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ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, SOCIAL JUSTICE ADVOCACY TRENDS RELATED TO GAY/STRAIGHTALLIANCE ADVISORS' EXPERIENCES IN SCHOOLS, by EMILY COOK GRAYBILL, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Advisory Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in the College of Education, Georgia State University.

The Dissertation Advisory Committee and the student's Department Chair, as representatives of the faculty, certify that this dissertation has met all of the excellence and scholarship as determined by the faculty. The Dean of the College of Education concurs.

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ABSTRACT

SOCIAL JUSTICE ADVOCACY TRENDS RELATED TO
GAY/STRAIGHTALLIANCE ADVISORS'
EXPERIENCES IN SCHOOLS
by
Emily Cook Graybill

Social justice within education increasingly has been emphasized over the past decade (Kraft, 2007; Oakes et al., 2000; Riester et al., 2002). Little is known about the demographic trends and the advocacy experiences of school-based social justice advocates such as Gay/Straight Alliance (GSA) advisors despite the established importance of teachers engaging in social justice advocacy within schools. Data were collected from a national sample (N = 262) of GSA advisors to further the understanding of the demographic characteristics and the experiences of these social justice advocates and to investigate the relationships between these variables. An ethnographic survey (Schensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999) was utilized for data collection in which the language and experiences reported by GSA advisors (Graybill et al., 2009; Watson et al., 2010) were incorporated. Using an ecological model established in a previous study with GSA advisors (Watson et al., 2010), the individual-, school-, and sociocultural-level characteristics that affect advisors were examined. The results suggested that this sample of GSA advisors was a demographically homogenous group with 67.3% female, 85.7% White, 72.2% who voted Democrat, and 77.1% who were educated at the Master's level or higher. Exploratory factor analysis identified two dimensions (i.e., Barriers, Facilitators) by which the advisors appeared to define their experiences when advocating for LGBT youth. Hierarchical regression analyses suggested that at the individual level, experiencing negative personal and professional consequences to advocating and the

level of self-perceived preparedness to advocate based on prior training contributed to the variability in the advisors' experiences with social justice advocacy. At the sociocultural level, advisors in rural schools reported more barriers and fewer facilitators to advocating. Overall, all seven predictors entered, including those at the individual (i.e., experiencing negative personal or professional consequences to advocating, level of self-perceived preparedness to advocate), school (i.e., school resources, school size), and sociocultural levels (i.e., region of the country, community type), accounted for 33.0% ($p < .05$) of the variance in the Barriers and 10.6% ($p < .05$) of the variance in the Facilitators to advocating for LGBT youth in schools.

SOCIAL JUSTICE ADVOCACY TRENDS RELATED TO GAY/STRAIGHTALLIANCE ADVISORS' EXPERIENCES IN SCHOOLS

by

Emily Cook Graybill

A Dissertation

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APA	American Psychological Association
CRIS	Cross Racial Identity Scale
EAA	Equal Access Act
FFM	Five Factor Model
GBJW	Global Belief in a Just World
GSA	Gay/Straight Alliance
IGD	Intergroup Dialogue
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender
MSPCCS	Multicultural School Psychology Counseling Competency Scale
NASP	National Association of School Psychologists
NCATE	National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
NCES	National Center for Education Statistics
NEO-PI-3	Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness Personality Inventory, Third Edition
PCSIM	Participatory Culture-Specific Intervention Model
PCSMCD	Participatory Culture-Specific Model of Course Development
SJC	Social Justice Commitment
TEAC	Teacher Education Accreditation Council
WRIAS	White Racial Identity Attitude Scale

CHAPTER 1

USING A PARTICIPATORY CULTURE-SPECIFIC MODEL TO INCREASE EFFECTIVENESS OF SOCIAL JUSTICE COURSES IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

Social justice has received increasing attention within many disciplines including community psychology (Prilleltensky, 2001), communication studies (Swartz, 2006), counseling psychology (Toporek, Gerstein, Fouad, Roysircar, & Isreal, 2006), medicine (Kumagai & Lypson, 2009), nursing (Redman & Clark, 2002), public policy (Craig, Burchardt, & Gordon, 2008), social work (Birkenmaier et al., 2011), sociology (Feagin & Vera, 2008), and teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2004). Reaching a consensus on the conceptualization and definition of social justice has proven to be difficult (Cochran-Smith et al., 1999; Longres & Scanlon, 2001), and this challenge may slow down the implementation of social justice action and education. Cochran-Smith et al. (1999) suggested that beliefs about social justice may emerge from personal and professional experiences or different theoretical and ideological frameworks which may lead to different definitions of social justice due to the subjective foundation upon which the concepts are developed. Commonly used components of definitions of social justice have emerged from literature on pedagogy (e.g., Freire, 1970), multicultural competency (e.g., Nieto, 2000), prejudice (e.g., Allport, 1954), and counseling (Vera, Buhin, & Shin, 2006) and have included eliminating systemic oppression and institutional barriers with the goal of ensuring equal access to opportunities and resources for all. Implied in the components of the definition is the reduction of racism, sexism, ageism, homophobia, and other forms

of discrimination that has prevented cultural subgroups from accessing resources (Vera et al., 2006).

The current article discusses the emerging state of social justice within the discipline of school psychology, including attempts to define social justice from a school psychology framework, and outlines the influence of established models of social justice education and instructors on the social justice education movement. A participatory culture-specific model of course development and implementation is proposed that seeks to build upon previous models of social justice education and address potential challenges to social justice education noted in the literature. Social justice is a large umbrella that encompasses many different topics and cultural subgroups. It is acknowledged that space constraints prohibit the authors from discussing all possible applications of social justice. Therefore, the current article includes social justice topics such as the achievement gap between students of color and White students, experiencing inequality due to race/ethnicity, religion, or sexual orientation, and being a victim of bullying.

Current Status of Social Justice in School Psychology

Social justice is a relatively new concept within the school psychology literature (Power, 2008); although multicultural issues that are often included under the umbrella of social justice have been discussed in the literature for the past several decades (Frisby & Reynolds, 2005; Martines, 2008; Newell et al., 2010; Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997). The importance of being sensitive to multicultural, or diversity issues continues to be emphasized through the most recent Blueprint for Training and Practice III (Ysseldyke, 2006). Shriberg et al. (2008) have initiated the process of defining social justice within school psychology using a Delphi study by interviewing 17 multicultural scholars within

the field regarding their perceptions of the important components of social justice to assist in establishing a definition. The participants in the Shriberg et al. (2008) study identified components similar to those utilized in other professions (e.g., equal protection of rights; opportunities for all). However, there was an additional emphasis on moving to a more systems-level analysis of the profession, through which institutional oppression could be examined and addressed by individual school psychologists who should advocate for those who have been oppressed. The participants noted that increasing the diversity of school psychologists was important to increasing the level of social justice advocacy within the profession. Although it was not described how diversity would increase social justice, historically school psychologists have differed demographically from the populations they have served. Survey studies have suggested that school psychologists were predominantly White (88.7%) and female (71.0%; Lewis, Truscott, & Volker, 2008) while approximately 55% of children in the United States were White (Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics, 2010) and the proportion of males to females was approximately equal (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2001). In order for children to have demographically similar role models, school psychology must diversify.

To date, much of the social justice literature in school psychology has been conceptual (e.g., Li & Vazquez-Nuttall, 2009; Nastasi, 2008; Shriberg et al., 2008), with emerging empirical work (e.g., McCabe & Rubinson, 2008; Briggs, McArdle, Bartucci, Kowalewicz, & Shriberg, 2009). Despite the increased attention to social justice within school psychology through special issues in journals (Power, 2008; Shriberg & Fenning, 2009) and the formation of a special interest group and listserv through the National

Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2009), there has been concern that school psychology may need to redefine itself prior to incorporating social justice work into its identity (Nastasi, 2008; Speight & Vera, 2009). For example, participants in Shriberg et al.'s (2008) Delphi study reported that one of the greatest barriers to engaging social justice advocacy within schools is assessment activities, which may create a significant problem for school psychologists who report spending approximately half of their time on assessment-related activities (Hosp & Reschly, 2002; Smith, 1984) and for the profession that has its roots in psychoeducational evaluation (Fagan, 2000). One of the primary roles of the first school psychologist, Arnold Gesell, was to assist in the placement of children in special education utilizing the results of assessment (Braden, DiMarino-Linnen, & Good, 2001), and the introduction of the first intelligence scale by Binet and Simon is thought to have defined the role of the school psychologist as a psychometrician (Sarason, 1976).

For the last several decades, there has been a push for a paradigm shift within the school psychology literature encouraging school psychologists to redefine themselves as consultants, mental health service providers, and interventionists rather than psychometricians (Talley & Short, 1995; Ysseldyke, Burns, & Rosenfield, 2009). Despite this push in the literature, the practice of school psychology continues to focus heavily on assessment (Hosp & Reschly, 2002; Smith, 1984). Although it is the opinion of only a small sample of school psychology scholars that assessment activities are a barrier to social justice advocacy (Shriberg et al., 2008), there is widespread agreement that assessment activities dominate the time of practicing school psychologists (Hosp & Reschly, 2002; Lewis et al., 2008; Smith, 1984). The way in which assessment practices

may have led to injustice within schools or prevented practicing school psychologists from engaging in social justice advocacy requires further examination.

Speight and Vera (2009) also have encouraged school psychology to examine the ways in which the profession has contributed to social injustices within education through the overidentification of students of color under certain special education eligibility categories, which may contribute to the academic achievement gap between students of color and White students (Rhodes, Ochoa, & Ortiz, 2005). In addition, the theoretical framework that has guided many practices of school-based assessment has focused on deficit orientations (Ford, Moore, & Whiting, 2006), which contradicts the systemic framework that social justice promotes (Speight & Vera, 2009) by potentially ignoring the impact of multiple systems on a child's functioning. Although school psychology is beginning to acknowledge the need for more systems-based service delivery as it is outlined in the most recent *Blueprint for Training and Practice III* (Ysseldyke et al., 2006), some have suggested that acknowledging these issues may be necessary prior to school psychology's being able to effectively incorporate social justice advocacy into its professional identity (Speight & Vera, 2009).

Accreditation. Social justice has been deemed important not only in the school psychology literature (Shriberg et al., 2008) but also by accreditation bodies and within ethical codes. Both accreditation standards and ethical codes emphasize the need for school psychologists to incorporate diversity and social justice-related issues into training programs and into practice. Due to criteria outlined by accreditation organizations such as the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2010a) and the American Psychological Association (APA, 2007), school psychology programs are required to

include diversity issues within their curricula. Many school psychology programs do this through the inclusion of a required multicultural issues course (Rogers & Conoley, 1992). Multicultural courses likely vary across programs; many may include exposure to different cultures through lectures, experiential activities, and course assignments. Keim, Warring, and Rau's (2001) study of 63 school psychology and education students' multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills before and after a multicultural course suggested a significant increase in all areas, which highlights the importance of diversity-related courses.

Ethical Code. The field of school psychology has solidified its commitment to incorporating concepts of justice and fairness into the profession by including the concepts in the revised ethical code (NASP, 2010b). The 2010 Principles for Professional Ethics (NASP, 2010b) incorporates standards that closely align with current definitions of social justice (Vera et al., 2006). These new standards state that school psychologists should "…work to correct school practices that are unjustly discriminatory or that deny students, parents, or others their legal rights." (p. 6). Also, "School psychologists strive to ensure that all children have equal opportunity to participate in and benefit from school programs and that all students and families have access to and can benefit from school psychological services (p. 6)." The Ethical Principles and Code of Conduct outlined by the American Psychological Association (APA, 2002) also encourages attention to social justice awareness by promoting the recognition that "fairness and justice entitle all persons to access and benefit from the contributions of psychology and to equal quality in the processes, procedures, and services being conducted by psychologists (p.3)."

Social justice work could be incorporated into school psychology through practice, research and training. Training programs are a particularly efficient way to begin addressing social justice given that they affect a large number of practitioners and assist in shaping the philosophy and practices of the field. This article explores the current state of social justice education at the university level and suggests a culture-specific model for social justice course development appropriate for school psychology as the field explores incorporating social justice into training programs.

University-Based Social Justice Education

Social justice education within higher education has been examined in relation to types of instruction within social justice education and instructor influence and credibility within social justice courses. However, little attention has been given to the importance of the different cultural experiences and characteristics that students and instructors bring to the course. The next section examines three different types of instruction commonly utilized within social justice education. These types of instruction will be incorporated into the culture-specific model proposed in this article. In addition, instructor cultural characteristics that may be related to course effectiveness and acceptability are explored. Finally, the contributions of the current article will be discussed.

Social Justice Instruction

University training programs have utilized different types of instruction to incorporate social justice advocacy training into their program sequence (Mayhew & Fernandez, 2007). Types of instruction commonly discussed in the literature include intergroup dialogue (e.g., Nagda & Gurin, 2007), service-learning (e.g., Rosner-Salazar, 2003), and multicultural education (e.g., Gill & Chalmers, 2007). Intergroup dialogue

(IGD) is a type of social justice instruction at the university level that brings people of two different sociodemographic groups together for semi-structured conversations about their similarities and differences, with the goal of discussing how the two groups can work together to address social injustices (Nagda & Gurin, 2007). Through service-learning, students engage in a community-based social justice project while still in training (Rosner-Salazar, 2003), which allows students to receive university supervision and support through what may be their initial advocacy effort. Multicultural education programs typically are more narrow in focus than social justice education and may include collaborative action projects (Nagda, Gurin, & Lopez, 2003), community observations of social phenomena such as racism (Martin, 2010), or internship experiences where students integrate their newly acquired multicultural knowledge into practice (Gill & Chalmers, 2007). A critical component of all social justice education is instructor competency and effectiveness, which is discussed next.

Instructor Influence on Social Justice Education

Universities have been called on to not only incorporate social justice issues into training programs, but to serve as models of socially just institutions (Cambron-McCabe & McCarthy, 2005; Wallace, 2000). However, there has been some concern over the lack of instructors who have been comfortable with or competent enough to address social justice issues (Gill & Chalmers, 2007). Cochran-Smith et al.'s (1999) self study of faculty within a teacher education department with a strong social justice focus discovered that the faculty conceptualized and addressed social justice differently within their various courses and programs. Although using different approaches to instruction about social justice issues is not necessarily a concern, this suggests that instruction may be based less

on social justice theory and pedagogy (Ratts, 2006) and more on instructor experience and interest. The results of Ratts' (2006) survey of faculty in counselor preparation programs suggested that both the nature and the degree of focus on social justice issues within counselor preparation programs varied significantly by the gender, race, religion, and rank of the faculty members. Female instructors tended to discuss issues of classism, ableism, and ageism more than male instructors (Ratts, 2006). Faculty of color reported focusing more on sexism than White instructors. Non-Christians discussed heterosexism more than Christian instructors (Ratts, 2006). Finally, assistant professors addressed racism issues more than full professors (Ratts, 2006).

Another instructional issue included in the literature was that some instructors may attempt to appear "value free" when teaching their content at the expense of in-depth and challenging discussions (Perry, Moore, Edwards, Acosta, & Frey, 2009). This has been a noted concern for instructors of color, who have reported numerous barriers to teaching diversity-related courses (Perry et al., 2009) and who may attempt to appear as if they are not trying to promote their own "agenda" through course lectures and activities. In addition to faculty competence and comfort level affecting social justice courses, faculty demographics may influence student perception of the course (Holland, 2006). In a study of faculty credibility within diversity courses, with credibility being defined as effectiveness, Holland (2006) found that courses taught by men, White faculty, or faculty with more years of experience were more popular and thought to be more effective.

Incorporating social justice issues into university training programs and in the literature is relatively new (McCarthy & Whitlock, 2002). Therefore, many instructors may not have been exposed to social justice material or experiences through their training

programs. For this reason, it is important that instructors engage in reflective practice (Titus & Gremler, 2010) by identifying areas of weakness and obtaining professional development to obtain any knowledge or experience gaps when teaching a social justice-related course.

Despite the existence of different types of social justice instruction such as intergroup dialogue (Nagda & Gurin, 2007) and service-learning (Rosner-Salazar, 2003) that have received empirical support in the literature (Hess, Rynczak, Minarik, & Landrum-Brown, 2010; Conway, Amel, & Gerwien, 2009), effectively incorporating social justice into training programs may be affected by the following four variables: the instructor characteristics (Ratts, 2006) and experiences (Perry et al., 2009) noted above; student characteristics (van Soest, 1996); and student experiences (Rabow, Stein, & Conley, 1999). The effect of student characteristics and experiences on social justice-related courses is discussed in detail below. This article makes a unique contribution by proactively addressing these four variables through outlining a culture-specific model of social justice course development and implementation. The model of social justice education proposed in this article for school psychology programs will expand upon literature related to the established models of social justice education and address some of the potential challenges to social justice education such as instructor competency (Gill & Chalmers, 2007) and student resistance (Brown, 2004).

A Proposed Model of Social Justice Course Development

University trainers have recommended screening all applicants to ensure their students support social justice prior to admittance to teacher education or graduate programs (Garmon, 2005; Trusty & Brown, 2005). Using a culture-specific model of

course development instead of or in addition to a screening process may help adapt the content to appropriately instruct and guide *all* students enrolled. This prevents the curriculum from being too scripted and unrelated to the experiences and knowledge base of the students in the course. In a sense, this is similar to the movement to increase differentiation of instruction within primary and secondary classrooms to challenge the idea that any curriculum can be "one size fits all" (Reis et al., 1998).

