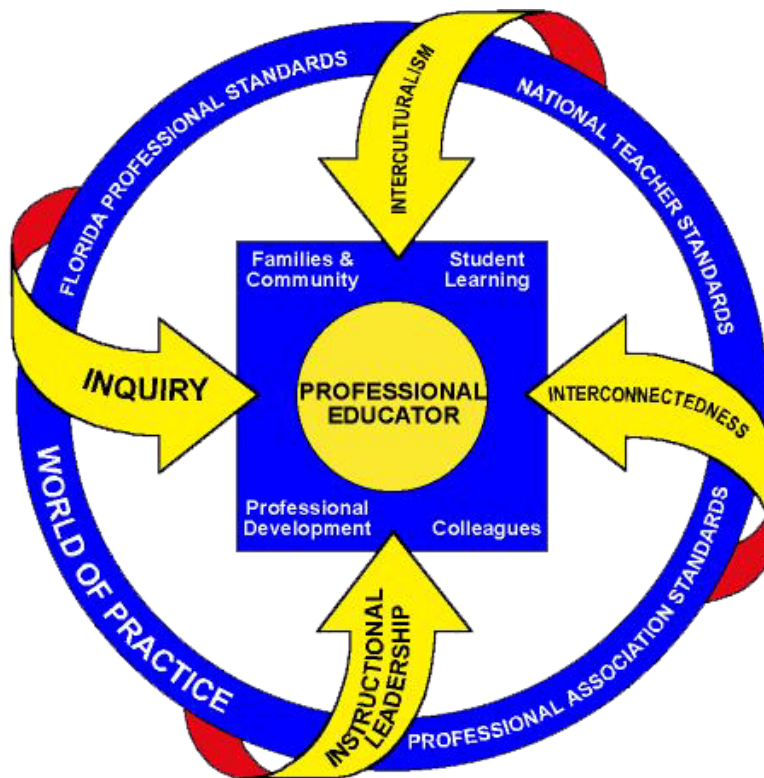


COERC 2003

Proceedings of Supporting Interdisciplinary Inquiry: The Second Annual College of Education Research Conference



Co-Editors: Sarah M. Nielsen and Tonette S. Rocco
April 26, 2003
Florida International University
Miami, Florida USA

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To all FIU Research Conference Participants, Sponsors, and Guests:

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We are grateful to Dr. Anthony (Tony) H. Normore, Assistant Professor, Educational Leadership, who facilitated the work of the Program Planning Committee for this year's conference. We appreciate the hard work of the student members of the committee: Vannetta Bailey-Iddrisu, doctoral student, Adult Education and Human Resource Development; Judy Bernier, doctoral student, Adult Education and Human Resource Development; Jorge Casanas, graduate student, Health Occupation Education; Harold Clayton, graduate student, Adult Education and Human Resource Development; Helena Coello, graduate student, Health Occupation Education; Derrick Evans, graduate student, Educational Administration; Vivian Garcia, graduate student, Educational Administration; Chantel Garcia, graduate student, Educational Administration; Raul Garcia, graduate student, Educational Administration; Dr. Sarah M. Nielsen, graduate of Curriculum and Instruction; and Marina Pavlova, doctoral student, Adult Education and Human Resource Development.

We appreciate the efforts of the faculty who participated by registering and attending and those that moderated sessions. This year's moderators are: Hilary Landorf, Michael Parsons, Bruce Nissen, Charles Bleiker, Laura Blitzer, Charmaine DeFrancesco, Michelle Cleary, Linda Spears-Bunton, Barry Greenberg, Greg Dubrow, Peter Cistone, Steve Fain, and Doug Smith.

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The professional appearance of the 2002 and 2003 proceedings are due to the editing skill, patience, and perseverance of Dr. Sarah Nielsen and to the attention to detail that Carlos Batist brought to bear on the layout and APA formatting standards.

Thank you all for making *Second Annual COE Research Conference: Supporting Interdisciplinary Inquiry* an event that we are proud of and deserving of our continued support.

Tonette S. Rocco,
Assistant Professor, Adult Education and Human Resource Development
Chair, COE Research Conference Steering Committee

Program

Time	2nd Annual College of Education Research Conference Supporting Interdisciplinary Inquiry April 26, 2003	Location
8:00-8:30am	Registration and refreshments Ground Floor of Center for Labor Studies	
8:30-8:45am	Welcome Address presented by Dr. Tonette S. Rocco, Chair of the College of Education Research Conference Steering Committee	Room 110
8:45-9:15am	Opening Keynote Merrett Stierheim, Superintendent of Miami-Dade Public Schools <i>Introduced by Dr. Anthony Normore, Chair of Program Planning Committee</i>	Room 110
9:15-9:30am Break		
9:30-10:30am	Paper Presentations	
	<u>Sports Medicine</u> Moderator: Dr. Hilary Landorf	
	Rebecca M. Lopez, Michelle A. Cleary and Thalia Diaz: <i>Severe Heat Cramps in a High School Football Player: A Case Report</i>	Room 301
	Terri-Anne Moore, Thalia Diaz, Israel Mitchell and Michelle A. Cleary: <i>Non-Contact Femoral Fracture in a Collegiate Football Player</i>	
	Paper Presentations	
<u>Intercultural-International Perspectives</u> Moderator: Dr. Michael Parsons		
Ksenia B. Ivanenko: <i>Comparative Analysis of State and Non-State Higher Educational Institutions in Terms of their Adaptation to New Societal Conditions in Post-Soviet Russia</i>	Room 115	
Maria S. Plakhotnik: <i>A Study of Intercultural Adjustment Regarding Time Orientation of Russian Students in the U.S. Academic Environment</i>		
Paper Presentations		
<u>Organizational Learning and Cognitive Connections</u> Moderator: Dr. Bruce Nissen		
Bryan Moseley, Charles Bleiker and Kimberly Gibson: <i>Illustrating Cognitive Connections between Math and Language in Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions of Common or Everyday Terms</i>	Room 116	
Howard McCarley: <i>Employee Orientation: An Organizational and Experiential Learning Approach</i>		
Paper Presentations		
<u>Racial Profiling and HRD</u> Moderator: Dr. Charles Bleiker		
Gregory A. Salters: <i>Decreasing Law Enforcement Applicants and Racial Profiling - Reversing the Trends</i>	Room 117	
Judith D. Bernier and Tonette S. Rocco: <i>Critical Race Theory: Focusing the Lens on Human Resource Development</i>		
Technology Room		
		Room 309
10:30-10:45am Break		

2:15-2:30pm Break		
2:30-3:30pm	<p align="center">Paper Presentations</p> <p><u>Parental Involvement in Education</u> Moderator: Dr. Peter Cistone</p> <p>Althea Duren: <i>The Impact of Workshops on the Quality and Quantity of Parent-Child Booksharing Skills</i></p> <p>Derrick Evans: <i>Issues in Parental Involvement</i></p>	Room 115
	<p align="center">Paper Presentations</p> <p><u>Research and the Writing Process</u> Moderator: Dr. Steve Fain</p> <p>Tonette S. Rocco, Michael D. Parsons, Judy Bernier, Jenine Biamonte and Carlos Batist with Vanetta Bailey-Iddrisu, Jorge A. Casanas and Helena M. Coello: <i>Reflections on the Writing Process: Guiding the Work of Writing</i></p> <p>Linda Bliss and Tonette S. Rocco: <i>"Mind the Gap": Qualitative Researchers and Mixed Methods Research</i></p>	Room 301
	<p align="center">Paper Presentations</p> <p><u>Language Testing and Bilingual Education</u> Moderator: Dr. Doug Smith</p> <p>Sarah M. Nielsen: <i>High Stakes and No Takers: The Impact of Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) Writing on Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of Writing</i></p> <p>Rodolfo Abella and Joanne Urrutia: <i>An Examination of the Validity of English Language Achievement Test Scores in a LEP Student Population</i></p>	Room 117
	<p>Technology Room</p>	Room 309
3:30-3:45pm Break		
3:45-4:15pm	<p align="center">Dr. Barry Greenberg <i>presents</i></p> <p align="center">The Lorraine R. Gay Award for Excellence in Research Scholarship</p>	Room 110
4:15-4:45pm	<p align="center">Closing Keynote</p> <p align="center">Frank Till, Superintendent of Broward County Public Schools</p> <p align="center"><i>Introduced by Dean Linda Blanton</i></p>	Room 110

Keynote Speakers

Merrett R. Stierheim

Superintendent of Miami-Dade County Public Schools

Now in his 5th decade of public service, Merrett Stierheim was named the Superintendent of Miami-Dade County Public Schools in October 2001. His leadership experiences range from being the town manager of the newly formed Miami Lakes to directing the fourth largest school district in the United States. His career experiences range from managing large government budgets for Miami International Airport, the Port of Miami, and the Miami Metro Zoo to supervising the infrastructure expansion of the downtown library and cultural complex, the Government center and several regional parks. Throughout the course of his career, he has received numerous local, national and international awards. He is a lifetime member of the International City and County Management Association. He is the Chair and lectures at the Academy for Strategic Management on the North Campus at Florida International University where leadership and management strategies are emphasized. To date, there are more than 400 alumni associated with the Academy. Mr. Stierheim graduated from the Wharton Graduate School, University of Pennsylvania with a Master's degree in Governmental Administration. He received an Honorary Doctor of Law Degree from Barry University in Miami, Florida.

Frank Till

Superintendent of Broward County Public Schools

Prior to being named the Superintendent of the fifth largest school district in the United States, Broward County Public Schools, in July 1999, Frank Till served as Senior Deputy to the Superintendent of Schools for the San Diego Unified School District. During a career that spans more than three decades, Dr. Till held various positions as a school administrator and then moved on to the position of Assistant Superintendent for Education services. In his first two years as Superintendent of Broward County Public Schools, Dr. Till has concentrated on building support for the school system by developing and expanding positive relationships with the community including businesses, government and religious leaders. Included in the community involvement is the development of the Sterling Process. He has provided leadership to ensure positive outcomes for the district as it implements the Governor's A+ Plan. He continues to address issues such as overcrowding, meeting the needs of a highly diverse population and funding limitations. Dr. Till has won numerous service awards for contributions to education and has several publications to his credit. He graduated from San Diego State University with a Master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction. He completed his doctoral degree at the University of Southern California.

Teachers' Knowledge, Awareness and Pedagogy of Global Education in Secondary Schools

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Florida International University, USA

Abstract: For the last fifty years, social studies teachers have been prepared to teach from a global perspective, but since September 11, 2001 have faced a difficult challenge teaching from a global perspective. This study examines ninety secondary school teachers' global knowledge and their disposition toward teaching from a global perspective.

One of the central goals of global education is developing and promoting global perspectives. Even after the transformation of the world economy and the establishment of global political institutions and systems, the end of the Cold War, and the September 11 event, the development, promotion and teaching of global perspectives in American public schools continue to pose a challenge to social studies teachers (Kirkwood, 2001; Merryfield, 2001). Since the attacks on September 11, we now know how interconnected and interdependent the world has truly become. Yet our public schools are not taking adequate and appropriate steps to teach and prepare students to understand the nature and complexity of global issues and problems (Merryfield, 2001).

What global knowledge do secondary social studies teachers have? There were two underlying assumptions behind the study. First, secondary social studies teachers play a critical role in shaping, guiding, and preparing students to be critical and reflective thinkers. Second, the study of global knowledge, attitudes, and pedagogy offers some practical lessons in how secondary level teachers can gauge the level of global knowledge, instructional methods, and disposition toward global mindedness. The current global realities require social studies teachers to have (a) content knowledge, (b) pedagogical content knowledge, and (c) knowledge of students characteristics and differences (Shulman, 1978).

Furthermore, the global realities require social studies teachers to use a variety of instructional strategies such as (a) open-ended discussion, (b) reflective journals entry, (c) role-playing, (d) visual discovery, (e) global skills builders, (f) global reading for writing and understanding, (g) problem-solving/decision- making skills, (h) conflict resolution skills, (i) experiential/cooperative learning activity, and (j) simulations to help students identify the causes, reasons and factors that gave rise to global problems and conflicts. Within this context, social studies teachers should develop the necessary knowledge and understanding of issues, problems, and solutions as well as pedagogical knowledge.

Statement of the Problem

The problem to be investigated in this study is the identification and analysis of teachers' global knowledge and their attitudes toward teaching from a global perspective. There is a growing awareness that the world has not only become interdependent and interconnected, but also increasingly hostile and violent. The resulting consequences of this hostility and violence have become core concerns at the local, national and international levels. Social studies teachers and their students must be responsive to these global issues and problems. Teachers must have the knowledge and pedagogical training needed to help students to perceive, analyze and address

emerging global, social, economic, environmental and political problems (Florida Department of Education, 1987).

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify social studies teachers' global knowledge and their attitudes toward global education.

Literature Review

In a study of exemplary teacher education programs that emphasize preparing teachers to teach from a global perspective, Merryfield (1992) found that there is a consensus that secondary social studies teachers must have (a) knowledge and appreciation of cultural differences both within the U.S. and around the world, (b) knowledge of the world as an interdependent system, and (c) an understanding of contemporary global issues, conflicts, and change.

In this study, global education is defined as the study of the nature, peoples, cultures, systems, institutions, and conflicts etc. beyond national boundaries. The study of the world and the changes in politics, economics, environments, cultures, peoples, and technology offer social studies teachers the opportunity to teach students to critically examine their role as students and as citizens of the world (Apple, 2002; Giroux, 2002).

According to Kirkwood (1995), global education is designed to expand an individual's perception of the world. Students with a global perspective are sensitive to the multicultural, bilingual, multilingual and transnational nature of the human condition. She further argues that students exhibit an intellectual curiosity about the world that transcends local and national boundaries.

According to Jackson (2003), global knowledge should be organized around the following themes and concepts: (a) population growth, (b) political economy, (c) global environment, (d) conflict and cooperation, and (e) values and visions. In 1987, the Commission on Global Education released a report recommending that emphasis be placed in four curriculum areas: (a) a better understanding of the world as a series of interrelated systems: physical, biological, economic, political and informational- evaluative; (b) more attention to the development of civilizations as they relate to American history; (c) greater attention to the diversity of cultural patterns both around the world and within the United States; and (d) more training in policy analysis of domestic and international issues (Study Commission on Global Education, 1987).

Robert Hanvey Global Education Model

Hanvey (1976) has identified five dimensions of global education: perspective consciousness, state of the planet awareness, awareness of the global dynamics, cross-cultural awareness and awareness of human choices, within which the teaching of global education could be organized. There are other global education models such as Becker (1979), Anderson (1979), Merryfield (1991), and Case (1993). Here, an examination of the Hanvey Model will provide the reader with options for organizing global content, scope and sequence in global education.

Perspective consciousness refers to the recognition that one's own view of the world is not shared universally and that it is often shaped unconsciously; that others have a view of the world that is different from one's own. In this dimension, teachers need an understanding of the multiple and different perspectives held by people and nations around the world (Kirkwood, 2001).

The state-of-the planet awareness refers to an awareness of the state of the planet that requires a knowledge of prevailing world conditions and development; emerging trends such as population growth; migration; economic conditions; resources and health; inter-nation and intra-nation conflicts; a knowledge of geography and its relationship between space, human settlement and movement. In this dimension, teachers need to understanding of the causes of events and their effects on nations and people around the world (Kirkwood, 2001).

The cross-cultural awareness focuses on an understanding of the diversity of ideas and practices to be found in human societies around the world, how such ideas and practices compare. In this dimension, teachers need an understanding of some recognition of how the ideas and ways of one's own society and culture are perceived or viewed from other vantage point (Kirkwood, 2001).

The awareness of global dynamics refers to key traits and mechanisms of the world systems, theories and concepts that increase intelligent understanding of global interconnectedness and global change and the awareness of unanticipated consequences of events. In this dimension, teachers need to understand the world as an interconnected system of complex traits and mechanisms (Kirkwood, 2001).

The awareness of human choices refers to the understanding of the problems of choice that confronts individuals, nations and humankind as knowledge of global systems expands and of the future becomes critical to the survival of humanity. In this dimension, teachers are challenged to transcend personal bias and beliefs (Kirkwood, 2001).

The Hanvey (1976) global education conceptual framework continues to provide the guidance for teaching about the causation of events around the world, as well as for the organizing and structuring of global knowledge, content and instructional methods and techniques in the classrooms. The framework provides the theoretical base for this study.

Method

One-Way Analysis-of-Variance (ANOVA), t-test, and correlation techniques were used to analyze differences and relationships between groups on the scores of global knowledge and global mindedness. Simple frequencies, percentages, and demographic information were used to analyze the observational data.

90 participants were randomly selected to determine whether their classroom practices differ according to their level of global knowledge and global mindedness. The participants were divided into three groups of 30 individuals. Group 1 are FIU social studies/global education graduates, who have had extensive training in infusing global perspectives in the classroom. Group 2 are those social studies teachers who are have not gone through the FIU social studies/global education program. Group 3 are secondary school teachers who teach related social studies/social science subjects. Six participants from Group 1 and Group 2 were observed to determine to what extent their global perspectives and global pedagogy are reflected in their classroom practice.

Research Questions

This study was designed to answer the following research questions: (a) Is the mean score on global knowledge and global mindedness different between groups? (b) Is the mean score on global knowledge different between female teachers and male teachers? (c) Is teachers' global knowledge correlated with years of teaching?

Results

Table 1

Analysis of Variance for Global Knowledge

Source	SS	df	F	Sig
Between Groups	596.022	2	7.146	.001
Within Groups	3628.033	87	41.702	
Total	4224.056	89		

* $p < .05$

Table 2

Analysis of Variance for Global Mindedness

Source	SS	df	F	Sig
Between Groups	210.156	2	.638	.531
Within Groups	14337.800	87	41.702	
Total	14547.956	89		

$p > .05$

Table 3

T-test for Global Knowledge for Gender

Sex	n	Mean	SD	SD Error
Female	48	27.23	6.553	.946
Male	42	26.14	7.290	1.125

Discussion

ANOVA table 1 shows a significant difference between groups: $F(2, 87) = 7.15, p > .001$. I reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference among the groups in their level of global knowledge. Since a difference exists for global knowledge, a post-hoc was conducted to determine where the difference lies. The post-hoc reveals that group 1 differs from group 2 in the level of global knowledge. I conclude that social studies teachers who graduated from the FIU social studies/global education program differ significantly in their level of global knowledge

from the other two groups. Similarly, group 2 differs in the level of global mindedness that the other two groups. I conclude that social studies teachers who have not gone through the FIU social studies/global education program differ significantly in their attitudes and disposition about global education.

ANOVA table 2 for global mindedness shows no significant difference: $F, (2, 87) = 0.64, p < 0.53$. I fail to reject the null hypothesis and therefore concluded that the attitudes toward global mindedness for three groups are relatively the same.

T-test table 3 for global knowledge shows that the mean difference is small (means 27.23, 26.14). I fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is a significant difference between female teachers and male teachers in the level of global knowledge. I therefore conclude that female teachers global knowledge is no different than male global knowledge.

Correlation, using the crosstab (Eta) for gender and years of teaching, shows a low correlation for gender .079 and years of teaching .073. I fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is a relationship between female teachers and male teachers in their global mindedness, and no relationship in the years of teaching. I conclude that gender does not affect teachers' global knowledge and global mindedness. Similarly, the years of teaching (experience) does not affect teachers' global knowledge and global mindedness.

Conclusion

Granted, no program with a different mission, goals, and objectives will be evaluated the same. It is desirable to conduct another study, similar to Merryfield's 1992 study on exemplary global education programs. In that study, she compared programs that prepare teachers to teach with a global perspective. She found the FIU social studies program to be highly effective in preparing teachers to teach from a global perspective. There has been past research conducted in Miami-Dade County Public Schools and at FIU over the years that support her findings. On the basis of the findings, it is safe to say that the social studies/global education program at the College of Education at Florida International University appears to be effective in helping in-service teachers gain global knowledge, awareness, and disposition as well as preparing them to teach from a global perspective. More importantly, the school district should welcome the conclusion that secondary social studies and non-social studies teachers appear to have global knowledge, skills, and disposition to raise students' awareness of issues and problems that affect all humanity.

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An Examination of the Validity of English Language Achievement Test Scores in a LEP Student Population

Rodolfo Abella and Joanne Urrutia
Miami-Dade County Public Schools, USA

Abstract: Approximately 1,700 limited English proficient (LEP) and recently exited LEP students in grades 4 and 10 were tested using both an English and a comparable Spanish language achievement test. Many LEP and former LEP students performed better in math taking the test in Spanish compared to taking it in English.

Educational accountability is increasingly demanded at a federal, state and local level. The emphasis on standards-based education requires that the public be informed on how students are performing in relation to these standards. In recent years a series of federal and state policies have mandated the testing of limited English proficient (LEP) students. More specifically, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 contains requirements directing states to implement assessment systems to annually measure the academic skills of all students, including LEP students.

There has been a great amount of debate about the pros and cons of testing LEP students. Some educators (Thurlow & Liu, 2001) consider it necessary, for accountability reasons, to include LEP students in all testing. Others (Oakeley & Urrabazo, 2001) think LEP students should be exempt from standardized testing programs because they lack English language skills and/or the cultural background to fully assimilate test questions. That is, existing evidence suggests that LEP students produce invalid test results (Abedi, Leon & Mirocha, 2001). Nevertheless, important decisions are currently being made on the basis of achievement test results, affecting individuals and organizations alike. In some states, students may graduate, teachers may get bonuses and schools may close on the basis of standardized test results. Consequently, it is crucial that academic progress be accurately assessed, including that of LEP students. The present study will address the issue of the test validity among LEP students by examining two factors that have been shown to affect LEP student performance on English language achievement tests: English language proficiency and home language literacy.

Method

Sample

A sample of 4th and 10th grade Miami-Dade County Public Schools students classified as Hispanic in district records was selected. Students were selected from those two specific grades to represent students in the primary and secondary grades, respectively.

Schools were selected districtwide on the basis of their free/reduced lunch ratios, a measure that reflects the schools or neighborhood's socioeconomic status. All district schools were divided into quartiles on that basis and equal numbers of schools were selected from each quartile. Within each quartile, schools with the highest number of LEP students were selected. Therefore, five schools per quartile were chosen at the elementary level (20 schools) and four per quartile were chosen at the senior high level (16 schools).

Both LEP and recently exited LEP students were included in the sample. LEP students were both in the beginning stages (these students are classified by the district as ESOL Levels I

and II) and advanced stages (ESOL Levels III and IV) of English language acquisition. All LEP students in the sampled elementary schools were selected to participate in the study. At the senior high level, 2 to 3 intact classrooms containing mostly LEP students, those taking a required language ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) course, were selected randomly for inclusion in the sample. To select students who recently had exited the LEP program, four elementary and four senior high schools with the largest concentrations of LEP students were chosen from the sampled schools. All recently exited students in those schools were included in the sample. Students in this group are former LEP students who exited the ESOL program within the past two years and are now enrolled in regular curriculum courses. These students will be referred to in this paper as *Recently exited*.

As a result of this selection process, 712 LEP students and 223 recently exited students were tested in the 4th grade. Similarly, 581 LEP students and 163 recently exited students were tested in the 10th grade. The percentage of sampled LEP students receiving free/reduced lunch in the 4th (84%) and the 10th grade (62%) was the same as that of similar grade LEP students in the District. Overall, approximately one-fourth of all LEP students in the District were selected for testing in the 4th grade (25%) and 10th grade (22%).

Test Materials and Data Collection Procedure

Sample students were assessed in reading and mathematics using two comparable achievement tests, one in English (Stanford-9) and one in Spanish (Aprenda-2). Florida uses the *Stanford Achievement Test 9th Edition* as part of its statewide assessment program administered annually to students in grades 3-10. Sample students completed the Stanford in March 2002. In April 2002, sample students were assessed with the *Aprenda: La Prueba de Logros en Espanol, 2nd Edicion*. Both the Stanford and the Aprenda are established tests of academic achievement published by the same company, Harcourt-Brace. The Aprenda was modeled after the Stanford. According to the Aprenda technical manual, "...Aprenda 2 was planned to mirror the content and processes measured by the *Stanford Achievement Test, 9th Edition* (Harcourt-Brace, 1998, p. 8).

A key component of the present study is the comparison of student performance in mathematics across the two tests. Mathematics assessment used in this research focuses on the problem solving subtest at the 4th grade level and the total mathematics subtest in 10th grade. Each of these mathematics assessments consists of 48 multiple choice items. It should be noted that these items cover the same content in the two languages. According to the Aprenda technical manual the mathematics subtest A "was taken directly from Stanford-9 in order to help provide a statistical link between the two batteries" (Harcourt-Brace, 1998, p. 10).

Results

Level of English Language Proficiency

Recent studies have shown a limited relationship between language proficiency and English language achievement test scores among LEP students (Abedi, 2001; Stevens, Butler, & Castellon-Wellington, 2000). The analyses that follow further examine these variables, looking at the relationship between English language proficiency and performance on an English language achievement test (Stanford-9). In particular, the test performance of beginning and advanced LEP students is compared to that of students who recently, i.e., within the past two years, exited the ESOL program and also to that of Hispanic students in the district enrolled in the regular curriculum. In a second set of analyses, the validity of these scores is considered.

First, a series of one-way ANOVAs compared the mean scale scores of students across levels of language proficiency for each subtest and grade. The results show significant differences in Stanford mean scale scores among students on the basis of language proficiency, i.e., beginning, advanced, exited, and regular curriculum in both reading and math in grades 4 and 10. Generally, scores tend to increase the greater the level of English language proficiency (Table 1).

Table 1

Mean Scale Scores by Language Proficiency Level on Stanford 9 Reading Comprehension and Mathematics; Grades 4, 10

English Language Proficiency	GRADE 4			GRADE 10		
	n	Reading	Math	n	Reading	Math
Beginning	486	590	593	300	645	685
Advanced	226	619	616	281	671	702
Recent Exit	223	635	631	163	675	695
District Hispanic	437	643	635	363	696	706
F		219.09	137.47		188.70	38.03

Note. All F significant at $p < .001$. In order to have equivalent sample sizes, a random sample of 800 students was selected from grades 4 and 10 to represent the District's Hispanic student population in the regular curriculum. Mean scale scores for the random samples and the corresponding populations are identical.

A second set of analyses was conducted to verify whether the Stanford test results for LEP and recently exited LEP students were true measures of their content area knowledge or, instead, a function of language acting as a confounding variable. The performance of students in both the English (Stanford-9) and Spanish (Aprenda-2) versions of the mathematics section of the test was examined. Both the Spanish and the English language versions of the Problem Solving (Gr. 4) and Mathematics (Gr. 10) component of the tests contain 48 items of a comparable nature. A series of t tests contrasted the mean raw scores on the two tests.

The number of items answered correctly on the Aprenda math test was subtracted from the number of items answered correctly on the Stanford to create a difference score, which is displayed in Table 2. A positive score in the Math Diff. Score column in Table 2 indicates that the students, on average, answered a greater number of items correctly in the English language version of the mathematics test. A negative score indicates the reverse, students as a group answered more math items correctly in Spanish. It is assumed that the test version, i.e., language, which produces the greater number of correct answers is the more accurate, i.e., valid, assessment tool.

The results show that beginning LEP students in the 4th grade and all students in the 10th grade, both LEP and recently exited LEP, perform significantly better in the Spanish language test than in the English test. That is, they answered, on average, more items correctly on the Spanish version of the math test. Recently exited students in 4th grade performed significantly better in the English language test. Although the difference was not significant, 4th graders with advanced English language skills perform better on the Spanish language test (Table 2).

Table 2

Mean Scale Scores and Mean Differences in Mathematics Raw Scores: Stanford 9 – Aprenda 2, by Language Proficiency Level, Grades 4 and 10

English Language Proficiency	GRADE 4			GRADE 10		
	Math Diff. Score	t	d	Math Diff. Score	t	d
Beginning	-5.0	-18.83*	.59	-3.4	-8.11*	.45
Advanced	-0.4	1.25	.04	-2.2	-5.31*	.29
Recent Exit	1.8	4.76*	.24	-3.2	-6.58*	.47

Note. All t marked (*) significant at $p < .001$ level (paired t test, 2 tailed). d is Cohen's effect size.

Home Language Literacy

Studies have shown that home language literacy is related to performance on standardized achievement tests (Hafner, 2001). To test this assumption, students were divided into three groups of equivalent size, comprising high, medium and low home language literacy, according to their scores on the reading comprehension section of the Aprenda.

A one-way ANOVA was used to contrast the mean math scale scores of the three home language literacy groups at each level of English language proficiency and grade (Table 3). The results show that English language math achievement test results vary on the basis of home language literacy. Students score significantly higher in math the higher their home language literacy skills. This is true in 4th and 10th grade and at all levels of English language proficiency.

The relationship of home language literacy to test validity was also examined. A series of one-way ANOVAs compared the math difference scores of students across levels of home language literacy for each level of English language proficiency and grade. The results show that students tend to perform significantly better in the Spanish math test, relative to the English math test, the higher their home language literacy. This is particularly true among students with advanced English language skills and among recently exited LEP students (Table 4).

A look at the math difference scores indicate that, at the fourth grade level, LEP students for the most part performed better in the Spanish version of the math test. The performance of recently exited students was better in English except for the high home language literacy group which performed about equally well in both languages. At the tenth grade level, students

performed better in Spanish versions of the test, across all levels of both home language literacy and language proficiency (Table 4).

Table 3

Mean Scale Scores on Stanford 9 Mathematics by English Language Proficiency Level and Home Language Literacy Level, Grades 4 and 10

English Language Proficiency	GRADE 4				GRADE 10			
	Low Home Lang.	Med. Home Lang.	High Home Lang.	F	Low Home Lang.	Med. Home Lang.	High Home Lang.	F
Beginning	570	594	614	91.82	674	681	699	27.49
Advanced	590	619	643	57.41	688	701	717	28.51
Recent Exit	616	631	651	26.16	686	691	706	9.28

Note. All F significant at $p < .001$.

