In some instances, students are not being prepared for the global society and therefore are not prepared to go out and contribute to society as was seen in a study conducted by Budge (2006). Budge looked at rural education in Washington state and its effectiveness. The study focused on three communities in the Mount Rainier School District and how the sense of place affected the education students received. Even though the study focused on the importance of place in education and not social justice specifically, many of the findings are still applicable. The study discussed how, in each community, jobs were becoming less available and struggles faced by these communities are present in many rural communities. A result of not focusing on teaching in a responsive manner is that many students returned to their community because they were not prepared for life outside of the community. When considering multicultural education and citizenry, Merlin (2017) stated:

Even in a community in which students have little contact with diverse students, multicultural education is beneficial. Many students leave their communities to attend
college or seek employment in other settings that may be more diverse than their home communities and require individuals to have broader perspectives and more appropriate social skills. (p.5)

Without being prepared many students did not have the skills needed to succeed outside of the rural community, which would justify a need for better curricula geared to prepare students, such as curricula emphasizing social justice. However, in order for these schools to start including social justice in their curricula, teachers and other staff need to be prepared to understand all facets of social justice education.

In order to have adequately prepared teachers, schools should provide professional development around this topic. Fedynich and Garza (2016) found that many teachers in the rural schools were in favor of receiving professional development on social justice. The teachers also expressed not having received prior training to enable them to incorporate social justice into their classrooms. This caused problems for teachers because they were not prepared to incorporate social justice teaching in their classrooms, so any effort to do so was done on their own. They did not have the support of the school or their administrators and would sometimes face backlash from them when trying to incorporate social justice in their classrooms. They would also face backlash from parents because there was no communication with the wider community by school administrators on the use of a social justice curricula in schools.

Social justice education also needs to be introduced in rural schools to further expose teachers and students to skills and tools needed to be able to identify how they perceive the world and other people. One example of this was introduced by Payne and Smith (2018) when principals unknowingly revealed that the LGBTQ community was not seen as a part of the majority community, but rather as members of a different community apart from those who
decide what should be taught in schools and what should not. This way of thinking would not be uncommon in many schools, but teachers and students are not being equipped with the tools to identify if this is their way of thinking. One such tool could be the “critical leadership of place” (p.9) as referenced in Budge’s (2006) study. Budge explains that “nurturing a critical sense of place enables students to cherish and celebrate local values…at the same time learning to critique and confront the social, political, economic, and environmental problems in their local communities” (p.9).

**What are some challenges of social justice professional development in rural schools?**

There are many considerations when planning for professional development in rural schools, such as how much time must be given to it, what resources teachers require, and how it will ultimately benefit the students and the school. Often districts want those benefits to be measurable, such as changes in data on behavior referrals, standardized test performance, or overall academic performance. When looking at what material should be covered in professional development, rural school administrators often do not think social justice is necessary. This is because rural schools often have very few students of color and administrators cannot measure how equitable or just their school is, as they do with test scores, so social justice is not a priority.

Another consideration is that effective professional development requires adequate time spent on the material, time designated to work on applying new material with other teachers and individually, and coherence with other trainings (Desimone, Porter, Garet, Yoon, & Birman, 2002). In order to do this, a district would have to commit adequate resources to professional development directed to social justice teaching. By doing this, districts would have to limit their resources devoted to develop their teachers in other areas. This could be seen as unfavorable by
some administrators because they would question why resources and time should be spent on something that is seen as not applicable to their schools.

Another challenge to bringing social justice professional development to rural schools would be gaining the community’s support for a curriculum that focuses on social justice. In many rural communities, if you do not have the support of the community then you will not have success in trying to initiate change. Many rural communities are set in what is considered necessary, normal, and acceptable and as was seen trying to initiate change can be difficult because it goes against the long held societal structures. (Yeo, 1999; Yeo, 2001; Grimes et al., 2013). With this reality and these challenges, few rural schools choose to invest in social justice professional development even though “many authors argue that schools should prepare students to engage community, national, and global complexity as democratic multicultural citizens who understand and address sociopolitical issues” (Kose, 2007, p.277).
Part 2: Crucial Aspects for Social Justice Education Professional Development

The purpose of the following section of the creative component is to describe what I think should be included in a social justice professional development to make it successful. Success would mean that teachers would implement the changes in their instruction. The changes would be based on literature and studies that focus on professional development types, effectiveness of professional developments, and structure of professional developments. These are studies in addition to the ones previously discussed in Part One as these studies focus more on professional developments than the need for them.

Guiding Principles

The goal of any proposed professional development is not to make experts of teachers when it comes to teaching, and this is especially true for professional developments with a social justice emphasis; that is something that can only be accomplished with time and practice. Rather, the goal is to expose teachers to new areas of teaching and thinking so that they may begin to consider and practice how to develop multicultural global thinking citizens among their students. Examples of how this can be done can be found in a publication titled *Diversity Within Unity: Essential Principles for Teaching and Learning in a Multicultural Society* by Banks, Cookson, Gay, Hawley, Irvine, Nieto, Schofield, and Stephan (2001), who formed an interdisciplinary panel to determine what they knew about education and diversity from research and experiences around these topics. They then compiled a list of twelve principles from their four-year study.
The principles that were compiled by Banks et al. (2001) on were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Principle #</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Learning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Professional development programs should help teachers understand the complex characteristics of ethnic groups within U.S. society and the ways in which race, ethnicity, language, and social class interact to influence student behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Schools should ensure that all students have equitable opportunities to learn and to meet high standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>The curriculum should help students understand that knowledge is socially constructed and reflects researchers’ personal experiences as well as the social, political, and economic contexts in which they live and work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Schools should provide all students with opportunities to participate in extra- and cocurricular activities that develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes that increase academic achievement and foster positive interracial relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Learning</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Schools should create or make salient superordinate crosscutting group memberships in order to improve intergroup relations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Students should learn about stereotyping and other related biases that have negative effects on racial and ethnic relations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Students should learn about values shared by virtually all cultural groups (e.g., justice equality, freedom, peace, compassion, and charity).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teachers should help students acquire the social skills needed to interact effectively with students from other racial, ethnic, cultural, and language groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Schools should provide opportunities for students from different racial, ethnic, cultural, and language groups to interact socially under conditions designed to reduce fear and anxiety.</td>
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</table>
A school’s organizational strategies should ensure that decision-making is widely shared and that members of the school community learn collaborative skills and dispositions in order to create a caring environment for students.

Leaders should develop strategies that ensure that all public schools, regardless of their locations, are funded equitably.

Teachers should use multiple culturally sensitive techniques to assess complex cognitive and social skills.

I identified five of the twelve principles to serve as guides to help teachers start to develop the skills needed to educate future citizens and to show the skills teachers will have after participating in the professional development. These were selected based on two factors: how well they apply to the goal of the professional development and to the particular context of predominantly white rural schools. Several of the principles that were not selected were based on the assumption that the applicable school has a diverse student body and therefore would not be appropriate for a majority white, rural school. The selected principles (1, 3, 6, 8, and 12) are described in greater detail below.