The Participatory Culture-Specific Intervention Model (PCSIM; Nastasi, Moore, & Varjas, 2004) is a model of program development that promotes obtaining knowledge about a specific culture prior to implementing a program to increase the acceptability and effectiveness of that program. The PCSIM requires collaboration between researchers and participants in all components of intervention development such as data gathering, goal definition, program development, and program evaluation. Researchers gain in-depth knowledge of the beliefs, attitudes, and experiences of the culture with which they are working, and they use this knowledge to develop partnerships with stakeholders and develop a culture-specific, or culturally-appropriate program. Culture-specificity is defined as both the experiences and the perceptions of the experiences of a particular cultural group (Varjas et al., 2006). The PCSIM is more fluid than traditional models of program development and encourages "reconsideration" of development and implementation activities throughout the process through recursive and iterative methods (Nastasi et al., 2004).

The current article proposes an adaptation of the PCSIM for use with course development. It is recommended that a Participatory Culture-Specific Model of Course Development (PCSMCD; see Table 1) be utilized when developing and implementing a

social justice course for preservice school psychologists to facilitate instructors' ability to incorporate the four previously mentioned student and instructor variables (i.e., instructor characteristics, instructor experiences, student characteristics, and student experiences) that may affect course effectiveness and acceptability. The PCSMCD has more similarities than differences with the original PCSIM. The differences between the two models are highlighted at the end of this paper and in Table 2.

PCSMCD. The PCSMCD is an 11-phase model that can be implemented during a semester-long course (see Table 1). Table 1 outlines the course according to a 15-week semester, but the model could be adapted for a shorter semester if needed. It is thought that this course would be taught in place of a multicultural issues course that is required in so many school psychology programs. The PCSMCD inherently aligns with principles of social justice education suggesting that all stakeholders (e.g., students) must be empowered to have an active or participatory role in their educational experiences (Hackman, 2005). In addition, by developing a curriculum that is targeted toward the experiences and needs of the students within a particular course, resistance to the course content and process may decrease (Brown, 2004; Jackson, 1999). Finally, to include the instructor in the participatory, reflective, and culture-specific process acknowledges the influence of the instructor on course acceptability and effectiveness. The remainder of this article will describe the phases of the PCSMCD in detail in an effort to assist university trainers in developing, implementing, and evaluating a social justice course in school psychology.

Table 1

Participatory Culture-Specific Model of Course Development

WEEK *Phase*	Instructor & Student Tasks
PRE-COURSE *Phase 1*: Existing Theory, Research, and Practice	Identify pedagogical theory
WEEK ONE *Phase 2*: Learning the Culture	Learn about student culture through collecting data on demographics, life experiences, social justice attitudes, etc.
Phase 3: Forming Partnerships	Establish relationships with school psychologists in practice who identify as social justice advocates. Students choose populations for which they will serve as experts. Develop relationships with stakeholders at service-learning sites.
WEEK TWO *Phase 4*: Data Feedback	Report the individual and class data collected through phase 2 back to the students.
Phase 5: Goal Identification	Students and instructors develop personal goals related to the course objectives and populations or topics of focus.
WEEK THREE *Phase 6*: Culture-Specific Model	Develop a model of course implementation specific to the class culture.
Phase 7: Final Course Design & Full Implementation	Finalize course design after determining culture-specific model. Continue implementation.
WEEKS FOUR - FOURTEEN *Phase 8*: Culturally Appropriate Course Modifications	Throughout the course, document course implementation and modifications.

WEEK FIFTEEN	
Phase 9: Course Evaluation	Formative and summative evaluation data will be collected related to course effectiveness and acceptability.
Phase 10: Capacity Building	Assist students in developing a plan for continued education after course completion.
POST-COURSE WORK	
Phase 11: Dissemination	Students will be taught how to disseminate information they have learned through the course, both through presentations and informal discussions with peers.

Table 2

*Differences between Participatory Culture-Specific Intervention Model (PCSIM) and Participatory Culture-Specific Model of Course Development (PCSMCD)**

Phase	PCSIM	PCSMCD
Phase 1	Focus is on establishing personal theoretical framework.	Focus is on establishing theoretical framework grounded in social justice theory.
Phase 2	Models are consistent	Models are consistent
Phase 3	Partnerships are established for the purpose of collaborative program development. Researchers and partners are assumed to have equal roles.	Partnerships are developed for the purpose of providing feedback and support to the instructor and to increase student acceptability of the course.
*Phase 4**	The target problem and goals are identified.	Students are provided feedback about the culture-specific data collected in Phase 2.
Phase 5	More research about the nature of the identified problem is conducted by researchers and stakeholders.	Students and instructors identify their personal goals for the course.
Phase 6	Program implementation has not begun at the time the culture-	Program implementation has begun at the time the culture-specific model

	specific model is developed	is developed.
Phase 7	Program implementation has not yet begun.	Program implementation is in progress.
Phase 8	Focus is evenly divided between program implementation and modifications.	Most of the focus is on course modifications, as course implementation is in progress.
Phase 9	Models are consistent	Models are consistent
Phase 10	Models are consistent	Models are consistent
Phase 11	Models are consistent	Models are consistent

* Phases 4 and 5 of PCSIM are presented in reverse order in PCSMCD

PCSMCD Phase 1: Existing Theory, Research, and Practice

Phase 1 of the PCSMCD involves establishing the theoretical framework of the course. Many multicultural or social justice-related programs have been grounded in the pedagogical philosophies of Freire (1970) or Dewey (1938) or the intergroup contact theory outlined by Allport (1954). Freire (1970) strongly believed that all action should be theory based, and he emphasized the importance of dialogue in the thinking and learning process. The activities involved in programs such as intergroup dialogue (IGD; Nagda & Gurin, 2007) were founded on the Freirian belief that dialogue between members of both the oppressive and oppressed groups is necessary for social change (1970). Allport's (1954) theory of intergroup contact further supports the importance of interactions across cultural groups for reducing prejudice. Dewey (1938) articulated the importance of experiential education. Dewey stated that education should move outside of the books and classrooms to include hands-on learning (1938). Service-learning programs have been influenced in part by Deweyian philosophy (Conway, Amel, & Gerwien, 2009). However, Dewey noted that experience alone was not sufficiently

educative and must be guided by classroom content and theory (1938). A social justice course in school psychology should be founded in pedagogical philosophy that is dialogic (Freire, 1970), experiential (Dewey, 1938), and involves cross-group interaction (Allport, 1954). Although this theory may not match every individual student's theoretical orientation, and it is important to recognize that the students and instructor may bring individual theoretical orientations to the course, the underlying framework should remain based in established social justice theory.

PCSMCD Phase 2: Learning the Culture

Through phase 2 of the course development and implementation, instructors will learn the culture of their students by gathering quantitative and qualitative data (i.e., mixed method research) about their ideologies, personality types, identity development, attitudes toward cultural subgroups, experiences, and social justice attitudes. Students enroll in social justice- related courses with different personalities and life experiences that may influence their receptiveness toward the course material. It is important that instructors learn the culture of the class to adapt their course material to increase effectiveness and acceptability. In addition, the instructor will engage in reflective practice by analyzing his or her pedagogical philosophy, teaching style, and cultural identity, all of which may affect instruction (Titus & Gremler, 2010). Given the literature suggesting that students who have differed in ideology (van Soest, 1996) personality type (Unruh & McCord, 2010), and racial identity development (Brown, Parham, & Yonker, 1996) respond differently to diversity-related course materials, it may be helpful to obtain information related to these characteristics at the onset of the social justice course. After a discussion of these three concepts related to learning the culture of the students,

additional measures that may assess attitudes toward cultural subgroups will be mentioned briefly. Then, a measure specifically examining the multicultural competencies of school psychologists is examined. Finally, ideas for collecting qualitative data on student culture are included.

Ideology. Assessing students' ideology may assist instructors in learning about how their students attribute what happens to themselves and others. Ideology has been defined as "the set of beliefs by which a group or society orders reality so as to render it intelligible" (Ideology, n.d.). This set of beliefs may be shaped by religious or political orientation. The results of studies analyzing the relationships between religiosity and social justice attitudes have suggested that overall, individuals who are more religious report more positive social justice attitudes (Chalfant & Heller, 1985; Mattis et al., 2004; Perkins, 1992; Weisberg & Sylvan, 2003). However, social justice attitudes toward cultural subgroups, such as lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender individuals tend to decrease with higher religiosity (Brown & Henriquez, 2008; Holley, Larson, Adelman, & Trevino, 2008). Related to political orientation, studies have consistently supported the positive relationship between liberal political ideology and social justice attitudes (Bierbrauer & Klinger, 2002; Sax & Arredondo, 1999).

There have been attempts to examine ideology beyond religious and political affiliation through discussions about perceptions of fairness (Messick, Bloom, Boldizar, & Samuelson, 1985) and meritocracy (Unnamed, 2008). Both concepts of fairness and meritocracy have been used to describe how people perceive injustice. Lerner (1980) outlines another attributional process referred to as "belief in a just world" that explains how people view injustice. Individuals with a high belief in a just world tend to believe

that the world is fair (Tanaka, 1999) and that hard work leads to rewards (Appelbaum, Lennon, & Aber, 2006). Similarly, individuals with a high belief in a just world may tend to blame individuals who are in difficult situations such as living in poverty or being the victim of a crime (Kleinke & Meyer, 1990). Much of the belief in a just world literature supports the positive relationship between a high belief in a just world and political conservatism (Dittmar & Dickinson, 1993) and negative relationships between a high belief in a just world and social justice advocacy (Lipkus & Siegler, 1993).

Several measures of belief in a just world have been developed and utilized extensively in the literature over the past 30 years (Hellman, Muilenburg-Trevino, & Worley, 2008). Lipkus' (1991) Global Belief in a Just World Scale (GBJW) has the highest reliability of the commonly used scales (Hellman et al., 2008) and assesses a person's belief about the fairness of the world through questions such as "I feel that people who meet with misfortune have brought it on themselves" (Lipkus, 1991). This measure may be helpful to administer during phase 2 of course development and implementation.

Personality Type. Learning more about students' personality types may provide insight into their receptiveness toward diversity-related content. Personality types have been used as predictors for responses to multicultural situations, including multicultural course material (Unruh & McCord, 2010). Certain personality traits have been linked to political ideology and voting preference (Chirumbolo & Leone, 2010), level of religiosity (Saroglou, 2010), and beliefs about diversity (Unruh & McCord, 2010). Extensive research into personality traits has led to the identification of five "supertraits" under which all other traits are subsumed (Hartmann, 2006). The study of these traits has led to

the “Five-Factor Model” of personality. The five factors include Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness and include a continuum of subtraits (Hartmann, 2006). In general, individuals who have reported a personality type characterized by Openness to Experience, which can be defined as “Open to new impressions, tolerant, liberal, flexible, creative, imaginative, in contact with their feelings, novelty seeking” (Hartmann, 2006, p. 157) have reported a more liberal political ideology (Chirumbolo & Leone, 2010), stronger spirituality (as opposed to fundamentalism) (Saroglou, 2010), and more positive feelings about diversity-related university courses (Unruh & McCord, 2010). The commonly used *Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness Personality Inventory*, currently in its third edition (NEO-PI-3) includes questions related to perceptions of traditional values and cross-cultural perceptions of right and wrong (McCrae, Costa, & Martin, 2005). The NEO-PI-3 categorizes the responses according to the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality. Due to the cost of the NEO-PI-3, it may not be practical for use in a university course. An appropriate alternative may be one of the many free personality tests available online that can be found through basic Internet searches. However, the instructor should look closely at the technical characteristics of any online assessment before using it for data collection.

Racial Identity Development. Additional quantitative measures that may be helpful to administer in phase 2 when learning about the students’ culture include the Cross Racial Identity Scale (CRIS; Cross & Vandiver, 2001) and the White Racial Identity Attitude Scale (WRIAS; Helms & Carter, 1990). Obtaining information from any and/or all of these scales would provide instructors with knowledge about the racial

identities that their students bring to the class. Racial identity development models have been utilized to explain the sociopolitical experiences of White people and people of color in the United States (Helms, 1995). Two of the most commonly discussed racial identity models include Cross' Nigresence Model (Cross, 1995) and Helms' White Racial Identity Model (Helms, 1995) from which the two aforementioned scales were developed. These models suggest that through contact with individuals either from the dominant group or from racial minority groups, different levels of understanding about one's racial identity emerge. Racial identity development, particularly White racial identity development, has been analyzed in relation to levels of racism, personality characteristics, and level of change through participation in multicultural courses or similar experiences. Enrollment in multicultural courses is thought to have a positive effect on White racial development (Brown, Parham, & Yonker, 1996). Gender differences have been noted, as well, with males developing a more in-depth understanding of their racial identity development more quickly than females (Brown et al., 1996). The focus of identity models tends to be on racial identity development; however, some social justice education programs have measured students' sexual identity development, particularly when the classroom learning experiences have focused on increasing knowledge and awareness of sexual minorities (Evans & Herriott, 2004; Rabow, Stein, & Conley, 1999).

Attitudes Toward Cultural Subgroups. Several studies have examined students' attitudes towards gays and lesbians (Case & Stewart, 2010), women, racial minorities and the elderly (Hussey, Fleck, & Warner, 2010) before and after enrolling in a diversity-related course. Similar types of data could be collected during phase 2 of the

PCSMCD to learn about the students' attitudes toward these and other populations. Case and Stewart (2010) found that within their sample of 143 undergraduate students, students reported more awareness of heterosexual privilege, more support of same-sex marriage, and less prejudice toward gay and lesbian individuals after course completion. The measures used to assess these constructs included a modified version of the White Privilege Awareness Scale (Case, 2007) that focused on heterosexual privilege awareness, a four-item questionnaire assessing the attitudes toward marriage, and the Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Males scale (Herek, 1988). Hussey, Fleck, and Warner (2010) measured undergraduate student attitudes to different minority groups pre- and post-course and found a significant decrease in racism and classism post-course. The measures used in Hussey et al.'s study included a revised version of the Manitoba Prejudice Scale (Laythe, Finkel, & Kirkpatrick, 2001) and the Modified Economic Beliefs Scale (Aosved & Long, 2006). An example of a measure assessing sexism is the Modern Sexism Scale by Swim, Aikin, Hall, and Hunter (1995). Any of these measures would be appropriate for use when learning about the students' culture during phase 2.

Multicultural School Psychology Counseling Competency Scale. An additional way to learn about the students' culture during phase 2 would be to administer a multicultural measure designed specifically for school psychologists. Rogers and Ponterotto (1997) developed the Multicultural School Psychology Counseling Competency Scale (MSPCCS) that trainers could utilize as a pre- and post-course measure of preservice school psychologists' multicultural competencies. Although the MSPCCS was developed using multicultural counseling theory, the questions were not specific to counseling techniques so it may be utilized with students who have not yet

completed a counseling course. Some of the questions on the MSPCCS are related to awareness of personal biases, awareness of institutional barriers to mental health services, and knowledge of systems-level advocacy (Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997). These are topics that will likely be discussed in a social justice course for preservice school psychologists, so a preview of students' knowledge and perception of the topics may be informative.

Qualitative Data. Outside of the published surveys reported above, there is a range of qualitative data that could be collected through class activities to assist instructors in learning about their students. A few examples of activities are included here. For example, students could complete a series of identity hierarchies. Through the first identity hierarchy, students could list their specific identities under a range of categories such as nationality, race, gender, religion, region of the country, last name, or sexual identity (M. A. Irving, personal communication, September 8, 2008). Students are then asked to begin crossing off the identities that are least important to them one by one. At the end of this activity, students have one identity remaining that represents their most valued identity. A second identity hierarchy related to the students' identity as a school psychologist could be completed. Students could list the different identities held as a practitioner, such as consultant, evaluator, behavior specialist, or child advocate and complete the activity in the same manner. A classroom discussion could ensue. Thought-provoking readings such as *The Heart of Whiteness* by Robert Jensen (2005) or Beverly Daniel-Tatum's (2000) article titled "*The Complexity of Identity: "Who am I?*" assigned prior to the start of the course and the implementation of activities such as the identity hierarchy could help facilitate more in-depth discussions about the culture of the class. Additional activities could be found in multicultural activity books such as *110*

Experiences for Multicultural Learning by Paul Pederson (2004) or *Teaching for Diversity and Social Justice* by Maurianne Adams et al. (1997).

Instructor Data. Instructors may include their personal data in the data collection process. The process of teaching the course should be reflective (Titus & Gremler, 2010), which suggests that the instructor should involve himself or herself in activities such as identifying level of racial identity development, personality type, belief in a just world, and related class discussions. It may be that the instructor collects these data for personal reflection only and refrains from self-disclosure until he or she feels confident and competent in the ability to disclose without negatively affecting the instructor-student relationship. The decision to disclose may be made based on the climate of the individual class. Professional development, consultation, and supervision on social justice-related issues should guide an instructor through the reflective process (Titus & Gremler, 2010).