Table 4

Mean Differences in Mathematics Raw Scores: Stanford 9 - Aprenda 2, by Language Proficiency Level and Home Language Literacy, Grades 4 and 10

English Language Proficiency	GRADE 4				GRADE 10			
	Low Home Lang.	Med. Home Lang.	High Home Lang.	F	Low Home Lang.	Med. Home Lang.	High Home Lang.	F
Beginning	-4.2	-5.2	-5.7	2.27	-2.4	-5.1	-2.6	4.09*
Advanced	1.6	-1.5	-1.7	9.49*	-0.9	-2.6	-3.5	3.22*
Recent Exit	1.8	1.6	-0.2	12.06*	-0.9	-4.2	-5.4	8.00*

Note. All F marked by (*) significant at $p < .05$ level.

In summary, students with high home language literacy skills are most likely to be negatively affected by participation in English language achievement tests

Conclusions

The present results suggest that English language achievement tests are, for the most part, not a valid measure of content area knowledge in LEP students or in secondary students who have recently become language proficient. English language achievement tests appear to be particularly unable to accurately measure the content area skills of secondary students and of students with strong home language literacy backgrounds.

Important decisions made on the basis of achievement test results, such as promotions and high school graduation, should be reconsidered when LEP students and recently exited students are involved. The present findings indicate that the brightest immigrant students are the ones most likely to be penalized by decisions made on the basis of achievement testing. Researchers should attempt to replicate these findings using other populations and languages. If the present findings prove robust, alternative assessment and accountability procedures for the LEP and the recently exited student population should be created.

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Self-directed Learning in the Technological Age

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Abstract: Concerns arising out of technology often being used as an add-on to self-directed learning practices in the workplace and factors affecting such learning were investigated through a literature analysis. What is needed is an exploration of new possibilities of computational media on how self-directed learners think, create and learn.

Background and Overview

A focus on the individual learner has a long tradition and history in adult learning. The idea of self-direction, under the guise of numerous names, has existed from classical antiquity to the present. Prior to the establishment of formal educational institutions, self-education was the primary way for individuals to deal with daily matters (Kulich, 1970). One of the greatest developments in our society is that of technology. The information explosion of the technological age has impacted the needs of adults in order to adapt to the changing volume of information. The imminent danger of becoming knowledge-obsolete has spurred adults to embark on self-directed learning more than before (O'Neil & Lamattina, 2000). Technology is providing adult learners with new options for self-directed learning. One of the major misunderstandings in our current debate about enhancing learning with new media is the assumption that technological advances will, by virtue of their very existence, improve the quality of learning. The issues that rise are whether instructional technologies would truly allow self-directed adult learners to take increased responsibility for what is learned, how it is learned, with what resources and so on (Gibson, 2001).

An adult is a person who has reached an age of maturity as defined by the law, and has assumed adult social roles (Merriam & Brockett, 1997). Self-directed learning is "a process in which individuals take the initiative with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes" (Knowles, 1975, p. 18). This analysis views employees in the technological age within a framework of personal autonomy, self-management, learner-control and autodidaxy. It addresses self-direction as a personal attribute, as the willingness and capacity to conduct one's own education, as a mode of organizing instructions in formal settings, and as the individual, non-institutional pursuit of learning opportunities in the natural societal setting (Candy, 1991). The purpose of conducting this review was to explore how the literature of the fields that guide adult education (AE) and human resource development (HRD) treats the phenomenon of self-directed learning in the technological age and to identify the trends and issues affecting such learning for adults in the workplace.

Organizations are rapidly going through changes due to the pressures from increasing competition, information explosion, globalization, and technological developments. Companies in the technological age want more worker involvement in an environment that would support self-directed learning. Other than the organizational initiatives, employees themselves must continue the learning process in order to develop their careers (Desimone, Werner & Harris, 2002). The literature examines self-directed learning in workplaces where employees face the

danger of obsolescence and technological displacement if they do not want to learn continually (O'Neil & Lamattina, 2000). Consequently, they assume responsibility for their learning and set their own pace. The recent developments in technology apply favorably to the learners' own "autonomy" or "self-direction" and in a convenient fashion – their responsibility for their own learning (Mozes, 1982).

Method

The process of searching for articles for the literature review lasted during the weeks of January 28th - February 4th and the week of February 20th - February 27th, 2002. Databases in the areas of education and business were probed because these areas were most relevant to the purpose statement. Articles related to self-directed learning, adults, and technology were expected in ERIC, ECO and PsycFirst, while in ABI Inform and WilsonBusiness. I expected to find human resource development and technology articles. I searched these databases with the general keywords "self-directed learning," "lifelong learning," and "self-managed learning." The search was narrowed down by using appropriate descriptors that came about from the articles, which were found in the initial search. Relevancy was determined by reading the abstracts of the articles. Descriptors used were self-directed learning, lifelong learning, self-managed learning, adults, technology, the Internet and HRD. I used the *Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education* (Wilson & Hayes, 2000) as a source of reference because it is the most recent handbook in the field of AE/HRD. Fifteen books were picked from the references at the end of the chapter dealing with self-directed learning (Gibson, 2001).

Findings

Findings of this literature review are classified as (a) inhibitors to self-directed learning in career development; (b) learning readiness; (c) learning style, needs, and skills; and (d) flexibility in learning. Each of the categories encompasses either all or some of the dimensions of the self-directed learning of employees. The last section examines emergent trends and issues related to self-directed learning and knowledge management in the learning organizations.

Inhibitors of Self directed Learning

Existence of good training. The current buzzwords for the training and development profession are "individual learning" and "empowered development." In one sense, these concepts are in contrast with the classical training's classroom environment, relatively passive trainees, and largely predetermined course content and teaching methods. On the other hand, technology seems to enable personal autonomy and self-management. Hardingham's (1996) study on Lloyd's of London showed that though the company always intended the training to lead into self-development and a learning culture, the strong impact of its courses locked managers into wanting more of the same. The better the training provision, the more difficult it can be to get people to move from learning managed by trainers in the training suite to learning managed by individuals in their own offices.

Techno-phobia. A lack of experience with computers inhibits self-directed learning in the workplace. The nature of computing experiences is a variable to consider in relation to the questions of interest, self-efficacy perceptions and computer anxiety. This naturally affects the personal autonomy and autodidaxy dimensions of self-directed learning (McInerney, 1990). Not all learners appreciate learning through technology (Gray, 1999). Some experience feelings of alienation and being controlled by technology rather than being able to use it for their own

means. Those who do not have prior experience with hypertexts do not show an increase of knowledge and they often get confused and lost in the maze of hyperlinks.

Learning Readiness

Every employee does not have the learning readiness of a technology oriented self-directed learner. There are five categories of employees: early innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards (Kasworm, 1997). The first category of employees demonstrates qualities of personal autonomy, self-management, autodidaxy and learner control, while the second category demonstrates personal autonomy and learner control only. The other categories cannot be categorized as self-directed learners in the technological environment of today's workplace. The employees of the first two categories seek out diverse sources, both external and internal to themselves, for their learning and integrate technology into their self-directed learning pursuits. However, the literature does not inform us of the technological infrastructure in an organization as a factor that affects the self-directed learning readiness of an employee.

Learning Style, Needs and Skills

In the technological age, self-directed learning at the workplace allows employees to learn whenever they have the time, take modules and examinations in any order, and start and stop learning at their own convenience. In 1986, Dr. Honey and Mumford designed the Learning Styles Questionnaire according to which activists are go-getters and thrive on new experiences, reflectors are thoughtful and cautious, theorists are analytical and logical, and pragmatists are creative, practical and innovative (Dabbs, 1999). Within this context, the ability to use resources customized to the employee's particular learning style means a quantum leap in learning effectiveness and efficiency (Palmer & Smith, 1999) an employee who is a self-directed learner first needs to assess his learning needs in order to plan and organize his learning. Computer simulations promote autodidaxy since the employee can clearly see the strengths and weaknesses of his performance. Taking into account the needs and the learning style of the user, a given program can manifest itself in a large number of variations and enhance various forms of learner control (Mozes, 1982). Regarding the type of skills that self-directed employees are learning using technology, only technical skills are learned (Chase, 1999), whereas according to Garger (1999), streaming video and audio allows employees to respond to highly interactive computer-based simulations that enables learning of soft skills like management and leadership.

Flexibility in Learning

Flexibility is often referred to as a characteristic that facilitates self-directed learning in new technologies. The cognitive flexibility theory (Jacobson & Spiro as cited in Hartley & Bendixen, 2001) postulates that learning can be more effective when complex information is presented in a format that allows for multiple perspectives, links concepts, and stresses the web-like nature of knowledge. The ability to move via links, through virtual space has been claimed as an intellectual lever for employee-learners who can use this flexibility to construct their own understanding of a body of information (Owston as cited in Hartley & Bendixen, 2001). However, this flexibility is not always fruitful. Learners with simple knowledge and epistemological beliefs have difficulty with the nonlinear and multidimensional nature of an ill-defined hypertext system. As a consequence, links to definitions, diagrams, self-check materials, objectives, and advanced organizers may have little positive impact. Similarly, a learner who believes that knowledge is the sum of simple facts may be less likely to take advantage of hypermedia because they are viewed as unnecessary extras that are not related to the facts contained within the text (Hartley & Bendixen, 2001).

Several studies suggested that employees achieve self-regulation of learning in the technological setting. The employee usually plans his/ her own learning through a learning contract. Feedback may be provided through a display that automatically reports cumulative unit completion and mastery. Computer-based instruction that tests a learner frequently and provides the learner with explicit feedback on correct and incorrect responses supports self-evaluation and compels the learner to review the test items and responses (Ley & Young, 2001). The employees can decide on their own measurable learning objectives, demonstrate learning accomplishments, and create evaluation criteria that would determine their own level of expertise gained, and this criterion-referenced evaluation promotes self-regulation (Hatcher, 1997). Self-directed employees frequently establish learning networks that consist of people, both inside and outside of the work group and the company, who have the knowledge that the employee is trying to master and who are willing to share their knowledge and experience with him/ her. Such networks that are usually computer-based can provide constructive feedback to the employee and enable him/her to self-regulate his/ her learning (Tobin, 1998).

Emergent Trends and Issues

A trend is a long-term consistent pattern that evolves over time while issues are questions that arise as a result of those trends. A trend in the technological age appears to be free agents or knowledge workers becoming a part of the workforce and the question arises of how organizations are going to cope with the new phenomenon. As self-directed learning is boosted by the use of hypermedia, the issue of how the learning needs of adults with physical and learning disabilities can be addressed arises too.

Technology has emerged as an empowering force for employees, enabling the spread of information previously controlled by political forces like organizations. The American workforce has realized that their combination of marketable skills increases their ability to compete for jobs that change radically as corporations respond to national and international pressures (Beck, 2001). At the same time, use of technology is providing the same opportunities of growth to employees in other countries, including those in the Third World. The independence of the marketplace is represented in the growth of the Internet, which not only communicates information but also provides access to global markets where every employee can compete for jobs with his/her skill sets. There has been an emergence of the knowledge worker who uses technology to create self-directed learning activities and self-directed work channels that cross national frontiers independent of multinational organizations and regional political alignments. The knowledge worker owns and controls the intellectual tools to create his /her own knowledge base and expand his/ her own skill sets. Driven by the realities of technology that equalize and empower the individual employee, this independent, self-directed, self-educated, highly mobile workforce is learning survival skills in a business world that has traded loyalty and security for highly portable skills. Just as corporations are responding to the forces of change, employees are arming themselves with the tools to compete in the marketplace through self-directed learning.

The issues that rise here pertain to organizational development and personnel training and development in the field of HRD. As independent contracting of employees becomes popular, HRD can create a model that combines the performance needs of multinational corporations with the emerging requirements of an independent workforce. As individual employees assume greater responsibility for their own education needs, providing continued training to the employees becomes a greater issue for HRD. In response to the challenges, practitioners in HRD

need to decide whether they should help create a self-directed independent workforce that has the tools to equalize the employer-employee relation.

Directions for Further Research

Studies need to be conducted on true interactive learning environments that are learner-driven, often enriched with domain-specific abstractions that enable learners to tackle complex problems. Thus, users of these systems must act as teachers and learners at the same time. Users need to be individually completely responsible for constructing and reflecting upon information. This environment must actually allow learners to be truly autonomous, self-regulated and autodidactic, and control his/ her entire learning. But it is not easy to establish this system in the majority of workplaces. In addition to self-regulatory skills and epistemological beliefs, other characteristics that need to be studied are motivation, self-efficacy, ability, physical challenges, and learning disabilities. Some of the flexibility provided by hypermedia materials may actually impede the comprehension of learners with learning disabilities. Since web learning is highly dependent on motivation and motivation is correlated with individuals' technology comfort status, we may be contributing to an expansion of the digital divide.

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Critical Race Theory: Focusing the Lens on Human Resource Development

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Abstract: The challenge that continues to face HRD is how to integrate real concerns for diversity into programs, practices, and research. Critical race theory was used as a lens to examine work on diversity published in *Human Resource Development Quarterly* (HRDQ). Eight publications were selected and analyzed.

Despite the prevalence of corporate diversity initiatives, most companies have failed to achieve racial balance in their organizational structures (Cox, 1991). Current workforce diversity initiatives are caused not by the changing composition of the workforce itself but by the inability of organizations to truly integrate and use a heterogeneous workforce at all levels of the organization (Cox, 1993). In recent years, the discussions about improving diversity initiatives have focused on organizations' readiness to create a diverse workforce, to sustain a diverse workforce, and to assess their current disposition to manage, teach and evaluate diversity effectively (DeMuese & Hostager, 2001). Unfortunately, the absence of corresponding changes in the organizations have created a culture that is somewhere between toxic and deadly when it comes to encouraging diversity (Cox, 2001). Hence, the presence of real diversity that is sustainable as a characteristic of the organization is missing. The purpose of this paper is to examine the assumptions and paradigms used to discuss diversity and equity in human resource development (HRD) using critical race theory (CRT) as a lens. *Human Resource Development Quarterly* (HRDQ) will provide a snapshot of publications on diversity in the field of HRD.

Background of Critical Race Theory

In mid-1970, Critical Race Theory (CRT) emerged as a separate entity from an earlier legal movement called critical legal studies (CLS). Critical legal studies as a movement formed around the recognition that civil rights legislation and case law was producing diminishing returns (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). The CLS movement scrutinized legal doctrine to expose both its internal and external inconsistencies revealing ways that "legal ideology" has helped create, support, and legitimate America's present class structure (Ladson-Billings, 1999).

The CRT movement is a collection of activists and scholars interested in studying and transforming the relationship among race, racism, and power (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). The movement highlights a creative and tension-ridden fusion of theoretical self reflection, formal innovation, radical politics, existential evaluation, reconstructive experimentation, and vocational anguish (West, 1995).

Critical race theorists contend that the principle beneficiaries of affirmative action have been Whites and the dominant majority because White women have gained employment opportunities and increased economic benefits and therefore so have the White men who are part of their families (Ladson-Billings, 2000). For this reason companies may continue to support affirmative action and in so doing they "feel good and virtuous, [and make] minorities grateful and humble" (Delgado & Stefancic, 2000, p. 398). CRT calls for us to "demystify, interrogate, and destabilize affirmative action" (Delgado & Stefancic, 2000, p. 399) creating a new model

based on respect for the worth of each individual. This radical view can assist HRD practitioners and researchers to think outside the box on issues of diversity. As Senge observes,

I find a growing number of organizational leaders who while still a minority feel they are part of a profound evolution in the nature of work as a social institution. ‘Why can’t we do good works at work?’ Asked Edward Simon President of Herman Miller, recently. ‘Business is the only institution that has a chance, as far as I can see, to fundamentally improve the injustice that exists in the world. But first, we will have to move through the barriers that are keeping us from being truly vision-led and capable of learning.’ (Senge, 1990, p. 5)

CRT is interwoven with our understanding of the racialization and marginalization of minorities within most U.S. organizations (Ladson-Billing, 1998). Although these themes are not new in and of themselves, they represent a new challenge to the existing method of conducting research and practice in HRD. The first tenet of CRT maintains that racism is ordinary and pervasive. CRT begins with the notion that racism “appears normal and natural to people in this society” (Ladson-Billings, 1999, p. 264). The second tenet employs storytelling to analyze the myths, presuppositions, and received wisdoms that make up the dominant view of race. Storytelling is also a way of infusing the voice and experience of subordinate groups into academic discourse to explain shared notions of race, racial experience and marginalization. The third tenet is a critique of liberalism implying that liberalism focuses on deliberate, incremental change in the legal system and society while CRT demands radical, systemic change. The fourth tenet argues that the primary beneficiaries of civil rights legislation have been Whites, specifically, White women.

Research Design

Human Resource Development Quarterly (HRDQ) represents HRD because it is considered the top journal in field and is sponsored by The American Society of Training and Development and the Academy of Human Resource Development. The journal publishes editorials, features, invited reactions, articles, forums, and reviews. Editorials, invited reactions and reviews were excluded. Editorials were not included because they are considered opinion pieces. Invited reactions and reviews were excluded because they are reactions to someone else’s work. Features, articles, and forum pieces were included in our review. Features and articles were included because they represent original work. Even though forum pieces were not refereed, they provide a mechanism for scholarly interaction that we felt might be important. The first year of publication was 1990; all thirteen volumes published from 1990 – 2002 were included in the search.

Locating Publications

Searches were conducted using Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), (1989 – 2002, Vol. 1-5), and the Online Computer Library Center (OCLC) (1995- 2002, Vol. 5-13). This was necessary because not all volumes were indexed on either database. A total of 388 features, articles, and forums were found. These publications were reviewed in a systematic order. Next, a hand search was conducted of available HRDQ volumes (approximately 41 issues). The descriptors used were *multicultural*, *diversity*, *minority*, *ethnicity*, *Hispanic*, *race*, *Black*, *White*, *women*, and *gender*. These descriptors were chosen because these terms are often used in the literature to represent areas important to CRT.

Each title and abstract was searched for each descriptor. The results are for the descriptor *diversity*, one feature and three articles were found; for the descriptor *race*, one article was

found; for the descriptor *gender*, one article, one feature, and one forum piece were found; for the descriptor *women* one article was found. For the descriptors *multiculturalism*, *Black*, *White*, *minority*, *Hispanic*, and *ethnicity*, there was nothing found. The breakdown was 2 features and 6 articles; from this point on, we will refer to them as publications.

Data Collection and Thematic Analysis

To facilitate the data collection process tables were created that used coding categories based on the four tenets of CRT. Boyatzis' (1998) thematic analysis was used to analyze themes of diversity in the eight publications, which is a process for encoding qualitative information. This may be a list of themes; a complex model with themes, indicators, and qualifications that are causally related; or something between these two forms (Boyatzis, 1998). The rationale for selecting each theme became a preliminary form of analysis.

The analysis occurred in several steps: the recording of observations, second a discussion of the data sets, and third, a search for themes in the data sets. Each of us searched for themes in the data sets, then discussed and compared the themes. A theme is a pattern found in the information that at a minimum describes and organizes the possible observations and at a maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon (Boyatzis, 1998).

After all publications had been read separately by each researcher searching for text illustrative of each category and the rationale and observations supporting each selection, a cross check was performed comparing each data set. A data set is a table with one category with all publications represented. Together, the researchers examined the data sets produced by the each other to ensure consistency in the process. This was done once early in the process and when inconsistencies arose the analysis was redone.

Findings

In examining the literature on diversity published in HRDQ, three main themes emerged. First, in the United States women are positioned in particular and distinct latitudes below White men and it is this relational position that shapes and sustains subordination and White privilege (Bell, 1992; Rocco & West, 1998 & Rothenberg, 2001). However, gender alone does not determine either superordinate or subordinate position. Class, ethnicity, and sexuality are also used to allocate power. Second, when perceived myths and perceptions are included in performance evaluations, dissimilarities across race, gender, and class are often magnified and broadly applied to the groups (Hartel, Douthitt, & Hartel, 1999). Third, managing diversity results in a competitive, effective and a productive workforce, if true integration is enabled (Wentling & Palma-Rivas 2000; Cox 2001). Issues concerning race, gender or ethnicity are collectively perceived as attitudinal and structural barriers that need deconstructing through the objectives of organization development, career development, and/or individual development. The following paragraphs will discuss the issues of career development and artificial barriers; program planning and workplace diversity initiatives; and performance evaluations and social constructs that intersect the three themes.

Career Development and Artificial Barriers

In the United States, artificial structures based on attitudinal and structural barriers have remained relatively impenetrable for women and racialized-minorities (Thomas, 1991; Bell 1992; Neff 2001; Rothenberg, 2001). There are several unique factors that affect gender and race. These factors can be analyzed at three levels- individual, interpersonal, and organizational (Synder, 1993). At the individual level, women and minorities are often assigned misattributes that limit their career and professional advancement. There is no evidence that women are not

equally open to transfers and that ethnic minorities are not interested in senior level positions. The most effective forms of social control are always invisible. At the interpersonal level, the lack of role models and mentors within an organization serve as constant reminder that upward mobility is not unattainable. More effective by far are the beliefs and attitudes a society fosters to rationalize and reinforce prevailing distribution of power and opportunity (Bell, 1992). It is at this level that stereotypes and hierarchies play an important role in constructing barriers. At the organizational level, stereotypes and misperceptions are transmitted through societal norms thus appearing natural and inevitable at every level rather than arbitrary and alterable (Rothenberg, 2001).

Program Planning and Workplace Diversity Initiatives

The dilemma facing workplace diversity initiatives is the ubiquitous nature of racism and stereotypical behavior. As old social constructs are deconstructed, new social constructs are forming new foundations and altering realities. There are time lags between organizations, society, and research about how to manage diversity and how to stay ahead (Synder, 1993). Valuing diversity looks very different at many organizations (Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 2000). Some organizations value diversity by employing and retaining many minorities, but fail to develop and promote them through the ranks of the organization. Other organizations value diversity by employing the few minorities and promoting only one or two to top senior levels as tokens or the result -end product of diversity initiatives. Essentially, a diverse workforce should foster productivity, effectiveness, and high levels of competition. However, the process of managing diversity has been both intuitive and neutral, dismissing the positive impact and opportunities of a diverse workforce (Thomas, 1991). Whether diversity proves positive or negative will be a function of the organizational environment, but in any event, it is not a neutral or intuitive process. By focusing the lens of CRT on human resource development, the challenges are to deconstruct and redefine the normalcy of social norms and to construct new realities that are truly consensual.

Performance Evaluations and Social Constructs

The problem faced by most minorities is that their performance criteria are often different from that of white men. These criteria are often disguised as standard or gender- race- neutral principles (Bell, 1992; Rothenberg, 2001). In a White- male-centered world, one in which most policies and practices are organized around the male experience, the unique characteristics of women and minorities are perceived as core deficiencies. These hidden standards in performance evaluation, policies and practices support the institutional privileging of the dominant group's perspective and experience. If the primary function of HRD is to improve/enhance performance through learning and measurable out-comes, then learning objectives with disguised standards at its core, will inadvertently perpetuate the status quo and minimize marginalized groups' voices. However, if self- reporting is used as a storytelling instrument, it can be a powerful tool for HRD practitioners and researchers infusing the voices and experiences of marginalized groups into organizational processes.

Implications for the HRD Field

In this paper we have introduced the notion of CRT as an analytical framework for diversity initiatives, practice, and research. Diversity management is not just changing the composition of the workforce. Rather, diversity initiatives that command true integration of a heterogeneous workforce at all levels of the organization should include other inputs in the system (Cox, 1993). Furthermore, diversity initiatives require procedural fairness and an accurate

diagnosis of diversity issues. We hope that HRD would use the ideas of CRT: a) to understand issues of workplace dynamics, b) to acknowledge the importance recruitment and selection, c) to ensure fairness when utilizing developmental tools such as mentoring, coaching, and job rotation programs.

Applying CRT to HRD is potentially more useful than other critical frameworks. For instance, when HRD practitioners “understand how a regime of White supremacy and its subordination of people of color” (Crenshaw, Gotanda, Peller, & Thomas, 1995, xiii) is maintained through the law (particularly civil rights legislation) and societal norms, they can use this new understanding to change organizational policies and practices. Understanding and changing the bond between the law and racial power will assist HRD practitioners to create meaningful diversity initiatives (Crenshaw, et al., 1995). CRT does not focus solely on race but instead takes a stand against essentialism which reduces a person’s experience to one characteristic. In this way it allows HRD scholars to examine race, ethnicity, gender and other minority group experiences as intersecting realities that inform an individual’s total work personality.

The primary contribution of this study is that it offers an opportunity for HRD scholars and practitioners to reflect upon and discuss CRT and HRD. The four tenets of CRT are useful for theory development and examining organization development, individual development, and career development from the perspective of power and privilege. Like most educators, HRD professionals seldom analyze or even acknowledge the existence and consequences of power (Schied, Carter, & Howell, 2001).

Power operates on several levels. Power can be used to suppress issues, to prevent them from coming up for decisionmaking; to stop conflict and prevent questioning of prevailing dominant ideas and practices (Schied, Carter, & Howell, 2001). The theory of CRT views this power as enabling racism, silencing voices of nondominant members, and maintaining the status quo. A key feature of CRT, interest convergence (Delgado & Stefanic, 2001), articulates the notion that because racism advances the interest of both White elites (materially) and the working-class (psychologically), large segments of society have little incentive to eradicate it.

Therefore, if HRD practitioners do not eradicate inequities or make the inflexible flexible, the status quo and the incentives remain the same for the dominant group. It is obvious that the impact of diversity is being felt in the field of HRD especially with the escalating importance of globalization. Subsequently, we conclude that it is imperative that HRD practitioners and researchers form more useful collaborations in theory building and in the use multi-paradigms to discuss diversity and equity in human resource development (Lynham, 2000).

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“Mind the gap”: Qualitative Researchers and Mixed Methods Research

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Abstract: This paper presents a heuristic investigation of mixed methods organized around three pairs of opposing standpoints: methods (qualitative vs. quantitative), paradigms (constructivist vs. post positive), and inquiry approaches (dialectical vs. pragmatic).

There is a movement today to embrace mixed methods of research and evaluation, mixing qualitative and quantitative methods of gathering and interpreting data. Mixed methods proponents hail this development as one way to end the historic paradigm wars (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). They envision mixed methods research as building a bridge of cooperation between qualitative and quantitative research. This metaphor seems fitting because of its popularity among mixed method supporters, (i.e., Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, p. 167). Bridges are neither inherently good nor bad, but they are inherently change agents. They are built to change the status quo, to make passage across something easier. It is a powerful and apparently ubiquitous metaphor in mixed method research; sometimes implicit, as in the following example: While federal legislation today “exalts scientific evidence as the key driver of education policy and practice” (Feuer, Towne, & Shavelson, 2002, p.4) there is a “legitimate” role for qualitative methods. Qualitative methods can help articulate “the complexities” of education, “generate theoretical models, and reframe questions” (Feuer, Towne, & Shavelson, 2002, p. 8). The underlying bridge argument continues, “When properly applied, quantitative and qualitative research tools can both be employed rigorously and together often can support stronger scientific inferences than when either is employed in isolation” (Feuer, Towne, & Shavelson, 2002, p. 9).

Method

The purpose of this paper is to both share our insights with other researchers, and engage them in the ongoing conversation about the nature of good research. We found ourselves asking questions about the theoretical grounding of this nascent research/inquiry field leading us to use the heuristic method (Moustakas, 1990) because it begins with a “commitment to pursue a question that is strongly connected to one’s own identity” (p. 40). For two qualitative researchers this struggle with understanding mixed methods and its place has been tied to our philosophical identities. The disciplined pursuit of an issue to deepen one’s knowledge of the phenomenon through “searching for qualities, conditions, and relationships that underlie” the issue is at the heart of heuristics (Moustakas, 1990, p. 11).

The heuristic approach has six phases: the initial engagement, immersion, incubation (the period this has been stewing), illumination (currently struggling to identify the issues), explication, and creative synthesis. The initial engagement was working on the chapter for the handbook on mixed methods (Rocco, et al., 2003). During this time we developed an interest in understanding how qualitative researchers might and ought to approach mixed methods. Immersion began with gathering the materials for the chapter and continues as we read more on mixing methods. As we read we have reflected on the readings sometimes producing short written pieces that we shared; sometimes discussing in person or over the internet the readings and issues raised. These discussions occurred between the four lead authors to varying degrees

with most of it between the two lead authors. The e-mail messages, notes from the discussions, and the short pieces were saved and we have returned to them as we move on into the incubation phase. During the incubation phase we are actively considering these questions: How can we characterize the knowledge claims of mixed methods proponents/researchers? How can we characterize their views of reality and what constitutes good research? Where should researchers begin the research process? Does it matter? Should researchers mix methods and paradigms? When should methods and paradigms be mixed? How should methods and paradigms be mixed? How do the dialectical (e.g. Greene & Caracelli, 1997; Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989) and pragmatic (e.g. Patton, 1988; Tashakkhori & Teddlie, 1998) mixed method theoretical frameworks address researchers' concerns about the nature of reality and knowledge? How do the political, philosophical, and technical levels (Greene & Caracelli, 1997) address other qualitative research concerns? What potential do we see for using mixed methods to strengthen qualitative research? As we consider these questions we continue the process of reading, reflecting, writing short pieces, sharing them and discussing the issues. This is in keeping with the informal conversational interview discussed by Patton (1990) which we have adapted. We are both interviewing or seeking clarity from the other through spontaneous discussion often spurred by the struggle to write individually or together or after reading an excerpt from a book or article out loud to the other.

The illumination phase involved identifying the issues we felt relevant to a discussion of mixed methods. The work done in these first three phases resulted in a presentation (Bliss & Rocco, 2003) where feedback from colleagues prompted us to clarify our position. Finally creative synthesis is occurring as we write, discuss, and refine our position on mixed methods research as we develop a manuscript and further explore our questions.