Principle 1 stated “Professional development programs should help teachers understand the complex characteristics of ethnic groups within U.S. society and the ways in which race, ethnicity, language, and social class interact to influence student behavior” (Banks et al., 2001, p.5). According to the panel:

effective professional development programs should help educators to 1) uncover and identify their personal attitudes toward racial, ethnic, language, and cultural groups; 2) acquire knowledge about the histories and cultures of the diverse racial, ethnic, cultural,
and language groups within the nation and within their schools; 3) become acquainted with the diverse perspectives that exist within different ethnic and cultural communities; 4) understand the ways in which institutionalized knowledge within schools, universities, and the popular culture can perpetuate stereotypes about racial and ethnic groups; and 5) acquire the knowledge and skills needed to develop and implement an equity pedagogy, defined by James Banks as instruction that provides all students with an equal opportunity to attain academic and social success in school. (Banks et al., 2001, p.6)

The third principle asserted that “curriculum should help students understand that knowledge is socially constructed and reflects researchers’ personal experiences as well as the social, political, and economic contexts in which they live and work” (Banks et al., 2001, p.8). As Banks et al. (2001) noted, “in curriculum and teaching units and in textbooks, students often study historical events, concepts, and issues only or primarily from the points of view of the victors” (p.8). They argued that teaching in this way privileges the students who identify with the victors or dominant group and are often the mainstream students. In doing this, the students, specifically white students, are not being challenged to expand their perceptions and are not being taught to think critically, which would better serve them as future contributing members of society. This is an important concept for teachers to understand if they are to be able to better equip their students to be citizens after graduating. If teachers do not understand this, then they will not be prepared to teach their students in a way that expands their thinking and will continue to support the current societal ideals on what is deemed important and necessary to include in curricula.

The next two principles, 6 and 8, work together in the development of the student. Principle 6 stated that “students should learn about stereotyping and other related issues that have
negative effects on racial and ethnic relations” (Banks et al., 2001, p.9). By doing this, students would be made aware of their tendency to categorize and of how categorizations effect their views of people. Principle 8 stated that “teachers should help students acquire the social skills needed to interact effectively with students from other racial, ethnic, cultural, and language groups” (Banks et al., 2001, p.10). After students are aware of their categorizations of people, teachers will then be able to help them build the necessary skills to interact with others in the world. In order for students to be able to better understand their own way of thinking and the categorizations they make, teachers need to be prepared to help students as they begin to try and understand themselves. If teachers are not able to help their students begin their journey to understand how they think about people and cultures, then their students will not be able to become global citizens. Teachers need to be prepared to challenge their students in not just academics or content, but also in how they think and construct knowledge. If teachers are not prepared to do this, then their students will continue to think along the same societal ideas that are in place and continue to unconsciously support the systems of oppression that are in place.

Lastly, Principle 12 stated “teachers should use multiple culturally sensitive techniques to assess complex cognitive and social skills” (Banks et al., 2001, p.12). In this principle, the authors stated that teachers cannot rely on traditional unidimensional and cursory assessments because these often do not consider language, learning style, and culture when evaluating mastery of content. To combat this, teachers should adopt a range of assessment strategies that would give each student the opportunity to demonstrate mastery. Some new ways of assessment that could be used include observations, oral examinations, graphic representations, media projects, performances, and teacher-made measures and assessments.
Students must be able to know, think, feel, believe, and behave in ways that demonstrate respect for people, experiences, issues, and perspectives that are different from their own. They must be informed, critical, socially conscious, and ethical change agents who are committed to social, political, cultural, and educational equality. Other goals include self-knowledge, and acceptance, understanding other cultures, improving intergroup relations, combating racism and other forms of oppression, and increasing the academic achievement of students of color. (Banks et al., 2001, p.12)

Test scores can show the level of knowledge students have on the contributions of ethnic groups and how much factual knowledge they possess, but they do not show the level which a student can relate to people from other racial and ethnic groups. Traditional testing also lacks the ability to provide information on a student’s sense of moral outrage about racial, gender, and social-class inequities, or about their will and skill to oppose these inequities. “Assessments should go beyond traditional measures of subject matter knowledge and include complex cognitive and social skills” (Banks et al., 2001, p.13). In order for this to be accomplished, “All classroom teachers in all subject areas, along with all administrators, counselors, policy makers, and support staffs, should be actively involved in and held accountable for preparing students for a multicultural future” (Banks et al., 2001, p.13). For these reasons, teachers need to be better prepared regarding assessments, and that is why this concept should be included in a social justice professional development.

**Using these principles to guide the creation of a professional development framework**

Using these five principles as guides, I provide information from the following articles, because I feel that they best represent features of social justice professional development with potential to create change in teacher instruction and student development. I won’t be explicitly
constructing a professional development that should be taught, but I will provide information on what should be included in one and the beginnings of how one could be developed and organized. By utilizing the aforementioned principles as a reference, my goal for this type of professional development is to help teachers begin to navigate how to incorporate social justice into their classrooms and schools. In this section, I will describe these studies and what can be learned from them that informs the design of professional development focused on social justice for teachers in rural schools in Iowa.

Some of the studies included are explicitly on social justice professional development, while others are on professional development in general. This is because there are few studies that that focus on rural school and social justice professional development. To compensate for this fact, I have selected studies that focus on social justice professional development and studies that focus on creating effective change in schools. By incorporating them together, my goal would be able to create a social justice professional development that utilizes the tools that have been shown to create change in teachers’ practice and support teachers after the professional development. In combining them, I would hope to create a framework of effective social justice professional development that could be used in rural schools to create change in teacher instruction and develop students into democratic multicultural citizens. After reading through the articles, the following table lists and describes how the professional development might be structured. I organized the table to provide a condensed visual of what was found to be crucial to include in a social justice professional development. This is based on what was gathered from the articles on what content should be included in a social justice professional development, how the professional development should be structured, and what makes for a professional development effective based on changes observed in teachers’ instruction.
Figure 1: Teacher progression toward including social justice education in classroom