PCSMCD Phase 3: Forming Partnerships

To facilitate a collaborative and participatory model, phase 3 emphasizes the importance of forming partnerships with members of the culture with which one is working, in addition to identifying cultural brokers who serve as experts on the identified culture or topic (Nastasi et al., 2004). One goal of establishing partnerships is to encourage feedback related to course development from the stakeholders. When developing a course, this would be conceptualized slightly differently than it would when developing an intervention or research project, given the inherent power differences between instructors and other individuals involved with a course (e.g., outside speakers, students). Forming partnerships when developing a social justice course in school psychology would be a multistep process. First, given that the knowledge of the

application of social justice within school psychology is in an emerging state (Power, 2008), it may be beneficial to identify a few school psychologists with noted records of social justice advocacy in practice to assist the instructor in relating course concepts to students' applied experiences. In addition, few instructors will have knowledge about all social justice issues that may be relevant to a particular group of students. Forming partnerships with scholars who are experts in areas of social justice advocacy in which the instructor has less knowledge would be important for both the students' and instructor's learning experiences.

Through the second part of forming partnerships, instructors should identify ways that students could serve as cultural experts within the course to help increase student acceptability of the course material and experiences and, as a result, increase sustainability of the knowledge and skills taught. At the onset of the course, students could choose a demographic group that will be the focus of their course work. They could then serve as the class expert on social justice issues related to that population. Students would not necessarily have to choose a population to which they belong. Examples of populations of focus could include teachers, racial minorities, students with traumatic brain injuries, immigrants, or any other population that students feel may be marginalized in certain contexts. The third part of forming partnerships would involve developing relationships with service-learning sites to reduce some of the challenges with partnerships between university and community organizations (Cuban & Anderson, 2007; Forbes et al., 1999), which will be discussed more below. Phases 2 and 3 would occur during week one of the course. In between weeks one and two, the students' and instructor's culture-specific data would be analyzed for use in class the following week.

The next two phases, 4 and 5, would include discussion of the feedback of data to the students, which would inform both the students' and instructor's setting of goals for the course.

PCSMCD Phase 4: Data Feedback

Using the quantitative data obtained through formal surveys and qualitative data gathered through interactive class exercises and discussions collected in phase 2, the instructor may provide feedback to the students about the different constructs measured. For example, if identity development was measured, these data could be shared with the students. By providing the culture-specific data to the students, the instructor would be facilitating the students' self-assessment process, which is considered a critical component to increasing multicultural competency (Toporek, 2001). In addition, data feedback is important because it includes students in the course development and implementation process.

Due to the sensitivity of the information collected and the possibility of resistance to the feedback, it may be more acceptable to students to provide the data back in aggregate form, analyzing the relationships between the variables measured. The course data could be reported similarly to how it is reported in the literature (Cramer, Griffin, & Powers, 2008). For example, Cramer, Griffin, & Powers (2008) analyzed the relationships between personality, religiosity, and social justice commitment (SJC). An instructor could model aggregated student data after the following results:

> "Personality traits predicted SJC…Gender was significantly related to SJC, such that men…displayed higher levels than women…Together with gender, agreeableness and extraversion were found to be significant,

positive predictors of SJC, accounting for 38% of the variance in SJC scores (p.51)."

Students could be informed about their likely stage of racial identity development based upon completion of the racial identity questionnaires. Qualitative data could be reported back in terms of themes that arose during discussions and class activities. The instructor should inform students about how their data will be reported back to them prior to data collection. In addition, the instructor may need to consider the benefits of collecting these data anonymously. Although this would reduce the self-reflection component of the data collection and feedback process, collecting data anonymously may reduce the affect of social desirability on the results (Tourangeau & Yan, 2007).

As has been noted, there may be barriers to collecting data and providing feedback to the students. Addressing these concerns proactively could be addressed through a few of the strategies mentioned above (e.g., anonymous data collection, aggregated data); however, given that the student population in this course includes preservice school psychologists, whose professional roles will include a considerable amount of assessment and data feedback, students should be engaged in discussion and reflective activities about the experience of being evaluated and having decisions made about themselves based on data collected. The students and instructor could use this experience to identify ways to empower individuals in the field, such as teachers and parents, to receive evaluation feedback.

Analyzing both the qualitative and quantitative data and preparing the data for feedback could take a considerable amount of time. For this reason, it may be appropriate for a graduate research assistant or a teaching assistant to assist in the data analysis

process, and students should be informed that an individual outside of the class would see their data.

PCSMCD Phase 5: Goal Identification

During phase 5, students and instructors will develop personal goals for the course using primarily the course objectives set by the accreditation organizations, the social justice literature, and the culture-specific data acquired in phase 2 and provided back to the students in phase 4. In addition, students and instructors may pull from professional ethical codes, professional position statements, and the most recent literature on social justice advocacy in school psychology when developing personal goals. Student personal goals should not only incorporate the course objectives but they should incorporate the students' population of focus, as well. Students may have identified their population of focus during week one, but for many students, identifying a population may come after they have obtained their culture-specific data collected during phase 2. For example, a student may learn that he or she has positive attitudes toward lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) issues through the class discussions and surveys completed. The student could develop a personal goal related to the following course objective: "Students will understand the impact of discrimination based on race, class, gender, disability/exceptionality, sexual orientation, and language on students and their learning" (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education [NCATE], 2008). The student's personal goal could be to learn about the affect of sexual orientation-related bullying on student achievement. If this were a personal goal, the student would choose LGBT students who are victims of sexual orientation-related bullying as their population of focus in the course. The student could then tailor their experiential activity around this

topic and attempt to interview either school personnel or students about orientation-related bullying in schools, write and present about the topic, and serve as the class "expert" on social justice issues related to bullying based on sexual orientation in schools.

If the course objective was: "Students will operationalize the belief that all students can learn" (NCATE, 2008), a personal goal could be to serve as the class expert on the achievement gap between White students and students of color. The student could focus the course assignments on this topic by interviewing scholars about the achievement gap, visiting high and low performing schools and noting any differences in the student population, teacher turnover, or quality of the school buildings. In addition, this student could then serve as the class expert on social justice issues related to the achievement gap. Instructor personal goals could be similar, with the instructor developing goals to acquire more knowledge about a social justice topic in which he or she lacks expertise. All of the information related to instructor experiences, instructor characteristics, student experiences, student characteristics, and course objectives is used to develop a culture-specific model for the class.

PCSMCD Phase 6: Culture-Specific Model

In phase 6, a culture-specific model is developed using the data about the four instructor and student variables collected in the first 5 phases (Nastasi et al., 2004). It is in this unique phase that the instructor utilizes the data about the four variables to inform the direction of the remainder of the course. This phase essentially personalizes the course for the culture of the students and instructors to maximize acceptability and effectiveness. An example of a possible component of a culture-specific model could include identifying the level of risk that will be used when developing course activities.

Within multicultural education, levels of risk are often assigned to classroom activities and content (Pederson, 2004). Low-risk activities are used as an introduction to multicultural issues. Higher risk activities are designed to facilitate more challenging discussions about multicultural issues and are best implemented with individuals who have demonstrated in-depth knowledge and understanding of multicultural and social justice issues, thereby instructing the students within their zones of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). Using data obtained through the first five phases about the four student and instructor variables, the risk level of activities can be determined as part of the model development. For example, different levels of risk could be assigned to an activity such as reading Peggy McIntosh's (1988) article titled *White Privilege: Unpacking the Invisible Knapsack*. If a low level of risk has been chosen for course implementation, students could be asked to read the article and share both their thoughts and other examples of privilege that they have identified in American culture. A higher risk activity may involve the students identifying how they may have contributed to differences in privilege levels and how they may have utilized their privilege to obtain access to resources that they may have otherwise been denied without those privileges.

It is likely that the class will include students who are at different levels of growth and self-knowledge. When instructing students who are not homogenous, the instructor will need to decide the most appropriate level of risk for the course that will be acceptable to all students. These decisions will need to be made on a course-by-course basis.

Developing this model should be a participatory process; however, given the expected power and knowledge differences between instructors and students, the

instructors should take the lead when developing the model. Input can and should be obtained from preservice school psychologists prior to use of the model for final course development and implementation to increase student buy-in and empowerment. The culture-specific model should incorporate course objectives and personal objectives that have been informed by the four instructor and student variables (see Figure 1). This model would then be used to inform the final course design and implementation.

PCSMCD Phase 7: Final Course Design and Full Implementation

Using the information gathered in phases 1-6 related to the four student and instructor variables and the culture-specific model, the final steps of course development can be completed and implementation can be continued. Despite the fact that data collection from students would occur after the course had begun, it would be unreasonable for an instructor to develop an entire course during the semester. Therefore, instructors should have a general outline of the course prior to the semester, with additional activities, speakers, and media that could be integrated into the course as it is appropriate based upon the culture of the class. Many models of social justice education have been proposed in the literature (Adams et al., 1997; Hackman, 2005; Wallace, 2000) and components of those models will be incorporated in the following outline of possible course content and experiential activities. Finally, self-reflection activities will be discussed.

First, students should be provided with the history of oppression that has supported the need for a continued focus on social justice (Adams et al., 1997; Hackman, 2005).

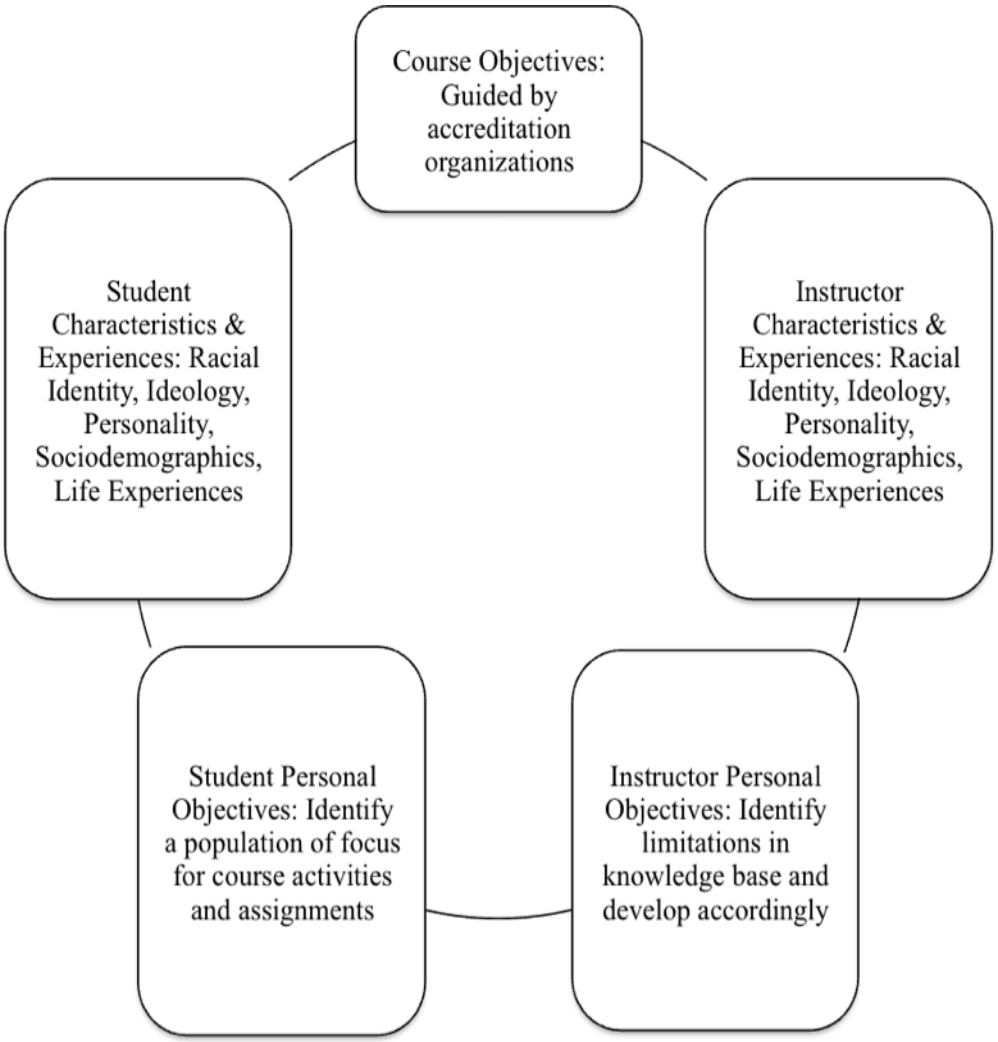

Figure 1. Participatory Culture-Specific Model of Course Development (PCSMCD)

Knowledge about the current struggles of ethnic minorities, individuals who identify as LGBT, women, or children with disabilities, for example, cannot be fully understood outside of a historical context.For example, teaching about the Holocaust without teaching about the thousands of years of persecution faced by members of the Jewish community would not provide a complete discussion of anti-Semitism. Similarly, an issue such as affirmative action needs to be taught within the context of centuries of racial segregation and violence toward people of color within the United States (Adams et al., 1997). It would be beneficial for preservice school psychologists to learn about the historical context of issues such as the overrepresentation of students of color served under certain special education categories, the minority/White achievement gap, and inclusive education and how those current issues are linked to school segregation and desegregation (Brown vs. Board of Education, 1954), and special education law (U.S. Congress, 1975).

Next, students should be introduced to concepts such as power, privilege, oppression, identity, hegemony, distributive justice, and procedural justice (Adams et al., 1997; Hackman, 2005; Horne & Mathews, 2006). The introduction and discussion of these terms would vary significantly based on the culture of the class and the level of risk determined appropriate during phase 6. For example, if the students in the class present with less developed racial identities or less positive attitudes toward LGBT issues, it may be appropriate to introduce basic social justice concepts such as privilege and oppression first. If during phase 6, it was determined that a higher level of risk was appropriate, more advanced social justice concepts, such as hegemony, distributive justice, and procedural justice could be introduced. In addition, discussions of concepts should be directly

connected to both the practice of school psychology and the populations of focus chosen by the students. For example, if the concept of privilege was discussed, the instructor could relate it to the inequity in special education services received by students of different socio-economic statuses.

After preservice school psychologists have been introduced to history and concepts related to social justice, they should be given the tools such as critical thinking and dialogue skills to understand and address current social injustices (Hackman, 2005). This component of the course would be experiential and would vary by class culture and the level of risk identified in phase 6. Intergroup dialogues (ASHE Higher Education Report, 2006), service-learning experiences (Conway, Amel, & Gerwien, 2009), and cross-cultural interviews are three examples of experiential activities that may facilitate social change. Intergroup dialogues are based on the theories of Dewey (1938), Freire (1970), and Allport (1954). Both Dewey (1938) and Freire (1970) emphasized the importance of dialogue as a way to promote democratic education and to eliminate social injustices. Freire (1970) also stated that rigorous questioning of educational institutions should include individuals with less institutional power for transformation to occur (Apple, 2006). The critical dialogue that is a part of IGDs is one way to begin this process of questioning power differences between groups of people. Allport's (1954) description of intergroup contact theory stated that prejudice might be reduced through structured contact between people of different sociodemographics. Intergroup dialogues facilitate contact and dialogue between people who may otherwise spend limited time together.

The effectiveness of intergroup contact experiences at reducing prejudice and increasing collaborative social justice advocacy between two sociodemographic groups that historically have been divided has been measured, with inconsistent results (Dessel & Rogge, 2008). Due to the inconsistency within the intergroup contact theory literature, Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) conducted a meta-analysis of 515 samples that evaluated intergroup contact experiences. The results of the meta-analysis suggested that structured and facilitated contact across groups led to reduced prejudice. Additionally, based on their review of the literature, the positive effects of one intergroup contact experience are often generalized to other interactions with individuals from different sociodemographic groups (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006).

Given the homogeneity of the school psychology profession (Lewis, Truscott, & Volker, 2008), it may not be possible to have two equal-sized groups of people who are sociodemographically different from each other, which is a critical component of IGDs. Instead, preservice school psychologists could be evenly divided based on differing views on controversial topics within education that have social justice implications such as inclusion versus self-contained classes for students with disabilities (Downing, Eichinger, & Williams, 1997), merit pay for teachers (Smylie & Smart, 1990), or the assessment of intelligence as a measure of ability (Guthke & Stein, 1996). Students may then be facilitated through discussions of topics related to the controversial issue, with students supporting the two different opinions. Students in IGDs designed this way have reported gaining an understanding of opposing viewpoints and increasing their ability to define their own views (Hess, Rynczak, Minarik, & Landrum-Brown, 2010).

Service-learning also has been linked to Dewey's (1938) theory of experience and the intergroup contact theory outlined by Allport (1954). Service-learning is currently implemented in many different ways in the university setting. The experiences range from being part of one course to being the focus of four consecutive courses. In addition, service-learning has been a required component of university programs (Redman & Clark, 2002) and has been an elective through which students are paid for their service-learning experience (Mitchell, 2007). All service-learning projects include a service project in a community organization. Most students participating in service-learning projects are in the role of a volunteer. Service-learning programs are thought to provide students with the experience of serving as a social justice advocate while still receiving university supervision. Examples of service-learning settings that may be appropriate for a school psychology program include volunteering in both a low- and high-income school to compare the resources and quality of school personnel in each or tutoring in a refugee organization or homeless shelter with children.