Discussion

Our discussion is presently organized around three pairs of opposing standpoints: methods (qualitative vs. quantitative), paradigms (constructivist vs. post positive), and inquiry approaches (dialectical vs. pragmatic). Methods are concerned with the components of research design: the research question and purpose, data collection/gathering, data analysis/interpretation, the write up, integrity measures, and inferences drawn. Paradigms are world views, grounded in understandings of the nature of reality and truth. Research decisions about methods and paradigms are made from different inquiry approaches. The paper examines each opposing standpoint and the issues we see with mixing methods.

Methods: Qualitative vs. Quantitative

Many methods sections and abstracts described a study simply as “a qualitative study,” or a “quantitative study” citing only textbooks to support this position. Neither, *Qualitative* or *Quantitative*, are not a types of studies, nor does qualitative inquiry have a unified theoretical orientation and both perspectives utilize an array of designs (Research design examples include case study, experimental design, and ethnography). Within each of these perspectives, there exist variations in data collection and analysis procedures. Different philosophical traditions can influence the researcher's use of a method and can shape the way a researcher understands the method. The research design should be selected as the most appropriate to use to address the technical, philosophical and political level research questions or hypotheses. Often the theoretical orientation of the particular method, as found in the inquiry literature, provides criteria for determining the appropriateness of the research design to the research questions and to the study's conceptual framework.

“At first blush, a well developed problem statement appears simple...but writing a good problem statement is far from effortless” (O’Connor, 2000, p. i). Writing a good method section is far from effortless too and involves many of the same issues raised by O’Connor. For instance, once a researchable problem is established, the appropriate method, for collecting and analyzing the data, to respond effectively to the research problem, is vital to conducting high quality, rigorous research. Just as it is necessary to establish the importance and “existence of a researchable problem” (O’Connor, 2000, p. i) through a discussion of the related literature, it is important to establish the appropriateness of the method used by grounding it in the inquiry literature. This conceptual framework for the method should involve a demonstration by the researcher that research design decisions were made intentionally through an informed reading of the mixed methods literature and provide the rationalizations or justifications for the use of mixed methods grounded in the mixed methods literature.

The purpose of the method section is to report the specifics of the procedures used to gather, organize, and interpret the data. This includes information on how, who, and under what conditions data are gathered and interpreted with the rationale for these decisions grounded in the inquiry literature. Enough detail should be provided so that readers understand what was done and why it was done. Readers of mixed methods studies need information on how data were analyzed and a rationale for why the analyst chose specific data analysis tools or methods and whether the tools or methods are from the qualitative or quantitative perspective. The decisions need to be grounded in the inquiry literature while connections should be made between the data, the conclusions, and the study’s conceptual framework.

As Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001, p. 49) point out “the procedures used ... should always be reported, allowing the reader to make his or her own judgments as to whether they accept the researcher’s assumptions and procedures.” This not only strengthens the discussion and findings of a study but also contributes to the growth of a field. Readers can gain insights into their own research methods by learning about the design choices researchers make and the rationale behind the choice as supported by the literature.

Paradigm: Constructivist vs. Post positivist

At this stage in our discussion, we find the often heard argument that such design choices ought to be ruled by the research question to be incomplete. Doesn’t a researcher’s view of the world help shape which question she deems researchable? Perhaps a description of mixed methods should begin with a discussion of paradigms. A paradigm may be best defined as a “worldview.” As such it is a “basic set of beliefs or assumptions that guide” a researcher’s inquiry (Creswell, 1998, p. 74). Every researcher brings to his or her research a “set of interlocking philosophical assumptions and stances” (Greene & Caracelli, 1997, p. 6). These include the researcher’s *ontological* beliefs, those about the nature of reality. The nature of reality is explored through researchers’ answers to questions such as: What is the nature of the world, including social phenomena? Is reality orderly and lawful in itself? Is there a natural social order? Is reality fixed and stable or constantly changing, and is it unitary or multiple? Can reality be “constructed by the individuals involved in the research situation?” (Creswell, 1998, p. 76).

Connected to a researcher’s beliefs about what is real, are those *epistemological* beliefs concerning what it is possible for one to know about what is real. To adapt the Watergate question once directed to a President, “What can we know, and how can we know it?” What is the relationship of the researcher to that being researched? What does it mean for a researcher to claim objectivity? Should researchers deliberately try to minimize the distance between

themselves and those they research? A paradigm also includes *axiological* beliefs – including those concerning ethics. What does it mean for the researcher to “Do the (ethically) right thing”? What is the relationship between the researcher’s values and social research? What should be the role of values in research?

Researchers’ beliefs about reality, knowledge and values “guide and frame” (Greene & Caracelli, 1997, p. 6) their beliefs about *research methods*. Do they turn to quantitative methods or qualitative methods of data collection or data analysis, exclusively? Do they only ask questions that can be answered in one way or do they ask questions best investigated using multiple methods? When and why does it make sense to mix methods?

There are purists whose answers to the questions above always lead them to keep qualitative and quantitative research separate. One purist perspective is articulated by the positivists (and post-positivists). For them, reality may be (at least to some degree) objectively known and (some degree of) causal linkages may be legitimately claimed. This is possible only when they strive to keep their values out of their research and when they employ primarily deductive logic and quantitative methods of research. The second purist perspective is associated with the constructivists or interpretivists. They believe reality to be socially constructed and only knowable from multiple and subjective points of view. The knower and the known are seen as inseparable. Not surprisingly, inquiry from this perspective is considered to be inevitably value laden. Inductive logic and qualitative methods are generally employed toward the goal of understanding a particular phenomenon within its social context.

Researchers make knowledge or truth claims when they report what they have discovered as a result of their research; when they report what their findings mean. While they disagree on which paradigm is more accurate, the one belief purists from both paradigms hold in common is that the two paradigms embody such fundamentally different understandings of the world and what constitutes legitimate truth or knowledge claims that they should not be mixed within a single study.

Inquiry Approaches: Dialectical vs. Pragmatic

Researchers whose worldviews reject these purist claims as extremist often find it advantageous to mix methods. Two positions have developed among mixed methods advocates, the pragmatist and the dialectical (Rocco, et al., 2003). We follow Greene and Caracelli (1997) in considering these to be *positions* rather than more philosophically complex *paradigms*. Each position or perspective has something to offer researchers seeking ways to strengthen their own research. It should be noted that the two positions have different rationales for conducting mixed methods research.

Paradigmatic understandings most often associated within the Constructivist paradigm include the idea that knowledge of reality should be understood as subjective socially constructed and in many ways, multiple rather than unitary. The close, value laden relationship between knower and the known means that there are many limitations on what can be known about the social world. There is a hesitancy about wide generalization of knowledge inherent in this paradigm. There is an emphasis on conducting inquiry to better understand both the particularity and social context of a phenomenon or a group of people.

In contrast, understandings within the Postpositivist paradigm include the idea that inquiry should strive to be a value neutral and objective as possible in order to better understand the world, including the social world. There are natural laws at work in the social as well as the physical world in this paradigm. A more distant relationship between the knower and the known is based on this understanding that the real world exists external and a priori to human

experience. There is a greater emphasis on conducting a particular inquiry in order to better understand these laws and how they inform human behaviors in this and other similar situations. Generalizability is sought to a greater degree within this paradigm.

Greene and Caracelli's 1997 description of the paradigm issue in mixed method social inquiry is also grounded in a concern for the purpose of conducting social inquiry. Their concern for developing more socially responsive research leads them to call for mixing methods and paradigms. They posit three increasingly specific crucial levels of decision making inherent in social science inquiry. Value based questions about the purpose and role of a particular line of inquiry are addressed at the *political level*. Epistemological and other philosophical assumptions are addressed at the *philosophical level*. Research method and procedure decisions are addressed at the *technical level*. Mixed methods is predicated on reaping the benefits of what can legitimately be learned about the social world using appropriate methods from multiple paradigms. The *pragmatic position* for such mixing, as put forth by leading proponent Patton (1988), calls for answering all methodological questions according to which method(s) best meet the practical demands of a particular inquiry. Greene and Caracelli (1997) joined those mixed method advocates (cf. Phelan, 1987, and Fielding & Fielding, 1986) calling for conducting inquiry that is shaped by employing post positivist and constructivist paradigms in a *dialectical position*. If, in a research project, issues such as particularity and generality are addressed from within each of these paradigms, then in the end, more can be known about both specific participants and the larger social context they share with others. Such research will better reflect social realities by including more perspectives. Addressing a political level concern, mixed method research can thus be more useful to people making policy decisions about [schools and] society.

At the philosophic level of decision making, Greene and Caracelli (1997) point out that the “qualitative–quantitative debate” on social inquiry is most often framed by positioning the two major research paradigms as oppositional; “the interpretivist, constructivist paradigm (exemplified by Lincoln & Guba, 1985), and the postpositivist, or postempiricist, paradigm (exemplified by Campbell, 1969; Cook, 1985)” (p. 6). Technical decisions concerning when and how to mix qualitative methods of data collection and interpretation with quantitative methods of data collection and analysis for “purists” are always framed *within* these paradigms. Educators turning to mixed-method inquiry, however, build on the strengths of *both* paradigms to “[U]nderstand more fully, to generate deeper and broader insights, to develop important knowledge claims that respect a wider range of interests and perspectives (Greene & Caracelli, 1997, p. 7).

Further Thoughts

It began to seem to us that mixed methods advocates on both shores were seeking ways to make both qualitative and quantitative research acceptable within mainstream research. Both seemed to be seeking more formal acknowledgment of the qualitative aspects of research design. What stuck with us was also a feeling that quantitatively-oriented mixed method researchers would like qualitative researchers to be more like them in how they view reality, research and what counts as legitimate knowledge claims – and, like good consumers in the Nike commercials, to stop talking about it and to, “Just do it”. Get on with the research and leave the epistemological and ontological discussions to philosophers. And, we’ll show you how to do it right. You’ll thank us for it someday. You’ll be glad you left those extremists and those who confuse research with literature. And what *do* qualitative researchers want? They (we?) would

like quantitative researchers to be more like them (us?), but to also pay more attention to what it means to research when that conversation is shut down. Qualitative researchers ask, “How can you not understand that philosophical decisions about reality, truth, knowledge, and values are the context for any research?” Research questions come out of the researcher’s philosophical understandings and that consideration of research questions and other decisions are best understood as a part of not apart from this context.

As qualitative researchers, at this point in our heuristic investigation, returning to the questions we posed at the beginning of this inquiry, there are several positions we are ready to take. Since political level decisions are currently favoring “scientific” quantitative research, in order for our concerns to be addressed, (we?) qualitative researchers must not shy away from working with quantitative researchers. The current climate means that any reconceptualization of knowledge and legitimacy claims will most likely come from working within the system. The best hope for being a change agent, and not being assimilated or at least co-opted by the system, is through qualitative researchers working to infuse the dialectical approach into mainstream educational research.

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Disparities in Teacher Certification

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Abstract: The United States Constitution did not give the federal government the power to regulate education. Consequently there is a lack of cohesion and standardization within the United States in teacher certification. The differences and quantity of teacher training and certification leads to inconsistency in teacher certification.

The professional development and certification process of teachers within the United States is an inconsistent process in which there is not one guiding policy that insures a single, consistent educational process to train teachers. This problem has implications for this country's ability to ensure a standardized quality of education throughout the United States.

This paper will review national recommendations for certification and samplings of different state processes for certification along with private sector attempts to influence the professional development of teachers.

In a lecture given in November, 2002, at Florida International University, Dr. Peter Cistone stated that since the United States Constitution makes no mention of education and the Tenth Amendment to the United States Constitution gives powers to the individual states not reserved to the federal government then the states become "all powerful" in education. Additionally, Dr. Cistone also argued that since the United States has a "strong religion of localism," the states have therefore become all powerful in education .

Despite the Constitution's lack of mentioning education the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) developed a mission statement that reads:

The National Boards mission is to advance the quality of teaching and learning by: (a) maintaining high and rigorous standards for what accomplished teachers should know and be able to do, (b) providing a national voluntary system certifying teachers who meet these standards, and (c) advocating related education reforms to integrate National Board Certification in American education and to capitalize on the expertise of National Board Certified Teachers. (p. 1)

According to Dilworth and Imig (1995) a comprehensive system of national certification assessments began operating in late 1994. The NBPTS, which draws membership and support from both major national teacher unions and a wide range of education constituents, has the potential to affect a broad range of issues through certification. These include:

(a) a national agreed-upon definition of advance teaching practice in the individual disciplines and grade levels; (b) state incentives for teachers to apply for certification, including differentiated pay scales;(c) school district hiring practices that would recognize national certification status; (d) equity in the distribution of nationally certified teachers across school districts within a state; (e) differentiated staffing in schools to recognize distinct roles for certified teachers; and (f) reciprocity arrangements across states to recognize the status of nationally certified teachers. (p. 3)

As the NBPTS states in their mission statement the certification process for them is voluntary. So therefore as Dilworth and Imig (1995) point out the NBPTS “has the potential to affect...certification” (p. 3). A review of just a few of the states’ individual certification requirements further drives home the point that there is no standardized certification process that any national agency can enforce.

I will begin with a review of Florida’s certification requirements and will use our state as a basis for comparing certification requirements with other states. As of July 1, 2002 there are three basic steps to obtain certification in Florida. Step 1: to earn a Statement of Eligibility. prospective teacher must submit \$56.00, hold a bachelor’s degree (minimum), meet specialization requirements in a subject Florida offers certification in or a passing score on the Florida Subject Area Exam, and hold a minimum 2.5 grade point average in the certification subject. Step 2: to be used a three-year nonrenewable Temporary Certificate, teachers must in addition to include the above-mentioned Status of Eligibility, provide proof of employment in an instructional position, and submit fingerprints for a back ground check. Step 3: to be issued a five-year Professional Certificate, significant for this paper, in addition to meeting the requirements for Steps 1 and 2, the teacher candidate must satisfy the education courses as outlined in Rule 6A-4.006, FAC; pass the: Florida General Knowledge Test, the Florida Professional Education Test, and a subject test; complete what is simply called an “approved system for demonstration of Professional Education Competence” (Educator Certification, 2002, p.2). The requirements as outlined in Rule 6A-4.006 General and Professional Preparations are the following: twenty semester hours in professional preparation to include six semester hours in foundations of education courses (specifically sociological and/or psychological foundations); six semester hours in general methods of teaching, administration, and curriculum; two semester hours of teaching methods of the subject being applied for; and six semester hours in a supervised teaching program.

Although an aspiring teacher from Florida who wishes to get a five-year Professional Certificate has many gates to pass through, Florida’s requirements for granting a professional certificate to a teacher from another state can be less or more stringent. Applicants from another state have three routes of getting a professional certificate in Florida. Route 1: Hold a valid certificate from another state, have two years of continuous teaching within a five-year period before the date of application for the Florida Certificate, and apply for the Florida Certificate for only the subjects shown on the out of state certificate. Route 2: (Holder of a Nationally Certified Certificate) Already hold a valid certificate from another state, a valid certificate issued by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, and apply only for the subjects already granted certification in on the state and National certificates. Then there is Route 3, which is entitled Educator Certified by a comprehensive testing state (of which Florida is considered one of these states). “To qualify for a Professional Certificate..., the applicant must hold a valid standard certificate from a state which requires general knowledge, professional knowledge, and subject knowledge tests for certification” (Florida Department of Education, 2002b, p 3). Currently, these states are Hawaii, Louisiana, Maryland, Minnesota, Nevada, New York, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and West Virginia. The three tests mentioned above are of course the equivalent to the Florida General Knowledge Test, Professional Education Test, and subject test required for the five-year certificate of Florida educators.

Routes 2 and 3 are rather straight forward and in the case of Route 3 they allow an out of state teacher from one of the 12 states requiring tests for certification to get a Florida Certificate.

But, what about a teacher from a state other than those twelve? That teacher would have to get a Florida Certificate via Route 1. Route 1 does not require that three tests be taken by the applicant. All that is essentially required is a valid out of state certificate, two years teaching experience within the last five years, and an application in the subject area the out of state certificate is valid for. The actual document the state publishes explaining the procedures for Route 1 states, “All of the above testing requirements for a Professional Certificate in Florida are satisfied if the following criteria are met” (Florida Department of Education, 2002c, p. 1). Therefore, there is built into the certification system for Florida an institutional lack of consistency in granting Professional Teaching Certificates.

A sample of two states, Idaho and South Dakota can illustrate the extreme disparity between their requirements for certification and Florida’s. Idaho requires the usual processing fee and fingerprinting (which is part of the initial teacher application process). An aspiring Idaho teacher who wants to obtain a professional certificate must submit transcripts and a Professional Experience Form after they have two or more years teaching experience. If all forms are in order, then a professional certificate will be issued. South Dakota requires that “the candidate has met the standards of an approved program and can be recommended for certification” (South Dakota Division of Education, 2002a, p.1). The South Dakota rules also require a teacher take a three-semester hour course in Human Relations and another three-semester hour course in South Dakota Indian Studies. Superficially this is a unique requirement until you realize that about half of South Dakota is a Lakota/Dakota Indian Reservation. Obviously then a South Dakota or Idaho teacher could apply for and get a Florida Professional Teacher Certificate via “Route 1” and never have to meet the requirements that Florida demands of its Professional Teacher Candidates.

As opposed to South Dakota and Idaho, Georgia grants out of state teachers applying for certification a one-year certificate to complete any special Georgia educational requirements for certification provided the applicant already has a valid teaching certificate from another state. Georgia’s special requirements include course work in “identification and education of children with special education needs is required for all teaching fields, Educational Leadership, Media Specialist, and School Counseling” (Georgia Professional Standard Commission, 2002, p.1). Also certain fields require course work in reading, and everyone must take a content knowledge test in field. Clearly, Georgia has very specific requirements that they expect to have met. Even a teacher coming from Florida would still have to take some classes to meet the Georgia standards, the special education classes being the most obvious since they are not required for a Florida Certificate. On the other hand a Florida teacher has gone through testing “overkill” since Georgia does not require the three certification tests that Florida requires.

On the other hand, New York has more stringent requirements than the other states discussed. As I have noted earlier in the Florida section, New York requires a teacher to pass the same three tests as Florida. However, New York also requires eighteen-semester hours in professional education courses and thirty-six hours in subject matter specialization (as opposed to South Dakota’s requirement of 24 hours). Teachers must also complete one-year of language study, a school violence prevention workshop, and a child abuse identification workshop. These are the requirements for a temporary certificate (entry level certificate). To receive a permanent certificate to teach in New York State the candidate must also hold a Master’s degree. This includes out of state teacher applicants.

Besides the individual state requirements (which only 10% of the United States were addressed), 39 out of 50 states are exploring alternative teacher certification. Festrizter and

Chester's study (as cited in Otuya, 1992) "identified about 91 alternative routes to certification with varying programmatic characteristics" (p. 2). Basically, the alternative certification process is designed to "certify candidates who have subject-matter competencies, without going through formal teacher preparation" (Otuya, 1992, p. 1). Additionally all candidates must hold a four year degree, pass a certification test, go through a teacher training period, and complete an internship. Georgia and Florida are two of the states exploring this alternative route to certification. Georgia, in its literature merely states "alternative routes to certification in Georgia exist for individuals who have completed college degrees in disciplines other than education and who are interested in the education profession" (Otuya, 2002, p. 1). An example of this used in Georgia is "Troops to Teachers," which targets retired military personnel.

The final area in which certification is influenced is in the private sector. The Center for Research on Education, Diversity, & Excellence (CREDE) is a prime example. CREDE has a system that is meant to guide teacher professional development and evaluation. A template is used to accomplish this, which as the CREDE literature says "will contain elements from your school, district, and state, as well as CREDE's Standards for Effective Teaching" (CREDE, 2002, p.1). Basically this is designed to be integrated within a state's accreditation procedures with this private firm providing the materials improving teacher practices, professional dialogues, and student achievement. As they state in their literature, "our goal is to organize, simplify, and integrate all district professional development requirements into a cohesive, relevant process" (CREDE, 2002, p.1). All of this is available to any state or district for a fee.

There is a huge gap in the standardization of teacher certification in the United States as evidenced by the National Board of Teaching Standards recommendations, the five states sampled, the movement toward alternative certification, and the private sector represented by CREDE. Indeed, to quote Dr. Cistone's phrase, the "religion of localism" prevails within this country for teacher certification and until a Constitutional Amendment can be ratified correcting this, inconsistency in training teachers and lack of standardization in certification procedures throughout the fifty states will be the rule and not the exception. The implications for the future are obvious. Unless something is done beginning with an amendment to the Constitution, which would guarantee a centralized authority; the United States will never have uniformity in teacher certification and consequently will not be able to standardize education quality within this country.

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Professional Developments for Educators in the Public School System

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Abstract: The purpose of the paper is to seek further understanding of professional developments from current literature. To accomplish a meaningful session, various components must be taken into consideration in creating and implementing professional developments.

With so many educational topics to choose from, school districts have an enormous responsibility in deciding which topics have top priority in their school system. Once these topics are chosen, they are then presented to specified schools and their existing personnel through various workshops and professional developments. With the majority of today's educational developments focusing on providing school systems with up-to-date information, research, theories, and strategies, it seems that professional developments are available to guide, "prepare, and support educators to help all students achieve high standards of learning and development" (Mission and Principles of Professional Development, 2001).

Although most of today's developments do emphasize the concept of student achievement, there might be times when professional developments are considered ineffective. It is the responsibility of the individuals or corporations who create and envision these workshops to take into consideration different concepts that can help promote positive and successful aspects of a development.

Types of Presenters

The individual presenting the actual workshop can help determine the success of a staff development. There are two types of presenters: those who support and those who are not experts in the field being presented. The first type of instructors are those who guide, support, or coach other individuals in trying to learn a new topic. They are knowledgeable in their given subject and are not afraid to help individuals internalize the concept. The second type are those instructors who do not truly believe in what is being presented and all too often are not experts in the subject matter they are presenting. They are assigned to perform a job and present the information by reading directly from a book, paper, or manual. Reading can cause the instructor to be viewed as lacking motivation. With no experiences to rely on, presenters may not be able to share any personal ideas of their own.

The first type of presenter is preferable. Presenters need to be motivating and knowledgeable. Having knowledge on a given subject allows instructors the flexibility in adapting any information or given situation. The effectiveness of leaders is judged on the basis of their style and their ability to cope (Lee & Terrance, 1991). Participants can feel comfortable with the presenter because they know the individual has had experience related to the material being discussed (Lee & Terrance, 1991).

Presenters also need to take the individual learning styles into account; otherwise, workshops become unwelcome events and participants resist an opportunity for growth. Many instructors present their information in lecture format and expect audience members to take exceptional notes. It is then assumed that these notes are to be used and referenced when implementing the newly acquired information classrooms. In reality it is the instructor's role to

know which format or teaching style should be implemented. A successful instructor will analyze his or her audience and create a teaching style that fits their needs. They can do so by providing activities and strategies that encompass the auditory, visual, and kinesthetic learner. By providing “new and broader approaches to professional developments, teachers can be viewed less as passive recipients of workshop lectures, and more as learners actively engaged in activities that enable them to question and make needed changes in teaching and school-wide practice” (Rethinking Professional Development, 1996). With so much at stake, the underlying question for the presenter then becomes how the information should be taught when implementing these learning styles.

Methods Used for Professional Developments

There are various steps associated with successful professional development workshops. These are surveys/ questionnaires, consideration of audience knowledge, format assessment, needs assessment, and staff member input. One way to find out what works best for the audience is through the use of surveys and /or questionnaires. Although a survey or questionnaire can provide information as to how people learn best, it can also provide a glimpse as to what strategies are best internalized by an individual or group. With surveys or questionnaires available, presenters can ultimately create a professional setting, which can range from participating in growth teams to having group discussions. Secondly, in deciding what format to present the information in, the instructors also need to take into consideration the level of knowledge each individual possess about a given topic. A workshop may not be considered successful if some individuals are bored because the material is too easy. At the same time, an instructor does not want to overwhelm an individual who might not have the same experiences as someone else. Instructors do not want audience members to feel a sense of information or “communication overload” (Newstrom & Davis, 2002, p. 58). Having too much information may cause an individual to feel frustrated, thereby clouding his/ her ability to understand the material being presented. For that reason, an instructor needs to submit material that is at an individual’s instructional level. Material at this level can truly be learned, applied, and internalized by any of the members in the audience. Finally, the format ultimately created by an instructor would really depend on what works best for that target audience or school. If an instructor presents an idea that has no relation to a teacher’s personal viewpoint or personal situation, the information has the potential not to be internalized. There might also be a chance that the material will be forgotten within the next day. The end result for any of these developments should be to have a safe and comfortable environment where a presenter can provide a variety of approaches and a framework in which ideas and suggestions are welcomed.

If presenters are to promote and submit worthwhile material to the audience, a needs assessment could be another way to find out what areas are to be targeted before an actual development takes place. Undergoing a needs assessment can provide data as to what areas are considered important, meaningful, and necessary to learn. These reports may also provide information as to what staff personnel feel they can use in ensuring student success in each of their given classrooms. The ultimate hope for participants of these workshops would be to have strategies and knowledge that will help them work with students on a daily basis.

Although surveys and assessments are two sure ways to acknowledge what material is considered valuable and necessary, having staff members choose their own professional development can also help promote the same idea. Choosing what workshops they would like to attend not only guarantees an immediate interest in the subject matter, but can also motivate

them to internalize the importance of growing professionally. By assuming a greater role in their “own professional development and that of their colleagues, important decisions about their teachings and the life of the school as a whole” are made (Rényi, 1996). Teachers who participate and voice their own opinions, concerns, and suggestions on different subject matters view themselves as worthwhile individuals and great contributors. Many times, staff personnel are not given the option of choosing their own professional development. Instead, being assigned to these developments may cause individuals to become unmotivated and nonchalant to learning and growing. It is these individuals who need an extra incentive or extrinsic reward to become motivated. The types of extrinsic rewards workshops can offer to individuals can range from acquiring free materials to receiving a stipend. Realistically, “people are motivated by what they want, not by what [people] think they ought to have” (Newstrom & Davis, 2002, p. 10). At the same time, individuals who are already intrinsically motivated do not want that extra incentive. These are the individuals who have asked for this type of workshop, are learning something new, or are hoping to have the presentation change some aspect of their classroom situation. These individuals truly welcome the information they are being presented. Having an understanding of what motivates an individual to attend the workshops can guide the instructor in knowing how much information will truly be internalized and how quickly it can be presented. Once a specific topic for a staff development has been decided upon, the next logical step is to have participants take the knowledge they have acquired and turnkey the information to other staff members. The idea of sharing information with one another is to have a bridge where “educators presently see themselves now, as opposed to where they should be” in the near future (The Mission and Principles of Professional Development, 2001). By sharing information with others at a school site, workshop participants are helping ensure a professional development’s ultimate goal of promoting student achievement. If sharing does not occur, teaching and learning stagnate. Not only would learning become boring, but the idea of learning something new every day would also never take place.

Outcomes of Professional Development

Even though most individuals would probably not have a problem sharing their knowledge and ideas with others on what they have learned professionally, the integration of social events in a staff development can also have positive effects when related to the exchanging of ideas. Most people think staff developments are only to be associated with academic subjects, but they can also involve personal topics or orientations. These types of employee orientations can provide psychological support and help individuals with their problems (Newstrom & Davis, 2002). These types of developments could be considered worthwhile because individuals may find strengths in each other’s character and personality relating to one another on a personal level. They are no longer viewing themselves as the teacher or staff member of a school, but as human beings who share hopes, dreams, and concerns. Participating in these orientations may also allow individuals the chance to reflect on their given priorities and have them acknowledge what specific areas are working properly in their lives. The basic idea of having these orientations is to have an individual feel comfortable enough to share ideas on a personal level and then transfer the same concept when working on a professional level. In the end trusting relationships with one other are created and the individuals are able to draw on each other’s knowledge of personal and specific school contexts (Rethinking Professional Development, 1996).

If one of the outcomes for staff developments is to have teachers share learning, then the workshops they attend must have a specific goal how much information should be taught. Since the majority of workshops are designed to present an entire concept within a certain set of hours, many teachers may feel that too much information is received in a short period of time. Although the majority of workshops do allow a session for questions and concerns, workshops should also have the audience members participate in a hands-on session that can serve as a model for the topic trying to be conveyed. Teachers can apply or practice the concept they have been taught. Teachers, like students, need to be “actively involved in learning and must have opportunities to discuss, reflect upon, try out, and implement better instructional approaches” (Rethinking Professional Development, 1996). When audience members participate in these types of activities and practice what they have learned, instructors are providing the support and resources participants need. This allows the teachers or staff the opportunity to apply the information to their own individual situation. They can also have the opportunity to adapt any piece they feel needs to be modified. Allowing these types of opportunities, teachers can learn how to “question, analyze, and change instruction to teach challenging content” (Rethinking Professional Development, 1996) and are thus provided with that extra motivation that allows the teachers to become empowered.

Time Frame Allotted for Professional Development

Most of today’s professional developments are created to present as much information in a specific time frame as possible. The developments are usually scheduled as a one- day session and may never be accompanied by a follow- up session. A follow- up session is one where the instructor can meet with the audience members and discuss or fix any problems or concerns which might have occurred after the implementation of the strategies. Follow up sessions can also allow an instructor the opportunity to view how well an implementation process is occurring. All too often, instructors assume participants have internalized what they have learned and will apply it to their own individual classrooms. Unfortunately, this is not always the case. Not all of the participants in a professional development program have the time to implement an activity, the resources, or the motivation to do so. When staff developments are created and scheduled, the instructor needs to set aside time to prepare and equip the audience with the knowledge and skills necessary to maximize student learning (Rényi, 1996). Professional developments should not be done in a one day session, but should become a seamless part of the daily and yearlong job (Rényi, 1996). Professional growth should not occur only one time and on one occasion. It should be a continuous process in which teachers are constantly reflecting about their teaching approaches and strategies. If a professional development session is not able to provide these follow up sessions, then the development itself should be scheduled over a period of time. The reality is that individuals need time to process information. They need the time to relate the new acquired information to their existing beliefs and experiences. Providing more time for teachers and staff to learn and internalize new concepts helps “promote continuous inquiry and improvement embedded in the daily life of schools” (The Mission and Principles of Professional Development, 2001). By providing multiple staff developments, “long-term, genuinely collaborative relationships” can be produced and maintained (Rényi, 1996). Having these multiple sessions can have teachers wanting more and thirsting for knowledge.