The Figure 1, I created is a visual representation of the path a teacher would take to becoming a social justice ally and teaching from a social justice perspective. They would begin by taking some interest and doing self-work to raise their awareness of their perspectives and of their social identities. This self-work could be done through self-educating using material such as that available from Teaching Tolerance, Rethinking Schools, or similar sources. The material could also be introduced to an educator by school administrators, fellow teachers, or at a conference, but this introduction to the material and beginning to self-work is necessary. After becoming more aware of their social identities, then the educator will be introduced to a PD that is structured based on the proposed framework. Then after having been a part of the PD the educator will be ready to begin integrate the necessary step to make their teaching more socially just, this can be seen by the ending four principles.
Principle 1’s definition of professional development, that a professional development “should help teachers understand the complex characteristics of ethnic groups within U.S. society and the ways in which race, ethnicity, language, and social class interact to influence student behavior” (Banks et al., 2001, p.5). Principle 3, the idea that curricula should help students understand that knowledge is socially constructed, will be applied once teachers have a better understanding of social justice. A teacher should be able to construct a curriculum based on Principle 3 once they have participated in a social justice professional development, but will do so with the support of likeminded teachers which is a category in the table. Once teachers have a better idea of their social identity and can lead students to better understand their social identities, then Principles 6 and 8 can be addressed in teachers’ curriculum and instruction. Lastly, Principle 12 can be applied in classrooms once teachers have a better understanding of social justice; once they have completed a social justice professional development, they can begin to plan and implement various assessment types and assess more than just content mastery. Teachers can be prepared to use various assessment methods by counselors and other teachers which is why both are emphasized in the table.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Justice Professional Development should…</th>
<th>Influence on Instruction</th>
<th>Cited</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be led by appropriate facilitator (A)</td>
<td>By having unique perspectives in the school, ties to the community, and being a fellow educator, the facilitator could help facilitate a cooperative environment.</td>
<td>Grimes et al., 2013&lt;br&gt;Kohli et al., 2015&lt;br&gt;Merlin, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have support from the community and school (B)</td>
<td>The community, teachers, leaders, and students have to see the material as necessary. If relevance is not conveyed or if community dynamics do not influence instruction then participants will not apply</td>
<td>Barton, 1999&lt;br&gt;Budge, 2006&lt;br&gt;Eppley, 2016&lt;br&gt;Kohli et al., 2015&lt;br&gt;Payne &amp; Smith, 2011&lt;br&gt;Payne &amp; Smith, 2018&lt;br&gt;Thoebald &amp; Nachtigal, 1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build a community of like-minded people (C)</td>
<td>Teachers found that being able to meet together with individuals of like-mindedness helped them learn from each other and encourage one another. This helped them further strive for being more socially just in their schools.</td>
<td>Kohli et al., 2015 Rodriguez et al., 2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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| Have a reform-based structure (D) | It has been shown that the use of reform-based instruction has resulted in teacher instructional changes. Teachers who were involved in reform-based PD were more likely to change their instruction and apply the new knowledge they gained. | Bianchini et al., 2015 Fishman et al., 2003 Garet et al., 2001 Kohli et al., 2015 Penuel et al., 2007 |

| Emphasize active learning, collective participation, coherence, and content (E) | There needs to be an emphasis given to these aspects because they have been shown to have considerable influence on the effectiveness of a professional development. | Desimone et al., 2002 Garet et al., 2001 Penuel et al., 2017 |

The following provides more in-depth descriptions of the major supporting studies listed in the table above. Not all studies are described in detail. I focus on those that are key to building the professional development, and supporting articles are not described in detail but are listed in the table. When studies were found to be listed in more than one category, I chose to describe them under the heading that is most strongly associated with the authors’ intentions. For example, an article that is focused on the community, but happens to use and support reform-
based strategies will be described in the community section but listed under both community and reform based in the table.

**Professional development should be led by appropriate facilitator**

In order to make the most of a social justice professional development there needs to be a facilitator who can relate to teachers, knows the needs of the students, and has connections to the community; in many situations, that is the school counselor. In many communities, counselors are one of the prominent faces of the school in the community and are in touch with the students who need help they cannot get in the traditional classroom. In this way counselors are uniquely in tune with students’ needs in and out of school, so they can bring these insights into social justice professional developments. They are also able to gather support from the community as they often have connections with the community and community leaders to support students. Counselors have training that traditional classroom teachers do not have in recognizing the various needs that students have and how they can affect their learning and school experiences.

Grimes, Haskins, and Paisley (2013) conducted a study that looked at experiences of rural school counselors who acted as social justice advocates. They found five themes that were effective with counselors: stability of place, community promise, mutual reliance, professional and personal integration, and a focus on individuals. Even though all of the counselors in this study focused on advocating on the individual level and in the local community, and not leading reform on a structured level such as a professional development, it is this experience that makes them ideal for facilitating the professional development. This was further supported by Merlin (2017) who talked about how counselors are prepared and in positions to change the dynamics in schools. Even though Merlin focused on multicultural education, many of the arguments can also be applied to social justice reform in schools. Merlin focused on how counselors can help change
the atmosphere amongst students, but many of these skills possessed by counselors also apply to how they can change the atmosphere amongst educators to benefit students. It is for these reasons that school counselors are the best school personnel to lead a social justice professional development.

In having the professional development led by a counselor, teachers would be exposed to the needs of the community and the students, which adheres to Principle 1. It would also allow teachers to be equipped with thinking and planning new to them which would allow them to achieve Principles 3 and 12. These new tools could allow them to build new curricula or revise ones already in use. Then they would be able to utilize various assessment tools necessary to understand students’ level of understanding of socially just thinking.

**Professional development should develop awareness of positionality and social identities**

In order for teachers to be able to create curriculum that is socially just and teach their students to be global citizens, they must first better understand their own relationship with society. In this paper “social identity” will be defined as:

ideas that we have about ourselves which are based on our membership of major social categories (such as nationality, ethnicity, sex, religion) and which contribute to the formation of our *self-concept*. These are the ‘in-groups’ to which we belong. (Chandler & Munday, 2016)

Teachers must be aware of their own position in society and how society has affected them before they can begin to help their students understand their place in society.

Kose (2007) started his study by finding qualified participants through a two-step process. He found three Midwestern principals willing to participate in his study. Kose conducted interviews with the principals along with taking observations of their schools and their
practices of how they conducted their schools. All three principals were aware of the need for social justice in their schools and provided the teachers in their schools the opportunity to participate in social justice training to prepare them to teach with a social justice emphasis.

Kose said that teachers must be knowledgeable of their own personal social diversity awareness and their positionality to “gain insight into how identity influences attitudes, behavior, and teaching for particularly traditionally marginalized students and gain an awareness of sociopolitical contexts of injustice” (Kose, 2007, p.286). Kose focused on three ways that teachers can learn and develop this awareness and they are: personal diversity awareness, affirming diversity, and cultural capital. I will focus on Personal Diversity Awareness and Affirming Diversity in this paper because only once teachers become aware of their perspectives and how these perspectives affect their view of the world will they be able to become more equitable. Also, because the school setting I am writing for is an all-white rural context, Kose’s writing on cultural capital and its use in the classroom is not as applicable.¹

To increase a teachers’ personal diversity awareness, the principals Kose interviewed stated the “importance of, modeled, and promoted professional development that emphasized explicit personal development that emphasized explicit personal reflection on one’s own diverse background and identity (even for White teachers), factors that influenced its development, and how identity influences perspectives of and interactions with the world and students” (2007, p. 290) so it is crucial that the white teachers are included into a professional development. The

¹ Kose says that teachers should use cultural capital as a way to make marginalized students feel that they belong and can relate to the material; so in the setting I am writing for there would not be any racially marginalized students who need to feel that they belong in the class.
principals all did this using methods that suited their school best and addressed the needs of their teachers, such as racial autobiographies.

Teachers also participated in “professional learning that affirmed the diversity of all student backgrounds, which often ran parallel to understanding one’s personal diversity” (Kose, 2007, p. 291). The teachers participated in learning that affirmed diversity is in contrast to the nature of schooling practices which promotes deficit thinking, negative stereotypes, or something to be minimalized. Even in schools that are predominately white or all-white this is still important. Even though there may not be marginalized students, diversity still exists in the world and students need to be prepared to interact with it. The most relevant example Kose gives of how principals affirmed diversity was a “cultural plunge” conducted early in the school year. By using this tool teachers were exposed to a community within their community they may not have interacted with before and were not knowledgeable about. When teachers were taught to affirm diversity, it changed teachers’ way of thinking, rather than perpetuating their color-blindness and deficit thinking.