Service-learning also has received a fair amount of criticism from researchers (Erickson & O'Connor, 2000; Forbes, Garber, Kensinger, & Slagter, 1999; Krain & Nurse, 2004). Erickson and O'Conner (2000) noted the difficulty that "nontraditional" students (e.g., those who are older, who may have children, and/or work full-time) have carving out the additional hours outside of class to devote to a service-learning project. The time required for service-learning could have significant financial costs if time off work or additional childcare were required to complete the project. Another barrier noted by Krain and Nurse (2004) is that service-learning has the potential to reinforce negative stereotypes of cultural subgroups. To prevent this, a classroom component that includes

time to “debrief” at the end of the service-learning experience is recommended. The classroom component also prevents the service-learning experience from being simply “volunteerism” (Forbes et al., 1999). Finally, coordinating service-learning projects is often a burden for university staff and community organizations. Community organizations rarely have the personnel to train students who will be minimally involved with the organization for often only one semester (Cuban & Anderson, 2007; Forbes et al., 1999).

Crosscultural, or in-depth interviews are cited less in the literature than the two previously mentioned experiential activities (Schensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999). Crosscultural interviews are in-depth and/or exploratory interviews with an individual who differs culturally from the interviewer. The interview may take place over multiple days and the purpose is to expand understanding of a particular culture or cultural experience (Schensul et al., 1999). Through a crosscultural interview, a student would have the opportunity to interview an individual who differs from them culturally in any way. The interview process should occur over time, with the student interviewer using knowledge obtained through each interview to research and develop additional interview questions. A presentation of the themes uncovered through the interview process could be made to the class.

Through the experiential activity, students should have the opportunity to interact with individuals who differ from themselves either on a social justice related topic and/or culturally. Decisions about the specific experiential component of the course would be made prior to the beginning of the course, yet the nature of the experiential activity could vary based on class culture. For example, if service learning was the chosen activity prior

to the start of the course, the community organizations could vary based on the culture of the class and the students' populations of focus.

Finally, the importance of personal reflection in social justice courses, both by students and instructors has been noted in the social justice education literature (Hackman, 2005; Honigsfeld & Allen, 2010). Students may engage in personal reflection through journaling about their course-related thoughts and experiences. Instructors also should engage in self-reflection and consider the sources of their information, distinguishing between fact and opinion. All information presented to students should be cited as either fact or opinion in an effort to assist the instructor in relying more heavily on fact. In addition, self-reflection could be modeled through presentations by multicultural "experts" in the university or local community who have engaged in intensive self-reflection and would be willing to share their experiences with the students. This instructional strategy will help students reflect on their own statements and writings and monitor their ability to distinguish fact versus opinion.

The reflective, recursive, and culture-specific nature of the PCSMCD suggests that issues will arise during both course development and implementation that may call for changes in course content and activities. The next section discusses making necessary culturally appropriate course modifications.

PCSMCD Phase 8: Culturally Appropriate Course Modifications

During the course implementation, documentation of the course lectures, student reactions, instructor reactions, and feedback from the presenters will be important for supporting course modifications that may need to be made to increase culture-specificity. When appropriate, course modifications could be negotiated with the preservice school

psychologists (Nastasi et al., 2004). Within the course, there will be certain critical elements, or those that are necessary for achieving course objectives, and noncritical elements, or those that are important for culture specificity but are not essential for course effectiveness (Nastasi et al., 2004). For example, in a social justice course for school psychologists, a critical element may be the experiential component, such as the service-learning project or crosscultural interview given the applied nature of school psychology. A noncritical element may be a high-risk class activity that could be modified and implemented as low risk or through a class presentation. Changing the risk level of the activity based on culture-specific data collected during phase 2 should not detract from the message of the activity, but rather may make it more culturally appropriate or acceptable to the students in the course. Course modifications should be supported by data suggesting the need for the change.

PCSMCD Phase 9: Course Evaluation

Aggregated course evaluation traditionally occurs anonymously after the close of the semester. However, in aligning with the culture-specific model of course implementation, ethnographic techniques could be used to evaluate the acceptability and validity of the different course activities and of the course as a whole (Nastasi et al., 2004). For example, the journals that students keep throughout the course could be reviewed periodically for student feedback on the course content and activities. In addition, the student's individual progress could be assessed at that time. If students are not progressing or there are student concerns about the process and the content of the course, those can be addressed during the course. Course effectiveness would be measured by comparing the students' individual progress from the beginning of the

semester to the end. Each student will have progressed differently based on the different characteristics and experiences they brought to the course and the different personal goals they articulated at the onset of the course, so effectiveness should be measured individually. Most universities provide their own format for end-of-course assessment, so these data could be utilized for a more general evaluation of course effectiveness and acceptability. Although there has been concern related to the accuracy and usefulness of anonymous end-of-course evaluations (Nasser & Fresko, 2002), it may be helpful to compare the aggregated anonymous feedback with individual student feedback collected throughout the course.

PCSMCD Phase 10: Capacity Building

To ensure that knowledge and skills learned in the social justice course are generalized and built upon after course completion, instructors and students should develop a plan with specific strategies for continued education and advocacy experiences after course completion (Nastasi et al., 2004). Capacity building plans should be individualized and built upon both the culture-specific data collected in phase 2 and the formative evaluation data collected throughout the course. Continued education activities could include attending presentations within the department, at the university, or in the community on social justice issues such as services for students with low incidence disabilities, students living in poverty, or budget cuts within school systems. Advocacy experiences could include starting or joining social justice-related organizations such as those focusing on LGBT issues or organizations with an emphasis on volunteering. If school psychology programs were able to integrate service-learning opportunities into their practicum requirement, this would provide the students with advocacy skills related

to working with individuals in the schools and in the community while focusing on social justice issues. All students, including those who have or have not participated in a university directed service-learning project, should identify specific experiential advocacy activities to participate in after course completion. These could include volunteering at a community food bank or tutoring children after school.

Given that many of the examples of capacity building activities may be difficult for individuals who have limited time outside of their jobs and families, instructors and students should identify social justice-related education and advocacy experiences that could be completed at home. For example, students could read memoirs about oppression or join listservs related to multicultural issues or educational reform. Names of books, listservs, presentations, or volunteering opportunities should be noted.

Finally, emphasis should be placed upon how the preservice school psychologists will use the social justice knowledge and skills obtained in class to engage in social justice advocacy in practice. School psychologists in practice may be presented with many opportunities to participate in social justice advocacy when engaging in assessment, special education placement decision-making, and intervention development and implementation. School psychologists also may serve as consultants to other social justice advocates in schools, such as advisors of after-school clubs addressing gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender issues (e.g., gay/straight alliances). Informing and preparing preservice school psychologists about these advocacy opportunities is an important part of the capacity building phase.

PCSMCD Phase 11: Dissemination

During the final phase of the course implementation, the instructor would facilitate dissemination of the course process and outcome. Some evidence exists to suggest that students may exit diversity-related courses with the inability to generalize their course-related knowledge and experiences (Krain & Nurse, 2004). With the ability to approach all social justice issues and advocacy experiences as unique and complex, students may be more effective at engaging in productive dialogue with others and advocating for change. For instructors, these discussions will not only inform others but will serve as a venue for them to gain objective feedback on course issues from their colleagues.

Dissemination could occur through several different venues. Of most importance is that instructors and students in the course are able to disseminate the information they learned formally, through local or regional presentations, or informally, through discussions with colleagues and friends. The course instruction on critical analysis skills (Hackman, 2005) should provide guidance to instructors and students about the most effective ways to discuss social justice issues in informal settings. In addition, culture-specific data collected during phase 2 and formative data collected throughout the course will guide the students and instructors as they consider dissemination of course-related information. For example, students and instructors may have social justice-related topics that they are particularly knowledgeable about and they may focus on disseminating those topics. There may be social justice-related topics that students and/or the instructor have not yet developed a level of comfort discussing or an ability to discuss in a manner that is not offensive to others. The instructors should inform the students, and be mindful

themselves, that it is appropriate to act as a listener in social justice conversations on topics that one does not yet have the comfort level or knowledge to discuss. As students implement their capacity building plans developed in phase 10, they will increase their knowledge of and ability to discuss social justice issues. The ability to effectively discuss social justice issues is one important step to implementing social justice advocacy in practice, which is the ultimate goal of the PCSMCD.

Similarities and Differences Between PCSIM and PCSMCD

As noted prior to the description of the course phases, the Participatory Culture-Specific Intervention Model (PCSIM) and PCSMCD have more similarities than differences, yet the differences should be noted (see Table 2). First, phase 1 of PCSIM encourages the researcher to examine his or her personal theoretical framework and use that framework to guide the work in the latter phases. The PCSMCD encourages the instructor to develop the course using established social justice theory, while acknowledging their own and their students' theoretical orientations as a component of culture. Phase 2, Learning the Culture, of the PCSMCD is unchanged. Phase 3 of PCSMCD differs slightly from phase 3 of PSCIM. In PCSIM, partnerships with stakeholders are developed for the purpose of participatory, collaborative program development. It is implied in the PCSIM that the stakeholders and researchers share an equal role in decision-making and program development. Although phase 3 of the PCSMCD encourages forming partnerships with and obtaining feedback from stakeholders, such as school psychologists who identify as social justice advocates and students enrolled in the course, the instructor is ultimately responsible for the course content and process, which limits the instructor's ability to share that role with others.

This should not diminish the importance of the stakeholder participation and feedback during this phase.

Phases 4 and 5 of PCSIM are presented in reverse order in PCSMCD. Also, there are considerable differences between the two PCSIM and PCSMCD phases. In phase 5 of PCSIM, researchers and stakeholders engage in more in-depth research about the target problem that is the focus of program development. In PCSMCD, addressing a target problem is not the focus of the course, so in phase 4, the instructor provides the students with feedback about the culture-specific data collected in phase 2. In phase 4 of PCSIM, researchers and stakeholders collaborate to define the target problem and to identify goals. In phase 5 of PCSMCD, the instructor and students identify their focus and goals for the course.

During phase 6 of both models, a culture-specific model is developed that guides program or course activities, methods, and requisite skills and also identifies challenges that may arise during program or course implementation. A difference between the two models during this phase is that in PCSIM, program implementation has not yet begun, whereas in the PCSMCD, course implementation is underway. Similarly, the only difference between the models during phase 7 is that program design during PCSIM occurs prior to implementation, whereas final program design for PCSMCD occurs after the course has begun and incorporates program implementation. Phase 8 of PCSIM focuses generally on program implementation, while also addressing program adaptations. Phase 8 of PCSMCD focuses specifically on course adaptations and modifications, as it has been noted that course implementation began several phases back. Phase 9, does not differ between models. Likewise, the goals of phase 10 and phase 11

are shared across models. Of critical importance in both models is the recursive and iterative nature of both models. In other words, although the models are described linearly, it is expected that many of the phases will overlap and repeat (Nastasi et al., 2004).

Conclusion

As school psychology integrates social justice into the identity of the profession (Power, 2008; Shriberg et al., 2008), instructors are called on to train preservice school psychologists on socially just practices. The literature on the effectiveness of social justice-related courses suggests that variables such as instructor experiences and characteristics (Perry et al., 2009; Ratts, 2006) and student experiences and characteristics (Brown, Parham, & Yonker, 1996) affect the outcome of social justice courses. The Participatory Culture Specific Model of Course Development (PCSMCD) proposed in this article incorporates the four previously mentioned instructor and student variables into course development and implementation. By assessing the four variables of instructor experiences, instructor characteristics, student experiences, and student characteristics and utilizing data related to those variables when making course decisions, instructors will better address the instructional needs of all preservice school psychologists. This model also allows for course modifications based upon formative data and feedback gathered throughout the course with the goal of reducing student resistance to and increasing acceptability of the content and activities (Chappell, 1994). Furthermore, by involving students in the course development process, students would be able to experience social justice in practice by being empowered and allowed more control of their educational experience.

The PCSMCD encourages instructors to stay vigilant about engaging in ongoing reflection of their own biases, competencies, and their need for professional development on social justice issues (Titus & Gremler, 2010). Instructors should be cognizant of the source of all course material and be able to distinguish between data-based content and their personal opinions. In addition, through the PCSMCD instructors are encouraged to develop partnerships with school psychologists who serve as social justice advocates in practice to inform their instruction and to learn more about what is occurring in the field related to social justice. Finally, the model encourages dissemination of the course content and process both formally and informally.

Along with disseminating information about the PCSMCD content and process, more research is needed about the nature and the effectiveness of social justice advocacy in school psychology practice. Social justice-related instruction must be both theory-based and data-based, but not enough social justice-related empirical studies currently exist. Researchers have an opportunity to increase the knowledge of this relatively new area of study by gathering data about how social justice issues apply to the practice of school psychology. As with many new initiatives, fully integrating social justice work into school psychology may take time and trial and error. The PCSMCD provides a starting place for trainers to teach preservice school psychologists to think about social justice issues and to incorporate social justice advocacy into practice.

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CHAPTER 2

SOCIAL JUSTICE ADVOCACY TRENDS RELATED TO GAY/STRAIGHTALLIANCE ADVISORS' EXPERIENCES IN SCHOOLS

As educators and scholars have given more attention to social justice in education, it has been documented that lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) youth are not being provided with as safe a learning environment as are their heterosexual peers (Reis & Saewyc, 1999; Birkett, Espelage, & Koenig, 2009). Recent tragedies involving suicides linked to LGBT-related bullying have brought national attention to this issue (Freedman, 2010). The current presidential administration has issued a formal address directed toward youth who are bullied, specifically youth who are identified as or perceived to be LGBT (Gay, Lesbian, Straight Education Network [GLSEN], 2010). Although momentum to address the negative school climate for LGBT youth is increasing, one group of educators, gay/straight alliance (GSA) advisors, has been engaging in social justice advocacy for LGBT youth in schools for several decades. Yet, limited information is available about these social justice advocates and their daily triumphs and challenges to advocating for LGBT youth.

Gay/straight alliances (GSAs) are after-school clubs designed to address issues encountered by LGBT and heterosexual students (Griffin, Lee, Waugh, & Beyer, 2004). The concept of GSAs originated as a mechanism to improve school climate for LGBT youth, but the charge of GSAs has expanded to include advocacy, education, and awareness. Among the social justice strategies implemented within schools, GSAs are thought to be one of the most common. Researchers (e.g., Szalacha, 2003) have suggested that GSAs may be one of the more effective strategies for improving school

climate for LGBT youth. Lee (2002) interviewed seven high school student members of GSAs, who reported increased sense of belonging and comfort level with their sexual orientation as a result of their GSA membership. Youth also have reported gaining a sense of empowerment from the knowledge and relationships developed through participation in a GSA (Russell, Muraco, Subramaniam, & Laub, 2009). Gay/straight alliances have been linked to improved grades and school attendance (Walls, Kane, & Wisneski, 2010), in addition to increased feelings of school safety (Goodenow, Szalacha, & Westheimer, 2006). Missing in the literature on LGBT issues in schools is a substantial knowledge base about the experiences of GSA advisors whose presence and social justice advocacy allows the club to meet. Emerging literature has suggested that while GSA advisors may have individual experiences as advocates (Adams & Carson, 2006; Brickley, 2001), there may be trends among the GSA advisors' experiences related to the barriers/facilitators or strategies to advocating (Graybill, Varjas, Meyers, & Watson, 2009; Valenti & Campbell, 2009; Watson, Varjas, Meyers, & Graybill, 2010). The current study surveyed a large national sample of GSA advisors to enhance understanding about the experiences of these social justice advocates and to further inform the literature about the nature of advocacy for LGBT youth and the experiences of social justice advocates in schools.

Ecological Characteristics Affecting LGBT Advocacy in Schools

Limited empirical literature about GSA advisors exists, and the studies utilizing GSA advisors as participants that appear in the literature have been qualitative and often have used samples of less than 30. One study with GSA advisors conceptualized their social justice advocacy experiences according to three systems, or levels of

characteristics that affect GSA advisors' advocacy within schools (Watson et al., 2010). These characteristics were reported as both barriers and facilitators to advisor advocacy. The literature on LGBT advocacy in schools, GSA advisors' experiences, and attitudes toward LGBT individuals in general describe characteristics that fall under this ecological model and are incorporated below.

The first level of ecological characteristics identified in Watson et al.'s (2010) study included the individual-level characteristics of consequences to advocacy, sexual orientation (discussed under demographics below), knowledge of LGBT issues, personality characteristics, and personal experiences. The second level of ecological characteristics included the school-level characteristics of administrators, school personnel, students, school policy, and school-based resources. The third level of ecological characteristics included the sociocultural-level characteristics of parents, public policy, cultural norms, and community resources (Watson et al., 2010). The characteristics discussed below are organized according to Watson et al.'s (2010) study (see Table 3); however, some of the titles have been modified to match other studies measuring similar constructs.

Individual-Level Characteristics

Individual-level characteristics may affect an advisor's motivation or self-perceived level of competency to advocate for LGBT students. The individual-level characteristics of demographic variables, level of training, knowledge about LGBT issues, personal experiences, and consequences to advocacy will be examined in this paper. In addition, the individual-level characteristics of consequences of advocacy and self-perceived preparedness to advocate will be explored in this study.