Another positive result of creating multiple staff developments and /or follow up sessions is that educators “develop further expertise in a subject content, teaching strategies, use of technologies, and other essential elements in teaching to higher standards” (The Mission and

Principles of Professional Development, 2001). Even if a staff development successfully provides educators and other staff personnel with the appropriate time frame to acquire and internalize information, then the next factor affecting the success of a workshop is where and when the development is being presented.

Locations for Professional Development

Internal

At the present time, most professional developments take place outside of a classroom setting. The presentations may have more than 20 people at a given time and are held in either conference rooms or meeting rooms outside the school setting. One benefit of having workshops located outside the school area is that it forces a school system and its surrounding community organizations to cooperate with one another. Working with individuals outside of a school system may help identify what topics and subjects are considered important by a community. Working as a team may also provide “rich resources which help support teacher and student learning” (Rényi, 1996). The fact is that each community should enhance or create long-term partnerships for teachers' professional development (Rényi, 1996), so that students receive the best education possible. With everyone's participation and involvement, student achievement and success can be acquired.

External

There are also professional developments that take place on school grounds. Those workshops held in a school are located in a convenient area: libraries, labs, and other non-threatening environments. With so many places to actually hold workshops, the ideal place in a school setting would be in that of a classroom. It is in this location where an instructor can model the strategies or information trying to be conveyed to the participants (M. T. Cabrera, personal communication, November 25, 2002). Although ideal, it is not realistic there really is not enough time to present workshops in a small group situation or a one to one in a specified classroom. There are also not enough resources or personnel to create this type of setting.

Since this scenario is not really a possibility, it is then up to the instructor of a staff development to provide an environment where all of the necessary resources are available. To do so, the staff developments should be offered during a school day and not on the staff's personal time. Workshops presented on a Saturday are not really conducive to a teacher's life. “Ask teachers what they need in order to do a better job, and the first response is always more time” (Rényi, 1996). If this is the case, scheduling professional development on the weekend or after school hours is not an appropriate way to have teachers motivated to attend them. One benefit of providing workshops during school hours instead of on personal time is that teachers are still in a working frame of mind. They are not constantly thinking about personal matters as if it were a weekend or after hour session. Teachers and staff should be thinking about their given situation and what ways they can help their students become the life long learners they know they can be.

Conclusion

Professional developments are a necessary factor in any school system. Having staff developments allow all of the individuals in a school the opportunity to better themselves and grow on both a professional and personal level. They allow school members the opportunity to improve and broaden their experiences. Although the main goal of participating in a development is to help students achieve success, it also helps promote the idea of having

educators share and work together. Ultimately, workshops should provide individuals the chance to gather innovative ideas, current information, and suggestions on the art of teaching. A professional development should try to complement each of the school values, goals, and mission. In the end, staff developments should be seen as a positive process and not as a burden by those who participate in them.

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Radiology Technology: An Examination of the Transfer of Training through Continuing Education

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Abstract: This paper discusses the transfer of training as it relates to mandatory continuing education for the radiologic technologist. Through continuing education the technologists' satisfy their requirements for recertification and/or licensure. Continuing education should provide a method to maintain competency, however, attitudes determine the success of learning outcomes.

The Professional Licensing Report of 1998 states, “more licensing boards in more states than ever are requiring continuing education classes of their licensees (as cited in Duerhring and Ward, 2001, p. 2). Licensing is a means by which the state has the authority to grant an individual permission to practice within that state. In radiology technology only 34 out of 50 states require state licensing for certification within that state.

In 1991, the American Registry of Radiologic Technologists stated that it would begin implementing continuing education for renewal of registration of certificates. In 1995, continuing education became mandatory for renewal or reinstatement of registration. The American Registry of Radiologic Technologists defines registration as “the annual renewal of the certificate’s validity” (2002). A certificate is given to an individual after completing all eligibility requirements and successfully passing the national certification exam; this is a one-time award. Certification is a means of reassuring the general public and the medical community that an individual is competent in skills and knowledge to perform within the profession.

“Continuing education helps you keep pace with a competitive world” (the American Society of Radiologic Technologists, 2002) and is a method for healthcare professionals to satisfy their responsibility to maintain competency and prevent their skills from becoming outdated. According to the American Society of Radiologic Technology Code of Ethics #10, “the radiologic technologist continually strives to improve knowledge and skills by participating in continuing education and professional activities, sharing with colleagues and investigating new aspects of professional practice” (2002). The Study of Selected Occupations reveals that there is a correlation between success and continuing education, confirming the significance of continuous training for today's workforce (O'Shea, Betsinger, & King, 1999).

As medical technology continues to advance, transfer of training through continuing education plays a major role in the healthcare industry. Although assumptions can be formulated that the radiologic technologist participates in continuing education because it is required for recertification, it is the ethical responsibility of all technologists to maintain competency throughout their professional career. How this is achieved is an individual goal that each technologist must define to satisfy personal and professional growth.

Transfer of Training

Transfer of training originates in industrial psychology (Ottoson, 1997) and means to convey or remove from one person, place or situation to another (Webster's Dictionary, 1991). Perkins and Salomon state that transfer happens in two different ways: low road and high road transfer (as cited in Fogarty, Perkins, & Barell, 1992). Low road transfer occurs when

similarities between a new situation and an old one sparks the application of old knowledge and skill. High road transfer is when a person mindfully abstracts characteristics from an old situation and uses it in a new one. Oliver Wendall Holmes captured the concept of transfer when he wrote the three-story intellect (as cited in Fogarty et.al, 1992).

There are one-story intellects, two-story intellects, and three-story intellects with skylights. All fact collectors who have no aim beyond their facts are one-story men. Two-story men compare, reason, generalize using the labor of fact collectors as their own. Three-story men idealize, imagine, predict ---Their best illumination comes from above the skylight (p xi).

Holmes distinguishes between the three different degrees of transfer. The first level has fact collectors; they are only interested in continuing in their present state of being and are not interested in the transference of any new training or knowledge. At the second level, information is being assimilated, with only a small amount being transferred. At the third level, success is finally met and the individual is truly transferring.

The transfer of training is defined as the effective and continuing application of newly acquired skills on the job (Broad 1997; Ford & Weissbein, 1999). Transfer of training simply means the use of a new content of knowledge and skills acquired in an earlier context. The knowledge or skill transferred can be very specific or very general--for example, a theory, a principle or a skill. If real transfer takes place, the learner carries over something they learned in one context and applies it to a significantly different one. This is a reflective process rather than a reflexive one.

In transfer of training, the reflexive process is characterized by habitual and unthinking behavior. For example performing the same procedure memorized from the textbook. The reflective process expresses a thought or opinion resulting from reflection. The reflective process integrates the critical thinking component, which is crucial when working in the clinical setting. At times educators wonder why the learner is not able to apply these critical thinking skills. Bailey states that there are several factors that affect the participants' failure to learn such as program structure, lack of commitment from the learner, and different expectations between the educator and learner (1991). Although skills taught in training transfer to the workplace they vary according to personal, instructional and organizational factors (Parry, 1990).

According to Richey (1991) there seems to be a correlation between adults' attitude and training programs and the fundamental success or failure of educational programs in regards to what was learned and what was transferred to the workplace. In addition, higher levels of motivation do not necessarily mean that the learners are equipped to work and learn (Usuki, 2001). Aristotle stated "that human beings naturally seek to know and value knowledge to help us evaluate choices, make decisions and keep us from ignorance" (Gutek, Carpenter & Moreno, 1997).

Summary

In Radiologic Technology, continuing education is required for relicensure and/or recertification. Through continuing education, the transfer of training and attitude could enhance the technical skills and expertise of the technologist by suggesting new information and methods. The subject matter for continuing education should reflect the educational needs of the radiographer that will enable them to meet the health care needs of the customer.

Although attitudes and personal skills are required to obtain specific learning outcomes, Duerhring and Ward (2001) state, "that the technologist's attitude toward continuing education

makes all of the difference.” Attitude can be either positive or negative and has strong implications on behavior. "Attitudinal change does not rest on the basis of information itself; a more significant determinant is the nature and degree of the adult's ego involvement" (Kirchner & Wilder, 1959).

The transfer of training is the effective and continuing application of newly acquired skills on the job and should be done with fidelity and precision since the lives of patients depend on it. The technologist must be proficient and have the capability to perform satisfactorily in every given opportunity. The notion of proficiency facilitates the understanding of adult motivation and achievement in both learning activities and life roles (Knox, 1980).

Even though there are various ways to fulfill the continuing education requirements, such as attending in-services, conferences, completing self-study programs or online courses, there is still debate over the time, money and value of continuing education (Fiske, 2002). Regardless of the debates over continuing education the technologist should develop a higher cognitive level, a passion for their work and confidence that will endure through the many obstacles they will face in their professional career.

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Using Critical Race Theory: An Analysis of Cultural Differences in Healthcare Education

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Abstract: This paper is a literature review of articles published from 1992 to 2002 in the *American Journal of Health Education* using critical race theory as a lens of analysis of culture differences in healthcare.

Poor elderly blacks may not read the *Journal of Public Health* or the *New England Journal of Medicine* (which reports studies on biased treatment), but they have a gut belief that they do not receive the same care as white elderly.....Because of race, class, and ethnicity barriers, however, health care practitioners do not know the elderly poor black outside the clinical setting. To morally intervene in the lives of these patients, providers need to understand those patients' culture, including family and community norms. They need to be familiar with the life stories of these patients', for it is through stories that we get to walk in other people's shoes....In a health care system in which the providers are mostly white and the sickest people are elderly African-Americans, a larger sense of each patient's story will improve the quality of everyday practice of medicine as well as the quality of communication with the person who is ill or approaching death (Dula, 1994).

In this illustration taken from the article titled, "The Life and Death of Mrs. Mildred, An Elderly Black Woman," it is apparent that social and economic differences exist between individuals in healthcare settings. The Civil Rights movement of the 1960's targeted various disciplines, including healthcare and healthcare education for reform. Governmental initiative H.R. 3250, Titles I through Title V, entitled Health Care Fairness Act of 1999 (as cited in Dingell, 2002), addresses issues of healthcare and research for minorities, data collection relating to race and ethnicity, medical and provider education regarding race and ethnicity, and other standards developed by the Office of Civil Rights.

The United States of America is an ethnically diverse country, representing numerous racial, ethnic, and cultural groups. Rutledge (2001) states that, "with the changing cultural makeup of many communities, a heightened understanding of the issues, challenges and opportunities faced by minorities is a must for everyone, especially for those who provide services" (p. 314). Because of these issues of race, ethnicity and equity in healthcare, we believe it is important that critical race theory (CRT) concepts be used to critique cultural competency in healthcare and healthcare education. CRT is a lens of analysis that views the world from the perspective of the underprivileged. The purpose of this paper is to analyze the literature published in the *American Journal of Health Education* using CRT as a lens. The first section of this paper explains critical race theory, followed by the method used, and concludes with a discussion of the findings and implications for the future.

Understanding Critical Race Theory

"The CRT movement is a collection of activists and scholars interested in studying and transforming the relationship between race, racism and power" (Delgado & Stefancic, 2002, p. 2). Critical race theorists attempt to inject the cultural viewpoints of people of color, derived from a common history of oppression, into their efforts to reconstruct a society crumbling under the burden of racial hegemony (Barnes, 1990). CRT investigates the assumptions behind the call for equal rights and seeks to re-evaluate and transform stagnant notions of equality, which serve to hide important differences of power between groups. It goes beyond traditional civil rights and ethnic discourses to place these relationships in economical, historical, social, and group contexts. CRT originated in the mid-1970s, when Derrick Bell (an African-American), and Alan Freedman (a White), Richard Delgado (a White Hispanic) and others began to challenge the "subtler forms of racism that were gaining ground" (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001, p. 3-4) following the early success of the Civil Rights movement. CRT was brought out of academia and into the public consciousness in 1993, after the controversy over President Clinton's nomination and withdrawal of Lani Guinier to be the first Black woman to head the Civil Rights division of the Department of Justice (Guinier, 2002).

Initially, CRT began as a critique of legal studies and subsequently spread to other disciplines since the CRT conference in 1989 took place in Madison, Wisconsin (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1999; Roithmayr, 1999). This was a meeting that Harris (2002) identifies as one of the first CRT conferences. As a result, a growing number of scholars made race a central focus of their research and analysis (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Rubin, 1996; Taylor, 1999; Wing, 1996). In addition, other movements have splintered off CRT including a Latino critical theory. The LatCrit theory has been described as a close relative of CRT, which highlights Latina/o concerns and voices in legal discourses and social policies (Valdes, 2002). Despite the array of intellectual traditions and diverse disciplinary backgrounds of critical race theorists concur that a) racism is endemic to American life, b) CRT must confront history and pursue a contextual and historical analysis of social issues, c) CRT draws from the experiences of those being oppressed, and d) storytelling (voice) is often employed (Barnes, 1990).

Race and ethnicity among minorities affects the opportunity for access to healthcare and healthcare outcomes (Mayberry, 1999). Although much progress has been made since the Civil Rights movement, racial bias still echoes within healthcare, and the struggle for equity still continues. Addressing health issues has become increasingly important to public policy in the effort to change the health outcomes of Blacks, Hispanics and other minority Americans. Race and ethnicity are seen as fluid social constructs that have changed over time (Waters, 2000) and have no genetic or biological bias (Krieger, 2000). Figures from the 2000 U.S. Census Bureau reveals that minority groups such as Hispanics/Latinos, African Americans, Asians and Native Americans will comprise more than half of the U.S. population in 2050 (Estes, 2001).

Race is a social construct that has no basis in biology (Gregory & Sanjek, 1994) and is associated with a set of physical characteristics, which are perceived by others in ways that determine one's social power and privilege (Giroux, 1997). However, Webster's Dictionary (1991), defines race as a class or kind of people unified by communities of interests, habits, or characteristics. The goal of CRT is to reshape power relationships, as "power, access, status, credibility, and normality are all manifestations of privilege," (Rocco & West, 1998, p. 173).

Method

To examine cultural differences in healthcare through the CRT lens, we chose the *American Journal of Health Education*, which was first published in 1977, focuses on general health education, and does not focus on any one specific discipline within healthcare. The journal was originally named *Health Education* (January 1977 to December 1990), was renamed the *Journal of Health Education* (January 1991 to December 2000), and has again been renamed to the *American Journal of Health Education* (January 2001 to the present). Although the journal was available to review dating back to 1977, we reviewed the last ten years of articles published between January 1992 and August 2002 based on the assumption that CRT was firmly established by then due to the developments in the 1970's and 1980's. For this review, articles are defined to include literature reviews, research based and theoretical based publications. This did not include any book reviews, debates, editorials or rejoinders.

For the intent of this paper, the analysis will be based on these criteria emerging from the tenets of CRT: (a) race must be central to the consideration or interpretation of the research problem, (b) the research must be grounded in the experience of the underprivileged seeking equity in healthcare, (c) ethnicity and (d) voice.

We created a table with two descriptors, which were race, ethnicity and equity in healthcare with headings listed as year, volume, and page number. We each conducted a hand search in the journal indexes looking for titles and recorded the results on separate tables. We did this independently to reduce the risk of being influenced to include or exclude any titles. After completing our list, we correlated our results. If there were any differences of inclusion or exclusion of titles, we reviewed them together. We agreed upon 40 titles using our descriptors and we computed the number of titles and listed them by year and according to race, ethnicity and equity in healthcare. Some noteworthy differences are that no titles were found between the years 2000 and 2002.

In our second step, we read the abstracts from the forty articles to verify that all were related to race, ethnicity and equity in healthcare. The forty abstracts were reviewed independently and we correlated our results: only fourteen abstracts were chosen. On another table, we listed the fourteen abstracts by page number so we could easily access the articles.

In our third step, we used a Thematic Analysis, as described by Boyatzis (1998), to categorize the articles by the inclusion or exclusion of race/ethnicity and equity/voice in healthcare. The standards used to evaluate the articles were based on our criteria: a) race or ethnicity must be central to the consideration or interpretation of the research problem, or b) the research must be grounded in the experience of the underprivileged seeking equity and voice in healthcare. Our matrix included the following degrees of classification: Radical view (present and meets criteria), liberal view (small incremental changes – no drastic steps), minimally mentioned (used as a characteristic in the article) and absent (not present). This review process identified twelve articles that correlated with the descriptors that related to race, ethnicity, equity and voice in healthcare.

Findings and Discussion

The results of our Thematic Analysis showed that during the past ten years, the *American Journal of Health Education* published articles relating to race, ethnicity, equity and voice in healthcare. Although the twelve articles varied in degrees of classification, the articles discussed issues pertaining to the principles of CRT. The themes are cultural differences, access, health disparity, and healthcare education. We discovered that disparities in healthcare exist and varied

among cultures. Healthcare institutions and healthcare professionals must bridge the gaps that still exist between individuals to provide fair, equal and impartial care.

Cultural Differences

Cultural differences are differences between cultures that vary according to tradition, custom and practices that define an individual's and communities' beliefs (Glasgow, 1985). These differences and beliefs impact how various people from different cultural backgrounds view healthcare. For example, Southeast Asian refugees have to adapt to a new environment and are reluctant to seek out social services because of suspicions about care and traditional use of alternative medicine. On the other hand, Russian refugees have higher expectations of healthcare based on their prior experiences with socialized medicine (Wei & Spigner, 1994).

Access

When we think of access to healthcare, we *think* of people with health insurance coverage, who know how and when to seek medical attention and in what form (private physician instead of emergency services). On the other hand, we think of those without health insurance who don't utilize preventive healthcare because of social and economic factors. For example, African Americans are perceived as "being products of a dysfunctional culture of their own making" (Spigner, 1994, p. 213). Therefore, the traditions and practices of this dysfunctional culture contribute to the health problems of African Americans (Spigner, 1994). On the other hand Cross (et al., 1989 as cited in (Denboba, Bragdon, Epstein, Garthright, & McCann Goldman, 1998) maintains that African Americans have limited access to political and economic systems that plan and administer health services (Denboba et.al., 1998).

Health Disparity

Health disparities are differences in the time spent trying to get healthcare, information about healthcare being available but not known by different groups, quality or availability of insurance, transportation, and other factors that act as deterrents. These deterrents are often culturally specific being visible to some and invisible to others. The development of cultural competence among healthcare professionals is one mechanism used to decrease disparity (Denboba, et.al., 1998). Another tactic is for underserved communities, rural or urban, to develop health promotion cooperatives (Wagner, 1994).

Healthcare Education

Health education is a way to disseminate information about the trends and issues in healthcare. It is also a way to instruct the medical community and the general public about the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of symptoms, conditions and disease. For example, healthcare professionals need to design educational programs for specific populations like Hispanics (Pinzon & Perez, 1997), Mexican Americans (Stauber, 1994), African Americans (Chng & Fridinger, 1994) and racial and ethnic descriptors (Lacey, 1992).

Implications for the Future

Critical race theory awareness can be achieved through education. We encourage the *American Journal of Health Education* to continue promoting articles relating to race, ethnicity, equity and voice in healthcare. Although we sometimes have distorted and limited views of other people's culture and history, we must find ways to achieve cultural competency at all levels throughout our community and around the world. Cultural competency is defined "as a set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that come together in a system, agency or amongst professionals and enables that system, agency or those professionals to work effectively in cross

cultural situations" (Cross et.al, 1989). The Joint Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations (2002) states

Patients have a fundamental right to considerate care that safeguards their personal dignity and respect their cultural, psychosocial, and spiritual values. These values often influence patient's perception of care and illness. Understanding and respecting these values guide the provider in meeting the patient's care needs and preferences. (p. 67)

The healthcare industry must continue to address issues of race, ethnicity and equity through cultural competency. Knowing something about different cultures, beliefs, values and traditions are essential to overcome cultural gaps in the healthcare setting. Although, no one can be expected to know everything about every culture, we should learn something about the most common patterns of the populations we typically encounter. We must keep in mind the fact that there are variations both within each group and among individuals. As adult educators and healthcare professionals, we must continually nourish the awareness and understanding of the cultural differences and needs of our patients, peers and students.

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Educational Monopolies

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Abstract: Is there a monopoly in public education? This paper discusses some current literature and information on school choice and voucher programs. This paper specifically looks at school choice in Florida.

The improvement of public education is a popular topic in many circles. Many contemporary discussions on public education will eventually discuss the topic of parental school choice and its impact on our society. This paper will discuss current research that is available concerning school choice and vouchers.

There are many proposals to solve the problems of public education. One economist has suggested that more competition in education will significantly improve our public school systems (Williams, 2002). The economists' theory is that, with increased competition, in public education, the delivery of education to all students will improve. By allowing parents a choice of where they may send their children to school, the competition between schools will cause all schools to improve. Furthermore, there is a theory that public education is a government monopoly and that by allowing competition in public education society will somehow solve many of the problems that we see in our public schools. The "Choice Theory" is that students are forced into inferior public schools. If students and parents had the choice to attend a different school they would attend a superior school.

Method

A partial literature search was conducted during the week of November 17th, 2002. Multiple databases were searched including ERIC. Additionally, I searched the Miami-Herald newspaper database for related articles. In all the above cases I used keyword searches for school vouchers. The following literature review helps form the conceptual framework for this paper. The theoretical constructs are discussed in the following section.

School Choice by Residence

The predominate form of school choice is based on where one decides to reside, though school choice by residence is not evenly distributed across the country. Public education is predominately the function of the states. Residents of the U.S. have a choice in which state to live. Many people consider the type of public schools that are available to them when they select their place of residence. Those who are educated and empowered utilize school choice by residence most frequently. Generally, it is easier for the affluent to move than for a person with a low socio-economic status. In fact the quality of public schools has a major impact on the property values of a given area. (Glenn, 1988; Poetter, Knight-Abowitz, 2001).

An additional debate that coincides with the school choice issue concerns the size of school districts. Usually the larger the number of school districts within a given state, the smaller the school districts. Hence, residents of states with many school districts, like Texas, California and Pennsylvania have more educational choices than do residents of Hawaii, which has only one school district. California and Texas each have over a thousand local schools districts. Many states have several hundred school districts. The number of school districts

within a given state is directly proportional to the amount of school choices that residents of that state have. There is only one state with a public educational monopoly and some states that have educational oligopolies in the USA. Hawaii has one single school district within the state. Residents of Hawaii, being remote islands, cannot reasonably commute from a neighboring state so that their children can be in a different school system. With so many public school systems in our country the premise of a governmental monopoly on education is really a myth.

Florida School Choices

Florida is an exception to this school choice premise via local residence. Floridians are deprived of choices in public education by virtue of geography and school system size. Floridians are not subject to an educational monopoly but they are subjected to an educational oligopoly. Florida has only one school system in each of its 67 counties. In actuality, many school children in Florida are served by only eight school systems. Residents of South Florida are especially limited in their choice of institutes of public education. If parents in South Florida do not like the big school district in which they reside their only other possible choice is one of two similar school systems that are adjacent to them. Granted, a family can move within a county-school system and relocate to a better school within the same school system. This situation is indisputably an economic governmental oligopoly.

Ironically, the larger school systems are able to provide more choices of schools within their system. Big school systems can afford to have more school choice programs such as controlled choice and magnet programs. Additionally, large school systems have a larger variation of schools within their system. Nevertheless, the philosophies that govern and operate school systems will generally remain the same throughout the system.

History of School Choice

School choice issues became prominent when busing was forced upon communities to create desegregated schools. At the beginning of court ordered busing, many private schools became very popular and overcrowded. Furthermore "*white flight*" became prominent in busing school districts. White flight is the phenomena whereby Caucasian families moved to reside just across the school district line so as to avoid desegregation by busing. White flight was a form of school choice. Many school systems avoided court ordered desegregation via busing by implementing voluntary desegregation, which frequently involved the use of magnet schools. Typically, magnet schools utilized popular programs, such as arts and Montessori programs, to pull or draw Caucasian students into a predominantly racial minority school. Later, the purpose of some magnet programs became to draw better students into poor performing schools and raise the overall academic standing of the school. Now magnet schools exist in some school districts specifically to give parents more public school choices (Blank, Levine & Steel, 1996). There are also a growing number of charter schools in the U.S. Charter schools give parents an additional choice of which school to send their children.

Home Schooling Choice

Another form of school choice is home schooling. The number of children that are being home schooled has grown astronomically during the past two decades. This growth is indicative of the growing dissatisfaction with many public schools. These families have chosen not to send their children to public schools but to teach their children themselves at home. Home schooling is seen as a less cash costly alternative to private schools. The hidden cost of home

schooling is that it requires the parents to invest significantly more of their personal time and energy into educating their children. Home schooling parents typically purchase a curriculum from a vendor. Some curricula come complete with videotapes that the students listen to while less expensive curricula come with only written instructions.

School Voucher Theory

A very controversial school choice program is the school voucher programs that have started across the country. The voucher programs give the family of the student a voucher for education that the family can redeem at any of a number of private or public schools. In theory, the vouchers allow poor students to attend private schools that they would otherwise not be able to attend. For advocates of totally free market education, school vouchers are the ultimate solution to the school choice question.

There are two types of school voucher systems, the broadcast type of school voucher program and the geographically limited type of voucher program. The broadcast type of school voucher programs allows the vouchers to be distributed by a lottery to any qualified students within the school district. Frequently the qualifying students must come from low-income homes. This type of school voucher program is in place in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and Cleveland, Ohio. The geographically limited type of voucher program limits the recipients of the vouchers to a specific local school area. An example of this type of geographical limited voucher program is the State of Florida's Opportunity Scholarships. In Florida only students from consistently low performing or double F schools are eligible for the school vouchers (e.g. Greech, 2002). There is research that indicates that the availability of school choice will enhance students' academic performance (Rees, 1993). Furthermore, research shows that African-American students have increased their test scores when they have received school vouchers (McDonald, 2000). Conclusively, there are positive benefits from school choice including vouchers.

The school voucher programs in Cleveland and Milwaukee have significant differences from the voucher programs of Florida. The voucher programs in Cleveland and Milwaukee were distributed to a few students throughout the school district. In both, Cleveland and Milwaukee, the voucher recipients had to be from low-income families (Lugg & Lugg, 2000). The Florida school voucher program or Opportunity Scholarships are part of Florida's Governor Jeb Bush's A+ Plan for all public schools. Students became eligible for the Florida Opportunity Scholarship or vouchers by virtue of being part of a consistently poor performing school. Under the A+ plan, all Florida Schools are evaluated according to their students' academic standards and assigned a corresponding grade. If a school received two Fs in a four-year time span, then all of the students in that school become eligible to receive the Opportunity Scholarship or school vouchers. The first secondary students who became eligible for the school vouchers in Florida were in June of 2002. At that time there were double F schools in Escambia, Orange, Palm Beach and Miami-Dade counties school systems. Of the almost 9,000 eligible students statewide, only between about 400 to 650 or 7 percent of the students chose to use vouchers to attend private schools (Greech, 2002). It is important to note that all of the 4,585 students in Miami-Dade County Public School system who became eligible for the Opportunity Scholarships or vouchers could have attended magnet schools within the MDCPS system prior to their school becoming a double F school. In other words, many of these Florida students and families had choices of schools before they were eligible for school vouchers (Greech, 2002).

Miami (FL) Edison High School

Miami Edison High School serves an area of Miami-Dade County, FL known as Little Haiti. Many of the Edison High School students come from homes where Haitian-Creole is exclusively spoken. Only 39% of Haitians are literate (Antonini, 1993) and many of the students at Miami-Edison come from families that are functionally illiterate in their native language. In June of 2002, Edison received its second F under Florida's A+ plan for education, allowing all students to be eligible for Opportunity Scholarships or vouchers to attend private schools. Furthermore MDCPS would allow Edison students to attend any school within the MDCPS system. Of the 2,238 students attending Edison in 2001-02 fewer than 60 elected to use vouchers to attend private schools for the 2002-03 school year (Greech, 2002).

In the case of the broadcast type of voucher program a parent had to apply for a voucher or meet a deadline to enroll in a voucher lottery, indicating that the parents of these children are proactive towards their children's education. The cases of the Florida's Opportunity Scholarships implies that when vouchers are accessible to a large number of the general population, then the parent-student response is minimal. There is more to the equation than just the availability of school choice. Perhaps the true factor is parental involvement in their children's education.

School choice will bring out the best in families where parents are proactive toward their child's education. Relatively small obstacles such as deadlines and applications will prevent many families from participating in school choice programs. Simply throwing vouchers at poor and underprivileged families will not automatically improve the educational status of their children.

Conclusion

Economics is a social science. Education is also a social science. Teachers are not producing widgets in a vacuum. Furthermore, there is no governmental monopoly in public education. Americans do have choices in the public schools that their children attend. School choices are not available to all in the same proportion. The educated and affluent citizens have more choices than do the less educated. Making school vouchers available to large numbers of the general public will not necessarily have a positive effect on public education. The economist theory that vouchers will improve public education is based on the false premise that all parents are proactive toward their children's education. The matter of school choice is important in the real political world. The volume and type of educational choices will continue to expand. Steps must be taken to assure that school choices or vouchers are not abused. School choice programs based on family income are poor criteria for allocating vouchers. Furthermore, leaders must be sure that students do not fall through the cracks of school choices. School choice, especially school vouchers, is not a panacea for all of the problems of public schools. There is no one simple solution to the educational problems in America.

The conclusion of the school choice matter will be that parent involvement is paramount to successful K-12 education. In the end, we will find that the most cost effective, socially redeeming method of educating students is a positive cooperative program in which parents play a major role in their child's education. We simply must utilize more of our resources to work with parents early in their child's life to achieve our goals of an educated population.