In addition to Kose’s work, Brown (2004) also discussed the need for awareness in teachers in her proposed framework. Brown discussed how awareness can be increased in an individual through critical reflection. Brown stated that “critical inquiry involves the conscious consideration of the moral and ethical implications and consequences of schooling practices on students. Self-reflection adds the dimension of deep examination of personal assumptions, values, and beliefs. Critical reflection merges the two terms…” (2004, p. 89). This idea of critical reflection is similar to what Kose described when he talked about the need for personal reflection done by teachers. Brown even talked about similar activities such as cultural autobiographies and prejudice reduction workshops, which move to affirm diversities. In a later section of her paper,
Brown also discussed the advantages of using educational plunges or as Kose (2007) called it, cultural plunge.

In both of these papers, the authors said that for teachers to teach with a social justice emphasis they must first have a better understanding of their social identity. Only after a teacher understands their social identity can they lead students to understand their and how it affects their way of thinking. Once teachers have a better understanding of their social identity there can be progress in applying Principles 6 and 8 in their curriculum. This also helps in applying Principle 1 by increasing teachers’ awareness of how social identity affects student behavior. That is why there is a need to develop teachers’ awareness of their social identities in social justice professional developments.

**Professional development should have support from the school and the community**

In order for a social professional development to succeed it must have support from the school and the community. Yeo (1999) talks about this and how multicultural education has not been supported in rural schools because it promotes the upheaval of the status quo. This is discussed in Part 1, in the “Why is social justice education is needed in rural white schools?” section of this paper. With this being the case in many rural schools, social justice is not supported in their schools and is not taught in their schools. Thus, the first hurdle that must be conquered is gaining the support of the community and the school. With the support from the community there could be a change throughout the whole community and not just for the teachers and students.

Payne and Smith (2011) developed the Reducing Stigma in Schools (RSIS) model, which they created to facilitate school climate change using critical theory to frame issues of oppression and marginalization. The authors chose content they believed would not only “increase teacher
awareness on the issues faced by LGBTQ youth, but to help teachers understand the educational relevance of these issues and to develop strategies for creating more affirming learning environments” (Payne, 2011, p. 182).

Even though this article and Payne and Smith’s second article (2018) focus on professional development on LGBTQ issues, their findings are crucial to the professional development that I am suggesting. The authors faced criticism and resistance from principals in schools who did not see that their type of professional development was needed in their schools. Principals and administrators said that they did not have that type of student in their school so the professional development was not needed. Other principals said that hosting an LGBTQ professional development would not be supported by the community because it went against what the community believed was acceptable. Ways that Payne and Smith overcame the resistance was by partnering with a college to add an extra level of validity to their professional development. The staff presented the school’s leaders with research about the risk present for LGBTQ students and how supporting the professional development would be an important step to promote equity, disrupt stigma, and improve educational outcomes. Similar resistance would be expected by schools when introduced to a social justice professional development. An all-white school or community would not see the importance of training their students to be able to interact with other cultures but it has been shown it’s crucial if they are to succeed in the world (Budge, 2006).

While this study doesn’t look at the overall effectiveness of social justice professional development, it does talk about the negative reaction that is faced by these programs. Even after creating an effective professional development it will be useless unless it is introduced into schools. Payne and Smith (2018) found effective ways to introduce their material and to create
advocates from the training. This type of support would further help students better understand Principle 3 because they could look at how their knowledge has been formed based on their communal context. Without the support of the community, analysis of the community and the communal context would prove difficult. It would also be hard for teachers and students to better understand Principle 8 if the community has a closed-minded perspective that outside cultures aren’t important.

**Professional development should build a community of like-minded individuals**

Community and networking are a big part of the educational world from teachers sharing resources to learning from each other’s experiences. It should also be the same for teachers who are participating in the same professional development and who are passionate about the same things. Kohli, Picower, Martinez, and Ortiz (2015) supported this when they talked about theorizing a model of critical professional development (CPD). The authors refer to “technocratic, top-down professional development as antidialogical professional development (APD)” (Kohli et al., 2015, p. 7). Critical professional development is “designed to provoke cooperative dialogue, build unity, provide shared leadership, and meet the critical needs of teachers. CPD engages teachers in political analysis of their role as educators in the reproduction or resistance of inequality” (Kohli et al., 2015, p. 11). The authors studied three grassroots teacher professional developments to analyze their commonalities. These communities were established by educators who saw a need for these communities and in order to meet the needs of the educators. I am not proposing that they be replicated explicitly by a rural community but that they could create their own space for support, as these educators and community members have.

The first grassroots professional development was the New York Collective of Radical Educators (NYCoRE), a group of current and former public-school teachers. They organized
around issues of educational justice by developing curricula, leading political education, and participating in larger social movements. At the NYCoRE there are annual Inquiry to Action Groups (ItAGs), which are where educators make connections between social justice issues and classroom practice. The ItAGs meet “weekly for at least seven weeks in which teacher and allies read social justice texts, connect theory with classroom practice, and take action around their area of study” (Kohli et al., 2015, p. 12). In order to evaluate the program, NYCoRE collected surveys at the conclusion of four ItAGs. The members were invited to fill out anonymous online surveys that recorded participants’ reflections on the impact of the ItAG on their teaching practice and educational philosophy.

The second grassroots program was the People’s Education Movement (People’s Ed) where teachers and community members, primarily from South Los Angeles, voluntarily attend biweekly general body meetings. At the meetings, members engage in discussions on educational equity and work towards solutions. One initiative of People’s Ed is to support teachers in developing critical and culturally relevant pedagogies through biweekly teacher inquiry groups. The data from People’s Ed was collected through ethnographic, participant observations and formal and informal interviews over the course of the inquiry group cycle. The questions sought to understand the usefulness of the teacher-led inquiry groups for participants in answering their overarching question of: How do we develop a decolonizing pedagogy?

The last group involved in the study was the Institute for Teachers of Color Committed to Racial Justice (ITOC). The ITOC was formed in response to the limited number of teachers of color in U.S. public schools, high attritions rates from the profession, and the lack of relevancy of teacher education and professional development to their experiences. “ITOC differs from other social justice teacher conferences because there is a selective application process used to
facilitate an intimate, deep professional development space, much like a cohort-based teacher education program” (Kohli et al., 2015, p. 13). The data collected from the ITOC was from 218 self-selected K-12 teachers who identified as Asian American, Black, Latina/o, indigenous, and mixed race and who self-reported a commitment to racial justice. The data was collected in four ways: short answer questionnaires given to all attendees, one to two-hour in-depth interviews with a smaller self-selected pool, video recorded counter-storytelling, and ethnographic observational notes throughout the CPD.