Table 3

Ecological Characteristics that Affect Advocacy for LGBT Youth in Schools (Adapted from Watson et al., 2010)

Level	Factors
Individual-Level	Demographic Variables, Level of Training, Knowledge About LGBT Issues, Personal Experiences, Consequences to Advocacy, Personality Characteristics
School-Level	Students, School Personnel, Administrators, School-Based Resources, School Policy
Sociocultural-Level	Public Policy, Community Characteristics, Parents, Cultural Norms

Demographic Variables. Despite the research supporting the importance of GSAs, little is known about the advisors on whom the existence of the clubs depends. One might assume that there are demographic similarities among advisors, given that research consistently supports that demographic characteristics of all people are related to attitudes toward LGBT individuals and issues (Balkin, Schlosser, & Levitt, 2009; Brown & Henriquez, 2008; Grapes, 2006; Holley, Larson, Adelman, & Trevino, 2007). Demographic characteristics that have been related to attitudes toward LGBT issues outside of the GSA advisor literature have included level of education, religion, political orientation, race, gender, and sexual orientation. For example, higher levels of education were related to more positive attitudes toward LGBT issues in a sample of 704 adults aged 18 years or older (Grapes, 2006). Balkin, Schlosser, & Levitt (2009) found significant relationships between high levels of authoritarian religiosity and more homophobic attitudes among randomly sampled counseling professionals and graduates. In Holley and colleagues' (2007) study of 326 undergraduate college students who had

participated in a diversity-related course, participants who identified as male and Christian reported more negative attitudes toward LGB individuals than did females or individuals with no religious affiliation. In Brown and Henriquez's (2008) survey study of 320 undergraduate students, participants who were more religious and politically conservative reported more negative attitudes toward LGBT issues. In addition, racially White participants reported more positive attitudes than non-White participants. Mudrey and Medina-Adams (2006) found the same effect for race in their study of preservice teachers, with minority preservice teachers reporting more negative perceptions of gays and lesbians than their nonminority preservice teacher counterparts. However, Satcher and Leggett (2007) found the opposite effect for race, with African-American school counselors in their study reporting more positive attitudes toward LGBT issues than White school counselors.

Sexual orientation has been found to be a barrier and facilitator for both advisors who identified as LGBT and for those who identified as heterosexual (Watson et al., 2010). In Watson et al.'s (2010) qualitative study of 22 GSA advisors, participants who identified as LGBT reported that sexual orientation facilitated their ability to speak from personal experience when advocating; heterosexual advisors did not have this shared experience with their LGBT students or colleagues for whom they were advocating. Sexual orientation served as a barrier for LGBT advisors when individuals opposing advocacy efforts accused GSA advisors of promoting an "agenda." However, heterosexual advisors did not report this concern (Watson et al., 2010). Advisors in Valenti and Campbell's (2009) qualitative study reported an awareness of others' perceptions that they may be trying to "recruit" students to the "gay lifestyle." Those who

were straight and married noted that their heterosexual orientation might have protected them against this accusation (Valenti & Campbell, 2009). More research on the impact of sexual orientation on GSA advisors' experiences is needed.

Level of Training & Knowledge about LGBT Issues. In addition to demographic characteristics, GSA advisors have reported that not having an adequate level of knowledge about LGBT issues decreased their self-perceived competency to address mental health issues raised by LGBT students (Watson et al., 2010). Also, the advisors in Watson et al.'s (2010) study did not feel comfortable leading training on LGBT issues because they felt they had received insufficient training. Outside of GSA advisors, level of training related to social justice and LGBT issues may be related to an individual's perceptions of LGBT issues (Dessel, 2010; Satcher & Leggett, 2007). Satcher and Leggett (2007) reported that school counselors who received more training on LGBT issues displayed more positive attitudes toward LGBT individuals. Choi et al. (2005) reported similar findings within their sample of school psychologists. Increased training has been related to increased levels of perceived competency (Dessel, 2010), effective educational efforts (Douglas, Kemp, Aggleton, & Warwick, 2001), and advocacy attitudes (Dessel, 2010). It is thought that LGBT issues are covered minimally or not at all in pre-service training programs, as evidenced by educators who have reported being underprepared to address LGBT issues (Savage, Prout, & Chard, 2004). This shortage of training opportunities exists despite large percentages of educators who have indicated interest in more professional development on these social justice issues (Fontaine, 1998). More research is needed on GSA advisors' level of training and perceptions of preparedness to advocate for LGBT youth.

Personal Experiences with LGBT Issues & Consequences to Advocacy. Choosing to be a GSA advisor can be a complicated decision for some due to the fear of possible negative personal and professional consequences as a result of advocating (Valenti & Campbell, 2009). Valenti and Campbell (2009) identified reasons why GSA advisors assumed that role, in addition to characteristics that initially made the advisors question their decision to serve. Thirteen of the fourteen GSA advisors who were interviewed by Valenti and Campbell (2009) reported that one of their primary motivators to serving as GSA advisor was to help protect LGBT youth in schools. Others reported that they had been positively affected by a personal connection with an individual who identified as LGBT and therefore had been motivated to serve as the GSA advisor. This was consistent with the findings of Watson et al.'s (2010) study in which advisors reported that past experiences with LGBT issues motivated advisors to serve in that role. Although the advisors in Valenti and Campbell's (2009) study were able to identify why they chose to serve as GSA advisors, they reported that the decision-making process to actually serve was more complicated. Some of the perceived barriers to serving as GSA advisor included lack of credibility resulting from lack of training or not identifying as LGBT. In addition, others reported that perceived consequences of advocating made them cautious to serve. For example, twelve of the fourteen advisors in the study were teachers, and some those advisors reported not wanting to serve as advisor until after receiving tenure because of concerns over losing their jobs due to the controversy often surrounding GSAs. Advisors interviewed in Watson et al.'s (2010) study reported negative professional consequences as a result of serving as the GSA advisor such as being falsely accused of sexual misconduct or losing their jobs. Given the

severity of the consequences of advocating that have been reported, more research on the consequences of educators serving in the role of GSA advisor is needed.

Personality Characteristics. The GSA advisors in Watson et al.'s (2010) study noted that their personality characteristics affected their style of LGBT advocacy. For example, some advisors reported that being vocal and passionate facilitated their advocacy efforts, while other noted that being nonconfrontational was more effective for them. In addition, advisors noted that their ability to be open-minded and have a sense of humor positively contributed to their advocacy. Limited data about personality characteristics and social justice advocacy for LGBT youth was found in the literature, suggesting a need for more research in this area.

School-Level Characteristics

Although characteristics specific to the individual advisor have been related to the advisors' social justice advocacy experiences, variables within the advisors' schools may be related to social justice advocacy efforts, as well (Watson et al., 2010). School-level characteristics may include students, school personnel and administrators, and school-based policies and resources. The school-level characteristics of student enrollment and percentage of students receiving free and reduced lunch are explored in this study. The research related to the different school-level characteristics is described below, but more research is needed on the effects of these variables on LGBT advocacy in schools.

Students. Students have been reported as both facilitators and barriers to advisor advocacy (Watson et al., 2010). Student support was one of the most frequently identified facilitators to advisors advocating, yet student resistance also served as a barrier to the advisors' efforts (Watson et al., 2010). Youth activism within schools and the LGBT

community has been a major force in the movement toward creating safe spaces for all students (Schindel, 2008). Youth have organized to improve school climate (Friedman-Nimz et al., 2006) and countered significant, often community-wide resistance toward their efforts with a great record of success (Mayberry, 2006). However, given that much of the bullying incurred by LGBT students in schools is perpetrated by their same-age peers (Kosciw, Greytak, Diaz, & Bartkiewicz, 2010), these peers may affect an advisor's ability to advocate for LGBT students. More data are needed about the characteristics of youth who engage in anti-LGBT bullying.

School Personnel & Administrators. In Watson et al.'s (2010) study, GSA advisors reported that their colleagues often made discriminatory comments about LGBT issues to the advisors and to students. However, school personnel often supported LGBT issues by displaying LGBT posters in their classroom, serving as a gay or lesbian adult role model, or incorporating LGBT issues into their curricula (Watson et al., 2010). Given the power that administrators have within schools, they have been reported as both barriers and facilitators to LGBT advocacy by GSA advisors. A few of the administrators discussed in Watson et al.'s (2010) study reportedly did not respond to anti-LGBT discrimination in schools, they disclosed students' sexual orientation to the students' parents, and they made discriminatory comments to school personnel. Adams and Carson's (2006) case study described a GSA advisor's experience with daily negative comments from colleagues and professional evaluations by administrators that seemed to be negatively affected by the advisor's sponsorship of the GSA. Eventually, the GSA advisor highlighted in Adams and Carson's (2006) article left his teaching position and "moved to a more progressive district where [he was] provided with more freedom to

support GLBTQ students…" (p. 110). However, administrators have facilitated the advisors' advocacy efforts and supportive administrators and have contributed to a more safe and welcoming environment for LGBT students (Watson et al., 2010).

Outside of the GSA advisor literature, Robinson and Ferfolja (2001) discussed the resistance they have encountered as university trainers from their preservice teachers questioning the importance of incorporating LGBT issues into curricula. In addition, data continue to support negative attitudes toward LGBT issues held by preservice educators (Mudrey & Medina-Adams, 2006). This resistance by preservice educators likely transfers into the workplace and may negatively affect the GSA advisors' advocacy efforts. Due to this, university trainers are encouraged to address social justice attitudes, particularly toward LGBT issues, at the preservice level.

School-Based Resources & School Policy. The advisors in Watson et al.'s (2010) study defined school-based resources as LGBT-related trainings and inservices held within their schools. Advisors noted that LGBT-related trainings facilitated LGBT advocacy. Fetner and Kush (2008) defined school-based resources by student enrollment and percentage of students who qualified for free and reduced lunch, which was consistent with two school district level characteristics analyzed in Kosciw, Greytak, & Diaz's (2009) ecological analysis of LGBT youth experiences in schools. Fetner and Kush (2008) obtained their definition of school-based resources from the social movement literature that has established the relationship between progress within a social movement and increased resources. The two variables of student enrollment and percentage of students who qualified for free and reduced lunch have been found to be predictors of early-adopted GSAs (Fetner & Kush, 2008). In addition, schools with

higher poverty levels have been reported to have increased victimization of LGBT youth (Kosciw et al., 2009), suggesting that these school-level characteristics may be related to increased acceptance of the LGBT issues in general.

School anti-discrimination policies that are inclusive of sexual orientation have been found to be related to increased levels of comfort, support, and protection among administrators and other educators (Schneider & Dimito, 2008). However, more research on the effect of school-level policies on LGBT advocacy is needed.

Sociocultural-Level Characteristics

Sociocultural-level characteristics are those that exist within the community or greater society that affect the GSA advisors' social justice advocacy efforts. The most commonly discussed sociocultural-level characteristics in the literature are public policy and community characteristics. However, other sociocultural-level characteristics could include parents and cultural norms (Watson et al., 2010). The sociocultural-level characteristics explored in this study include region of the country and community type. More research is needed into the effect that sociocultural-level characteristics have on GSA advisors' advocacy efforts in schools.

Public Policy & Community Characteristics. Gay/straight alliances have been the focus of a significant amount of litigation and policy change (DeMitchell & Fossey, 2008), possibly more than all other after-school clubs combined. The existence of GSAs has been facilitated by the Equal Access Act (EAA, 1984), which states that public school students have a right to assemble and if one noncurriculum-related student group is able to form, then all noncurriculum-related student groups should be allowed to be formed. GSA advisors reported that federal legislation, such as the EAA and state

policies have protected both the students' right to meet and the advisors' right to serve in the role of GSA advisor (Watson et al., 2010). Statewide anti-discrimination policies that are inclusive of LGBT populations are thought to provide additional protection for students who are the targets of LGBT-related bullying or discrimination, however, these policies are absent in many states across the United States (Russo, 2006).

Despite the protection of the EAA and statewide, inclusive anti-discrimination policies, community organizations resistant to the formation of GSAs have been successful at changing state policies related to parent notification of students participating in after-school clubs (Eckholm, 2011; Mayo, 2008). As a result, some states have attempted to require parent permission for student participation in every after-school club, which has the goal of preventing students from joining who have not yet disclosed their sexual orientation to their parents and/or whose parents would not allow their participation in the GSA (Mayo, 2008). GSA advisors have reported that the parent permission policies may prevent students who need the support and community of a GSA from joining the club (Watson et al., 2010). In addition, some school systems have attempted to eliminate all of their noncurriculum-related after-school programs to prevent GSAs from forming (DeMitchell & Fossey, 2008).

Rienzo, Button, Sheu, and Li (2009) analyzed the community characteristics that were related to increased implementation of LGBT programs in schools. Their analysis suggested that schools within states with inclusive civil rights laws and within districts containing a higher percentage of same-sex partner households had more LGBT programs. Schools within districts with a high percentage of Evangelical Protestants had fewer LGBT programs (Rienzo, Button, Sheu, & Li, 2009) possibly due to the

relationship between high religiosity and negative attitudes toward LGBT issues (Balkin et al., 2009). Fetner and Kush (2008) also found that schools located in urban and suburban areas; schools in the West and Northeast; schools in states with inclusive anti-discrimination laws; and schools in communities with more LGBT support organizations were more likely to be early-adopters of GSAs, suggesting earlier community acceptance of the clubs. In addition, students in rural communities have reported more victimization than their urban or suburban peers (Kosciw et al., 2009). The effect that public policy and community characteristics have on the existence of GSAs also may affect a GSA advisor's advocacy efforts in schools.

Parents & Cultural Norms. GSA advisors have reported that parents affect their social justice advocacy efforts both positively by supporting the GSA and negatively by preventing their children from joining the GSA or by being vocal opponents of the club (Watson et al., 2010). Educators have reported parents as one of the primary barriers to addressing LGBT issues in schools (Schneider & Dimito, 2008). Cultural norms such as homophobia and a reluctance to talk about sex have been noted as barriers to LGBT advocacy within schools (Varjas et al., 2008; Watson et al., 2010). Limited research exists related to the effect of parents and cultural norms on LGBT advocacy within schools.

Advisor Advocacy Strategies

In addition to the barriers and facilitators to advocating for LGBT youth, another component thought to be important to the GSA advisors' social justice advocacy is the strategies they use to advocate for LGBT youth in schools. In Graybill et al.'s (2010) exploratory study of GSA advisors, participants identified a range of strategies they used

when advocating in schools (Graybill et al., 2009). Advisors reported strategies to address their students, colleagues, and general barriers to advocacy (e.g., lack of visibility of LGBT issues). At the school level, specific examples of strategies were provided in response to students' use of "That's so Gay" or gay slurs, inquiries from colleagues about the sexual orientation of students within the GSAs, and colleagues' verbal resistance to discussing LGBT issues at school. Advisors reported other strategies that were used to address students who confided in the advisors about their sexual orientation, to address colleagues approaching the advisors with questions about LGBT issues or students, and to increase the visibility of LGBT issues. Visibility strategies included displaying LGBT-related posters, incorporating LGBT issues into the curricula, and leading trainings on LGBT issues. The effectiveness of these strategies has not been measured; however, strategy implementation appeared to be a significant component of the advisors' role within their schools. The empirical literature on advocacy strategies for LGBT youth in schools is minimal and more research is needed in this area.

Purpose of Current Study

The current study was designed to continue a line of research seeking to gain more knowledge about GSA advisors (i.e., demographics) and to learn more about the ecological factors that affect their experiences with social justice advocacy in schools. The existing literature on GSA advisors has been largely qualitative using samples of less than 30 advisors (Adams & Carson, 2006; Graybill et al., 2009; Valenti & Campbell, 2009; Watson et al., 2010). This study utilized survey methodology to obtain data from a large, national sample of advisors to address the following two aims.

Aim 1

The literature has established demographic trends among individuals who reported positive feelings toward LGBT individuals and issues (Balkin et al., 2009; Brown & Henriquez, 2008; Grapes, 2006; Holley et al., 2007). As noted above, individuals who were more liberal in political orientation (Brown & Henriquez, 2008) and reported less religiosity (Balkin et al., 2009) have expressed more positive feelings about LGBT issues. However, little is known about the demographic trends of social justice advocates in schools such as GSA advisors. It is hypothesized that the demographic trends of GSA advisors follow patterns that are similar to others who support LGBT issues given that GSA advisors are also assumed to have positive feelings about LGBT individuals. Therefore, one aim of this study was to obtain more information about the individual-level characteristics related to gender, race, age, sexual identity, religious preference, times per month advisors attend a place of worship, political affiliation, education, position held within school, years employed within current school, and years served as GSA advisor in current school. Additional information was obtained related to the GSA advisors' school- and sociocultural-level characteristics; however, due to limited information in the literature about these characteristics, hypotheses were not generated and data collection related to school- and sociocultural-level characteristics was considered exploratory at this time.