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The Impact of Workshops on the Quality and Quantity of Parent-Child Booksharing Skills

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Abstract: A pilot study posits that conducting a number of literacy workshops with teenage mothers translated into a greater number of appropriate booksharing skills implemented while reading to the child. The results of one- and two-way ANOVAs and of a contingency table with crosstabs are included.

Rationale

Early reading and writing concepts, behaviors, and attitudes are seen as children's constructions that take place within the influences of a social environment that immerses them, to varying degrees, in a range of literacy activities (Bus, 2001; Edwards, 1994; Morrow, 2001; Neuman & Celano, 2001; Sulzby & Teale, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978). In this context, storybook reading can have a powerful influence on the social development of the preschooler as the parent "envelopes the child and the book together into an emotionally satisfying literacy event" (Goodman, 1984, p. 105). As this study suggests, knowing appropriate strategies for sharing books with infants and toddlers could mean the difference between having a pleasant experience, for both the adult and child, that will be implemented on a daily basis or one that either or both would want to avoid.

In addition, there is considerable evidence that differences in the home literacy environments of preschoolers are related to subsequent achievement differences. A preschooler whose home provides fewer opportunities for acquiring knowledge and skills pertaining to books and reading is at a somewhat higher risk for reading difficulties than a child whose home affords a richer literacy. In a multiyear study with all middle-class children, Scarborough, Dobrich, and Hager (1991) showed that preschoolers who became poor readers by second grade had less frequent early literacy-related experiences than those who became better readers. In another longitudinal study, Smith (1997) measured children's literacy knowledge at the time of entering preschool and found a strong positive relationship to their reading ability five years later.

Purpose

An experimental study involving three types of workshop formats for 36 teenaged mothers were conducted to determine the impact of training these parents to use specific booksharing skills while reading to their infant and/or toddler in relationship to the quality of booksharing sessions. The facilitator introduced relevant and appropriate techniques for the parents to use with their children. The following research questions were addressed: (a) can short-range goals such as conducting literacy workshops with teenage mothers help to increase the ability and frequency of these parents to share books with the children in a meaningful and purposeful way? and (b) will having more than one workshop (more training) translate into a greater number of acknowledgments by the parents that the appropriate skills are being implemented while reading to the child?

Method

The participants of this study were teenaged parents of several high schools within the Miami-Dade County Public School System. They were invited to participate in these activities by the counselor within each school who coordinates and is the contact person of the Teenage Parent Program (TAP) of the school that provides educational and supplementary services for those involved. There were a varied number of students at each school from which three groups of 12 students from three different schools participated in the research. The author was the primary presenter; however, a second presenter was used in some of the workshops.

Following the suggestions of Duffy and Roehler (as cited in Knapp & Shields, 1991), my facilitation of the workshop as the parents attempted to share the books with their children included “cognitive modeling of the covert processes involved in using the skills, followed by responsive elaboration—cues, reminders, the reemphasis of key ideas, additional modeling, and elaborated explanations designed to respond to the particular forms of difficulty the [parents] experienced” (p. 225). The first workshop consisted of the (a) presentation of recent and relevant data that validated the importance of reading to the infant and toddler, (b) determination of the storytelling skills of the teenage parents, (c) demonstration the behaviors of an effective booksharing session, (4) issuance of the checklist for completion by the parents, and (5) the distribution of books provided by Reading is Fundamental. The second workshop was comprised mostly of discussion about how the parents fared in their usage of their booksharing sessions along with suggestions by the facilitator(s) of ways to correct the problems encountered.

The mothers’ ability to share books with their children was measured by a 14-item checklist (see Appendix) consisting of 12 students from three different schools. Group 1 (n = 12) was provided the first workshop and then given the checklist to complete. Group 2 (n = 12) was provided two workshops and then given the checklist to complete. Group 3 (n = 12) was given the checklist to complete but was not provided the workshops.

Results

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the numbers of workshops provided and the number of “always” answers on the checklist, controlling for the number of workshops provided. The independent variable, the number of workshops, included three levels: no workshop, one workshop, and two workshops. The dependent variable was the number of “always” answers on the checklist. The ANOVA was significant, $F(2, 33) = 4.81$, $p = .015$. The strength of the relationship between the number of workshops provided and the number of “always” answers on the checklists, as assessed by η^2 was strong, with the number of workshops accounting for 23% of the variance of the dependent variable.

Follow up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among the means. The test of homogeneity of variance was nonsignificant, $p = .793$, indicating that the sample variances ranging from 1.98 to 2.01 are similar. However, there may have been a lack of power associated with the test due to a small sample size; consequently, the result of the homogeneity test may not confirm that there are no differences in the population variances. Thus, the prudent choice was to ignore the Tukey and R-E-G-W Q tests (post hoc procedures that assumes equal variances) and to use the Dunnett’s C test (which does not assume equal variances) to control for Type I error across the multiple pairwise comparisons. The reports of these tests, as well as the means and standard deviations for the three workshop groups, are reported in Table 1 below. There were significant differences in the means between the groups provided one workshop and

two workshops, but no significant differences between the no workshop and the two workshop groups. The group with two workshops showed a greater increase in the means of the scores in comparison to the one workshop group.

The results of the one-way ANOVA supported the hypothesis that there is a significant difference between the number of workshops provided and the number of “always” answers on the checklist.

Table 1
Differences among Groups on the Number of “Always” Answers on the Checklist

Workshop Group	M	SD	One Workshop	Two Workshops
One Workshop	4.08	1.98		
Two Workshops	6.50	1.93	*	
No Workshop	4.75	2.01	NS	NS

A 3 x 3 ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of age and the three workshop conditions (method). The means and standard deviations for the number of "always" answers on the checklist as a function of the three factors are presented in Table 2 below. The ANOVA indicated no significant interaction between age and method, $F(8, 27) = .481, p = .749, \text{partial } \zeta^2 = .067$, no significant main effect for age, $F(8, 27) < .001, p = 1.000, \text{partial } \zeta^2 < .001$, but a significant main effect for method, $F(8, 27) = 4.003, p = .029, \text{partial } \zeta^2 = .230$. The significant method main effect confirmed that the number of workshops provided influenced the numbers of "always" answers indicated on the checklists by the mothers, which was the primary purpose of the study. The follow-up analyses to the main effect of method examined this issue. Follow-up tests yielded consisted of all pairwise comparisons among the three workshop conditions. The Tukey HSD and Dunnett C procedure was used to control for Type I error across the pairwise comparisons. The results of this analysis indicate that the group provided the two workshops had more "always" answers on the checklists than the groups provided one workshop or no workshop. There was no significant difference between the no workshop (control) group and the one workshop group. Overall, the 3 x 3 ANOVA indicates superiority for the two workshops method. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations for Numbers of “Always” Answers on the Checklist

Age	Method	Mean	SD
Ages 15-16	1 Workshop	4.75	1.71
	2 Workshops	6.75	2.75
	No Workshop	3.75	1.50
Age 17	1 Workshop	3.67	2.08
	2 Workshops	6.33	2.52
	No Workshop	5.29	2.29
Age 18	1 Workshop	3.80	2.39
	2 Workshops	6.40	1.14
	No Workshop	5.00	N/A

A two-way contingency table was conducted to evaluate if the participant's response to the item "I read to my child once a day" was increased based on the number of workshops the person has attended. The two variables were number of workshops with three levels (one workshop, two workshops, and no workshops) and the variable, "I read to my child once a day," from the checklist. These two variables were found to be significantly related, Pearson χ^2 (2, N = 36) = 6.71, $p = .046$, Cramér's V = .046. The proportion of checks for "I read to my child once a day" according to the number of workshops attended (one, two, or none) were .42, .67, and .17, respectively.

Follow-up pairwise comparisons were conducted to evaluate the difference among those proportions. Table 3 shows the results of these analyses. The Holm's sequential Bonferroni method was used to control for Type I error at the .05 across all three comparisons. The only pairwise difference that was significant was between the variable, "I read to my child once a day" and the two workshops group. The probability of checking off "I read to my child once a day" was about 4 (3.9) times more likely for the student that attended two workshops than the student who did not attend at all.

Table 3
Results for the Pairwise Comparisons Using the Holm's Sequential Bonferroni Method

Comparison	Pearson chi square	p -value	Required p -value for significance	Significance	Cramier's V
2 vs. no workshop	6.17	.013	.0167	*	.51
1 vs. no workshop	1.82	.178	.025	NS	.28
1 vs. two workshops	1.51	.219	.50	NS	.25

* p -value (required p -value for significance)

Discussion

Although the study yielded a favorable outcome, several extraneous variables may have influenced the results of the testing: (a) the students were sent to the workshop based on their availability during school hours and at the discretion of the teacher and/or counselor (not all were included); (b) the participants were a mixture of students from different high schools drawn from the collective pool of students rather than from one school population; (c) the workshop settings were unequal in quality of instruction, i.e., there was one facilitator in some workshops and two in others and/or a video used in some workshops and not in others (due to technical difficulties); (d) some students may not have understood the meaning of the concepts discussed in the workshops or the question(s) asked on the checklist, i.e., Limited English Proficiency (LEP) students; (e) related to No. 4, there was an unequal representation of ethnicity; (f) a larger randomized sample size may have yielded different results; and (g) the parents checked off what they thought they did while reading to their child instead of being observed by the author.

Implications

These cognitively stimulating activities were provided as a basis to help the parents to more easily assimilate the booksharing techniques into the parent-to-child booksharing sessions. As a result, many of the parents felt more confident and were more apt to read to their child(ren) as indicated by the results of the pilot study. In addition, the structure of the workshops allowed

for the parents to discuss concerns about the booksharing sessions (the mood and energy level of the child, the timing of the reading session, the best way to sit with the child, etc.).

Conclusion

Although research indicates that young mothers often display and are comfortable with less-than-ideal parenting practices (Whitman, Borkowski, Keogh, Weed, 2001), this study found that the quality and quantity of the book-sharing sessions between these teenage parents and their children yielded favorable results with adequate training. However, further investigation is needed in the area of how to keep the parent interested in reading to the child on a daily and long-term basis since as discussed previously reading to toddlers (preschoolers) appropriately and consistently during their formative years increases the possibility of their performing successfully in the first few years of formal schooling.

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Appendix

Parent/Child Reading Survey used as a pre- and post-test measure

Parent/Child Reading Survey	Always	Sometimes	Never
1. I choose books my child can understand.			
2. I sit in a position to allow my child to see the book.			
3. I point to the pictures.			
4. I point to the words.			
5. I use expression in my voice.			
6. I make motions and/or sounds to match with the story.			
7. I ask "W" questions about the book I'm reading.			
8. I relate the stories in the books to real life events.			
9. I praise my child when he/she answer questions.			
10. I stop reading when my child loses interest.			
11. I read to my child at least once a day.			
12. I get books for my child from the library.			
13. I get books for my child from a bookstore.			
14. I enjoy reading to my child.			

Issues in Parental Involvement

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Abstract: This paper examines kinds of parental involvement for student achievement. It draws on current literature concerning each kind of involvement's effect on student achievement. The perspectives of educators on parental involvement are explored, as are communication between home and school and roadblocks encountered in parental involvement initiatives.

In its report, *A Nation at Risk*, the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) concluded that the mediocrity of our nation's schools was threatening the economic competitiveness of the country. Since then, all levels of government and educational institutions have been scrambling to reform America's educational system. The Clinton administration continued the reform movement when it passed the Goals 2000 Act (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1994). In section 102 of this Act, parental involvement is specifically mentioned as a key to student achievement: to accommodate the varying needs of parents, improve student achievement through parental involvement, give parents the opportunity to have a voice in the educational decision-making process, and hold teachers accountable to high standards. Despite the government's show of support and a plethora of research suggesting parental involvement improves student achievement, the partnership between home and school is still weak.

The purpose of this research paper is to examine the literature on the effects of parental involvement on student achievement. First, there is a clarification of the different kinds of parental involvement. This is followed by an examination of the effects of parenting on student achievement, educators' perspectives on parental involvement, communication between home and school, and problems in parental involvement initiatives. Based on the literature, a conclusion suggests how parental involvement initiatives can be implemented successfully and how current roadblocks to parental involvement can be overcome.

Kinds of Parental Involvement

Parental involvement does not have a single clear and consistent definition. It has been defined as parents' aspirations for their children's academic achievement (Bloom, 1980); parents' communication with their children about education and school concerns (Christenson, Rounds, & Gorney, 1992; Walberg, 1986); parents' participation in school activities (Stevenson & Baker, 1987); parents' communication with teachers about their children (Epstein, 1991); and parental supervision at home (T.Z. Keith, Reimers, Fehrmann, Pottebaum, & Aubrey, 1986; T.Z. Keith et al., 1993; Marjoribanks, 1983). Rather than focus on a single definition, Epstein (1987) has defined six different types of parental involvement: parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision making, and collaborating with the community.

Parenting

Authoritative parenting is defined as "a combination of high levels of warmth and acceptance, behavioral control, and psychological autonomy granting" (Deslandes, Royer, & Turcotte, 1997, p. 1). Studies on adolescents imply a positive correlation between authoritative parenting and academic achievement (Dornbush, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; Lamborn, Brown, Mounts, & Steinberg, 1993; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbush, & Darling, 1992).

Students with higher grades tend to have parents who are firm, warm, involved, and democratic (Dornbush et al., 1987; Lamborn, et al., 1993; Steinberg et al., 1992). Of the three characteristics of authoritative parenting, behavior control was the strongest predictor of adolescents' academic achievement (Deslandes et al., 1997).

Educators' Perspective on Parental Involvement

Educators tend to focus less on parenting and more on formal acts of parental involvement that are initiated by the school (Brown, 1989). Parent conferences, school performances and functions, and correspondence with teachers are common forms of parental involvement that are encouraged by schools. Schools are also asking parents to get involved by volunteering their time. Some parents can be found volunteering in libraries, lunchrooms, and classrooms. Others work with the Parent Teacher Association or on school committees. Parents are particularly accustomed to playing a major role in school-fundraising activities (Ramirez, 2001).

The best way for parents to help their children succeed academically is to tutor their children using specific learning activities created by the teacher to reinforce work being done in class (Epstein, 1986). Epstein (2001) and Jones (2001) assert that it is the teacher's responsibility to design effective interactive assignments that will not overwhelm parents of different ethnic and educational backgrounds. In turn, it is the school and school board's responsibility to help teachers decide what kind of homework is given.

Epstein cautioned that while interactive homework should be a regular activity, it should not be nightly. Epstein stresses, "Every night should not be interactive homework, because it really is a matter of having a family-friendly schedule" (Epstein, 2001, p. 38). Epstein (2001) also warned that progress related to interactive homework in one subject area does not transfer to other areas where interactive homework is not being used. Therefore, it is important to design interactive homework across the curriculum.

Communication

Another aspect of parental involvement connected with student achievement is communication. Researchers found a negative correlation between parental communication with teachers and adolescents' school grades (Baker & Stevenson, 1986; Deslandes et al., 1997). As suggested by Epstein (1996), it is more likely that parents and teachers will communicate when a student is having problems at school. Ramirez (2001) found that teachers would like to initiate more positive phone calls home, but did not feel that they had the time because of the number of students they taught. Epstein (1995, 1996) concluded that new relationships need to be formed between parents and teachers based on good news, open houses, social events, and recognition of student success.

Collaborating with the Community

Schools need to respond to community needs. They need to realize that families are not necessarily nuclear (Pennekamp & Freeman, 1988). Schools need to broaden their definition of family to include other parental figures. Others assert that schools need to become more aware of the diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds of their students and their students' families (Delgado-Gaitan, 1991; Salend & Taylor, 1993). Sending home information is unproductive if the information cannot be understood or will not be used.

Problems in Parental Involvement Initiatives

There are many reasons why parental involvement initiatives often fail to get off the ground. Jones (2001, p. 42) suggested, "Teachers have busy schedules, messages get lost, and

besides, who can keep track of 150 kids—let alone 150 families.” McPherson (1972) found that many teachers fear that the well-being of the students as a group may be hurt by the more personalized approach that they believe would be expected when parents become more involved. Becher (1986) found a variety of reasons why teachers are reluctant to encourage parental involvement, including their belief that parental involvement diminishes their power as “experts.” Teachers also believe that parental involvement activities take too much time to plan, turn teaching responsibilities over to parents, and are ineffective because parents do not know how to teach children (Becher, 1986).

Baker (1997) found that teachers felt very negatively about parents and did not want to interact with parents. It comes as little surprise then that many teachers in the study were slow to contact parents because they hoped to avoid a confrontation. Baker explained that teachers “don’t want to be blamed, and they don’t want the hostility to come back at them” (Baker, as cited in Jones, 2001, p. 39).

When motivated teachers do find the time to initiate parental involvement, they often become frustrated by what they perceive as a lack of support from parents (Brown, 1989). Parents may not attend conferences or school open houses; they may not check homework or answer notes from teachers. Wagenaar (1977) reported that parents found that, at times, the school itself becomes the enemy when the bureaucracy discourages parents from getting involved and expressing their concerns, complaints, and demands. Brown (1989) offers the following reasons why parents may not be actively involved in parental involvement initiatives: parents lack the time necessary to become involved in school parental involvement initiatives; it is unreasonable to expect that working parents will attend school events during the day; during the evening, parents may feel it is more important to spend time with their family than to attend a meeting at school; the cost and hassle of obtaining a babysitter can be a deterrent; some parents feel that they lack the skills to help; past personal experiences lead some parents to perceive a visit to the school as a negative experience; and finally, some parents are concerned that they might infringe upon the responsibilities of the teachers and school administrators. Ramirez (2001) concurred that if parents became actively involved, they felt they were considered “nosey” or a “problem.” They were considered “not caring” if they did not.

Parents are more likely to participate when they feel their contributions are important and directly affect student achievement. Parents are willing participants in classroom activities, parent meetings, and policy-planning sessions (McKinney, 1980). Parents are then allowed the opportunity to contribute to the decision-making process of the school. Parents are less interested in meetings about careers, job training, and social services. They most dislike social and fundraising activities, two expectations of parental involvement. Jones (2001) and C. Okpala, A. Okpala, and Smith (2001) assert that these activities serve no purpose toward student achievement. Okpala et al. (2001) postulate that parents volunteering in their children’s schools are more likely to positively affect their children’s academic progress than parents volunteering in schools where they do not have children because the former parents are sending a positive message to both their children and their children’s teachers. The children will be more likely to take their class work seriously, and teachers will be more motivated, knowing that parents are concerned.

Although a number of researchers (Dornbush et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1993; Steinberg et al., 1992) have found that parental involvement does affect adolescent achievement, Keith et al. (1986) and Natriello & McDill (1986) found that despite overwhelming evidence that parental involvement leads to higher student achievement in elementary schools, parental

involvement has little effect on adolescent academic achievement. T.Z. Keith (1991) suggests that the numerous definitions of parental involvement are partially to blame for this discrepancy. De Carvalho (2001) argued against the current constructs of parental involvement. She concluded that school parental involvement efforts have failed to consider families' socioeconomic status, culture, and feelings about school. In her view, parental involvement initiatives are geared toward upper-middle-class families. She suggested that many parents are not sufficiently educated to teach their children at home. Interactive homework is also not feasible in families with a single parent, two working parents, economic difficulties, or family stress. This questions why families are being asked to convert family activities into an extension of class activities at the expense of cultural pluralism, family leisure, and rest (De Carvalho, 2001). Schools and teachers have no right to tell parents what they should do in their free time. Parents are increasingly being asked to provide for the academic growth of their children in addition to their social and emotional growth. Parental involvement programs put the onus of educational improvement on families instead of schools. She fears that current parental involvement practices will only increase the disparity in academic achievement between children whose parents have the ability, time, and willingness to help and those whose parents do not (De Carvalho, 2001).

Conclusion and Implications

The research makes it apparent that a carefully planned and focused school-wide initiative is more effective than the potpourri of efforts that exist in most schools today. In planning a parental involvement program, schools must first consider family lifestyles and cultural backgrounds. In what ways, and to what degree, are parents willing and able to get involved? Private schools and schools in affluent areas may have more freedom in developing parental involvement programs because their parents are more likely to be willing and able to help their children and the school in the manner the schools expect.

For a parental-involvement program to get off the ground, teachers need to be given the time and resources to direct parental involvement in their class. Any parental involvement initiative that is perceived by teachers as “just one more job” is doomed to failure. However, if teachers are given the time and training to involve parents effectively, it is reasonable to expect that they will be supportive of the program. Training for teachers needs to come in two forms: professional development for existing teachers and quality instruction in teacher education programs. Clearly, the training of teachers in parental involvement is an area that needs to be addressed in future research.

To encourage parents to become more involved, teachers and school administration need to communicate more effectively. Scheduling has a lot to do with encouraging effective communication between home and school. Parents are more likely to become involved when schools hold events and parent-teacher conferences at times that are convenient for parents. Many schools, both public and private, have already moved in this direction by scheduling parent-teacher conferences in the evening as well as during the day. Furthermore, teachers need to communicate more often. Currently, teachers tend to phone parents only when there is a problem. There is little wonder that parents become defensive in their dealings with teachers when they think teachers only call if there is a problem. By calling parents regularly, teachers open the door to effective two-way communication. Communication needs to become more focused on building student self-esteem, school-parent partnerships, and conflict prevention—as

opposed to problem solving only. Although teachers' time is always limited, they may actually save time in the long run by avoiding conflicts with parents and encouraging parental support.

Finally, parental involvement at home cannot become a replacement for a quality education at school. Schools and teachers need to be conscious of the shift in responsibility that is beginning to take place. Schools need to maintain the primary responsibility for the academic success of each child. Parents should be partners in this endeavor, but their primary focus should be the social and emotional growth of their children. Parental involvement programs need to build partnerships between home and school—not extend school life into the home at the cost of family life and culture.

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Deeds and Consequences: Ethical Issues in a Welfare-to-Work Program

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Abstract: This paper explores the impact of a lack of sensitivity to the ethical issues that surfaced in a specific welfare-to-work program on participants' perceptions, self-esteem, and motivation. Ethical issues in three areas were identified and discussed: (a) professionalism and accountability, (b) participant and provider relationships, and (c) shared responsibilities.

Ethical issues: it sounds banal and trite. For ages philosophers have written hundreds of books in an effort to understand, explain, categorize, and label moral, immoral, and amoral human behavior and the rationales behind our actions. Yet, there still is not a universally accepted way of analyzing ethical situations (Hatcher & Aragon, 2000) and ethical issues are not a favored topic for discussion in public arenas or private conversations (McDowell, 2000). However, as a society we do feel that people should be trustworthy and fair in their dealings with each other. We expect behavior that promotes the welfare of individuals, organizations, and communities. Yet as recent events demonstrate, our society faces a crisis in professional responsibility (McDowell, 2000). Professional associations are worried about the image of their professionals, and as a result, they have developed and enforced codes of ethics to protect the public and their own interests. Codes of ethics postulate that adoption of and adherence to a set of standards for work-related conduct requires a personal commitment to act ethically and individual responsibility to aspire to the highest possible standards of conduct.

Ethical issues are inherent in much of what adult education practitioners do (Cervero & Wilson, 2001). The ethics of practice are discussed in specific areas of adult education, such as program planning (Caffarella, 1998; Cervero & Wilson, 1994); administration, advertising and marketing (Sork & Welock, 1992); counseling, advising, and continuing professional education (Lawler, 2000); and recently, web based adult education (Holt, 1998). An ethical issue occurs when harm to individuals is inflicted by incompetent and unscrupulous practitioners (Gordon & Sork, 2001) or customers, colleagues, participants, and stakeholders are not treated fairly or with integrity (Caffarella, 1998; Cervero & Wilson, 1994; Lawler, 2000). Ethical issues arise from a clash of interests in program planning, exercise of power in decision-making, questionable administrative actions, creation of discriminatory programs, unfair treatment of the less powerful, and violation of principles, standards, and policies.

Understanding the "cause and effect side of being ethically... and socially responsible" (Hatcher, 2002, p. 9) is essential for the success of any professional situation. Identifying ethical issues requires knowledge and awareness of the values of the profession and of the cultural and socioeconomic background of the participants (Lawler, 2000). Although scholars increasingly stress the importance of planning programs for adults, which focus on the relationship between cultural, social, economic, and political systems in society (Wilson & Cervero, 1996), there is little evidence that these relationships are noticed and implemented in designing welfare to work programs.

In 1996, Clinton Administration enacted the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act (PRWORA) with the purpose of moving existing welfare dependants to self-sufficiency through work. Employability skills became vital for the success of

welfare programs and recipients, pushing education and training issues to the forefront of the welfare reform debate (Zargari, 1997). Programs emerged to help welfare recipients acquire job skills, reform their work attitudes, and find and retain employment. The success of these programs depends on the ability of welfare-to-work agencies to foster placement opportunities with public agencies, profit and not-for-profit organizations, and to establish relationships with welfare recipients. Welfare reform evaluation reports measure program impacts on employment and welfare benefits, counting as successful programs that moved recipients from welfare to work (Orr, 2001). Recent government reports, for example, state that the US has made great progress in the implementation of the welfare-to-work reform, concluding that with the passage of PRWORA, welfare has been successful. As president Bush said in his speech on February 26, 2002, “Doors of opportunity that were shut and sealed have been opened – in no small measure because of the efforts of welfare recipients themselves. Even those who raised doubts about welfare reform must concede that millions of mothers previously dependent on welfare have proven themselves capable of holding jobs” (Bush, 2002, p. 2). However, literature today is still scarce on what impact and consequences programs have on the welfare recipients, their perceptions of the process, and their standard of living. New welfare to work programs simply demand that the individual develop a new identity, way of life and knowledge without regard to their varied and unique life experiences, emotions, and demographic attributes (Kilgore, 2001).

The purpose of this paper is to discuss a lack of sensitivity to ethical issues in a specific welfare-to-work program. We focused on three areas: (a) professionalism and accountability, (b) participant and provider relationships, and (c) shared responsibilities. The paper is divided into a discussion of ethics and professionalism, the welfare to work program, and a discussion section which includes the three areas. Implications for program planning and implementation conclude the paper.

Ethics and Professionalism

Ethics studies the moral standards of a society to determine whether they are permissible or impermissible (Velasquez, 2002). Ethics is important because it helps maintain strategic focus and direction and because professionals must be viewed as competent, credible, sincere, and caring by those they serve (Berman & Bonczek, 1998). For welfare-to-work program planners and providers, an ethical perspective suggests that addressing service delivery and management issues must be an indispensable part of policy. The interaction among stakeholders, welfare service providers, and welfare participants must be built on the principle of interdependency, collaboration, and the underlying assumption that all partners should receive what they need.

Contemporary philosophy has divided ethics into three ethical theories. These are metaethics, the study of the origin and meaning of ethical concepts; normative ethics, the search for ultimate right vs. wrong moral standards that regulate proper behavior; and applied ethics, which analyzes controversial business, societal, medical, and environmental issues, utilizing metaethics and normative ethics as analytical frameworks. Thus, ethical theories provide a common language for communicating, discussing and evaluating ethical issues (Hatcher, 2002).

To analyze the ethical issues and providers’ mischief-making in the welfare-to-work program, we used an analytical framework based on three prominent normative theories: virtue ethics, duty ethics, and consequentialist ethics. Virtue ethics advocates moral education and stresses the importance of developing good habits of character, such as respect, trustworthiness, honesty, integrity, reliability, responsibility, fairness, caring, and generosity. Duty ethics bases moral behavior on principles of obligations and duties to ourselves and to others, and focuses on

the moral nature of the deed. Duties to others, for example, involve benevolence, fidelity, not harming other individuals, improving the conditions of others, acknowledging other people's rights of welfare, freedom, and pursuit of happiness (Wood, 1999). The consequentialist ethics focuses on the consequences and contingencies of our actions for us and/or for other people, measuring right and wrong actions by their favorable or unfavorable outcomes (Hatcher & Aragon, 2000). The boundaries between the principles of these theories are not clearly delineated, and an ethical issue may be a topic of more than one theory. In the light of this framework, we analyzed the ethical issues that arose during a welfare-to-work program and the impact on welfare participants and program outcomes.

The Welfare-to-Work Program

The welfare to work program recruited participants who have been on welfare in the recent past with the goal to move them into entry level positions with local law firms by providing a training program, internship experience, job placement, and a personal mentor. The service provider hired various vendors to train participants on interviewing and presentation skills, work behaviors, literacy, computer, and basic legal terminology. Criteria for admission in the program were a negative drug test, a high school diploma or General Education Diploma (GED), successful completion of the Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE), and a personal interview score sheet. Participants were referred by local one-stop agencies, which provide employment services and handle cases for welfare recipients, or by welfare recipients' caseload managers. Sixteen participants, 2males and 14 females of Hispanic and/or African American ethnicity, were selected for the program. Participants had varied educational and employment backgrounds.

Participants were required to attend a 16-week mandatory training orientation that included a curriculum designed by a local community college vendor. The curriculum design included topics in life skills management, keyboarding, math, and literacy/grammar. Students were required to be in attendance Monday through Friday, 8:30 AM- 4:30 PM. The program offered payment to students for program participation. Upon completion of the program, participants were guaranteed an entry-level placement in a local law firm. Participants were to be assigned mentors at the law firm where they were placed.

Discussion

We compared actual with desired program outcomes to identify problems with ethical behavior and to suggest some directions for welfare to work program planning.

Professionalism and Accountability

Professional competence is a complex and multifaceted concept, which incorporates four core components: knowledge competence, functional competence, behavioral competence, and ethical competence (Cheetham & Chivers, 1996). These components are interrelated and dependent on each other. Knowledge competence is the possession of work-related knowledge and the ability to apply this knowledge into effective use. Functional competence is the ability to perform work-based tasks to produce specific outcomes. Behavioral competence is the ability to behave appropriately in work related situations. Ethical competence is the possession of appropriate personal and professional values and the ability to apply them effectively in professional settings. Accountability means recognizing the consequences of what we do. It demands that professionals lead by example, pursue excellence, and exercise self-restraint

(Josephson, 1998). Situations occurred in which the professional competence and accountability of welfare-to-work providers could be questioned. For instance, providers were not on time for their appointments. When they were late, they were disruptive. These same providers constantly promoted professional behavior as a must for success for the welfare participants, but were violating the same norms, which resulted in their failure to model the desired behavior and attitude. Providers often took participants from classes for administrative reasons while insisting that attendance and participation were vital for success and mandatory. This contradiction interfered with participants' learning and devalued the training process.