The authors reported their findings by looking at the four aspects found in all three of the sampled CPDs. The authors found that there was cooperation and a) authentic dialogue, b) unity through an intentionality of community building, c) organization of shared power, and d) cultural synthesis where needs of the perspectives of students, communities, and teachers were centered over the interests of the leaders. The authors found that in contrast to APDs, CPDs involve cooperation of “teachers working together to create spaces for learning that more closely reflect the holistic needs of their students and themselves” (Kohli et al., 2015, p. 15). With an established cooperative environment, teachers felt more open to voice their opinions not just on issues addressed in the CPD but also about the CPD itself to make the CPD work better for themselves and their learning. The authors gave an example about a teacher who in a People’s Ed meeting felt that a specific discussion was very narrow and directed, so she asked the facilitator if there was any way to open up the discussion more to include more perspectives. The facilitator, rather than dismissing the teacher, worked to understand where the teacher was coming from and then addressed the concern and altered the way of presenting information to include more perspectives and involvement from other teachers. With this cooperation environment, the teacher felt comfortable to dialogue with the facilitators and push the space to
be more responsive to her needs. “Providing inquiry group members a voice moves PD from a banking education to a dialectical relationship…the connection between people must be grounded in genuine acts of love that are dialectical and reflective” (Kohli et al., 2015, p. 16). This environment that had been established also allowed for members to feel united together.

Freire described that “it is in the interest of the oppressor to weaken the oppressed still further, to isolate them, to create and deepen rifts among them” (as cited in Kohli et al, 2015, p.141). They relate this idea to explain the current “trend of divide and rule often manifests in K-12 schools when parents, teachers, and students are pitted against each other to lay blame for educational failure” (Kohli et al., 2015, p.16). There is also the shift from unity when teachers are pitted against each other for limited resources, belonging to different unions, and often work against each other. One specific example of unity the authors referenced was ItAGs, because they are not exclusive in who can attend their meetings. Their CPD is a comprehensive community including people of various jobs within education: teachers, artists who teach, administrators, and people work in community-based organizations. Most traditional professional developments are only attended by teachers and usually teachers at the same grade or subject area which further maintains division within the education community. By breaking down these divisions, participants were able to appreciate what they learned from people who care about the same issues but may approach them differently. In creating these spaces for unity for those concerned with educational justice, CPD gives people the opportunity to engage in critical discussions and to reflect on dialogic action for social change and move toward taking collective social action.

In many traditional professional developments, teachers are given no active role in their professional learning, which is where organization comes in by having leaders share the power
with the people they serve. This idea was what led ItAGs to self-identify leaders and facilitators from within their network of teachers and activists rather than rely on outside experts. In every CPD, participants had significant roles in developing, facilitating, and building upon the CPD. “Framed as experts within the deconstructed power hierarchies, engaged to name their needs, and encouraged to co-create and add onto the space, CPD offers teachers agency in their own professional growth” (Kohli et al., 2015, p. 18).

Often when an education corporation, or other APD, enters a school they do so with little input from teachers or the community about the context. This ends up leaving the teachers with few tools specific to their contexts and few ways to apply their knowledge to their craft; this is where cultural synthesis comes in and allows the teachers’ needs to be met. With cultural synthesis there are no imposed models and prescriptions but rather people critically analyze and take action on their reality. When a PD utilizes cultural synthesis, it allows teachers to critically analyze and act upon issues and contradictions specific to their contexts. “This action is guided by the struggles of the people, and decided with the people, ensuring that change begins from a collective vision of the oppressed” (Kohli et al., 2015, p.19). CPD must be participant driven, but facilitators must also guide the discourse towards a more critical end. The goal of CPD is to facilitate dialogical action through being constructed within a supportive community. “One teacher shared, “I felt over and over again, the balance of discomfort/challenge and safety/love that I feel to be what all human beings require to grow and develop. I felt troubled and humbled, while always feeling valued and appreciated at the same time” (Kohli et al., 2015, p.21).

When teachers had a chance to group together and learn from each other as equals they were able to provide support for each other that created change in their communities. If teachers are able to support each other with their experiences and resources, then Principle 12 would be
more likely to succeed. Teachers helping teachers allows them to build assessments together and challenge each other which would support their efforts to incorporate Principle 8 and build curricula as described in Principle 3.

**Professional development should be reform-based**

In this section I discuss studies that used reform-based structures in their professional developments, that is, when professional development is done in conjunction with broader school reform initiatives. Reform refers to the idea of coordinated efforts to bring about change in an educational system. Garet et al. (2001) described activities and tools that are used in reform-based types of professional developments as “study groups or mentoring and coaching” (p.920). Later, Garet et al. described reform professional development as different from traditional professional development in this way:

activities such as mentoring and coaching take place, at least in part, during the process of the classroom instruction or during regularly scheduled teacher planning time. By locating opportunities for professional development within a teacher’s regular work day, reform types of professional development may be more likely than traditional forms to make connections with classroom teaching, and they may be easier to sustain over time. (p.921)

Even though these studies are not explicitly about the effectiveness of reform-based professional development they show the effectiveness of reform-based professional development along with other tools to improve the effectiveness of professional development. Reform-based professional development refers to a professional development that works along with ongoing educational reform and change (e.g. incorporating the Next Generation Science Standards) and can incorporate many different tools to better prepare teachers.
Bianchini, Dwyer, Brenner, and Wearly (2015) looked at the effectiveness of strategies in creating equity talk when they were created within a reform-based structure. In their study, they examined “practicing secondary science and mathematics teachers as they engaged in a 2.5-year long professional development effort to understand and address equity issues in their classrooms” (Bianchini et al., 2015, p.578). They collected a large amount of data, which included video records of professional development seminars, audio records of individual interviews with teacher participants, drafts and final presentations of research projects teachers conducted in their classrooms, and teachers’ written reflections about project activities. The professional development project the authors studied was Teaching for Equity in Mathematics and Science Education (TEMSE), which attempted to assist secondary science and mathematics teachers in understanding and addressing equity in their classrooms. The TEMSE included four types of professional development learning strategies: teacher research, personal experiences, reform-based instructional practices, and examination of school/state/national data.

Teacher research was made central because it had been found to promote interrogation, critique, and transformation of teachers, their classrooms, and their schools. This is because it allows teachers to become the researchers to learn from their teaching, and in turn, teach from their learning. Teachers were supported in their learning of how to create research questions in their practice, revising the questions in light of equity concerns, and collecting and analyzing classroom and school data. Participants looked at their own and others’ personal experiences with inequities in society, in general, and in science and mathematics education. This was done to make teachers aware of their own identity to help them better relate to all students and relate to their experiences. The third strategy, reform-based instructional practices, was used because they are considered effective in teaching science and mathematics to diverse students. These
practices included ways to support disciplinary content and language development for English Language Learners, to make science and mathematics multicultural, and to connect school science to students’ experiences, interests, and communities. In the examination of school/state/national data, teacher participants and professional developers examined school, district, state, and national demographic, course taking, and achievement data. The goal was for teachers to “identify patterns in the data so as to better understand how policies and achievement practices affect students” (Bianchini et al., 2015, p.584).

Bianchini et al. (2015) found that teachers and staff talked less during personal experiences activities than any of the other three activities. Of the four types of activities, examination of school/state/national data had the highest engagement in generative conversations about equity. There were two themes identified in these equity talks. The first, was conversations around the types of diversity and the intersection categories when examining, describing, and attempting to explain student enrollment, course taking, and achievement data. The second was how “teacher actions and school policies contributed to the production of the disparate patterns they found in the data, rather than pointing to perceived deficiencies in students, their parents, and/or their communities” (Bianchini et al., 2015, p.596).