Aim 2

Previous research has suggested that advisors define their experiences advocating in schools according to the following three variables: barriers and facilitators to social justice advocacy (Adams & Carson, 2006; Watson et al., 2010) as well as the strategies

used to advocate (Graybill et al., 2009). The current study will explore the predictors that account for the variance in the three hypothesized factors of barriers, facilitators, and strategies used to advocate. Specifically, the following individual-, school- and sociocultural-level predictors were chosen due to the established importance in the LGBT literature and due to the variability in participant responses on these items to explore the level of variance they explain:

(a) Individual-Level Characteristics: Professional consequences; personal consequences experienced; and knowledge of LGBT issues, or self-perceived preparedness to advocate

(b) School-Level Characteristics: School-based resources defined by school size and percentage of free/reduced lunch,

(c) Sociocultural-Level Characteristics: Region of the country; community type

Based on previous research supporting the importance of individual-level characteristics on one's response to LGBT issues (Brown & Henriquez, 2008; Satcher & Leggett, 2007) and the previous research on LGBT issues in schools suggesting the importance of examining ecological characteristics in order of those closest to the advisors (individual-level) to those most distal (sociocultural-level; Kosciw et al., 2009), the hypothesis is that the individual-level characteristics of professional and personal consequences experienced and knowledge of LGBT issues or self-perceived preparedness to advocate will account for a greater percentage of the variance in the barriers, facilitators, and strategies used to advocate for LGBT youth in schools than the school- or sociocultural-level characteristics. This study is largely exploratory given the minimal research that exists examining ecological predictors of LGBT advocacy in schools.

Method

Survey Design

The current study was the second phase of a mixed methods, ethnographic project. In phase 1, the researchers conducted semi-structured interviews with 22 gay/straight alliance (GSA) advisors to learn about their experiences advocating for LGBT youth in schools (Graybill et al., 2009; Watson et al., 2010). Next, the researchers used the more structured ethnographic data collection method of surveying a larger sample of the target population (Schensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999). The survey questions for this study (i.e., phase 2) were designed using three of the overarching themes that emerged during the semi-structured ethnographic interviews (i.e., strategies used to advocate, barriers experienced when advocating, facilitators experienced when advocating). The language used by the advisors was incorporated into the survey questions related to these topics, as is consistent with an ethnographic survey (Schensul et al., 1999). In addition, numerous questions about individual-, school-, and sociocultural-level characteristics were included in the survey. Individual-level questions inquired about race, gender, age, religion, political ideology, education, length of experience as a GSA advisor, and other demographic questions selected based on findings regarding relevant demographic characteristics in previous studies (Brown & Henriquez, 2008; Fetner & Kush, 2008; Kahn, 2006; Mayo, 2008; Russo, 2006; Valenti & Campbell, 2009; Watson et al., 2010). In addition, the survey inquired about advisor consequences to advocating and self-perceived preparedness to advocate. School-level questions inquired about student enrollment, percentage of students who qualified for free and reduced lunch

(Fetner & Kush, 2008), anti-discrimination policies, and staff development. Sociocultural-level questions inquired about community type and region of the country.

The survey was piloted at a GSA advisor summer institute led by the members of the research team and held at their university with participants from the local area. The advisors completed the survey on paper and provided feedback individually and through large group discussions about the relevance and wording of the questions on the survey. Additionally, one advisor completed a timed-pilot administration of a paper survey. The original survey included 57 questions. Based on advisor feedback, some of the survey questions were reworded for clarity or divided into multiple questions. Additional changes were made to the order of content and demographic questions and to the response options for data analysis purposes. A total of 13 revisions were made to the original survey to best match the literature and the advisors' experiences and to maintain a length that was conducive to completion in one, short session. The final online survey consisted of 67 questions, including the date, 27 ecological factors questions, 11 barrier questions, 12 facilitator questions, and 16 strategy questions. The survey included closed-ended, rank-order, fill-in the blank, and Likert-scale questions. The open-ended response option of "Other (please specify)" was included for many of the closed-ended questions, as well. The survey took participants an average of 20 minutes to complete. The questions utilized for data analysis in the current study are listed in the appendix.

Procedure and Participants

Participants were contacted using the following three ethnographic sampling methods: convenience, targeted, and snowball (Schensul, LeCompte, Nastasi, & Borgatti, 1999). Members of the research team spent approximately 300 hours over 4 months

locating and contacting high school-level GSA advisors individually by phone or email using contact information found on GSA Web sites. In addition, several GSA organizations around the country posted the call for participants on their listservs, which appeared to solicit participants due to the spike in respondents after the calls for participants were posted. As participants were informed about the study through the call for participants, they were given a link to the online survey and the password to obtain access to the consent form. After reviewing the electronic consent form, participants were given access to the survey. Given the difficulty of obtaining a national sample of GSA advisors during phase one of this ethnographic study (Graybill et al., 2009), $5 Amazon.com gift cards were available for all participants who completed the survey; however, several advisors (number unknown due to potential repeat responders described below) opted out of obtaining compensation.

A total of 346 surveys was completed. The response rate is unknown due to the anonymity of the survey and the use of online data collection methods. Through the data cleaning process, 84 surveys were removed due to incomplete surveys, inconsistent demographic data suggestive of a repeat responder (Konstan, Rosser, Ross, Stanton, & Edwards, 2005), failure to meet the criteria of being a current GSA advisor of a middle or high school, or multiple respondents indicated on one survey. The final sample consisted of 262 advisors.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to identify the demographic trends of the GSA advisors (see appendix for demographics questions). An exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the factor structure of the survey. A total of 27 questions were included

in the exploratory factor analysis, including 9 barrier, 9 facilitator, and 9 strategy questions (see appendix for exploratory factor analysis survey questions). Response options for these 27 items were on a 7-point Likert-scale (see appendix). Hierarchical regression analyses were run to examine the amount of variance in the mean factor scores that was accounted for by a select number of predictors. The predictors included in the hierarchical regression included those identified above: (a) Individual-Level Characteristics: professional consequences; personal consequences experienced; and knowledge of LGBT issues, or self-perceived preparedness to advocate, (b) School-Level Characteristics: school-based resources defined by school size and percentage of free/reduced lunch, and (c) Sociocultural-Level Characteristics: region of the country and community type.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The first aim of the study was addressed through descriptive statistics about demographic variables. Demographic statistics are reported at all three levels of the ecological model, the individual, school, and sociocultural levels. Data were collected on many of the ecological characteristics identified earlier in Table 3. See appendix for ecological characteristics survey questions.

Individual-Level Characteristics. The advisors provided demographic data related to their gender identity, race, age, sexual identity, religiosity, political affiliation, education, and employment (see Table 4). Additional data about individual-level characteristics such as knowledge of LGBT issues, personal experiences, and consequences of advocating are described below.

Gender Identity. Of the GSA advisor respondents, 67.3% (*n* = 179) were female, 30.5% (*n* = 81) were male, .4% (*n* = 1) were transgender, and .4% (*n* = 1) identified as "other."

Race. The racial distribution was .4% (*n* = 1) African American, 1.1% (*n* = 3) Asian American, 85.7% (*n* = 228) White, 5.0% (*n* = 13) Latino, .4% (*n* = 1) Native American, 3.4% (*n* = 9) Mixed Race, and 2.6% (*n* = 7) Other. Among the 7 respondents who listed their race identities as "Other," 4 identified racially as Jewish.

Age. The respondents' age was reported in 10 year increments with 8.3% (*n* = 22) between the ages of 20-29, 24.1% (*n* = 64) between the ages of 30-39, 32.0% (*n* = 85) between the ages of 40-49, 28.2% (*n* = 75) between the ages of 50-59, 5.6% (*n* = 15) between the ages of 60-69, and .4% (*n* = 1) over 70 years old.

Sexual Identity. A slight majority of the advisors (54.5%, *n* = 145) reported their sexual identity as Straight. An additional 16.5% (*n* = 44) of advisors identified as Gay, 16.5% (*n* = 50) identified as Lesbian, 5.3% (*n* = 14) identified as Bisexual, and 3.4% (*n* = 9) identified as "Other."

Religiosity. Respondents were more diverse in religious preference, with 15.4% (*n* = 41) Agnostic, 11.3% (*n* = 30) Atheist, 3.8% (*n* = 10) Buddhist, 39.1% (*n* = 104) Christian, 7.5% (*n* = 20) Jewish, and 21.4% (*n* = 57) "Other." Of the 57 respondents who reported a religious preference of "Other," 12 reported identifying with a Christian denomination such as Mormon, Catholicism, or Unitarian, and 13 reported their religious preference as Spiritual. The majority of respondents do not attend a place of worship (69.9%, *n* = 186). Finally, 55.3% of advisors reported themselves as less than somewhat religious.

Table 4

Select Individual-Level Characteristics (Total Sample n = 262)

Variable	n	%
Gender Identity		
Male	81	30.5
Female	179	67.3
Transgender	1	.4
Other (Queer)	1	.4
Race		
African American	1	.4
Asian American	3	1.1
White	228	85.7
Latino	13	5.0
Native American	1	.4
Mixed Race	9	3.4
Other	7	2.6
Age		
20-29	22	8.3
30-39	64	24.1
40-49	85	32.0
50-59	75	28.2
60-69	15	5.6
70+	1	.4
Sexual Identity		
Gay	44	16.5
Straight	145	54.5
Lesbian	50	16.5
Bisexual	14	5.3
Other	9	3.4
Religious Preference		
Agnostic	41	15.4
Atheist	30	11.3
Buddhist	10	3.8
Christian	104	39.1
Jewish	20	7.5
Muslim	0	0
Other	57	21.4
Times Per Month Attends a Place of Worship		
None	186	69.9
1-2	39	14.7
3-6	34	12.8
7+	3	1.1

Level of Religiosity (Likert Scale)		
(1) Not at All Religious	82	31.3
(2)	42	16.0
(3)	21	8.0
(4) Somewhat Religious	54	20.6
(5)	23	8.8
(6)	28	10.7
(7) Very Religious	12	4.6
Political Affiliation		
Democrat	192	72.2
Republican	6	2.3
Independent	34	12.8
Libertarian	1	.4
Green	9	3.4
Other	20	7.5
Political Ideology (Likert Scale)		
(1) Liberal	146	55.7
(2)	55	21.0
(3)	35	13.4
(4) Moderate	19	7.3
(5)	2	.8
(6)	4	1.5
(7) Conservative	1	.4
Education		
Associate's	2	.8
Bachelor's	53	19.9
Master's	147	55.3
Specialist/Post-Master's	36	13.5
Doctorate	11	4.1
Other	13	4.9
Position		
Teacher	184	69.2
School Counselor	26	9.8
School Psychologist	3	1.1
Social Worker	12	4.5
Administrator	4	1.5
Other	33	12.4
Years Employed In Current School		
1-3 years	43	16.2
4-6 years	51	19.2
7-10 years	62	23.3
11+ years	106	39.8
Years Served as GSA Advisor in Current School		
<1 year	25	9.5
1 year	16	6.0
2 years	40	15.0

3 years	45	16.9
4 years	31	11.7
5+ years	105	39.5

Political Affiliation. Politically, 72.2% (*n* = 192) of respondents identified as Democrat, with 7.5% (*n* = 20) identifying as "Other." The remaining political breakdown was as follows: 2.3% (*n* = 6) Republican; 12.8% (*n* = 34) Independent; .4% (*n* = 1) Libertarian; and 3.4% (*n* = 9) Green. In addition, 90.1% of advisors considered their political ideology more liberal than moderate.

Education. Most respondents held a Master's degree (55.3%; n = 147), but 19.9% (n = 53) held a Bachelors degree and 13.5% (n = 36) held a Specialist/Post-Master's degree. An additional .8% (n = 2) held an Associates degree, 4.1% (n = 11) held a Doctorate, and 4.9% (n = 13) reported "Other." Of the 13 who reported "Other," 11 reported obtaining post-Bachelors-level credit. Overall, 77.1% of advisors reported education at the Master's level or above.

Employment. The majority of the respondents were teachers (69.2%; n = 184). Other professions represented included school counselors (9.8%; n = 26), school psychologists (1.1%; n = 3), Social Workers (4.5%; n = 12), Administrators (1.5%; n = 4), and Other (12.5%; n = 33). Some of the respondents who reported "Other" listed their profession as school nurse, media specialist, or teacher assistant. Approximately 84% (n = 219) of advisors had worked in their current schools for 4 or more years. In addition, 39.5% (n = 105) had served as their school's GSA advisor for 5 or more years.

Knowledge of LGBT Issues. Only 13.0% (*n* = 34) of the entire sample of respondents reported that their professional training prepared them "a lot" to advocate for

LGBT youth in schools. Whereas 42.0% (*n* = 110) noted that their professional training prepared them "not at all" for advocating for LGBT youth.

Personal Experiences. Advisors reported that the primary reasons for becoming an advisor were concern about student safety (29.4%; *n* = 77), they were asked and felt obligated (26.3%; *n* = 69), and personal experiences with LGBT issues (19.1%; *n* = 50).

Consequences of Advocating. Advisors in the current study reported experiencing negative personal (24.1%; *n* = 64) and professional (18.0%; *n* = 48) consequences as a result of advocating for LGBT youth in schools.

School-Level Characteristics. Advisors provided data about the anti-discrimination policies at their schools. They were asked about the existence and the enforcement of policies that were inclusive of LGBT issues. Also, data about staff development, the percentage of students receiving free and reduced lunch, and student enrollment numbers were gathered.

School Policy. Among the respondents in this study, 69.1% (*n* = 183) reported working in schools with inclusive anti-discrimination policies. Of those advisors, 78.8% (*n* = 145) reported that their anti-discrimination policies are enforced.

Staff Development. Among the sample of GSA advisors, 32.7% (*n* = 86) reported that their school had provided staff development on LGBT issues. Of those 85 advisors, 38.4% (*n* = 33) noted that the staff development on LGBT issues was not mandatory for all staff to attend.

School-Based Resources. The majority of advisors in the current study (50.4%; *n* = 134) worked in schools where less than 25% of students qualified for free and reduced lunch. Only 9.4% (*n* = 25) of advisors worked in schools where more than 76% of

students qualified for free and reduced lunch. The student enrollment ranged from a minimum of 107 to a maximum of 4500, with a mean of 1796 (*SD* = 832.2) students. In this study, the distribution of advisors between public and private schools was also noted. Most of the respondents worked in public schools (90.6%; *n* = 241), with 5.3% (*n* = 14) who worked in private, but not religious schools, and 2.6% (*n* = 7) who worked in religious schools.

Sociocultural-Level Characteristics. Advisors listed the state where they worked at the time of survey completion. A region variable was created from the state data, using the four regions (West, South, Midwest, and Northeast) identified by the US Census (US Census Bureau, 2007). Community characteristics options included suburban, urban, small town, and rural.

Region & State. More advisors were located in the Western region (4172%; *n* = 108) than in any other region of the country. The Southern region housed the next largest group of advisors (27.4%; *n* = 73). The Midwest (15.8%; *n* = 42) and the Northeast (13.5%; *n* = 36) housed a similar number of advisors. States with 10 or more respondents included Massachusetts (*n* = 10), Maryland (*n* = 11), Michigan (*n* = 10), New York (*n* = 13), Oregon (*n* = 12), Washington (*n* = 13), Arizona (*n* = 11), California (*n* = 52), Colorado (*n* = 10), and Florida (*n* = 23).

Community Characteristics & Resources. When describing the community in which their schools were located, 57.5% (*n* = 153) were in suburban communities, 27.4% (*n* = 73) were in urban communities, 10.5% (*n* = 28) were in small towns, and 3.0% (*n* = 8) were in rural communities.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

First, descriptive statistics were run on all 27 variables in the model (9 barrier; 9 facilitator; 9 strategy) to test for skewness and kurtosis (see Table 5). As indicated in the appendix under the exploratory factor analysis survey questions, the response options for these 27 items were on a 7-point Likert scale. Eight of the twenty-seven items presented with violations of normality using the criteria of absolute values greater than 2 for skewness and greater than 7 for kurtosis (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996). This included six of the strategy items that violated normality. Related to the strategies items, advisors overwhelmingly reported that they would immediately inform the student not to use the phrase “That’s so gay” (M = 6.76) or anti-gay slurs (M = 6.84). In addition, they would pull the student aside and explain why it was inappropriate to use the phrase “That’s so gay” (M = 6.47) or anti-gay slurs (M = 6.41). They were less likely to ignore a student who said “That’s so gay” (M = 1.41) or an anti-gay slur (M = 1.26) or respond with sarcasm to a student who said “That’s so gay” (M = 2.16).

Initial analyses were run with these eight items that violated normality to examine the impact of the skewed items on the initial model. Determining the number of factors to retain was a multi-step process. First, Kaiser’s (1960) stopping rule that retains factors based on the criterion of eigenvalues >1 was used. This method yielded nine factors; however, six items did not load on a factor, including three items that violated normality. Therefore, a total of 12 items either violated normality and/or did not load on a factor. All 12 items were removed and the analyses were rerun. Rerunning the analyses using eigenvalue >1 criteria yielded four factors. In keeping with Gorsuch’s (1983) recommendation that multiple methods be used to determine the number of factors to

retain, a scree test was used next (Cattell, 1966). The scree test supported a two-factor solution (Field, 2009). To confirm the use of the two-factor solution, both the two- and three-factor models were run and compared to the four-factor model. The two-factor solution was retained due to the theoretically consistent and simple factor structure that it suggested. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .820, suggesting a pattern of correlations that were compact (Field, 2009). The two factors identified were named Barriers and Facilitators.