Participant-Provider Relationships

Respect is the moral obligation to display regard for the worth of people, no matter who they are or what they have done (Josephson, 1998). It reflects one's civility, courtesy, tolerance and acceptance. A respectful person treats others with consideration and lack of prejudice. Administrative practices of welfare agencies have a powerful impact on welfare clients (Anderson, 2001). The success of welfare reform depends on the ability of welfare-to-work agencies to place welfare clients in jobs leading to self-sufficiency and economic viability, to act in their favor, and to build rapport with them. Instead, program providers tend to see, though unconsciously, welfare clients as responsible for their economic situation (Lent, 2001). Participants shared that they were treated as "nobodies" by people who looked down on them because they did not have respect for them. Providers did demonstrate a very low opinion of the participants and never missed an opportunity for a negative remark. A negative perception of participants' environment, lifestyle, and experience biased providers' decisions and judgements, which decreased participants' motivation and willingness to participate. Participants were treated as irresponsible and immature regardless of whether they were or not, which demoralized them. Such treatment resulted in loss of hope and trust, and low self-esteem, which were contrary to the program goals. Participants felt the lack of respect on behalf of the program staff, and this complicated their freedom of expression. They complained that the planner's direct contact had no experience dealing with people on welfare and that she needed lessons in "people skills," two said they had to confront her and remind her they were adults. Dealing with the direct contact often made participants uneager to attend class or bring necessary concerns to the front. The unstable economic situation of welfare recipients makes them vulnerable to the whims of program planners (Lent, 2001), and it is easier for them to give up rather than go through humiliation.

Shared Responsibilities

"The notion of shared responsibility implies that each organization must take responsibility for fulfilling their role as a part of a larger, concerted effort" (Berman & Bonczek, 1998, p. 217) when planning programs. The effective operation of programs for welfare recipients depends on coordinated activities of inter-organizational networks and the motivation and commitment of their personnel (Jennings & Krane, 1998). Shared responsibility implies a mutually beneficial relationship between agencies. Welfare reform has failed to achieve its goals because the critical role of an adequate and functional service delivery network of organizations has been underestimated (Jennings & Krane, 1998) and critical implementation and management issues have not been considered a central component in the policy design.

Five agencies were involved in the design, delivery, and implementation of this program. Weak partnerships and communication breaches resulted in poor administrative decisions. For

instance, a fundamental program component, paid internships for each participant, did not materialize due to providers not communicating directly with the firm decision-makers. This did not stop the service provider from publicly stating that internships did exist. Often there were issues with paying participants on time, securing bus passes, and negotiating personal and program conflicts, all of which were responsibilities of different agencies that had failed to communicate effectively and efficiently with each other. All this was at the expense of the participants: one participant became homeless, one dropped out of the program, two were labeled as problems, and many others experienced financial difficulties. By the conclusion of the program, some participants still did not have job or internship placements as promised by program planners at the beginning. Some feared that the time devoted to the program had been wasted and that they had been lied to.

Implications

Employing an ethical perspective to viewing problems could offer a more constructive approach to the planning, design, and delivery of welfare to work programs. Knowledge and understanding of ethical theories is essential for identifying resolving, and/or avoiding ethical issues. Training on ethics could help providers accomplish their goal of creating self-disciplined, self-directed, and self-sufficient participants because they will learn to be attentive and responsive to participants' needs and concerns. Ethical training could educate the powerful and privileged program providers and planners about the marginalized population they serve and end the vicious practice of creating undue stereotypes. This in turn could foster self-esteem and pride in the welfare participants.

If the welfare-to-work initiative is to succeed, it requires providers to have knowledge of ethics to inform and drive their strategic approach to the planning, design, and delivery of welfare-to-work programs and to ensure that participants' interests are consistently served and important issues are not overlooked. Banal and trite as it may sound, those who claim that their primary interest is helping the less fortunate should adhere to and advocate ethical behavior. Failure to do so will perpetuate the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the welfare-to-work initiative.

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Critical Race Theory and Adult Education: Critique of the Literature in *Adult Education Quarterly*

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Abstract: This paper examines the assumptions and paradigms used to discuss diversity and equity in adult education literature using critical race theory as a lens. Five themes emerged from the critique that may initiate an innovative dialogue about the realities and subjectivities singling out racial and ethnic minorities in the USA.

Adult education is given public support in order to maintain economic stability, social order, and a competitive edge in a global economy (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). This implies maintenance of an educated, informed, and efficient workforce and the reduction of illiterate, unemployed, and underemployed adults who are a potential threat to a stable social order. Because the mission of adult education is to satisfy the needs of individuals, institutions, and society (Knowles, 1985), adult educators have mistakenly interpreted this as a need for preserving the status quo of the American democracy. The status quo cherishes “individualism, independence, equal opportunity, and a Protestant-capitalist work ethic” (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 74) actually making adult education elitist and exclusionary (Guy, 1999) and contributing to the problem of social injustice, which continually marginalizes the racial, ethnic, and linguistic minority populations of the United States.

Why Critical Race Theory?

Contemporary adult education is enlightened by various philosophies and theories, including critical theory, Marxism, postmodernism, multiculturalism, and feminism. Missing is the potential of critical race theory (CRT) for examining and giving insight to adult education theory and practice (Peterson, 1999). Critical race theory is a legal theory which maintains that racism is endemic and systemic. Critical race theorists allege that radical approaches are needed to overcome existing racial tensions (Peterson, 1999). CRT not only tries to understand the relationships among race, racism, power, privilege, and oppression, but to challenge and transform these relationships. Racism has not been eradicated through legislation. It has produced “no more than temporary peaks of progress” which become irrelevant once “racial patterns adapt in ways that maintain white dominance” (Bell, 1992, p. 12). An integrated and interracial society cannot be the solution either. The race neutral standpoint, which presumes a homogenized population of immigrants in the US to celebrate diversity, has left African American, Indigenous, and Latino/a students pondering why they have not been able to rise above their immigrant status (Ladson-Billings, 1999).

The purpose of this paper is to examine the assumptions and paradigms used to discuss diversity and equity in adult education using critical race theory as a lens. To represent the field of adult education we chose to examine one journal, *Adult Education Quarterly*, because “this journal is committed to the dissemination of research and theory in adult and continuing education” (AEQ, 2003) and is widely accepted as the top journal in the field. We decided to use CRT as a lens to examine work on diversity and equity issues because (a) adult education continues to maintain and support the dominant white Western-European culture and serves as a

weapon for social control rather than for empowerment and emancipation of individuals (Cunningham, 1988); (b) racism continues to negatively affect the lives of people of color no matter what their socioeconomic status (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001); and (c) CRT “has promise as a means of creating a richer dialogue regarding culturally relevant adult education” (Peterson, 1999, p. 84).

Critical Race Theory

Critical Race Theory emerged in the late 1970s as an outgrowth of Critical Legal Studies (CLS), a leftist legal movement, which questioned, analyzed, and exposed the traditional legal ideology, which has legitimized America’s class division and the hegemony of oppressive structures in American society (Ladson-Billings, 1999). However, CLS failed to include racism in its critique of the liberal paradigms prevalent in American society (West, 1995). Critical race theorists question “the very foundations of the liberal order, including equality theory, legal reasoning, Enlightenment rationalism, and neutral principles of constitutional law (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001, p. 3) and propose radical, sweeping changes to fight racism and social injustice.

Although a variety of intellectual traditions and disciplines (CLS, radical feminism, Marxism, conventional civil rights thought, and nationalism) inform CRT, there is not a single set of tenets to which all critical race theorists subscribe. There are six “propositions” (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001) most of them can agree with. First, racism is an ordinary, permanent and persistent component of American life, culture, and social order, “the common, everyday experience of most people of color” (Delgado and Stefancic, 2001, p. 7). Second, the effect of interest convergence does not motivate the white elite to end racism because the upper classes benefit from racism materially and working class people benefit from it physically. Third, race is a socially constructed category based solely on the physical traits that people with a common origin share, ignoring higher-order traits, such as intelligence, personality, and moral conduct. Fourth, differential racialization exists to racialize and stereotype different minority groups at different times to satisfy changing economic interests. Fifth is the notion of intersectionality and anti-essentialism, positing that no person has a unitary identity. On the contrary, “everyone has potentially conflicting, overlapping identities, loyalties, and allegiances” (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001, p. 9). Sixth is the unique voice of color or racial stories, a product of experience and imagination, which are an indispensable part of the identity of people of color, and which whites do not share. Communicating these stories is “a first step to understanding the complexities of racism, and beginning a process of judicial redress” (Ladson-Billings, 1999, p.16). These propositions are not new to adult education but rarely are they joined as a coherent theory of oppression.

Method

First, we established a list of descriptors, which represent areas important to CRT propositions and tenets. These descriptors were race, racism, ethnicity, culture, diversity, multiculturalism, gender, women, feminist, power, privilege, oppression, and equity. Definitions of the descriptors were set. A total of 185 articles in 48 issues of AEQ were hand-searched. Thirty-seven articles contained our descriptors in their title or abstract: *power* (10) *gender/feminist/women* (21), *culture* (5), *privilege* (1), and *oppression* (1). For the descriptors *race, racism, ethnicity, diversity, and equity*, no articles were found.

Boyatzis’ (1998) approach to interpreting qualitative data through thematic analysis and code development was used. We used the deductive, theory-driven approach beginning with a

preexisting theory, CRT, and used four tenets discussed by Gloria Ladson-Billings (1999) as themes. The first tenet maintains that racism is ordinary and pervasive and “appears normal and natural to people in this society” (Ladson-Billings, 1999, p. 264). The second tenet employs storytelling to analyze the myths, presuppositions, and received wisdoms that make up the dominant view of race. It is also a way of infusing the voice and experience of subordinate groups into academic discourse to explain shared notions of race, racial experience, and marginalization. The third tenet of CRT demands radical, systemic change. The fourth tenet argues that the primary beneficiaries of civil rights legislation have been whites, specifically, white women. The coding categories were derived from the four tenets.

Article Critique

Five themes emerged from examining the literature. First, systems of oppression affect the lives of people who are on the other side of the racial divide due to race, gender, class, and color (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 1996; Joyappa & Martin; Rocco & West, 1998; Sparks, 1998; Tisdell, 1993). Second, when diverse socioeconomic and ethnic populations are excluded from research, generalizations about the dominant class are incorrectly projected onto marginalized groups. The experiences of all adults are measured against whiteness as the norm (Aiken, Cervero, Johnson-Bailey, 2001; Hayes & Smith, 1994; Inglis, 1997). Third, adult educators should create learning environments where people understand that reality is socially constructed in a society of unequal power relationships based on race, class, gender, and sexual orientation (Brown, Cervero, & Johnson-Bailey, 2000; Tisdell, 1993). Fourth, story telling is a powerful tool for understanding the experiences and realities of women (Kilgore, 2001; Stalker, 2001). Fifth, the rejection of the race-neutral multicultural perspective positions minorities as deficient. The new trend is toward culturally relevant adult education in which adult educators examine the cultural identities of themselves and their students, allowing racial and ethnic minorities to challenge the dominant culture and to understand the values of their own cultures (Guy, 1999; Jacobson, 1996; Sparks, 1998). Although the tenets of CRT are present in adult education, they are not explicitly tied together as a theory of structural and organizational oppression and racism. The following paragraphs will discuss the issues of power and program planning; women and learning; and culture and learning that intersect the five themes.

Power and Program Planning

Program planning is a social activity in which people construct and negotiate programs based on personal, social, and organizational interests in contexts inherently embedded in social and power structures (Yang, Cervero, & Valentine, 1998). “Little is known about how program planners exercise their power in program planning practice” (Yang et al., 1998, p. 227), but the group who possesses more power and influence directs the planning process to satisfy their interests thereby neglecting the interests of the less powerful. Program planning legitimizes injustice, inequality and perpetuates the status quo. Since adult education’s primary goal is to democratize society by making power negotiable, understanding the guiding forces of power relationships by employing a CRT lens is essential to challenging and resetting structures of power and bringing about political progress and social change.

Women and Learning

Articles on women and gender were the most prevalent in *AEQ*. Authors examined women’s historic invisibility regardless of race and ethnicity (Hayes & Smith, 1994; Howell, Carter, & Schied, 2002; Kilgore, 2001; Stalker, 2001). Research and publications about women have positioned them as marginalized, as deficient, and as coping with their new social roles

(Hayes & Smith, 1994). The adult education classroom is perceived as neutral territory, where the educator serves a generic audience, ignoring the historical weight of race, gender, class, and color as factors that influence women's learning and educational initiatives. (Johnson-Bailey, 2002). Privilege is granted to those who come close to the Caucasian norm of skin color, hair type, and facial features. Therefore, race, gender, class, and color are systems of oppression that pierce the lives of Black women (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 1996) because they embody all the negative societal identifiers of privileged groups: they are black and are women. Their experiences, background, and intellectual capacities are devalued and neglected. To protect themselves and resist the systems of oppression, they use strategies of silence, negotiation, and resistance. Thus, the primary discouraging factors with which Black women struggle as adult learners are grounded in societal norms driven by race, gender, and class hierarchies.

The effects of culture, identity, race, and social class on the career development of ethnic minorities has also been ignored. Little is known about what contributes to the successful career progression of Black women as adult educators and what strategies they use to stay on the cutting edge. The stories which Black educators share reveal that a Black female teacher "can never enter the classroom unmarked by her social position in society" (Brown et al., 2000, p. 286). Black women, disadvantaged by their race, gender, and marginalized experience are challenged to prove their credibility in a society where the credible are males, especially white males. Alfred's (2001) study on five successful black tenured female faculty in a predominantly white research university demonstrated that these women knew and met the expectations of the academic culture and possessed a "fluid" White and Black life structure, which helped them to successfully navigate among different socio-cultural groups. Acknowledging Black women's shared experiences about the socio-cultural, socio-political, and socio-economic factors they face as learners or as educators can offer new direction toward inclusive and emancipatory adult education theory and practice.

Culture and Learning

Social structures impact adult learning, educational needs, and participation in educational programs. The extent to which race, ethnicity, and class intersect with structural and cultural constraints determines the extent to which marginalized individuals are able to engage in successful learning activities and to be treated fairly in the society (Sparks, 1998). In the early 1930s, through cultural pluralism, Alain Locke envisioned an American culture inclusive of ethnic European immigrants and the American Negro (Guy, 1996) and adult education for Black people that was based on practical, cultural, and racial interests. He realized that cultural identity and self-knowledge were essential to the progress of the Negro race in America. Racism and segregation, however positioned their needs as different, especially in terms of adult education. Locke's proposal was not supported by the white philanthropy, which were and still are incapable of seeing that culture is inseparable from the context in which it occurs- that it is embedded in everyday life. Few realized and advocated the idea that capable Black people should be given the opportunity for higher education. Today, biased and misguided beliefs continue to oppress, dominate and limit access to resources for particular groups. Black people often turn to the church as a place of spiritual worship and as a refuge from oppression (Isaak, Guy, & Valentine, 2001). They are forced to seek learning and nurturing environments away from the larger social framework because hegemonic institutions are limiting and threatening to their educational development. Examining these issues through the CRT lens uncovers elements of racism and power in the American fabric and gives insight into the cultural and social terrain where marginalized groups engage in survival behavior.

Implications

Liberalism has raised the dilemma between its stated goal of racial equality and its reluctance to confront white privilege (Taylor, 2000). “Adopting and adapting CRT as a framework for educational equity means that [adult educators] will have to expose racism in [adult] education and propose radical solutions for addressing it” (Ladson-Billings, 1998, p. 27). Crenshaw suggests “the development of a distinct political strategy informed by the actual conditions of Black people” (1988, p. 1387). Crenshaw (1988) contends that liberal ideology has visionary ideals that should be developed because more often than not triumph comes not from insurgency but from resistance and perseverance. To do so, race, racism and the historic and social context in which they operate should always be at the center of the debate. Adult education may lay the foundations for the achievement of educational equity by questioning its own assumptions and privileges, by critically examining the racial context in which it functions, and by resisting stereotyping and profiling within its realm.

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Comparative Analysis of State and Non-State Higher Educational Institutions in Terms of their Adaptation to New Societal Conditions in Post-Soviet Russia

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Abstract: The present paper investigates post-Soviet non-state and state higher educational institutions in terms of students' perceptions of school curriculum, quality of teaching, available educational resources and overall organization in their higher educational institutions.

When a country changes its mode of government, political paradigms, social institutions and relations, education and training may not only underlie the impact of economic, political and social reforms, but also act as important vectors of these reforms. Thus, in the Post-Soviet transition period, the search for the optimal ways for the development of educational system has acquired one of the most acute meanings in the Russian Federation. In addition, after the collapse of the Soviet Union, real opportunities arose to identify issues, conduct research, and initiate critical analyses and creative discussions.

Educational policy in Russia in transition has been extensively studied in recent years by both domestic governmental agencies and such international organizations as UNESCO, World Bank, OECD, and the Council of Europe. It has also become a favorite topic of analysis for a number of independent research projects from Central and Eastern European and Western countries, which have provided outside and inside views on various problems under study. Within the analyses of educational reforms, considerable research has been devoted to the emergence and dynamics of market forces in the Russian education, but little attention has been paid to the development of the non-state sector in education, which emerged as a result of the socio-economic and political transformation of the society.

At the same time, the transformation of the state educational system will be slower and less efficacious if this system will not have to compete with the newly emerging system of non-state education. Today, one can point out concrete examples which prove that well-functioning non-state higher educational institutions (HEIs) have a positive influence upon the nearby state schools. It seems that non-state HEIs can introduce an element of competition into higher education as a whole, indispensable for the development and functioning of any system.

Nevertheless, an exhaustive search of the relevant literature has revealed some problems associated with past attempts to research non-state sector in education in Russia. First, the results of the Western studies (Bialecki, 1996; Gisetski, 1999; Halsey, Lauder & Brown, 1997) cannot be fully applied to the practice of the Russian education. Second, most previous Russian research as presented in some journals are characterized either by a general description of the phenomenon (Kinelev, 1995; Sadovnich, 2000), or limited to a single case study (Krukhmaleva, 1999; Popov, 1999; Smirnov, 1998). Third, most past studies in the field of non-state education have mainly concentrated on the non-state secondary education, while the importance of the study of non-state sector in higher education has been surprisingly underestimated. In particular, Zernov and Barkhatova (1999), Grichshenkova (1994), Krukhmaleva (1999), and Nikiforova (2000) investigated the problems of non-state higher education, but a review of their publications reveals that they have been limited to the problems of necessity for this type of education, its structure, licensing and accreditation, and financing problems. Little is known about the non-

state HEIs' efficiency in terms of adaptation and innovations. Moreover, a comparison of state and non-state institutions of higher education regarding response to the changing society has been disregarded as well.

Purpose

Therefore, the purpose of the present research is to investigate and compare non-state and state HEIs in terms of their adaptation to new societal conditions. The guiding hypothesis is that the newly established non-state HEIs can better contribute to solving problems of higher education in Russia than the traditional state HEIs since the non-state sector in higher education possesses qualities that allow it flexibility to deal with the challenges of the current times and the demands of the future. The following research tasks have been included in the current paper: (a) to examine students' perceptions of their HEI's curriculum, (b) to reveal their attitudes of the quality of teaching, (c) to analyze the availability of the educational resources, and (d) to explore respondents' evaluation of overall organization for both types of higher educational institutions.

Definition

Before discussing the term "non-state higher educational institution," it is worth mentioning that the author finds this term inappropriate since it does not cover the whole content and depth of the phenomenon. In fact, it may even be a false term, as the non-state sector in education solves the state's tasks in specialist training, providing working positions and some others. In the literature, such terms as "non-governmental," "private," and "non-budget" exist. Nevertheless, in the present work, the author has agreed not to contradict this term, since this very term is used in all official Russian documents and governmental decisions as a whole, and the names of the HEIs under study in particular.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the project was provided by the concept of HEI as a change agent. Education is understood as an open system dialectically connected with the multi-faceted life of the society (Bialecki, 1996; Halsey, Lauder & Brown, 1997; Scott, 2000). Any social institution emerges, develops, functions and changes under the influence of societal conditions. Consequently, the system of higher education transforms in accordance with societal demands, and the structural elements of the system are also determined by the influence of society. Thus, in accordance with the given concept, both traditional and newly established non-state HEIs were examined within new economic, political and socio-cultural contexts of present-day Russia. Specifically, the research argues that when in the 1990s Russia shifted away from the authoritarian, highly centralized and fully state supported system towards the relatively democratic and decentralized system that increasingly relies on the market sources of revenue, it has caused new conditions for the transformations within the system of higher education.

Method

To compare non-state and state HEIs in terms of their adaptation to new societal conditions, questionnaires were distributed and administrated among the students in three state and three non-state HEIs of different ranking (elite, selective and non-selective) located in two cities of Russia, in a capital and a province. Each purposive sample of participants was chosen

from daytime students in their fourth and fifth year of studies* who were considered more familiar with an overall organization of their institutions, and the sample constituted 45 students. All the participants were specializing in social sciences: sociology, political science, social work and psychology. The collected demographic information showed that the student populations of both types of HEIs were generally middle class and engineering and technical intelligentsia regardless of the ranking of an institution they study in. In addition, the demographic information revealed that there was no significant difference in an average age of the students from state and non-state HEIs, which were 22.5 and 23.5, respectively.

Since the author personally explained the questionnaire instructions for the respondents, distributed and collected them during their classes, 262 of 270 students followed the directions and returned the feedback forms, thus making a 97% response rate. Yet due to time constraints, the samples did not include respondents specializing in other disciplines and from other cities. Therefore, any findings or conclusions made in this paper should be regarded as preliminary ones, and this research should be supplemented by a larger and more representative sample.

The first section of the current questionnaire asked for demographic information, namely, name and type of a HEI, age of a respondent and his/her social background. The second section included four basic research tasks focusing on students' perception of school curriculum, quality of teaching, available educational resources and overall organization in their HEIs. Additional analysis was performed regarding students' factors influencing their choice of HEI. Checklists, scaled (Likert) items followed by free responses were used for the research.

Research Findings

An analysis revealed differences between the institutions of higher education under study regarding students' perceptions in the following areas: (a) school curriculum, (b) quality of teaching, (c) available educational resources, and (d) overall organization of the institution.

School Curriculum

The collected data indicated that 65% of the respondents from non-state HEIs agreed on their institution's flexibility and dynamics of reacting to the market changes, while 43% of the state HEIs' students were uncertain about this. In particular, when asked about variety of specializations and number of optional courses offered by their HEIs, 38% of the participated students from non-state and 24% of those from the state HEIs agreed on it. 22% of the participants from non-state HEIs compared to 16% from state ones strongly agreed that in their institution the curriculum could be adapted to meet students' needs. Also, up to 10% of students from both types of institutions disagreed that the curriculum was up to date in their departments.

Giving brief explanations to the statements describing the curriculum of their institutions, most respondents reported that the structural reorganization of higher education corresponded to the new labor market requirements: more specialists were trained in market economy, law, social studies and humanities. The answers of the students from state HEIs showed that their departments of sociology, political science and psychology were opened not long ago, and students from non-state universities demonstrated that their institutions were newly established and were originally oriented towards filling gaps in training areas previously left vacant for ideological reasons and not needed in a planned economy. Comparatively more participants from non-state HEIs commented on a quick reaction of their institutions to the changes in society in

* Note: In Russia there is a 5-year unified system of higher education leading to getting a Diploma that is usually equivalent to a Western Master's degree.

opening majors of interest for the youth; the same number of positive responses came from the students studying in an elite state university.

Quality of Teaching

Perception of quality of students' training is quite contradictory, and it varies greatly from school to school, depending on the respondent and ranking of the HEI. In general, more respondents from both types of HEIs circled the quality of teaching as "good" compared to the percentage of those who marked it "fair." However, even in elite and selective universities, there were 8% of the respondents who rated the quality of teaching in their institutions as "poor," and only 5% of the surveyed students from an elite state HEI indicated it was "very good." Asked why they felt as they did concerning this issue, the participants who were quite satisfied with their training mentioned that their instructors tried to provide up-to-date information on different issues, use innovative approaches and interactive teaching methods, and initiate analyses and discussions. In contrast, some unsatisfied respondents argued that their instructors lacked sufficient knowledge of the subjects taught, were unfamiliar with modern concepts, and were obviously unprepared for their classes. Some students stressed that their instructors still used the same teaching methods they might have applied twenty years ago.

In addition, more students from the non-state HEIs stated that their institutions were more aimed at dialogue with students compared to the traditional authoritarian way still preserved in some state institutions of higher education. These respondents also mentioned that in their institutions, there existed a system of teacher evaluation at the end of the course as well as a competitive selection of the teaching staff, with priority given to the professionalism of a teacher regardless of his/her age and state awards. The participants of the research reported that in their newly established departments, some instructors tried to realize their creative potential by employing new, original and experimental programs and interdisciplinary approaches more often.

Available Educational Resources

Regarding the educational resources available in their institutions of higher education, the research revealed that they were not sufficient for both types of universities. In fact, more students from all types of non-state HEIs and an elite state HEI confirmed that they had some material and technical support for their studies. Particularly, 54% of non-state vs. 38% of state HEI respondents commented on their access to modern textbooks and relevant literature at their institutions. It was also found that more students enrolled in non-state HEIs were provided with handouts for their classes compared to the students from state ones; at the same time, many more students from non-state institutions complained that they had to use other libraries to be prepared for their general courses. Only students from elite non-state and state HEIs stressed that they had free Internet access at their universities. Nevertheless, in the case of a state HEI, the respondents commented that they had to subscribe to Internet access at least five days in advance, and their access was strictly limited by one hour due to an insufficient number of the available computers. Only respondents from elite HEIs confirmed their access to such educational resources as classroom computers and TV and VCRs. All students agreed that they had access to photocopy machines at their HEIs, but added that they were unable to make enough photocopies because of inflated prices.

Overall Organization of the Institution

Evaluation of overall organization of higher educational institutions revealed that most of the students were not satisfied with the way their institutions were managed. There was almost no significant difference in the answers of students from state and non-state institutions: none of

the participants marked the overall organization of their institutions as “very good,” 37% of state and 34% of non-state HEIs’ students considered it as “good,” 59 % of the respondents from state and 61% of those from non-state rated it as “fair,” 4% and 5% circled “poor” for state and non-state institutions correspondingly.

The research on students’ factors influencing their choice of HEI demonstrated that for 22% of the students currently enrolled in non-state HEIs, the basic factor influencing their choice were new specializations and the range of subjects offered by these institutions and the lack of them in local state ones. Simultaneously, 15% reported that they expected non-traditional course organization and equal partnership between staff and students; 5% confessed that they chose a non-state university since they did not want to take entrance examinations necessary to be admitted to the state ones. Furthermore, the paradoxical finding is that despite some advantages to the non-state HEIs discussed above, 68% of students from non-state HEIs indicated they entered this type of institution because they had not been admitted to the state HEIs.

Additionally, when answering the question whether it was prestigious to study at their higher educational institution, 65% of the participants from the state HEIs and only 8% from non-state ones, including those from an elite one, answered positively. Moreover, when all the students, from both state and non-state HEIs, were asked what educational institution they would choose if they had enough money, 61% answered that they would choose a state HEI, 12% a non-state one, 11% had no preferences, and 10% indicated that it was difficult to answer.

Educational Implications and Summary

In conclusion, it can be stated that systemic changes in Russia in the 1990s caused new conditions within education. Many investigators have recently turned to the consequences of commercialization and other market-oriented forces in the system of higher education in the country. This paper has also shed some light on the HEIs’ response to the changing society, and whether the non-state sector in higher education responded to the challenge more positively compared to the traditional institutions of higher education.

The demographic data has shown that the students’ populations of non-state and state HEIs do not differ significantly: most of the students are of the same age, and originate from the similar social backgrounds. Then, the collected data has confirmed a research question that more respondents from non-state HEIs compared to those from the state ones agreed on their institution’s flexibility and dynamics of reacting to the market changes by giving examples on a variety of specializations and number of optional courses. Further, in students’ opinion, the quality of teaching is still an issue of concern for both types of HEIs. However, some respondents considered that it was easier for the instructors to realize their creative potential and employ new and non-traditional content into the educational process in non-state HEIs that sometimes was impossible within the rigid traditional state system of education. Most of the participants of the research showed their dissatisfaction with the technical provisions of the educational process, although some of them stated that, simultaneously with poor quality general libraries, non-state HEIs were more successful in providing students with modern literature and class handouts in the areas of their specialization. Last, despite some recent successes described above, most of the respondents perceive overall organization of their institutions as fair, regardless of its type and ranking; this negative perception of the organization of HEIs should give strong signals to their administration.

Hence, the preliminary hypothesis that the newly established non-state sector in higher education might be flexible in dealing with the challenges of the current times has been partially

confirmed. Nevertheless, the results of additional research on students' factors influencing their choice of a HEI showed that, in spite of some advantages to the non-state HEIs, almost an absolute majority of the students currently enrolled in this type of institutions entered them because they had not been admitted to the state ones; most of the respondents also expressed their desire to study at a state HEI. This finding suggests that probably more time is required for the development of non-state sector in the system of education in Russia and formation of a corresponding public opinion.

The present research was considered as a starting point for further discussion that might contribute to improvement of the educational process in Russia. Possible areas for further research might include new social and pedagogical functions performed by non-state HEIs, the role of non-state HEIs in reforming the system of education in Post-Soviet Russia, and collaboration and cooperation of state and non-state HEIs. In summary, it is noteworthy that diversification of educational systems along with their mutual enrichment and collaboration are a step towards the development and improvement of society in the period of transition.