When they placed the strategies along a continuum from most strengths to most limitations in facilitating teachers’ equity talk they found that examination of school/state/national data strategy emerged as having the most strengths and discussing personal experiences had the most limitations. The authors provided two reasons that examination of data had the most strengths. The first was that, because the activities were concrete and limited, teachers might have spent less time identifying and framing equity issues and more time trying to make sense of them. The second was that teachers might have found participating in these
activities less personally and professionally challenging. When reflecting on personal experiences, teachers may have had fewer equity conversations because they found it difficult to engage in interrogating equity issues while participating in this strategy’s conversations. “In their individual reflections, teacher participants emphasized that personal experiences conversations required members of a learning community both to build a collective sense of trust and to overcome their individual reluctance to sharing personal, sometimes painful, experiences” (Bianchini et al., 2015, p.604). The second highest strength yielding strategy was teacher research. The authors proposed that this may have been due to teacher participants having more time to thoughtfully make connections between equity issues and their methods or findings. The teacher participants may have had their existing beliefs and practices challenged by the data and research methods. This would have caused them to reflect on the inequities at the classroom, school, and community levels. This was because most of the teacher research activities were at the classroom level, so these activities were more personally and professional challenging than examination of school/state/national data activities and thus more difficult for teachers and professional developers to guide in generative ways. “Males, Otten, and Herbel-Eisenmann (2010) found that teacher participants experienced greater difficulty critiquing their own practices than the ideas of those outside their learning community” (as cited in Bianchini et al., 2015, p.605). Bianchini et al. ended by saying that even though each strategy can be used to explore equity, professional developers and researchers must thoroughly consider how the structure and substance of a given professional development project differently shapes teachers’ engagement in and/or resistance to exploring equity issues.

In order to create a professional development that produces changes, tools must be used and studied for effectiveness and that is where the following articles were helpful. First,
Fishman, Marx, Best, and Tal (2003) learned that analyzing data after teaching the professional development was able to influence how it was taught. This study focused on the effectiveness of professional developments rather than on the social justice aspect of professional developments. Fishman et al. designed their professional development by first analyzing what they wanted the students to learn and then designing the professional development to be able to lead educators to teach the students. They chose a science standard for what they wanted students to learn, and then designed a “professional development that was intended to help teachers acquire the knowledge necessary to successfully enact the curriculum units, attempting to focus on areas where student performance may be improved” (Fishman et al., 2003, p.648). After leading the professional development, the authors collected student data to determine the effectiveness of their professional development. Once that was determined, they were able to adjust their instruction in a way that would improve the professional development’s effectiveness and increase students’ performance.

In this particular study, the educators participated in a workshop-based professional development where they were taught and given the information needed to proficiently teach to the standard the researchers chose. They then conducted focus-group discussions on how the workshop could be improved. Afterwards, they collected quantitative data on how well the students performed and adjusted their professional development to meet the needs that were still not being met by the teachers. They ended up creating a more hands-on activity for the teachers to do and learn from in their professional development, which the teachers could use themselves in their classroom following the professional development. The process followed a process of professional development design, evaluation, and re-design according to results.
This way of developing a professional development was effective, and I feel would be an effective way to prepare this proposed social justice professional development. Focusing on the end goal of the students becoming globally competent citizens would allow for a professional development to be built effectively. One aspect that will not be explicitly addressed or fully developed in this article is how a student’s performance would be measured on how competent of citizens the students become after teachers are trained in this professional development. A student’s competence could be measured based on word use in class and in written work, willingness to participate in social justice conversations, and their willingness to work toward a more equitable community or classroom environment.

From these studies, it can be seen that professional development that is coordinated with larger school reform efforts can allow for genuine discussion and greater time to be able to work through material and make changes in their instruction. This is a crucial part of the professional development because, without change in teachers’ behavior, students will continue to learn from the same dominant perspective material and instruction. If teachers are able incorporate new equitable teaching strategies then the students will be given a chance to change their way of thinking and how they view society. Then they could choose whether or not they want to be active citizens for change.

**Professional development should emphasize active learning, collective participation, coherence, and content**

For professional development to be successful there must be emphasis given to its structure. If there is not adequate time given to the participants, not enough coherence to other professional training, connection to subject area content, or time to work together then there is less of a chance the professional development will promote change in teacher practices and material will continue to be taught from the white dominant perspective. There has to be thought
put into how the school and communities are structured and what their needs are in order to provide adequate instruction.

In a three-year longitudinal study done by Desimone, Porter, Garet, Yoon, and Birman (2002), the authors focused on the effectiveness of professional developments, but not on social justice professional developments. This study is included to discuss effective professional development strategies rather than effective social justice professional developments. The plan for their study was laid out in detail by Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, and Yoon (2001). The authors first evaluated schools receiving funding through the Eisenhower Professional Development Program, which is a federal program that supports professional development for teachers, mainly in mathematics and science (Garet et al., 2001, p.918). “Districts were sampled in proportion to the number of teachers in the district, and SAHE (state agencies for higher education) grantees were sampled in proportion to the size of their Eisenhower grant, based on the logic that SAHE grantees with larger grants would serve larger numbers of teachers” (Garet et al., 2001, 919). The authors focused their analysis on structural features – characteristics of the structure or design of professional development activities; and core features – dimensions of the substance of the professional development experience, in order to identify aspects of high-quality professional developments. The authors include three structural features in their model: (a) the form of the activity (reform or traditional) (b) the duration of the activity, including the total number of contact hours that participants spent in the activity, as well as the span of time over which the activity took place: and (c) the degree to which the activity emphasized the collective participation of groups of teachers from the same school, grade level, or department as opposed many teachers from many schools. The authors also examined three core features of professional development activities: (a) the degree to which the activity has a content focus; (b) the extent to
which the activity offered opportunities for active learning, such as opportunities for teachers to become actively engaged in the meaningful analysis of teaching and learning; and (c) the degree to which the activity promoted coherence in teachers’ professional development, by incorporating experiences that are consistent with teachers’ goals and aligned with state standards and assessments, and by encouraging continuing professional communication among teachers (Garet et al., 2001, p.919-920).

To analyze the first structural feature, form of activity, the authors had each teacher describe the specified Eisenhower-assisted activity in which the teacher participated and offered 10 categories to choose from for identifying the type of activity. They coded the first four categories as traditional forms of activities, including within-district workshops, courses for college credit, out-of-district workshops, and out-of-district conferences. Reform type activities included the remaining six categories of teacher study groups, teacher collaboratives or networks, committees, mentoring, internships, and resource centers (Garet et al., 2001, p.921). When surveying about duration, the authors focused on two aspects of duration which were the total number of contact hours spent in professional development activity that were held during the 1-year period from July 1, 1997 through June 30, 1998 and the span or period of time in days, weeks, and months over which the activity spread (Garet et al., 2001, p.922). The third aspect of collective participation was surveyed by asking each teacher whether the activity was designed for all teachers in a school or set of schools, or all teachers in the teacher’s department or grade level (Garet et al., 2001, p.923).

The first core feature, which was content focused, was assessed by asking each teacher to indicate the degree of emphasis the activity gave to deepening content knowledge in math or science, using a three point-scale (no emphasis = 0, minor emphasis = 1, major emphasis =2)
(Garet et al., 2001, p.925). When surveying about the second core feature, promoting active learning, the authors focused on five dimensions: observing and being observed, planning classroom implementation, reviewing student work, and presenting, leading and writing (Garet et al., 2001, p.925).