The total variance accounted for by the two factors was 47.98%. The highest rated facilitator was friends/family/partner support, with 37.8% (n = 99) reporting that personal support was "Very Much" a facilitator. The highest rated barrier was community (outside of school), with 5.0% (n = 13) reporting that community (outside of school) was "Very Much" a barrier. On the 7-point Likert scale with 1 representing "Not at all" or a weak barrier or facilitator and 7 representing "Very Much" or a strong barrier or facilitator, the mean barriers ranged from 1.96-2.68. The mean facilitators ranged from 3.06-5.06 suggesting that the advisors reported more facilitators than barriers. Responses on items within each factor were averaged for each participant, creating a single, continuous numeric indicator of experiences related to barriers to advocating and facilitators to advocating for LGBT youth.

In summary, the exploratory factor analysis yielded two factors, Barriers and Facilitators (see Table 6). Due to violations of normality, the strategy items were removed from the analysis and therefore did not yield a separate factor. These findings suggested that GSA advisors reported barriers and facilitators to advocating as two

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for the Barriers, Facilitators, and Strategies Items in the Exploratory Factor Analysis

Item	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
To what degree have your friends/ family/partner been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your School?	1.30	.968	4.167	18.929
To what degree have parents (of students) been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	2.68	1.767	.776	-.349
To what degree has your principal been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	1.95	1.585	1.680	1.845
To what degree have other administrators been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	2.18	1.674	1.310	.727
To what degree has staff been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	2.49	1.652	.954	-.091
To what degree have students been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	2.40	1.500	.896	-.015
To what degree has the community (outside of school) been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	2.71	1.859	.812	-.503
To what degree has your sexual identity been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	1.49	1.122	2.637	6.923
To what degree has a lack of public policy been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	2.20	1.715	1.293	.643
To what degree have your friends/ family/partner been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at school?	5.05	2.114	-.791	-.730

To what degree have parents (of students) been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at school?	3.06	1.874	.506	-760
To what degree has your principal been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at school?	3.98	2.173	-.034	-1.415
To what degree have other administrators been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at school?	3.81	2.095	.083	-1.246
To what degree has staff been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at school?	4.43	1.701	-.338	-.544
To what degree have students been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at school?	5.63	1.508	-1.139	.820
To what degree has the community (outside of school) been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at school?	3.23	2.040	.440	-1.055
To what degree has sexual identity been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	3.62	2.528	.192	-1.666
To what degree has public or school policy been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at school?	3.82	2.181	.055	-1.353
If you heard a student at your school say “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to formally discipline the student (e.g., write up, office referral)?	3.15	2.094	.588	-.930
If you heard a student at your school say “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to immediately inform the student that they should not use that phrase in that manner?	6.76	.716	-3.646	14.617
If you heard a student at your school say “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to pull the student aside and explain why it is inappropriate to use the term gay in a devaluing manner?	6.47	1.167	-2.690	7.386
If you heard a student at your	2.16	1.746	1.438	1.005

school say “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to respond with sarcasm (e.g., “Then how do you make it straight” or “How wonderful that it is happy”)?				
If you heard a student at your school say “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to ignore the student?	1.41	.925	3.140	11.710
If you heard a student at your school call another student an anti-gay slur such as “fag” or “dyke”, how likely would you be to formally discipline the student (e.g., write up, office referral)?	4.75	2.145	-.435	-1.171
If you heard a student at your school call another student an anti-gay slur such as “fag” or “dyke”, how likely would you be to immediately inform the student not to use that word?	6.84	.637	-5.041	29.374
If you heard a student at your school call another student an anti-gay slur such as “fag” or “dyke”, how likely would you be to ignore the student?	1.26	1.007	4.756	23.184
If you heard a student at your school call another student an anti-gay slur such as “fag” or “dyke”, how likely would you be to pull the student aside and explain why it is inappropriate to use that term?	6.41	1.355	-2.616	6.403

Table 6

Items Under Barriers Factor And Facilitators Factor

Factor Item	Loading
Barrier	
1. To what degree have parents (of students) been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.584
2. To what degree has your principal been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.596

3. To what degree have other administrators been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.659
4. To what degree has staff been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.786
5. To what degree have students been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.632
6. To what degree has the community (outside of school) been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.744
7. To what degree has a lack of public or school policy been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.634
Facilitator	
1. To what degree have your friends/family/partner been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.452
2. To what degree have parents (of students) been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.527
3. To what degree has your principal been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.734
4. To what degree have other administrators been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.860
5. To what degree has staff been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.551
6. To what degree has the community (outside of school) been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth in your school?	.479
7. To what degree has your sexual identity been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.306
8. To what degree has public or school policy been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?	.652

distinct components of their experiences and that the advisors' experience of barriers appeared to be distinct from their experience of facilitators.

Hierarchical Regression Analyses

To explore the amount of variance accounted for by individual-, school-, and sociocultural-level characteristics, hierarchical regression analyses were run with the mean scores of the two factors, Barriers and Facilitators as the outcomes. Hierarchical regression was chosen over stepwise regression methods to theoretically test the increasing importance of individual-, school-, and sociocultural-level characteristics. To remain theoretically consistent with previous research (Brown & Henriquez, 2008;

Satcher & Leggett, 2007; Kosciw et al., 2009), the three individual-level characteristics were entered in the first step under both the Barriers and Facilitators models. In the second and third steps, the school-level and sociocultural-level characteristics were added, respectively. Again, this was done separately for each of the factors, Barriers and Facilitators with the characteristics entered in the same order for both models. This sequence of entering characteristics variables allowed for measuring the relative importance of the different variables.

Results of the hierarchical regression analyses regarding the prediction of responses on the Barriers and Facilitators factors are reported in Table 7. Individual-level characteristics accounted for 25.5% of the variance in self-reported barriers to advocating and 4.1% of self-reported facilitators to advocating (step 1). Both were significant at the $p < .001$ and $p < .05$ levels, respectively. The school-level characteristics only accounted for an additional 1.5% of the variance in Barriers and .2% of the variance in Facilitators (step 2); neither was statistically significant. Then, when the sociocultural-level characteristics were added at step 3, they accounted for a final 6.0% of the variance in the Barriers and 6.3% of the variance in the Facilitators. This was a statistically significant contribution to the variance in both Barrier and Facilitator models ($p < .05$). R squared of the final model for Barriers was .330, suggesting that 33.0% of the variance in the advisors' responses to the Barriers items could be accounted for by the seven predictors entered. R squared for the final model for Facilitators was .106, suggesting that 10.6% of the variance in the advisors' response to the Facilitators items could be accounted for by the seven predictors. Table 7 discusses beta and significance of each item in step 3 for Barriers and Facilitators. Individual-level characteristics of negative personal and

professional consequences significantly predicted self-reported Barriers, but not Facilitators. The more likely the advisors were to experience negative personal or professional consequences, the less likely they were to report barriers to advocacy. The individual-level characteristic of self-perceived preparedness to advocate based on previous training significantly predicted self-reported Facilitators, but not Barriers. The more prepared advisors felt to advocate based on professional training, the more facilitators to advocacy they reported. The sociocultural-level characteristic of "rural" community type significantly predicted both self-reported Barriers and Facilitators. Advisors in rural communities reported more barriers and fewer facilitators to advocating. Multicollinearity diagnostics suggested adequate independence of predictors, with all variance inflation factors (VIF) below 10 (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990) and tolerance levels greater than .2 (Menard, 1995).

Discussion

The current study enhances the social justice literature in education by providing data about the demographic trends and experiences of established social justice advocates in schools, specifically gay/straight alliance advisors. Studies examining the experiences of GSA advisors (Watson et al., 2010) and LGBT youth (Kosciw et al., 2009) have conceptualized these experiences under Bronfenbrenner's (1977) ecological model of development. Use of the ecological model to explore the effects of individual-, school-, and sociocultural-level characteristics on the experiences of GSA advisors was continued in this study.

Table 7

Results of Hierarchical Regression Predicting Levels of Barriers and Facilitators to Advocacy

Predictor	ΔR^2	Beta
Barriers		
Step 1	.255**	
Have you suffered any negative personal consequences due to your advocacy for LGBT youth?		.312**
Have you suffered any negative personal consequences due to your advocacy for LGBT youth?		-.277**
To what degree did your professional training (e.g., undergraduate, graduate school) prepare you to advocate for LGBT youth?		.016
Step 2	.015	
What percentage of students at the school housing your GSA qualifies for free and reduced lunch?		-.109
What is the approximate size of your student body?		.051
Step 3	.060*	
Region of the county [a]		
Northeast		-.106
Midwest		.114
South		-.038
Community type [b]		
Urban		-.038
Small Town		-.005
Rural		.167*
Total R^2	.330*	
Facilitators		
Step 1	.041*	
Have you suffered any negative personal consequences due to your advocacy for LGBT youth?		.008
Have you suffered any negative personal consequences due to your advocacy for LGBT youth?		.051
To what degree did your professional training (e.g., undergraduate, graduate school) prepare you to advocate for LGBT youth?		.188*
Step 2	.002	
What percentage of students at the school housing your GSA qualifies for free and reduced lunch?		.026
What is the approximate size of your student body?		-.003
Step 3	.063*	
Region of the county [a]		
Northeast		.134
Midwest		-.078

South		-.018
Community type [b]		
Urban		.061
Small Town		-.054
Rural		-.166*
Total R^2	.106*	

[a] reference group: west; [b] reference group: suburban
*p < .05. **p < .001.

Individual-Level Characteristics

To learn more about the individual-level characteristics, demographic data were collected. Many of the demographic trends found in this study were consistent with demographic data reported on individuals who have positive attitudes towards LGBT individuals and issues (Balkin et al., 2009; Brown & Henriquez, 2008; Grapes, 2006; Holley et al., 2007).

Demographic Variables. Demographic data were collected at all three levels of the ecological model that have appeared in previous literature about GSA advisors. The demographic data in the current study suggested that this sample of GSA advisors was a relatively homogenous group. They were overwhelmingly female (67.3%), racially White (85.7%), and educated at the Master's level or above (77.1%). National comparison data were found only on teachers, not on educators as a group. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), 59% of public secondary school teachers were female, 49% of teachers were educated above the Bachelor's level, and 83% were White (Aud et al., 2010). GSA advisors appear to be more demographically homogenous than teachers in general, which is important as university training programs are attempting to diversify the workforce of educators through recruitment and retention (Achinstein,

Ogawa, Sexton, & Freitas, 2010). Without a diverse workforce, particularly with regard to race/ethnicity, many students may lack racially/ethnically similar role models.

As noted above, more than three-quarters of advisors in the current study held Master's degrees or higher. The average level of education in the US is estimated at 12.25 years (Barro & Lee, 2000), with only 27% of the US population holding college degrees (Kosmin & Keysar, 2009). However, obtaining employment in most positions in education requires a Bachelor's degree and many states require teachers to obtain Master's degrees after a certain length of employment, yet, still, only 49% of teachers hold postbaccalaureate degrees, which is less than the percentage of the current sample of GSA advisors. This suggests that GSA advisors as a group have considerably more education than the average person, which is consistent with previous research supporting the relationship between higher levels of education and more positive feelings about LGBT issues (Grapes, 2006). Education provides greater exposure to a wide variety of topics and experiences. In addition, many graduate education programs require diversity or social justice coursework, which may contribute to an increase in social justice attitudes and advocacy in practice.

Almost 70% of the GSA advisors in the current study were employed as teachers, whereas nationally, 51% of full-time educators are teachers (NCES, 2005-2006). The disproportionate percentage of teachers in this study is consistent with samples in previous studies of GSA advisors (Watson et al., 2010; Valenti & Campbell, 2009). Teachers may be more likely to serve as GSA advisors due to consistently being in one school/building. Many support personnel, such as social workers, school psychologists, or prevention specialists often are responsible for several schools, limiting their flexibility

to commit to advising extracurricular activities. In addition, among all disciplines within education, teacher education arguably has given the most attention to social justice issues in schools (Cochran-Smith et al., 1999; Wallace, 2000).

Although the majority of the GSA advisors reported their sexual orientation as straight (54.5%), this percentage is significantly less than the estimated 95.9% of the general population thought to identify as straight (Gates, 2006), suggesting that a disproportionate percentage of LGBT educators are serving as GSA advisors. Sexual orientation has been reported as a barrier and a facilitator to social justice advocacy for LGBT youth in schools (Watson et al., 2010; Valenti & Campbell, 2009). Given the high percentage of advisors who identify as LGBT, it may be that heterosexual teachers perceive more barriers to serving as advisors than LGBT educators do. In addition, LGBT teachers may be more motivated to engage in social justice advocacy for LGBT youth due to their own experiences with orientation-related discrimination in primary and secondary school. However, the disproportionate percentage of LGBT advisors could be for different reasons altogether. Future research into the differences in motivation for serving as an advisor between heterosexual and LGBT advisors is needed.

Related to religiosity, the most common religion reported by GSA advisors was Christianity, yet almost three-quarters of advisors did not regularly attend a place of worship and a slight majority of advisors considered themselves less than somewhat religious. This was compared to the general population, 76.0% of whom identified as Christian (Kosmin & Keysar, 2009) and 48.3% of whom did not attend a place of worship regularly (Grey Matter Research & Consulting, 2008). As a group, GSA advisors reported lower levels of religiosity and religious involvement than the general

population, which was consistent with previous research suggesting that lower levels of religiosity were related to more positive attitudes about LGBT individuals and issues (Balkin et al., 2009; Holley et al., 2007). This finding may not be generalizable to other areas of social justice advocacy, as much research suggests that social justice advocacy in general is more prevalent in religious communities (Chalfant & Heller, 1985; Perkins, 1992). However, social justice advocacy for LGBT issues remains an area less accepted by organized religion.

Politically, 72.2% of advisors identified themselves as Democrat compared to 36% of the population (Pew Research Center for the People & the Press, 2008). In addition, the vast majority of the advisors reported their political ideology to be liberal. A liberal political ideology has been related to more positive feelings toward LGBT individuals and issues in general (Brown & Henriquez, 2008). In addition, Democratic political candidates tended to be more supportive of LGBT issues such as LGBT individuals serving openly in the military and having access to marriage.

Given that the demographic trends found among GSA advisors were consistent with demographic trends within the social justice literature (Balkin et al., 2009; Brown & Henriquez, 2008; Grapes, 2006; Holley et al., 2007), it could be assumed that in general, trends exist among individuals who serve as social justice advocates. These data may be helpful for university trainers of preservice educators to be aware of when learning about their students and training their students on socially just practices. Social justice advocacy for LGBT students may need to be discussed differently with preservice educators who do and do not fit within these demographic trends. For example, for preservice educators who may be more religious and politically conservative, the focus

on LGBT issues in those university courses may need to address ethical duty and professional responsibility to provide a safe learning environment for all students rather than addressing LGBT advocacy in other ways such as serving as a GSA advisor.

School-Level Characteristics

Fetner and Kush (2008) defined school resources as student enrollment and percentage of students receiving free and reduced lunch. Comparable national data were not available for percentage of high school students receiving free and reduced lunch. However, data for both primary and secondary schools suggested that 39.7% of students in all school districts qualify for free and reduced lunch (NCES, 2001-2002). The majority of the GSA advisors in the current study reported working in schools where less than 25% of students were eligible for free or reduced lunch. Again, while these data were not directly comparable to national data, they may suggest that advisors work in schools with fewer economically disadvantaged students than average.

There was great variability in the student enrollment reported by the GSA advisors (m = 1796.0; sd = 832.2). Despite the variability, this was considerably larger than the national average enrollment of high schools in the US at 752 students (NCES, 1999-2000). Student enrollment may serve as a facilitator to LGBT advocacy, as large student enrollment has been positively related to increased LGBT programming (Fetner & Kush, 2008). Schools with more resources may provide students with more extracurricular activities such as GSAs, a more diverse student body that includes a larger group of students interested in a GSA, and more staff members, increasing the likelihood that an advisor for the GSA may be identified. In addition, schools with more resources may assumed to be located within communities with more resources. More community

resources for LGBT issues also has been related to more support for LGBT programs (Rienzo, Button, Sheu, & Li, 2009). As the relationship between more resources and more support for LGBT issues and programs has been established (Fetner & Kush, 2008; Kosciw et al., 2009), working in schools with more resources may facilitate the advisors' advocacy efforts.

Related to school policy, 69.1% of advisors reported working in schools with inclusive anti-discrimination policies, and 78.8% of those reported that the policy was enforced. National school-based data related to inclusive anti-discrimination policies were not found; however, state based data were available through the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force (2009). According to the National Gay and Lesbian Task Force (2009), only 13 states have banned discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity/expression with an additional 8 states banning discrimination based only on sexual orientation. These 21 states with anti-discrimination policies that included sexual orientation house approximately 44.5% of the population (US Census Bureau, 2004). This suggests that a greater percentage of GSA advisors in the study may work in states and schools with inclusive anti-discrimination policies. The literature has consistently supported the importance of inclusive school policies in facilitating social justice advocacy for LGBT issues (Schneider & Dimito, 2008).