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Severe Heat Cramps in a High School Football Player: A Case Report

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Abstract: We present a case study of an adolescent football player who suffered from severe full body muscle cramping after supplementing with creatine for two months. A paucity of data exists regarding the safety of creatine supplementation and its side effects on dehydration, body fluid/electrolyte balance, and other heat illnesses.

Fluid replacement and the prevention of heat illness in American football players have been current topics in the athletic training literature. Incidences of fatal collapses or heat illnesses in athletes have caused a growing concern in athletic trainers and other medical professionals about the safety of ergogenic aids and other over the counter supplements. Although skeletal muscle cramps are not always associated with dehydration or heat illness (Schwellnus, 1999), those incurred during or after exercise are usually caused by excessive water and electrolyte loss during exercise (Anderson, Hall, & Martin, 2000). Other predisposing factors to heat cramps include sodium depletion in the normal diet, use of diuretics or laxatives, and a lack of acclimatization (Anderson et al., 2000). However, recent trends in the use of creatine supplementation as an ergogenic aid have led to studies on the possible relationship between creatine supplements and dehydration or heat cramps (Armsey & Green, 1997; Bailes, Cantu, & Day, 2002; Juhn, 1999; Juhn, O’Kane, & Vinci, 1999; Terjung, Clarkson, & Eichner, 2000). The purpose of this study is to present the case of an adolescent male who had been supplementing with creatine when he suffered from severe heat cramps after a spring football practice.

Background and Case Report

Our clinical case report involved a 16-year-old football player who suffered severe full body muscle cramps following a spring football practice at a high school in South Florida. The primary investigator was the certified athletic trainer employed by the school district to provide medical coverage for the high school athletic teams. The athlete in question had practiced for three hours in full football equipment (helmet and full pads) on a warm sunny day (average temperature 78.8 °C, range 71.9 – 85.7 °C, National Weather Service, Miami WSCMO Airport, FL) between the hours of 3:00 and 6:00 p.m. The athlete began to feel extremely weak at the end of practice, he removed his helmet and shoulder pads, and as he entered the locker room, he began experiencing a painful muscle cramp in his low back. The painful muscle cramps continued throughout the athlete’s mid and low back muscles and spread to his bilateral quadriceps, hamstrings, and gastrocnemius muscles. His teammates attempted to passively stretch the cramped muscles and began to rehydrate him with water. The certified athletic trainer was called into the locker room, where she found the athlete in excruciating pain and unable to move. The athletic trainer then attempted to alleviate the heat cramps with stretching. After several minutes, the athlete was carried into the athletic training room where he was placed in a full body whirlpool with ice water. The certified athletic trainer and several student athletic trainers gently massaged the athlete’s muscles and continued to attempt to stretch the cramped muscles to no avail. The athlete was also given an electrolyte drink by mouth. After approximately 5-10 minutes in the whirlpool, the athlete was removed from the whirlpool and

transferred to a treatment table in the athletic training room, where he was wrapped in a blanket to prevent hypothermia. At this time, the emergency medical system was activated and the athlete's parent was contacted. After about 30 minutes, while still in the athletic training room, the heat cramps eventually began to subside. By the time the paramedics arrived, the athlete's condition had markedly improved and the athlete was sent home with his parent. Although he was not transported to the hospital, the paramedics instructed the parent to monitor the athlete and to continue to orally rehydrate him throughout the night.

Methods

The participant involved in this case study was a 16 year old high school student-athlete who suffered from severe full body muscle cramps while under the medical care of a certified athletic trainer, the primary investigator. A signed medical information release and informed consent form was obtained from the participant and his parent in accordance with Florida International University Institutional Review Board policies. The participant's medical records were obtained from the athletic training room files and personal accounts of the incident were recorded. All information was synthesized and integrated into the case report. Relevant literature was reviewed and incorporated when appropriate.

Results

A thorough medical history revealed that our athlete had no previous health problems or occurrences of heat related illnesses. The athlete reported that he had rehydrated sufficiently with water throughout the football practice that day, but he admitted he had not properly hydrated throughout the day. He also stated he had been ingesting oral creatine supplements in the amount of a 1000 mg dose twice daily for approximately two months.

Discussion

Creatine is a nitrogenous amino acid derivative found naturally in skeletal muscle, heart muscle, brain, and other organs (Juhn, et al., 1999). Creatine is also abundantly found in meat and fish (Anderson et al., 2000; Baechle & Earle, 2000; Bailes et al., 2002; Juhn, 1999; Juhn et al., 1999; Eichner, 1997). At various levels of athletic participation, creatine is being used by many athletes as an ergogenic aid for increasing athletic performance in the form of increased energy, muscle mass, and muscle power (Armsey & Green, 1997; Bailes et al., 2002; Juhn, 1999; Terjung et al., 2000; Eichner, 1997). Creatine intake may increase creatine levels of blood, creatine transport in cells, and the amount of creatine phosphate levels in skeletal muscle by 5-10% (Baechle & Earle, 2000; Benzi & Ceci, 2001). Theoretically, oral creatine supplementation would then increase energy substrate availability (Baechle & Earle, 2000). Thus, the presence of creatine phosphate in skeletal muscle would lead to an accelerated rate of adenosine triphosphate synthesis (Baechle & Earle, 2000; Benzi & Ceci, 2001; Rosenbloom, 2000) which is critical at the start of any high intensity exercise (Baechle & Earle, 2000), such as an explosive lift or a sprint.

The average American diet contains approximately 1 g of creatine a day and if this amount is not obtained through diet, it is synthesized by the body (Baechle & Earle, 2000; Terjung et al., 2000). Several studies have shown improved athletic performance with the recommended creatine dose of a loading phase of 20 g/day for 5 days, followed by a maintenance dose of 2 – 5 g/day (Baechle & Earle, 2000; Eichner, 1997; Juhn, 1999; Juhn et al., 1999; Rosenbloom, 2000). A slower, alternative dose of 3 g/day without the loading phase was

shown to have the same 20% increase in skeletal muscle creatine levels as the rapid loading dose (Eichner, 1997). However, in a survey of 39 of 52 National Collegiate Athletics' Association baseball and football players reported exceeding the manufacturers' recommended dosage (Juhn et al., 1999). In this study, 52 male collegiate athletes supplementing with creatine were surveyed to determine overall satisfaction with creatine supplementation. Most of the athletes surveyed were ingesting 6 – 8 g/day, while others ingested a range of 9 – 20 g/day for maintenance. Research has shown, however, that not all individuals retain creatine in skeletal muscle after creatine ingestion and often do not benefit from the supplementation because creatine levels are already at optimum levels (Baechel & Earle, 2000).

Despite the growing number of studies on creatine supplementation, many questions remain unanswered in terms of the supplement's ergogenic effects and possible adverse side effects. One main concern in relation to our current case report is whether the creatine supplementation may have caused or exacerbated the severe heat cramps suffered by the high school athlete. Several studies (Bailes et al., 2002; Benzi & Ceci, 2001; Juhn, 1999) have shown that weight gain associated with creatine supplementation is a result of water retention. A study by Ziegenfuss, Lowery, & Lemon (1998) revealed that only 3 days of creatine supplementation may result in an osmotic increase of fluid into the intracellular compartment, therefore increasing total body weight and intracellular fluid volume. Water retention may cause a fluid imbalance which may be linked to impaired thermoregulation in athletes who engage in strenuous exercise in hot environments (Bailes et al., 2002; Terjung et al., 2000), such as our athlete. Although there are different causes for heat cramps, many anecdotal incidents of muscle cramps in athletes supplementing with creatine have been reported in the medical literature (Anderson et al., 2000; Bailes et al., 2002; Juhn, 1999; Juhn et al., 1999; Terjung et al.). Whether or not our football player suffered heat cramps because of the creatine supplementation cannot be completely elucidated. However, in our case, the athlete did not have a history of muscle cramping or dehydration until he began the creatine supplementation. The athlete stopped ingesting the supplements after this incident and has not had recurrences of heat cramps since. Other contributing factors for this athlete may have included a diet low in sodium, insufficient fluid intake, excessive fluid loss, electrolyte imbalance, and premature muscle fatigue (Schwellnus, 1999; Anderson et al., 2000).

Conclusions and Implications

It is imperative that the athletic trainer, strength and conditioning specialist, or any other professional involved in consulting athletes remains up-to-date on the latest information regarding nutritional supplements and their effects. Claims that creatine supplementation is both safe and effective are unwarranted given the fact that there is no published long-term safety data (Rosenbloom, 2000). More information is needed on the effects of creatine supplementation on dehydration, heat cramps, and other heat illnesses. Furthermore, other possible negative side effects of creatine need to be investigated. It is crucial that everyone involved with athletes and their health be aware of the potential detrimental effects of nutritional supplements and ergogenic aids. Therefore, we recommend that athletes, coaches, and athletic trainers are educated about the potential danger of ergogenic aids and that sufficient data be provided regarding the efficacy or side effects of these supplements. Fortunately, our athlete recovered fully with no long-term effects; however, prevention is paramount. Proper hydration, fluid replacement, protocols limiting strenuous exercise in hot weather, proper conditioning, proper

nutrition, and education on the use of dietary supplements are the keys to preventing heat illnesses and other preventable catastrophic heat incidents in athletics.

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Employee Orientation: An Organizational and Experiential Learning Approach

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Abstract: Employee orientation problems for a resort chain were studied and addressed through action research. The implemented solution leveraged experiential learning to foster employee initiative and problem solving to instill a culture of learning, improve customer satisfaction and increase employee retention. Business results were achieved but learner/ management reaction was mixed.

“Most of our service businesses don’t serve very well” (Senge, 1990, p. 332).

The typical multi-location service company of today faces challenges of engendering a culture of service and of continuous learning to meet the needs of an increasingly demanding clientele. Front line employees turn over the fastest and yet are the critical group for delivering on customer expectations. Typically, employees with the least training and shortest tenure in a service enterprise have the most customer contact. As any customer who has suffered at a hotel reception or a fast food counter can attest, the attitude and level of initiative shown by the front line team of that enterprise can make or break one’s experience there.

To meet customer expectations, a modern service enterprise faces the dual challenges of instilling a spirit of initiative and customer orientation in their newest frontline employees *immediately* after hire, and in bonding the employee to the organization so that they remain on the job. This represents an education and training opportunity as well as an organizational learning challenge. The purpose of this paper is to introduce a practical solution to such typical organizational problems through the application of individual and organizational learning theory.

The Problem

In 1999, a major worldwide resort company decided to address ongoing resort employee turnover and low retention in its ten North American locations. This company staffs its resorts with an international population of front line employees, attempting to match the ratio of languages and cultures of the guests. These employees work a six-month contract, fall to spring, or spring to fall, with renewal options. The employees live onsite and range from 20 to 50 years in age.

From 1996-1999, over 40% of their contracted resort employees quit or were dismissed before the end of their semi-annual contracts, equaling an ongoing 81% annual turnover rate. (Club Med Management Services, 2003a). The cost of replacing these employees in mid-contract (hiring cost + transportation cost + training cost) totaled over one million dollars annually. Aside from such documented “hard” costs, this high turnover had an additional significant but unmeasured impact on productivity and guest satisfaction. Measured in mail-in client exit surveys over the same 1996-1999 period, guest ratings of employee service in the 10 resorts averaged at 30% “very good to excellent,” 50% “good to average,” and 20% “fair to poor” (Club Med Management Services, 2003b).

Although expensive employee turnover and unsatisfactory guest satisfaction rates were the principal problems brought to human resources by resort operations, there was also general dissatisfaction expressed by the resort managers themselves concerning the slow pace of

acclimation and general lack of initiative shown on the job by the new employees. The problem, as presented to this author, the director of training and development, was to design a low-cost employee orientation program that encouraged retention, employee initiative to resolve guest issues, and integration into the resort workplace culture.

Employee Integration Training as Practiced by the Organization

As is common throughout the service industry, the existing orientation and integration process in this organization in 1999 was static and passive, using an adult-child educational model. Designated managers, generally from the onsite personnel office, held long briefings for newly arrived employees. These lessons, accompanied by detailed handouts on workplace policies, emphasized the passing of large quantities of verbal information to new employees and along with some intellectual skills, such as concrete and defined concepts (Gagne & Medsker, 1996). No opportunity, beyond question and answer time, was given for the new employees to demonstrate mastery of the concepts or procedures that had been explained to them. Arriving employees who had worked previously for the organization were typically excused from these sessions. After two such "integration classes," employees were then considered "trained" and ready to work.

Pre-Intervention Data Collection

I conducted a 1999 telephone exit interviews of 30 former resort employees with the assistance of a human resource department intern. The intent was to explore what contribution the orientation process had in their resignation. A homogenous sample of participants was selected from eight resorts, the common denominator being that they had all resigned while in their first employment contract. They were asked why they left and what they thought the organization should work on to keep new employees on the job.

After themes in the data were detected, I individually interviewed four resort managers and four resort personnel managers to confirm or disconfirm the validity of exit interview information. Finally, I conducted a group-interview of the same four resort managers, three regional operations managers, and four clients. They were queried on which essential qualities seemed to separate successful frontline service employees from the others.

Pre-Intervention Data

Only 11 of the 30 former employees cited the integration process as a contributing factor to their decisions to resign. Other reasons for leaving included homesickness, workload, conflict with supervisor, disappointment with the resort worker lifestyle, and inadequate information on the job environment or expectations. However, fully 28 of the 30 cited the integration process as something that the organization should address if it was to do a better job of keeping employee on the job. Themes in the recommendations were (a) stretching the integration period to several weeks, (b) introducing new employees to each departmental manager, (c) having a designated mentor for new employees, (d) giving new employees a feedback mechanism to evaluate their welcome period, and (e) focusing on the integration of experienced employees transferring in from other properties. Two former employees reminded me that the workforce is multilingual and that integration should be facilitated in the native language of the learners.

The resort and personnel managers interviewed validated four of the five employee recommendations to reinforce the orientation process, but all eight expressed concern at the feasibility of (a) stretching the integration period to two weeks. The management/client group

identified individual initiative and the ability to solve problems as the top qualities in the best new employees. A manager made the comment that “it is impossible to explain everything to a new employee. There isn’t time for that, and in any case, it is impossible to foresee every situation.” Another manager suggested that there is “too much coddling and handholding of new employees.” A manager lamented that when debriefing a new employee on a service breakdown, the most common remark heard was “nobody ever told me that I needed to or could do that...” A guest elaborated: “I want to encounter employees who see what needs to be done and do it, without seeking permission or waiting for instructions.”

The profile of an effective program began to emerge. To meet the needs of the employees and of the organization, it would have to be flexible to accommodate a busy multi-scheduled workplace, to have a feedback mechanism, to be deliverable in multiple languages, and to be personalized. In terms of outcomes, it was decided to focus on problem solving and initiative, rather than on rules and procedures. Above all, it should be sustainable, week-in and week-out, in each resort, whether there were one or twenty new employee arrivals.

Theoretical Framework for a Solution

In reviewing organizational and experiential learning literature, links between the needs of the clients, the organization and the employees became apparent. What had begun as an employee turnover complaint soon evolved into an opportunity to address the organization’s culture itself at the entry-level, an opportunity to move towards organizational learning. In discussing organizational culture, Schein (1997) stresses the importance of “internal integration” (p. 71) and the connective link between such integration of new members and organizational learning. He stresses that a learning organization must emphasize the need for members to be “proactive problem solvers” (p. 364). Pfeffer (1999) suggests that there is a link between employee retention /motivation and the creation of a workplace culture that empowers employees.

Similarly, the guru of organizational learning, Senge (1990), in his five-discipline model, recommends that an organization begin with emphasis on the first discipline of “personal mastery,” ongoing individual learning. To link individual learning to organizational learning, he proposes second and third disciplines, “mental models” and “shared vision,” through which an organization commits at a cultural level to common values of empowerment and ongoing learning (pp.10-11). As shown above, researchers agree there is link between employee retention, cultural integration, employee initiative to solve problems, and the building of a learning organization.

The question was how to leverage this into an effective employee integration program. Dewey (1929) and Kolb (1984) emphasize that learning is experiential in nature. As humans, we learn through doing. DiBella and Nevis (1998) and Kim (1993) expand on Kolb’s individual experiential learning model to propose that organizations also learn experientially through the collective experiential learning of the members. Bridging the gap between learning and business, Pfeffer (2000) similarly argues that the first step towards organizational learning is to create a culture of action in which individuals are encouraged to move out of passivity into interaction and experimentation.

Our organization’s orientation program, to be effective, would have to be experiential in nature, unlike most hospitality-industry orientation efforts. Sitting employees in the classroom, as was company practice, to explain what was expected of them would not cultivate the intended attitudes and problem solving skills, at an individual or organizational level.

The project was ready to enter the instructional design phase to create an experiential learning program that encouraged two varieties of learned capabilities: *problem solving* and employee initiative (*attitudes*). Per Gagne (1996), the external conditions for learning to solve problems include practice and encouragement. The conditions for attitude learning should include role models and positive reinforcement. Furthermore, for all learned capabilities, there should be a sense of fun and discovery in the learning process.

Intervention Design

I decided to scrap the “passive” adult-child orientation model in favor of an active adult-adult guided-learning experience model. Rather than giving them the information, new employees would be required to move immediately into action to find out what they needed to know. The program had two key elements: A learner workbook and a designated integration mentor to act as role model and to accompany the learner through the initial weeks on the job.

The Integration Workbook

New employees were given workbook-format questions to research in their first days in the workplace. A timetable was agreed upon with the regional management team on by when all integration activities were to be completed. New employees performed a sort of “scavenger hunt” across the resort to find the answers. The workbook questions were divided into sections: in the resort, who’s who, your need, the local culture, your role, the concept, guest expectations, the employee team. The questions were formulated as activities. Examples included locating the public restrooms, getting laundry done, calling home, meeting departmental managers, and interviewing resort guests on customer service preferences.

The integration workbook included a wrap-up and feedback section, in which the employee was asked to rate his/her first week’s experience: the welcome, the trip there, their room, their feelings about the experience, as well the degree of helpfulness of the mentor and their manager. The workbook concluded with an interview protocol section to guide an end of integration debriefing meeting with the employee’s manager and with the resort manager.

The Integration Mentor

At each resort, an integration mentor was selected. The role of the integration mentor was to coach learners and positively reinforce the guided discovery learning process throughout the duration of the employee’s contracted stay, even after the “official” orientation process was over. The resort managers chose by the integration mentors using a company-wide profile, which emphasized communication and project management skills. For the mentors, this was an additional duty beyond their regular resort functions. The mentors were trained on the use of the workbooks, on coaching skills, on typical new-employee challenges, and on project management.

Post-Intervention Results

Business Outcomes

The new program was implemented in the Fall of 1999. The business results have been positive. Seasonal employee turnover fell from 40% in 1999 to 21% in 2000, saving over \$500,000 in annual employee replacement-costs. In 2001, the seasonal turnover rate dropped again from 21% to 15%, which represented an \$800,000 savings over 1999. Employee turnover held steady in 2002 at 14% per season (Club Med Management Services, 2003a).

The consistency of implementation of the new program as well as the level of management support varied greatly from resort to resort, especially in year one. It was interesting to note that

there appears to be a positive relationship between management support for this program and the level of employee turnover at that resort. This has yet to be statistically explored and confirmed.

Guest Satisfaction

Guest ratings of employee service in 2000 across the 10 resorts improved from an average of 30% “very good to excellent,” 50% “good to average,” and 20% “fair to poor,” to 35% “very good to excellent,” 60% “good to average,” and 15% “fair to poor.” In 2001, the results were better again: 43% “very good to excellent,” 47% “good to average,” and 10% “fair to poor.” The 2002 results were almost identical to 2001 (Club Med Management Services, 2003b). No strong relationship can yet be documented per resort between guest satisfaction ratings and the level of management support for the employee integration program.

Learner Feedback

The reactions of employees who have gone through this program are mixed and have not been thoroughly explored. Based on a review of the feedback and manager interview sections of over 200 completed integration workbooks and on solicited feedback from integration mentors, the following themes were observed: Employees appreciate the welcome and the focus on their needs when they arrive. The value of having a designated integration mentor is a common theme. One on one meetings with the departmental and resort manager also seem to be appreciated. On the other hand, not all learners appreciated the experiential methods, especially the year the program was launched. Many learners expressed a preference for the adult-child passive learning model. The level of learner complaints in this regard subsided in the program’s second and third year.

Management Feedback

The resort managers fall into two categories: those that embraced the program and those who found it to be too much work to implement and maintain. The former group found the program to be effective and appreciated that it set the tone for new employees to take initiative for their own learning immediately upon arrival. “I never hear ‘nobody told me anymore’ from my employees,” commented one manager. The non-supportive group was uncomfortable with the program, and conducted it grudgingly at their properties. Typically, at these properties, the workbooks are done as an exercise in compliance two to three weeks after the employee arrives. A typical comment of one of these managers is that completing workbooks is “childish” and a waste of time.

Observations

(a) The program was successful enough that regional management requested the creation in 2001 of a second level workbook for transferring employees to complete. (b) Resorts that had a significant volume of new employees or a large number of local employees needed multiple integration mentors. One mentor seems to be able to effectively assist up to 8 new employees per month. There are now anywhere from one to three mentors at each location. (c) The integration mentor role seems to be very appealing, even though there are no benefits. In 2003, 50% of the integration mentors in the resorts had joined the program as mentors at its inception in 2000. (d) The integration mentor position seems to be a good developing ground for future management. Ten mentors have become departmental managers over the past three years and three others have become resort managers. This may be an early indicator of organizational change towards a learning organization. (e) Careful attention should be paid in training the mentors to respect the experiential instructional strategy. Over-teaching is an easy trap for the well-meaning mentor or manager to fall into, and it robs integration of its experiential value, to the learner and organization.

Conclusions

The program has been sustained for over three years and the organization is happy with the results. The basic model of taking care of employees so that they will take care of the clients seems to play out well here. There has been change resistance at several properties, primarily from old school managers. This appears to be subsiding as the program enters its fourth year and as these managers are slowly replaced.

There is room for further exploration of the relationship between customer satisfaction levels and local management support for employee integration. It will also be interesting to study the effects of this program over the next few years on this organization's culture: can movement towards a learning organization be observed and linked to this program? Finally, it would now be particularly instructive to observe whether this program could get equivalent results in another organization.

Implications for Human Resources and Adult Education

An orientation program such as this is cost-effective, portable, and adaptable to many situations. Abandoning traditional "adult-child" styled orientation programs in favor of problem solving and guided discovery holds potential for any organization that expects high levels of initiative from entry-level employees. For educators, this program demonstrates the under-leveraged power that learning theory holds for providing simple solutions to costly business problems.

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Non-Contact Femoral Fracture in a Collegiate Football Player

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Abstract: We present a unique athletic injury witnessed by the primary investigator who was compelled to convey the details of the incident to other Certified Athletic Trainers. This case is presented to increase awareness and ensure proper recognition, evaluation, and treatment of this potentially life-threatening injury.

Femoral fractures are usually caused by tremendous forces as a result of direct contact. The femur is one of the largest and most dense bones in the body and requires a great amount of force to overcome the mechanical strength of the bone and cause breakage or fracture. Accidents that may cause a femur fracture usually involve falling from a height, high-speed collisions in sports such as skiing or snowmobiling, or car accidents (DePalma, 1970).

Various types of femur fractures encompass simple, spiral, comminuted, transverse, closed, open, pathological and stress fractures (Shultz, 1972). These fracture types can be further classified into femoral neck, intertrochanteric, subtrochanteric, supracondylar, and femoral shaft fracture categories (Derian, 1970). A review of the current medical literature revealed that the types of femoral pathology observed in sports can range from avulsion fractures involving anterior cruciate ligament injury, femoral neck stress fracture, stress fracture from excessive exercise, and fractures associated with decreased bone density (Clement, Ammann, & Taunton, 2002; Manketelow, Haddad, & Goddard, 2000). Gender specific fractures occurring in athletics include stress fractures in female athletes associated with nutritional factors and epiphyseal fractures typically observed in males ages 12 to 15 (Anderson, Hall, & Martin, 2000). The purpose of this case study is to report an unusual instance of a non-contact displaced transverse mid-shaft femoral fracture witnessed by the primary investigator during a football practice session.

Background and Case Presentation

The athlete (AG, to protect anonymity) was an 18 year-old male American football linebacker (height = 183 cm, weight = 89.4 kg) with no personal or family medical history of cancerous tumors or other bone disorders. The injury was witnessed by the athletic training staff early in the practice season of a new National Collegiate Athletic Association Division IAA football program. During examination, AG reported that after receiving and running the football, his foot established contact with the ground but became trapped under a fallen cornerback. AG attempted to free his foot from under his fallen teammate, and as he twisted his leg, he heard a loud snap. Athletic trainers on the sideline also heard the snap, which resembled a sound of a gunshot or a blown electrical transformer. Minimal contact was involved with this injury, inconsistent with the typical mechanisms of injury (Surgical Notes, 2001)

As the certified athletic trainer and student intern approached the patient on the field, he was lying on his left side. During the initial assessment, obvious visual deformity and swelling were evident at the fracture site. No evidence of discoloration, impaired circulation, or diminished sensation was observed at this time. The displaced bone fragments appeared to protrude posterior-laterally without breaking the skin. AG remained on the field for

approximately 15 minutes; during this time he appeared to become calmer and was likely experiencing symptoms of psychogenic shock. The athlete confirmed that he felt tingling in his entire body and was uncertain about the specifics of his injury. Appropriate medical personnel (emergency medical services) were immediately contacted following University protocol. The emergency medical technicians arrived on the scene and re-evaluated the athlete's vital signs. The injury was immobilized using a traction splint and the athlete transported by ambulance to the nearest medical facility (Surgical Notes, 2001)

Two anterior-posterior and lateral views of diagnostic radiographs revealed a displaced transverse fracture through the mid-shaft of the right femur (Figures 1 and 2). Overriding with foreshortening of the femoral length and posterior displacement of the distal femur were disclosed from the radiograph. The pre-operative diagnosis was therefore a transverse displaced femur fracture, right femur. The operating physicians performed the pre-operative evaluations, and all neurovascular examinations were normal. The operation physician discussed the risks and benefits of surgery with AG and his family. Once AG was admitted to the hospital, his leg was placed in traction and appropriate pain medication was administered (Surgical Notes, 2001).

Methods

The participant involved in this case study was a National Collegiate Athletic Association Division IAA student-athlete who was injured while participating in a University sanctioned athletic practice. A signed medical information release and informed consent form was obtained from the participant in accordance with Florida International University Institutional Review Board policies. The participant's medical records were obtained and the information was synthesized and reported. Radiographic, magnetic resonance imaging, and computer aided tomography studies were collected and critically analyzed. Histology and oncology reports were reviewed and surgical notes were examined and summarized. Relevant literature was reviewed and incorporated when appropriate.

Results

Surgical Repair of the Femoral Fracture

Intramedullary nailing of the right femur was performed with a Synthes® 440 x 11 mm nail and static locking screws (Surgical Notes, 2001). General anesthesia was administered and all bony prominences were padded. The right lower extremity was placed in a traction boot and a C-arm fluoroscopy assisted closed reduction was performed using longitudinal traction and adduction. An incision was made from the tip of the greater trochanter extending approximately 6 cm proximally and a dissection was carried deep to the gluteus maximus fascia. The drill site was identified, a guide pin was placed in the fossa, and a guide wire was drilled into the proximal femur using a large 12mm drill bit. With the fracture maintained in position, a guide wire was passed across the fracture site and verified fluoroscopically in the anterior-posterior and lateral planes.

The fracture site was maintained while internal fixation was performed. A 12mm nail was obtained, a guide wire was measured to a 440mm nail, and an exchange tube was placed in the medullary canal. The guide wire was removed and replaced by smooth tip guide wire. Ten cm into the femoral shaft, a Synthes® 440 x 11mm nail was placed over the guide wire in the intramedullary canal and mounted in position extending distal to the fracture site. The nail was inserted without difficulty and was noted to be in excellent position with the fracture in anatomic reduction. A drill was utilized to insert static locking screws at the proximal end of the femur and

the nail was impacted to facilitate better stabilization of the treatment site. Distal locking was performed using a free hand technique. This technique is usually completed when locking the two transverse distal holes in the universal tibial and femoral nails (Browner & Edwards, 1987). During intramedullary reaming a tissue specimen from the intramedullary canal was reserved for histological and oncological analysis (Surgical Notes, 2001).

Surgical Risks and Potential Complications

Surgical procedures have an inherent risk primarily associated with the administration of general anesthesia. The extent of this particular injury created a great deal of concern associated with potential complications of the surgical procedure, such as excessive bleeding, infection, hematoma, neurovascular injury, chronic pain, stiffness, loss of range of motion, additional surgery, nonunion, malunion, migration of the pin, improper selection of the pin, and splitting of femur at time of surgery (Browner & Edwards, 1987; Derian, 1970). Fortunately, AG did not encounter any of the above mentioned complications and the surgery was considered a success. The post-operative diagnosis was concluded as a transverse displaced fracture, right femur (Surgical Notes, 2001).

Rehabilitation Program and Return to Play Decision

The primary goals for phase one of a rehabilitation program for a femur fracture are reestablishing pain-free range of motion, reducing or preventing muscle atrophy, regaining joint movement, and decreasing pain. While hospitalized, AG initiated his rehabilitation program on post-operative day 3. Ambulation was facilitated by using a walker and progressing to crutches. Quadriceps muscle group atrophy was reduced by performing isometric quadriceps sets and straight leg raises. During bed rest, continuous passive motion was utilized to maintain and increase range of motion. The athlete was discharged on post-operative day 7 and he continued his rehabilitation program at the university athletic training room (Surgical Notes, 2001).

Rehabilitative activities were continued and the goals of phase two focused on regaining and improving muscular strength and attempting weight bearing. The atrophied quadriceps muscles were re-educated using neuromuscular electrical stimulation modalities. Therapeutic exercises included wall slides, leg lifts in flexion and extension, knee extensions, and active assisted hip abduction. A stationary bike with gradual seat progression was utilized to increase range of motion (Prentice & Voight, 2001).