For observing and being observed, the authors asked each teacher whether they received coaching or mentoring in the classroom as part of professional development activity; whether the teacher’s teaching was observed by the activity leader(s) and feedback was provided; and whether the teacher’s teaching was observed by other participants and feedback was provided. The authors also asked whether or not the professional development activity was evaluated in part based on an observation of the teacher’s classroom (Garet et al., 2001, p.925). To assess planning classroom implementation, the authors asked if each teacher, as a part of the professional development activity, practiced under simulated conditions with feedback; met formally with other activity participants to discuss classroom implementation; communicated with the leader(s) of the activity concerning classroom implementation; met informally with other participants to discuss classroom implementation; and developed curricula or lesson plans that other participants or the activity leader reviewed. The authors asked each teacher whether or not they reviewed student work or scored assessments as part of the activity; whether other activity participants or the activity leader reviewed work completed by the students in the teacher’s classroom; and whether student outcomes were examined as part of an evaluation of the activity in order to measure the amount of reviewing student work present in professional development activity. Presenting, leading, and writing were surveyed by the authors asking whether, as a part of the activity, the teacher gave a lecture or presentation; conducted a
demonstration or a lesson, unit, or skill; led a whole-group discussion; led a small group discussion; or wrote a paper, report, or plan (Garet et al., 2001, p.926).

The data from the second feature was made up of four items to measure opportunities for observation, five for planning, four for reviewing student work, and five for presenting/writing so summing up the 18 types of opportunities would give more weight to planning and presenting/writing than to observing and reviewing student work. To compensate for this in computing the index, the authors weighted each of the four items pertaining to observation and the four items pertaining to student work by 1.25. This produced an index that ran from 0 (no opportunities were provided for active learning) to 20 (all types of active learning were provided) (Garet et al., 2001, p.926-927).

The third core feature, fostering coherence, was surveyed by looking at three dimensions: connections with goals and other activities, alignment with state and district standards and assessments, and communications with others. Connections with goals and other activities was surveyed by the authors asking each teacher “to report the extent to which the activity the teacher attended was consistent with the teacher’s goals for professional development; based explicitly on what the teacher had learned in earlier professional development experiences; and followed up with activities that built upon what was learned in this professional development activity. Teachers responded on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1= not at all and 5 = to a great extent” (Garet et al., 2001, p.927). When surveying about alignment with state and district standards and assessments the authors asked teachers in their national sample “to indicate the extent to which the activity was aligned with state or district standards and curriculum frameworks, and with state and assessments. Teachers were asked to respond using a 5-point scale, from 1 = not at all to 5 = aligned to a great extent” (Garet et al., 2001, p.928). When surveying about
communication with others the authors asked each teacher “whether they had discussed or shared what they learned with other teachers in their school or department who did not attend the activity; whether they had discussed or shared what they had learned with administrators (e.g. principal or department chair); and whether they had communicated, outside of formal meetings held as part of the activity, with participants in the activity who teach in other schools” (Garet et al., 2001, p.928). A weight of 1.5 was applied to the second dimension because only two items were available, while there were three items for the first and third dimension. This produced a scale that ran from 0 (the activity did not include any of the types of coherence we measured) to 9 (the activity provided all of the forms we measured) (Garet et al., 2001, p.928-929).

In analyzing overall teacher outcomes from attending professional development activities, the authors looked at two dimensions: teacher knowledge and skills, and change in classroom teaching practices. To assess the effects of participation on teachers’ knowledge and skill, the authors “asked each teacher to indicate to what extent to which knowledge and skills had been enhanced in each of the following areas: (a) curriculum (e.g. units, texts, standards); (b) instructional methods; (c) approaches to assessments; (d) use of technology in instruction (e.g. computers, graphing calculators); (e) strategies for teaching diverse student populations (e.g. with disabilities, from underrepresented populations, economically disadvantaged, limited English proficient, range of abilities): and (f) deepening knowledge or mathematics” (Garet et al., 2001, p.929). The teachers responded using a 5-point scale, where 1 = not at all and 5 = to a great extent. In determining change in classroom teaching practice, the authors asked each teacher to what extent they made changes in the following domains “(a) the mathematics curriculum content, (b) the cognitive challenge of mathematics classroom activities, (c) the instructional methods employed, (d) the types or mix of assessments used to evaluate students,
(e) the way technology (calculators and computer) is used in instruction, and (f) the approaches taken to student diversity. Teachers were asked to report responses on a scale from 0 to 3, where 0 = no change, 1 = minor change, 2 = moderate change, and 3 = significant change” (Garet et al., 2001, p.929).

In order to examine the effects of the structural and core features of professional development on teacher outcomes, the authors included school and teacher characteristics as control variables in their model. The two characteristics of the schools were percent of students eligible for free and reduced-price lunch and the percent of minority enrollment. The model also included five characteristics of the participating teachers: gender, subject of the teacher’s professional development experience (mathematics or science); grade level (elementary, middle, or high school); whether the teacher was certified in his or her main teaching field; and the teacher’s teacher experience, in years. The authors also coded the sponsorship of the activity as a variable in the model (coded 1 = SAHE grantee, 0 = district). Given their framework, the authors expected the structural features of professional development to play an important role in determining the substance or core of the professional development experienced by teachers; and they expected the core features of the professional development experience to contribute to teacher outcomes, including enhanced knowledge and skills and changes in teaching practice. They estimated the implied model using ordinary least squares (OLS) regression (Garet et al., 2001, p.930).

The authors found that activity type had an important influence on duration: reform activities tend to span longer periods and to involve greater numbers of contact hours than traditional activities. The authors also found that there was a modest direct effect of activity type on enhanced knowledge and skills, indicating that reform activities have slightly more positive
outcomes when all of the design features and quality characteristics in the model are included. They also found that duration, time span and contact hours, exerted a substantial influence on core features of professional development experiences. The authors found that time span and contact hours had substantial positive influence on opportunities for active learning and coherence. Longer activities tend to include substantially more opportunities for active learning and tend to promote coherence. There was also a moderate positive influence between time span and contact hours and emphasis given to content knowledge with more hours allowing for a greater likelihood a focus on mathematics and science was given.

The three measures of core features were all found to have a positive influence on enhanced knowledge and skills. Content focus and coherence both had substantial positive effects on enhanced knowledge and skills, “indicating that activities that give greater emphasis to content and that are better connected to teachers’ other professional development experiences and other reform efforts are more likely to produce enhanced knowledge and skills” (Garet et al., 2001, p.933). The authors also found that activities that were content focused but did not increase teachers’ knowledge and skills had a negative association with changes in teacher practice.

Lastly the authors found that teachers who reported enhanced knowledge and skills were likely to report changing their teaching practices. The authors also found that coherence of professional development activities had an important positive influence on change in teacher practice, over and above the effects of knowledge and skills. “Teachers who experience professional development that is coherent – that is, connected to their other professional development experiences, aligned with standards and assessments, and fosters professional communication – are more likely to change their practice” (Garet et al., 2001, p.934).
When comparing reform and traditional types, the authors found that many traditional type activities offered between 12 to 16 types of active learning and many reform type activities only one or two types of active learning. This would be because reform type activities focused more deeply on the one or two activities versus traditional that used many types but never focused deeply on any. Teachers also reported that they changed their practice more as a result of reform activities than traditional activities.