Sociocultural-Level Characteristics

The largest number of advisors worked in the Western region of the US (regions defined by the US Census Bureau, 2007) and in suburban communities. Although these findings were consistent with data suggesting that more GSAs were located in the West and in suburban communities (Fetner & Kush, 2008), the lack of random sampling may

make the findings less meaningful in this study. However, many states with anti-discrimination policies protecting LGBT youth and adults are located in the Western region of the US (National Gay and Lesbian Task Force, 2009). In addition, politically, many states that vote overwhelmingly for Democratic politicians are located in the Western region (National Public Radio, 2008), suggesting a more liberal political leaning. Both the liberal political leaning and policies supportive of LGBT issues present in many states located in the Western region may result in more supportive programming for LGBT youth, such as GSAs. Suburban communities often have more resources than small towns, rural, or urban areas, and may house more highly educated individuals, which may increase the support that LGBT youth and GSA advisors may have there.

Advisors' Experiences Advocating

Previous literature has suggested that GSA advisors reported their experiences advocating for LGBT youth along the following three dimensions: barriers to advocating; facilitators to advocating; and strategies used to advocate (Watson et al., 2010). The factor structure of the survey administered in the current study suggested that advisors reported their experiences along just two dimensions, barriers to advocating and facilitators to advocating.

Strategies

Contrary to our hypothesis, according to this survey, the responses to the strategy questions did not fall into a separate factor. Most of the responses to the strategy questions were not normally distributed. When asked about strategies GSA advisors would use in response to "That's so Gay" or anti-gay slurs such as "fag" or "dyke", advisors overwhelmingly reported that they would either pull the student aside and

explain why using those comments was inappropriate or they would immediately inform the students that the comments were inappropriate. Few advisors reported using other strategies when responding to anti-LGBT comments. Given that the responses on many of the strategy items were not normally distributed, it appeared that there was little variability in the self-reported use of strategies. Advisors have consistently reported use of a few strategies to address LGBT-related comments, suggesting that they may perceive these strategies to be most effective. More research is needed related to both the perception of strategies that are perceived to be effective and those that are effective at reducing anti-LGBT comments in schools. Future research should continue to explore the efficacy of advocacy strategies implemented by GSA advisors.

Barriers & Facilitators

Barriers and facilitators were two distinct factors. In general, advisors reported fewer barriers than facilitators. It may be that facilitators to advocating were necessary for educators to both obtain and maintain their role as advisor. However, it is possible that this finding could have been a function of the sample. For example, advisors who experienced more barriers to social justice advocacy may have been more reluctant to complete a survey about their advocacy experiences.

The strongest facilitator included school staff and friends/family/partner, possibly suggesting the importance of personal support when engaging in social justice advocacy in school. The strongest barrier was the community outside of the school. This was consistent with the data highlighting the relationships between more LGBT community resources and support and more LGBT advocacy within schools (Rienzo, Button, Sheu, & Li, 2009).

University trainers should prepare preservice educators to reduce the reported barriers and increase the identified facilitators. For example, the importance of a strong support network can be emphasized. This can include identifying and collaborating with other educators who are interested in engaging in social justice advocacy. In addition, preservice educators can be provided contact information for regional and national advocacy organizations that could be a source of support and resources. Strategies for addressing community resistance can be discussed. The community is multi-layered, and knowledge about those layers is critical for social justice advocates in schools. For example, community variables that may affect advocacy for LGBT youth and GSA advisors may include the religious community, parents, political leaning, local policy, state policy, community size, and resources for LGBT individuals, to name a few. Some characteristics of the community that may affect the advisors' advocacy experiences will be discussed below.

Personal and Professional Consequences of Advocating

After establishing the two-factor structure of the survey, the relationships between some of the ecological characteristics (i.e., individual, social, sociocultural) and the two factors were identified. The results suggested that the negative personal and professional consequences experienced as a result of advocating for LGBT youth predicted advisors' responses on the Barriers factor. Approximately 24% of GSA advisors reported experiencing negative personal consequences and 18% of advisors reported experiencing negative professional consequences. Experiencing negative personal or professional consequences of advocating was related to fewer barriers to advocating. This finding contradicts previous data suggesting that educators have consistently reported that

perceived or actual consequences of discussing LGBT issues or advocating for LGBT youth in schools is a barrier to them choosing to do so (Dessel, 2010; Sawyer et al., 2006; Valenti & Campbell, 2009; Watson et al., 2010). The results of the GSA advisor survey suggested that experiencing negative consequences decreased the overall barriers to social justice advocacy for LGBT youth in schools. An explanation for the finding may be that advisors had experienced negative consequences of advocating in the past and had made changes to their environment or their advocacy efforts as a result. It also may suggest that one negative experience may not be perceived as a barrier to advocating, rather just an expected part of advocacy. Finally, it may be that the survey did not inquire about the full range of barriers that the advisors had experienced. Barriers not included on the survey could exist that may have changed the direction of the relationship between negative consequences and barriers. More research is needed in this area.

Community Type

The type of community in which the GSA advisor's school was located also predicted the barriers and facilitators reported. Advisors whose schools were located in rural areas reported more barriers and fewer facilitators to advocating. These findings were consistent with the literature suggesting that youth in rural areas reported hearing more anti-LGBT language (Kosciw & Diaz, 2006) and they experienced more victimization than youth in urban and suburban communities (Kosciw et al., 2009). One reason for this finding may be the importance of LGBT communities and community organizations to reducing the stress associated with harassment and discrimination (Waldo, Hesson-McInnis, & D'Augelli, 1998). Supportive LGBT community organizations are rare in rural communities. One study highlighting an LGBT-related

community organization in a rural community noted that the support of the organization was invaluable to the well-being of LGBT youth and young adults (Snively, 2004). Information about differences in both youth and GSA advisors' experiences across different community settings is particularly important for preservice educators. Preservice educators who may consider working in a rural area should be informed about the plethora of data suggesting that rural schools tend to be less safe for LGBT youth (Kosciw et al., 2009) and may be less conducive to social justice advocacy on issues such as those pertaining to LGBT individuals as is indicated in the current study. Trainers should consider whether different strategies should be given to individuals who are likely to work in rural areas. Examples of ways to increase the facilitators and reduce the barriers for rural educators could be explored in training programs.

Level of Training

The GSA advisors' self-perceived preparedness to advocate based on their level of training predicted the degree of facilitators experienced. Advisors who reported more confidence in their self-perceived preparedness to advocate based on previous LGBT training experienced more facilitators to advocating for LGBT youth. A lack of training has often been cited as one barrier to school based advocacy for LGBT youth (Sawyer et al., 2006). Conversely, more training on LGBT issues has consistently been related to more positive attitudes, beliefs about, and behaviors towards LGBT issues (Choi et al., 2005; Dessel, 2010; Satcher & Leggett, 2007). Teachers have noted that training on LGBT issues increases their critical self-reflection and their ability to understand the experiences of others (Dessel, 2010). Several fields within education, such as school psychology and school counseling, have noted the need for increased training on LGBT

issues (Bahr, Brish, & Croteau, 2000; Whitman, Horn, & Boyd, 2007). Providing onsite training opportunities on LGBT issues within schools would be beneficial for many reasons. The training could be tailored to the needs and the culture of the school. Teachers, administrators, and other educators attending the training could discuss LGBT issues as they are relevant to their student population. Finally, onsite training could involve the use of students to plan and present the training, thereby personalizing the issues (Bauman & Sachs-Kapp, 1998). Despite these benefits, training through a university may be critical due to the hesitance that some educators have reported when participating in school-based training on LGBT issues (Dessel, 2010). University educators have the opportunity to provide training on social justice issues, such as those related to LGBT youth in a safe environment outside of the secondary school setting.

Limitations and Future Research

The current study adds to the growing literature on GSA advisors and social justice advocacy in schools. The findings of this study described several characteristics that were related to GSA advisors' experiences in schools. However, limited information about the following variables: role of administrators, school personnel, students, parents, public policy, and cultural norms was gathered during this survey study in an attempt to maintain a concise survey that could be completed in one sitting. Educators have reported concerns about negative feedback from parents, in addition to lack of support from administrators for supporting LGBT issues (Adams & Carson, 2006; Dessel, 2010). Given the importance of these variables related to advocacy for LGBT youth in schools (Adams & Carson, 2006; Schneider & Dimito, 2008), more specific information about their effect on GSA advisors' advocacy experiences in school is warranted. Additionally,

inquiring about tenure status in future surveys may be helpful to determine if obtaining tenure is a protective measure used by social justice advocates prior to engaging in social justice advocacy. Finally, a comparison of advisors who are employed in states with teacher unions and who are members of those teacher unions with advisors who are not members of teacher unions may provide insight as to whether union membership also is a protective factor.

Although more data about the barriers and facilitators of GSA advisors have been obtained, more information about the lack of variability in, the nature, and the effectiveness of the strategies advisors use to advocate is needed. Ultimately, educators should be implementing evidence-based strategies, but without knowledge related to what the strategies are and if they are effective, use of these strategies may be uncommon. Future research should explore the advocacy strategies used by GSA advisors using both student report and observation methodology.

Overall, GSA advisors are a difficult population to locate. They are not located in every high school and often their colleagues are unaware that GSAs exist in their schools, making the advisors difficult to find. Future studies should continue to explore ways to obtain a random sample of advisors for the most representative picture of who the advisors are and how they define their experiences in schools.

Finally, many of the GSA advisors in this study had served in the role of advisor for more than 5 years. This suggests that there may be rewards to serving in the role of advisor. Limited data are available describing the rewards of advocating and outlining the reasons why advisors maintain their role for so many years. More data are needed about the positive experiences of GSA advisors

Implications

Findings from this study suggested that educators who served as social justice advocates in schools, specifically as GSA advisors, were a demographically homogenous group. Although no sweeping generalizations should be made by trainers about the ability or motivation of preservice educators who do not fit within the demographic trends observed in this study to engage in socially just practices, instructors are encouraged to consider that they may need to tailor their approach to social justice education to meet the needs of preservice educators who do not fit within the demographic trends noted. For preservice educators who do not fit within these trends, engaging in social justice advocacy may be more uncomfortable and/or unfamiliar. Therefore, instructors in social justice education courses are advised to learn about the characteristics of their students and determine ways to tailor their instruction to meet the needs of preservice educators who may have less of a tendency toward social justice advocacy.

Data related to the barriers and facilitators to advocacy indicate that university trainers should consider the complexity of school-based advocacy experiences when encouraging social justice advocacy among preservice educators. Educators who choose to engage in social justice advocacy may experience a range of barriers and facilitators to advocating for which they should be prepared. Preservice educators should be provided with strategies to decrease barriers and increase facilitators so that they may effectively advocate to improve the school experiences of LGBT youth.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A

Survey Questions Analyzed in Current Study

Ecological Characteristic Survey Questions
Individual-Level Characteristics

1. What is your gender identity?
    a. Male
    b. Female
    c. Transgender
    d. Other (please list)
2. What is your race?
    a. African American/Black
    b. Asian American
    c. European American/White
    d. Latina/Latino
    e. Native American
    f. Mixed Race
    g. Other (please list)
3. What is your sexual identity?
    a. Bisexual
    b. Gay
    c. Lesbian
    d. Straight
    e. Other (please list)
4. What is your age?
    a. 20-29
    b. 30-39
    c. 40-49
    d. 50-59
    e. 60-69
    f. 70+
5. What religious preference is most true of you?
    a. Agnostic
    b. Atheist
    c. Buddhist
    d. Christian
    e. Hindu
    f. Jewish
    g. Muslim

   h. Other (please list)
6. How many times per month do you attend a place of worship (e.g., synagogue, church, mosque)?
   a. None
   b. 1-2 times
   c. 3-6 times
   d. 7 or more times
7. How religious do you consider yourself?
   a. 1 - Not at all religious
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4 – Moderately religious
   e. 5
   f. 6
   g. 7 – Very religious
8. What is your political affiliation?
   a. Democrat
   b. Republican
   c. Independent
   d. Libertarian
   e. Green
   f. Other (please list)
9. What is your political ideology?
   a. 1 – Liberal
   b. 2
   c. 3
   d. 4 – Moderate
   e. 5
   f. 6
   g. 7 – Conservative
10. Please designate the highest educational degree you hold.
   a. Associate's
   b. Bachelor's
   c. Master's
   d. Specialist/Post-Master's
   e. Doctorate
   f. Other (please specify)

11. What position do you hold in your school?
    a. Teacher
    b. School Counselor
    c. School Psychologist
    d. Social Worker
    e. Administrator
    f. Other (please list)
12. How long have you worked in your current school?
    a. Less than one year
    b. 1-3 year
    c. 4-6 years
    d. 7-10 years
    e. 11+ years
13. How many years have you served as a GSA advisor (in your current school)?
    a. Less than one year
    b. 1 year
    c. 2 years
    d. 3 years
    e. 4 years
    f. 5+ years
14. To what degree did your professional training (e.g., undergraduate, graduate school) prepare you to advocate for LGBT youth in schools?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – A lot
15. We are interested in what motivated you to become a GSA advisor. Please rank order as many of the response options below as apply (e.g., 1 = most important motivator, 2 = next most important motivator).
    a. _____Concerned about safety of LGBT students
    b. _____I was asked by a student and felt a sense of obligation
    c. _____Personal experiences with LGBT issues
    d. _____Personal experiences with other marginalized populations
    e. _____Other (please list)

16. Have you suffered any negative personal consequences (e.g., embarrassment, disruptions in personal relationship, loss of friends) due to your advocacy for LGBT youth?
    a. Yes
    b. No
17. Have you suffered any negative professional consequences (e.g., lack of promotion, loss of job, loss of collegial relationships) due to your advocacy for LGBT youth?
    a. Yes
    b. No

School-Level Characteristics

1. Does your school have an antidiscrimination policy that includes sexual identity?
    a. Yes
    b. No (please skip to number *)
    c. I don't know
2. If you answered yes to number *, is your school's antidiscrimination policy enforced?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. I don't know
3. During the time you have been employed at your school, has your school provided staff development on LGBT issues?
    a. Yes
    b. No (skip to number **)
    c. I Don't Know
4. If you checked yes to number **, were all staff members required to attend the staff development on LGBT issues?
    a. Yes (skip to number **)
    b. No
    c. I don't know
5. What percentage of students at the school housing your GSA qualifies for free and reduced lunch?
    a. 0-25%
    b. 26-50%
    c. 51-75%
    d. 76%+
6. What is the approximate size of your student body? (please list)

7. Is your school public, private, and/or religious?
    a. Public
    b. Private (not religious)
    c. Religious

Sociocultural-Level Characteristics

1. In what state is your school located? (drop-down menu)
2. Which of the following describes the community your school serves?
    d. Urban
    e. Suburban
    f. Small Town
    g. Rural

Exploratory Factor Analysis Survey Questions

Barrier Questions

1. To what degree have your friends/family/partner been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
2. To what degree have parents (of students) been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
3. To what degree has your principal been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much

4. To what degree have other administrators been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
5. To what degree has staff been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
6. To what degree have students been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
7. To what degree has the community (outside of school) been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much

8. To what degree has your sexual identity been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
9. To what degree has a lack of public or school policy been a barrier to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much

Facilitator Questions

1. To what degree have your friends/family/partner been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
2. To what degree have parents (of students) been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much

3. To what degree has your principal been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
4. To what degree have other administrators been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
5. To what degree has staff been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
6. To what degree have students been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much

7. To what degree has the community (outside of school) been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very much
8. To what degree has your sexual identity been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very Much
9. To what degree has public or school policy been a facilitator to you advocating for LGBT youth at your school?
    a. 1 – Not at all
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very Much

Strategy Questions

1. If you heard a student at your school say, “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to formally discipline the student (e.g., write up, office referral)?
    a. 1 – Not likely
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat likely
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very likely

2. If you heard a student at your school say, “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to immediately inform the student that they should not use that phrase in that manner?
    a. 1 – Not likely
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat likely
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very likely
3. If you heard a student at your school say, “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to pull the student aside and explain why it is inappropriate to use the term gay in a devaluing manner?
    a. 1 – Not likely
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat likely
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very likely
4. If you heard a student at your school say, “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to respond with sarcasm (e.g., “Then how do you make it straight” or “How wonderful that it is happy”)?
    a. 1 – Not likely
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat likely
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very likely
5. If you heard a student at your school say, “That’s so gay” in a devaluing way, how likely would you be to ignore the student?
    a. 1 – Not likely
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat likely
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very likely

6. If you heard a student at your school call another student an anti-gay slur such as "fag" or "dyke", how likely would you be to formally discipline the student (e.g., write up, office referral)?
    a. 1 – Not likely
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat likely
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very likely
7. If you heard a student at your school call another student an anti-gay slur such as "fag" or "dyke", how likely would you be to immediately inform the student not to use that word?
    a. 1 – Not likely
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat likely
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very likely
8. If you heard a student at your school call another student an anti-gay slur such as "fag" or "dyke", how likely would you be to ignore the student?
    a. 1 – Not likely
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat likely
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very likely
9. If you heard a student at your school call another student an anti-gay slur such as "fag" or "dyke", how likely would you be to pull the student aside and explain why it is inappropriate to use that term?
    a. 1 – Not likely
    b. 2
    c. 3
    d. 4 – Somewhat likely
    e. 5
    f. 6
    g. 7 – Very likely