The authors also stated that from their data it was clear that many professional developments are not high quality, whether they are structured as reform or traditional. The authors also said, there may be several reasons why activities lack high-quality features. First, providing high quality activities requires a substantial amount of lead time and planning which schools and districts may not always have. Second, high quality features are expensive and by the authors’ estimates it costs on average $512 per teacher to provide high-quality professional development experience. That amount is twice the amount of money that districts typically spend.

A similar study done by Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, and Gallager (2007) sampled 454 teachers who used inquiry science teaching. The survey of teachers was served by 28 professional development providers in a hierarchical linear modeling framework. The authors were looking at how applicable the findings were from the Garet et al. (2001) and Desimone et al. (2002) studies. The authors stated that the previous studies were not directly applicable to a professional development on a single topic such as science. The teachers that were surveyed were participants in the Global Learning and Observation to Benefit the Environment (GLOBE) program, and data gathered was used to further research about the effectiveness of professional developments in a single topic.
What the authors found was that when the professional development focused on GLOBE implementation and aligning GLOBE activities with state, regional, or national standards and how to integrate them with their own curriculum, classroom teachers were more likely to feel prepared for student inquiry. This finding is similar to what was found in Garet et al. (2001), that teachers perceived that support for planning had a positive impact on teacher learning. Penuel et al. (2007) also found that when GLOBE content was emphasized during the initial professional development teachers felt prepared for student inquiry. They also found that the greater focus on student inquiry and the scientific process had a positive impact on teachers’ data-reporting practices. What they also found was that having “meaningful, ongoing, and coherent professional development experiences that were consistent with their local school and district goals and other ongoing reform efforts was significant for teachers’ protocol use and preparedness for student inquiry” (Penuel et al., 2007, p.947). This was consistent with Garet et al.’s (2001) finding that perceived coherence of teacher professional development had a positive impact on program implementation. Teachers who participated in more reform-like professional development were also more likely to report feeling prepared for student inquiry. Lastly, teachers reported more change in practice when there was a collective participation in their professional development. These findings further supported some of the findings in Garet et al. (2001) and Desimone et al. (2002) within the context of a science professional development.

Studies have also shown that often there is resistance from teachers, administrators, and communities who do not agree with social justice education being used in their schools or associate it with political goals (Payne & Smith, 2011; Payne & Smith, 2018; Theoharis, 2007; Yeo, 1999). This is often coming from the mindset that social justice education is for non-white minoritized students or any student who does not identify as part of the dominant group, so they
feel they do not need it in their white dominant schools, which was discussed in Part One of this paper. The prejudices against social justice education discussed in Part One are the same ones that are experienced in the articles referenced in this section of the paper, Part Two. Payne and Smith faced pushback from administrators who did not see the relevance of a LGBTQ professional development in their schools where there were no LGBTQ identifying members; likewise, many administrators do not see the need for a social justice professional development where there are no minoritized students. They do not see the social justice professional development as a benefit to their teachers or as an aid to their students becoming better “multicultural, justice-oriented citizens” (Kose, 2007, p.281) by becoming more equitable thinkers. The reality is that social justice education is not only for a better education for non-white, minoritized students, but also to give white students exposure to cultures and social identities other than their own and to create democratic multicultural citizens who can promote change. By only giving white students a white dominant perspective education, they are being deprived of understanding other cultures and perspectives that they may interact with after completing their education. Brown et al. references this in Principle 3 when they say “In curriculum and teaching units and in textbooks students often study historical events, concepts, and issues only or primarily from the points of view of the victors” (2001, p.8). From this acknowledgement, it can be seen that students are being taught from the dominant perspective and are not being challenged to see from other perspectives causing them to enter the world without the skills necessary to see from other perspectives. Without being able to see where people from other cultures or who have had different life experiences are coming from, the students are not prepared to interact with them in societally beneficial ways. The resistance to social justice education from white students, teachers, and communities is just further evidence
of the need for social justice education, evidence that they are unable to see because they have not been given the adequate skills to do so.

As seen in these studies there needs to be consideration of not just what is included in the professional development but also how long the professional development will take and how it will tie together with what the teachers already know in order to promote the change that needs to happen. By doing this, a social justice professional development would be created as described in Principle 1. It would also provide a professional development that would promote change in teachers’ instruction and curriculum building.

Challenges in creating a social justice professional development without knowing the context in which it will be taught

In order to prepare teachers to be more social justice minded and “prepare students to engage community, national, and global complexity as democratic multicultural citizens who understand and address sociopolitical issues” (Kose, 2007, p.277), professional development should: have an appropriate facilitator/leader; lead to awareness of positionalities and social identities; garner community/school support; be reform-based; and emphasize active learning, collective participation, coherence, and content.

Within each aspect there are many tools that can be utilized, but without knowing the exact setting for the professional development, it is almost impossible to know which would be most effective. Possible tools and approaches might include those mentioned by Brown (2004) (cultural autobiographies, life histories, prejudice reduction workshops, etc.); Kose (2007) (personal diversity awareness, cultural capital, culture plunge, etc.); Garet et al. (2001) (classroom observations, curriculum building, reviewing student work, etc.); and Barton (1999) (community service learning and reflection groups) to name a few. This is where the difficulty
lies in planning a social justice professional development for a rural white school. Even with these tools, there will still be many hurdles to overcome in implementing and creating a social justice professional development.

One difficulty is the many different types of rural communities in the United States, such as agriculture communities in the Midwest and coal mining communities in the East. In each of these communities there are similarities but also major differences. It is these differences that make it difficult to make a social justice professional development that will cover each type of community. In Iowa or the Midwest, where much of the research has been focused, there are many different types of rural communities such as Jewish, Amish, LatinX (e.g., in a community with a meat packing plant or other agribusiness), in addition to those that are predominantly white. With these significant differences, there would need to be attention given to them in order to effectively address the lack of social justice in the community and how to overcome it. It is for these reasons that this creative component is about what needs to go into any social justice professional development but leaves the specifics about how or what to include to vary for each community.

Another challenge that I found was that in many of the studies included in this creative component and others found during my research, a professional development’s effectiveness was determined by analyzing student data before the teachers went through the professional development and then again after (Fishman et al., 2003; Fishman et al., 2013; Allen et al., 2011). The goal of this proposed professional development is that teachers become allies for social justice and want to educate their students so they become social justice, multicultural competent citizens in society. It is this where the issues come up because it is hard if not impossible to quantitatively measure how socially just an individual is so there is little research done on it.
Many of the studies have addressed social justice in a way that focuses on students belonging in the minority and how they can better succeed in a school system created and controlled by the dominant. There are very few studies that have been done on how to create more culturally aware citizens out of white students. This is not saying there needs to be fewer studies done on how to better prepare students who identify in the minority to succeed but there does need to be more done on how to better prepare white students to be allies in society. A teacher utilizing the tools shown at the end of Figure 1 would be hard to analyze effectiveness for each student. Each student must process the new information for themselves and make it a part of their way of thinking. For each student this may look different but with the same result of becoming active citizens in society. It is for those reasons a plan to introduce multiple social justice professional development should be made for teachers in white rural schools so as to give their students a full education.
References


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