The goals of phase three were to regain balance and neuromuscular control and to implement functional activities leading to the return athletic activity. To achieve these goals, proprioceptive neuromuscular facilitation (co-contraction) exercises were incorporated into the rehabilitation program. Muscles strengthening continued and progressive weight bearing activities were performed as the athlete completed intervals of walking and then jogging during practice sessions. In the final phase of rehabilitation, sport-specific and functional progressive activities were implemented and AG gradually increased his level of confidence. The athlete successfully completed his rehabilitation program and returned to full athletic activity within 6 months (Dugowson, Drinkwater & Clark, 1991; Prentice & Voight, 2001; Surgical Notes, 2001).

Discussion

Non-contact femoral fractures have been increasingly occurring in athletic populations (Mbubaegbu & Percy, 1994), perhaps due to the increasing numbers of physically active individuals and sport participants. Athletic trainers and other allied health care professionals must understand that femur fractures are significant injuries that are usually the result of tremendous forces that overcome the mechanical strength of bone. Our case of a displaced

transverse mid-shaft femur fracture in a collegiate football player is unique in that it deviates from the normal mechanism of injury.

The strength of the femur is determined by the composition of bone tissue. Bone mass is a major determinant of bone strength and bone tissue is composed of a biphasic composite material, mineral as one phase and collagen with ground substance as the other. The combination of these two composite materials makes bone stronger for its weight than either substance by itself, and this feature is what gives bone tissue its density (Wheless, 1996). In our case, it is difficult to comprehend the relationship between the magnitude of the injury and the biomechanical forces required to overcome the strength of a normal femur.

The etiology of injuries in the femoral shaft fracture category and the transverse fracture type typically involves either direct contact or the presence of torsion, neither of which were present in our case. However, this fracture type is also usually accompanied by shock, pain, and angulation, all of which were present in our case. Blood loss may be up to 3000 cc and anterior-posterior and lateral radiological views are used to confirm the diagnosis (Derian, 1970). Incidence of this type of fracture is reported to be about 40% of all femur fractures (Browner & Edwards, 1987). Transverse fractures are often located in the shaft of the bone and this type of fracture includes short spiral fractures, what is referred to as the reverse fracture in the Evan's classifications, and many pathological fractures. These fractures reveal a varus deformity because of the pull of the iliopsoas muscle still attached to the lesser trochanter, not present in our case (Browner & Edwards, 1987). The prognosis of this injury is to return full activity in 4 to 6 months (Derian, 1970).

Because minimal physical contact was involved in this injury, other biomechanical factors must to be considered for better understanding of the pathomechanics of the injury. Bone loading is the amount and type of force applied to a bone and can be affected by a number of forces that cause breakage or fractures. Tension, compression, torsion, and shear forces are all stresses that act on the three axes of bone. When equal and opposite external distracting loads are placed on a joint, a pull is created and tension forces arise. External crushing loads equally applied on opposite surfaces of a structure produce compression, shortening, and widening on the structure resulting in compressive stress or strain. Torsion occurs when a load is placed on a structure creating twisting about an axis and producing torque forces within the structure. Shear stresses occur when equal but not directly opposite loads are applied to opposing surfaces or structures. Tension force usually produces a transverse fracture, torsion force produces a spiral fracture, and the combination of tension and compression creates bending (Wheless, 1996).

An analysis of the mechanism of injury makes our case even more peculiar because the athlete's foot was planted as he attempted to free it from the fallen teammate. From this mechanism, one would conclude that a form of torsion (twisting) was placed upon the bone and should have produced a spiral fracture. However, this was not the case. The athlete suffered a transverse fracture which would be consistent with a form of tension that should have caused this injury. In addition, the ground surface used for football practice could have contributed to this injury. The practice field was natural grass and it was unevenly distributed; therefore the athlete's cleats could have become struck in the earth and added to the biomechanical stress placed on the femur.

Further, the distinctive nature of this injury leads us to scrutinize the nutritional status of the athlete. The tissue specimen reserved during surgery was analyzed to rule out possible pathological bone disorders, particularly in the absence of radiographic evidence. All pathological tests were negative (Surgical Notes, 2001). However, the athlete's medical file does

not disclose any nutritional assessment or bone density test. AG acknowledged that his eating habits prior to the injury were poor and infrequent and that he was physically unfit. Relationships between nonalcoholic carbonated beverage consumption and bone fractures have been reported in the medical literature (Wyshak et al., 1989). However, AG stated that he has refrained from drinking carbonated beverages since he was in middle school and his normal daily beverage consumption included water, juice, and milk. Therefore, it seems unlikely that nutritional concerns contributed to the injury.

The surgical technique performed, intramedullary nailing, is one of the greatest advances of this century in the treatment of fractures. This technique has been developed over the past 40 years. Prior to the use of metal nails, intramedullary fixation was sporadic. The first instance was reported by the Conquistadores in the 16th century. Kuntscher, a forefather of intramedullary nailing, recognized the great advantages of this method for the repair of femoral fractures. The benefits of intramedullary nailing, particularly by the closed method, are to provide superior bone stability with limited soft tissue exposure and dissection. Soft tissue envelopes around the fracture and the extraosseous blood supply to the bone are preserved. Soft tissue preservation enhances revascularization of the injured bone, promotes periosteal callus formation, and decreases the risk of infection and non-union. Absence of concomitant musculotendinous damage improves the potential for early joint and muscle rehabilitation. Reamed intramedullary nailing is preferred because it provides better stability due to the increased contact between the rod and the medullary canal. Since larger rods are often used, the rods are generally stronger and less likely to fatigue the fracture. Non-reamed nails are usually quicker and simpler to use, but this smaller apparatus provides less fixation. Once stabilized with an intramedullary nail or rod, femoral fractures are more likely to heal completely and rehabilitation is facilitated (Browner & Edwards, 1987).

Conclusions

A femoral fracture is a medical emergency that provides a challenge for allied health care professionals requiring accurate and early recognition and appropriate on-the-field care. Athletic trainers should be aware that an injury of this extent can result from biomechanical factors alone and does not require direct contact or extreme forces. Exercising clinical knowledge and utilizing appropriate skills may reduce the risk of a life threatening situation, especially where the typical mechanism of injury deviates from the norm, as in our case.

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Figure 1. Anterior-Posterior radiograph of right femur mid-shaft fracture.

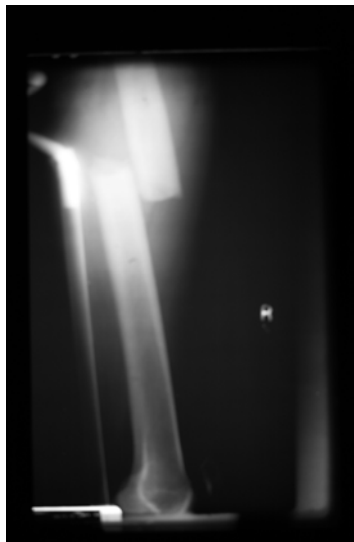
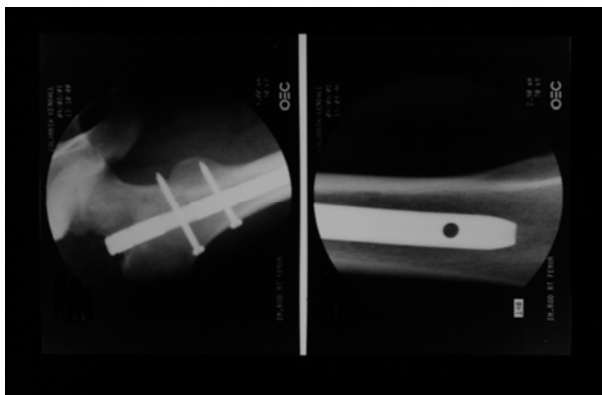


Figure 2. Proximal static locking screws with intramedullary nail.



Illustrating Cognitive Connections between Math and Language in Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions of Common or Everyday Terms

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Abstract: This paper introduces a new construct that we term Math Mediated Language (MML) focusing on the notion that common or everyday terms with mathematical meanings are important building blocks for students' mathematical reasoning. A survey given to 96 pre-service early childhood educators indicated clear patterns of perceptions of these terms.

The notion of meaningful mathematical communication assumes that teachers are sensitive to the words that meaningfully link symbols and operations to the child's broader experience and growing academic knowledge (Pimm, 1987). Without the cultivation of a shared sensitivity to the notion that words embody mathematical concepts, students and teachers can be left with mathematical knowledge that is highly compartmentalized and limited in its utility to convey mathematical concepts. Further, students could be faced with the perplexing situation of understanding why the same word has mathematical meaning in one context but then loses that meaning in another. For example, in working a fraction problem a teacher may use the term equal to refer to identical quantities but at snack time that same teacher may use the term equal to imply that everyone gets the amount they want, which may vary on factors other than quantity and not provide a truly equal distribution. Worse, teachers may not be sensitive to the underlying mathematical meanings of words and may inadvertently neglect or actually restrict the range of mathematical vocabulary that is accepted in their classrooms to rudimentary operation terms. This limits the types of mathematical and linguistic communication that can provide depth to both domains. Therefore, we feel strongly that the types of mathematical understandings that teachers possess of common words are crucial yet undocumented components of the ways mathematical understandings are facilitated or undermined. This study looks at the extent to which pre-service teachers associate the common or everyday terms that students use with the domain of mathematics. We feel that these common words often provide the elemental components for much of children's mathematical communication, and that teachers should be sensitive to the implications that common terms have for mathematical discourse and reasoning. In this paper we document the extent to which pre-service elementary and early childhood educators perceive these terms as being associated with the domain of mathematics.

Mathematics Across the Curriculum

Teachers' sensitivity to young children's mathematical language has been identified as a key component in the development of mathematical reasoning (Munn, 1998). However previous types of research have tended to be focused on the language that students use during explicit math lessons. We feel that this approach, while it has contributed a wealth of information about children's mathematical communication, may be too limiting in the sense that this type of inquiry does not look at the range of experiences that students are likely to receive with mathematical language. Mathematical terms and concepts do not only arise in the confines of

curricula that are designed to explicitly emphasize mathematics, but rather are experienced implicitly throughout many parts of the elementary and early childhood curricula. Therefore instead of identifying specific lessons as mathematical or not mathematical we take the approach of investigating the teacher knowledge that is foundational to the proper facilitation of many different types of activities. This research looks at pre-service teachers' sensitivities to mathematical properties in common words that might be used in a number of different school lessons or activities.

Math Mediated Language

This research lays the groundwork for construct that is termed math mediated language. The essential notion of this construct is that the co-construction of knowledge that takes place in mathematics instruction between teacher and student relies on the often subtle cognitive connections that are drawn between common words and mathematical concepts. While there certainly can be non-verbal aspects to mathematical reasoning, the vast majority of communication and demonstration of understanding of mathematics comes through its connections to language. Small changes in word choice often have sweeping effects on the underlying conceptual situation that is presented in a problem. For example, although linguistically similar, asking a child to perform the computation three divided into 12 is very different conceptually from asking for three divided by 12. Hence the ways that problems are presented, the subsequent feedback that learners receive on their problem solving, the types of problem solving schemata that are induced are theorized to be a function of the language that is used to define them. This need not be a mysterious connection between the two bodies of knowledge. Both linguistic and mathematical forms share important commonalities that are essential to cognitive reasoning (Lakoff & Nunez, 2000). Therefore the central concept of this construct is that mathematical thinking develops in consort with language such that the two are combined to produce cognitive links that are necessary for advancing meaningful understanding of both domains.

However, to be able to facilitate these cognitive connections between common language and mathematics, prospective teachers need to be sensitive to the mathematical meanings that underlie common terms so that they are able to facilitate this connection in their students' reasoning. Further this need does not vanish at the close of a mathematics lesson or activity but must be present whenever students come across mathematical concepts embedded within other bodies of knowledge. For this facilitation to take place teachers must first possess the sensitivity to mathematical meanings that are part of human communication. However little is known about how teachers perceive common words with mathematical connotations. We feel that the potential for prospective teachers to influence children's mathematical thinking is too great to leave this component of teacher knowledge unexplored. This research therefore looks to bring data to this understudied phenomenon by documenting the patterns that prospective teachers display in their sensitivity to the mathematical meanings of common words. Our hypothesis is that respondents with more training in mathematics and language will be able to perceive more of the mathematical meanings that are embedded in these common words. In keeping with this notion we further we expect that more basic mathematical terms and their synonyms will be more readily seen as mathematical than more advanced ones and their synonyms, as this requires fewer skill in both domains.

Method

Participants

A sample of 81 female and 15 male pre-service early childhood teachers enrolled at a large urban research university agreed to participate in this study. Students were pooled from five sections of a foundations course in educational psychology to produce a total of 96 respondents to the survey, 50% of which were between 21-25 years of age representing the most common age group for the profession. Of the total pool of respondents 79% identified their primary language as English and 21% as Spanish. Over 50% of the sample indicated that they planned to pursue a masters or doctorate as their terminal degree. This sample was chosen because it represented a typical range of pre-service early childhood teachers. These teachers were typically in their junior year of university study and had recently passed a standardized test of general knowledge required by the state for entry into the program. Most had recently taken both general math and English courses required to fulfill their general education requirements for the college of education. In general this group had a relatively high level of education compared with the population in general, and recent experience in the two subjects thought to be important for doing well on the tasks.

Materials

Each of the participants was given a Scantron sheet and a questionnaire developed by the authors, called the Mathematical and Verbal Educational Research Inventory Questionnaire (M.A.V.E.R.I.Q). The MAVERIQ included fifty terms, five synonyms for each of ten categories (see Appendix). The measure was developed for the specific purpose of assessing teachers' perceptions of mathematical meanings in common terms and was comprised of ten categories, seven of which included synonyms for each of the four primary operations (addition, subtraction, division, multiplication), and three relational terms (equal, less than, and more than). The remaining three categories were distracters that were included to insure that respondents made considered evaluations of each term and did not answer blindly. These distracters contained synonyms for emotion words such as happy, sad, and angry. This yields a total of 20 words expressing operations, 15 words expressing quantity relations, and 15 distracter words representing emotions (see Table 1). The survey asked, "How much do you associate the following terms with math?" and instructed participants to respond by marking a Likert scale in which 1=Very Strongly, 2=Strongly, 3=Somewhat and 4=Not at all, for each of the 50 presented terms. All of the words were randomly ordered on the page to minimize the possibility of order bias. Respondents were also asked to fill out a 12 question background survey in which they were asked about the types of courses they have taken, their age, gender and their educational plans. The MAVERIQ was developed to try to understand how pre-service teachers think verbally about basic mathematical operations and their synonyms. It is loosely modeled on the student belief questionnaire used by Schommer, Crouse, & Rhodes (1992). The use of synonyms was thought to be a reasonable way of assessing teachers' thinking about an operation across linguistic domains. Operation and relations terms were chosen as the units of analysis because they represented a best guess at what constituted useful mathematical knowledge for teaching young children.

Procedure

Each of the participants in this study was given a questionnaire and a Scantron sheet to mark their responses. A minimum of instructions were provided to the participants to reduce the chance that the researchers would influence respondents' perceptions of the listed terms on the MAVERIQ. As a result respondents were simply instructed to indicate the level to which they

associated the common terms with mathematics by marking the four point likert scale for each term on their Scantron sheet. In addition, each respondent was also asked to fill out the 12 question background survey on the same Scantron sheet. Each participant was given twenty minutes to complete the entire task.

Results/Discussion

Overall the ability to perceive mathematical meanings in all of the mathematical synonyms was significantly correlated with the number of college level language arts classes taken (.169 $p < .05$) and the number of college level mathematics classes taken (.179 $p < .05$) by the participants. This suggests that students with more training or an increased aptitude for language arts skills and mathematics were more sensitive to meanings that were embodied in these synonyms.

Further, analysis of the questionnaire data has indicated that respondents were significantly more likely to perceive some groups of words as being more mathematical than others. Synonyms for additive terms ($M=8.37$, $SD=3.19$) such as “add” and “subtract” were perceived as significantly more linked to mathematics, $t(94) = 25.87$ $p < .05$ than synonyms for multiplicative ($M=9.69$, $SD=3.35$) terms such as “multiply” and “divide.” This suggests that pre-service teachers are more likely to see mathematical connections in words related to the more basic additive mathematical operations than more multiplicative complex ones. Overall, participants also perceived operation synonyms as more mathematical than synonyms for relational words $t(94) = 28.02$ $p < .05$ such as “equals.” An analysis using multidimensional scaling techniques was used to document how the words were related in terms of their mathematical meanings to the respondents (see figure 1). This establishes a psychological continuum of terms that are seen to have more or less mathematical meaning to them. At the left are the four operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication, division) showing a tight relationship indicating a close psychological proximity. However with other terms such as “of” they tend to be seen as divorced from the multiplicative operation that it represents in text based problems. While many of these terms may be used in lessons given by these prospective teachers, it is clear that there are different perceptions of these terms that are at times highly dispersed from the respondents other mathematical knowledge.

While the limitations of this study do not indicate what type of instruction these respondents will provide to their students, it argues that the mathematical and linguistic knowledge that the respondents possess is often compartmentalized. If this is the case then it is difficult to expect these respondents to help their students become aware of the important cognitive connections that math and language share.

Conclusion

The knowledge that teachers bring to the classroom is an important part of the knowledge scaffolding process that takes place throughout the school day. We feel that it is crucial that teachers see mathematical meanings in the words that they use across different contexts. Our data indicate that teachers have distinctly different perceptions of common terms and the levels of embedded mathematical meaning that they convey. The implications of this are wide ranging in that they provide possible reasons for the differential successes and struggles of teachers using identical curricula, and teaching similar students. Additionally they suggest a rationale for why mathematical discourse might be more difficult and less effective for more complicated concepts as those mathematical concepts are less likely to be linked to common terms in the teachers mind

and subsequently receive less grounding in their students' activities. Teachers with more training or inherent expertise in the domains of math and language may overcome these challenges more frequently to provide effective scaffolding to their students that is significantly different from those that possess less training. This resonates with our results on a preliminary level such that we can theorize that if a teacher's classroom discourse were to be based around linking these terms to mathematical concepts, then that would at minimum suggest that the teacher possesses a grasp of much of the important connections between the two domains. Logically this would suggest a wider range of options for teachers facilitating classroom dialog that would support both domains and facilitate a more diverse range of student cognitions. However, more research is needed to establish the process by which common words in the classroom are used by teachers and students.

Further research in this area can look to document the types of classroom discourse that takes place in high and low performing classroom and also in culturally diverse educational settings. We feel that each of these areas hold promise for illustrating the roles that common words play in cognizing the mathematical domain and we are currently planning and conducting this type of research. Our results also provide a lens on teacher's classroom practices that can encourage them to revisit many of their assumptions about mathematics as a domain. This is important for two reasons as it provides a way that teachers can re-examine their content knowledge with a more pragmatic focus, and that it takes into account children's cognition in their reasoning about classroom content. Therefore this research suggests that important differences exist in the ways that mathematical meanings of common terms are perceived by prospective teachers and that the backgrounds and that they bring into the classroom are significant predictors of these perceptions. It is hoped that that this research will provide greater insight into the ways that teachers link these two domains and the benefits and challenges that can become available to their students as a result.

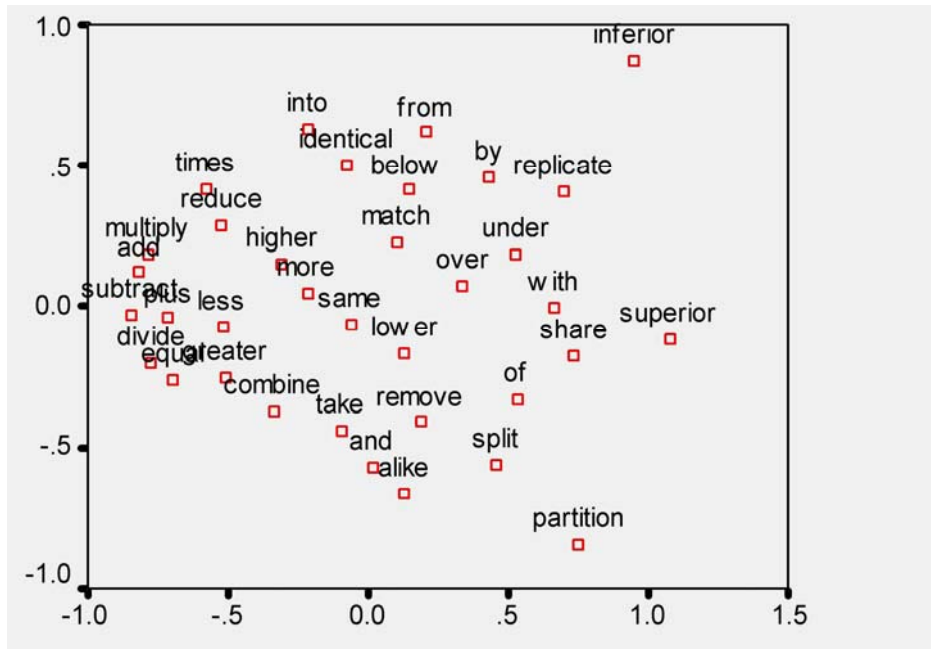
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Table 1. Mathematical Terms and Distracters

add	subtract	multiply	divide	less	more	equal	happy	sad	angry
combine	take	times	into	below	greater	same	glad	depressed	mad
and	from	by	split	inferior	superior	identical	satisfied	down	irate
plus	remove	of	partition	lower	higher	alike	content	melancholy	furios
with	reduce	replicate	share	under	over	match	elated	blue	incensed

Figure 1: Results from multidimensional scaling analysis of pre-service teachers' perceptions of operation terms and their synonyms.



High Stakes and No Takers: The Impact of Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) Writing on Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of Writing

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Abstract: This ethnographic case study of ten students and their teachers concludes that the state writing test had a negative impact on students' and teachers' perceptions of writing in four categories: strengths and weaknesses in student writing, self-assessment of writing skills, factors impacting test scores, and motivation and attitudes toward writing.

The current wave of national reform initiatives and drive for accountability has resulted in state- or district-level testing standards. In many states, high stakes or consequences hold teachers, schools and districts accountable for meeting the standards, and assessments to test these standards cover reading, writing, and mathematics. In Florida, this assessment, the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT), is used to test elementary and secondary school students and to evaluate individual schools. Although the reading and writing portions of the FCAT are widely seen as improvements over purely multiple-choice formats, the nature and format of writing tests remain highly problematic.

The current notion of assessment holds that formal tests can measure student achievement. A method more suitable to math or science evaluation reduces the multi-faceted dynamics inherent in written communication to a quantifiable score. Students must produce a multi-paragraph theme from a prompt for which there are no ownership opportunities or personal relevance--at cross purposes with the aims of education and successful language learning: involvement and immersion in meaningful reading and writing experiences (Apple & Bean, 1994).

This method is also at odds with current writing theory and pedagogy. Writing assessment is characterized as a technical activity with objective outcomes, contrary to the constructivist theory that shapes current writing practice (Lacoste, 1997). The timed, single-sample constraints of the test are incompatible with current writing theories that privilege process and context (Durst, 1990). Writing is ideally a "rich, multifaceted, meaning-making activity" occurring over time and involving socially constructed meaning (Camp, 1996, p. 135). Students are taught that writing is time-intensive, requiring drafting, planning, and editing/ revising. However, assessment time limits make this impossible, resulting in a safe, muted reply (Tepper & Costa, 1994). Writers assume a simplistic approach, working only with familiar experiences and ideas, sticking to writing formulas, and using only words they can spell correctly; they essentially revert to a default position and produce a "familiar, standardized, and voiceless product" (Albertson & Marwitz, 2001, p. 148). Good writing involves passion and risk (Romano, 1995), but both are minimized in testing conditions, as "students' risk of failure overrides any impulse for discovery that writing invites" (Albertson & Marwitz, 2001, p. 150). Any risk-taking for the sake of learning is viewed as a mistake (Emig, 1983). Thus, the process of inquiry or discovery becomes limited; completing the task overrides all other operational goals.

Further studies have connected current instructional practices and attitudes with state writing assessments. These writing tests have a negative influence on students' attitudes and motivation (Fine, 1998; Ketter & Pool, 2001; Lumley, 2000). Pedagogical methods are aligned

to what is tested, so “teaching to the test” is pervasive (Hillocks, 2002; Lumley, 2000; McNeil & Valenzuela, 2001). Teachers doubt the impact of the writing exam on students’ overall ability and question its relevance to students’ experiences (Ketter & Pool, 2001; Lumley, 2000). Tests not only drive schools’ writing curricula, but also influence what is valued in writing instruction and encouraged in student writing and thinking: “organized blether” (Hillocks, 2002, p. 80). Tests in three states teach students that supporting evidence doesn’t warrant further examination for consistency, impact or relevance, imposing a way of thinking that removes the necessity of critical thought (Hillocks, 2002). Many classroom hours are spent preparing for the writing test (McNeil & Valenzuela, 2001), leaving little time for critical literacy required in higher education and the workplace.

These tests are in many states politically driven evaluative tools, an indication of how little research has informed practice. Past research studies, however, lack inquiry into teachers’ perceptions of student writing skills, factors accounting for the negative influence of writing assessments, and the impact of the FCAT. To this end, this study focused specifically explored the following: (a) students’ and teachers’ perceptions of student writing skills, (b) students’ self-assessment of writing skills, (c) students’ and teachers’ perceptions of influences and factors accounting for FCAT writing scores, and (d) student perceptions of the FCAT’s influence on attitudes and motivation about writing.

Method

An ethnographic case study is designed to take into account the community at large and its cultural context (Merriam, 1988). This method was suitable for the present study to explore the social and cultural forces that shape perceptions of writing among ten students and their English teachers in two high schools, a community college, and a university. To establish balance and ethnic plurality, seven females and three males representing the four large ethnic groups in South Florida—African American, Haitian American, European American and Latino—participated. During one four-month term, data from samples of students’ writing, interviews, a focus group, field notes, classroom observations, and a “think-aloud” protocol were collected.

This research began as an investigation of students’ and teachers’ perceptions of writing, including writing philosophy and processes. The influence of the state writing test was an ancillary concern, the assumption being that students might dislike the test, but this dislike would not affect attitudes about writing in general. This assumption was proven incorrect during and after data collection. From the first interview and throughout subsequent observations of participants and their schools, conversations with most participants included some aspect of the test—their attitudes, experiences, and strategies—and the negativity that resulted from it.

Data analysis following Patton (2002) began with the unit of analysis, or multiple cases of ten students and their four teachers, and variations among them focused the analysis. Using explanation building (Yin, 1994), I interpreted each case and then took explanations that could be generalized to all individual cases to reach possible similarities or themes (Patton, 2002). Triangulation was met through cross-checking of previous assumptions against the data. Four themes emerged, and were divided into four or five categories for each theme. Discussed below are the first and most important theme, the impact of the FCAT on students’ and teachers’ perceptions of writing, and its four categories: (a) strengths and weaknesses in student writing, (b) self-assessment of writing skills, (c) influences and factors impacting test scores, and (d) motivation and attitudes toward writing.

Research Findings and Discussion

Florida's writing assessment test has a negative influence on students' perceptions of writing. Throughout their responses, students consistently refer to essay writing less as discovery and artistry and more as what I term "recital writing." Just as musicians rehearse the same score robotically and *ad nauseam* in training for a single recital, so too do students practice the same type of writing mindlessly and interminably in preparation for a timed test. Writing related to thinking, language development and fluency is supplanted (McNeil & Valenzuela, 2001). Students become skilled in working through the monotony of repetition by concentrating on the desired pay-off: a superior evaluation. If a perfect score is not attained, however, then attitudes, motivation, and self-efficacy are affected. Lost in all the time and effort is the valuing of the art—of music or of writing—that makes it all worthwhile.

Strengths and Weaknesses in Student Writing

Students and teachers perceive student writing strengths as creativity/ imagination and communicating ideas; students perceive their weakness was vocabulary and grammar, while teachers perceived students' weakness was grammar. Students generally had short lists for their strengths, either because they believed they had so little or because they set high standards and wanted to improve in multiple areas. For strengths, five of the ten students (50%) and two teachers (67%) cited creativity or imagination; students also cited communication, development of ideas, grammar, versatility, and "nothing." Thus, students are confident in their ability to write creatively or imaginatively and teachers cite this as a strength, but in later interviews, students do not report this as a value of writing in general or future classes or careers in particular. One student remarked that writing is not important to her overall academic success; English classes emphasize writing but generally, "writing is not a big thing." Importantly, only what is assessed on state tests is viewed as important or worthy of value. Also, students are learning to view writing in terms of their deficits; this is reinforced on the FCAT writing assessment, which does not test imagination or creativity.

Most students and teachers cite longer lists of weaknesses than strengths. Six (60%) mention an inadequate or faulty vocabulary or choice of words when writing; spelling and grammar are cited by two students (20%) and two teachers (67%). Other weaknesses include little time spent writing, not following the school's formula, slow reading, poor style, uninteresting writing, focus, support, voice, style, and revising skills. Because both vocabulary and grammar are considered in a holistic evaluation of the essay, participants internalize—even foreground—its importance in writing, spending a disproportionate amount of time attending to vocabulary and grammar while drafting and revising. This supports research that because grammar is found on most testing rubrics, writing instruction privileges grammar as well, even though teaching grammar exclusive of connection to writing has no impact on writing quality (Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, & Shoer, 1963; Hillocks, 1986). Two teachers who also feel that grammar is a student weakness both consider many other aspects of writing when determining students' grades. Thus, students are not basing their perception of their weaknesses entirely on these English teachers; other teachers, the state exam, or both are influencing this perception.

Self-Assessment of Writing Skills

Most student writers have not improved or remain unchanged in their self-assessment throughout their academic careers. Although common sense dictates that over time, students improve their writing skills and believe that they are stronger writers, this research study concluded that almost the opposite is true. Only three students (30%) believe they have improved their writing throughout their academic careers thus far—two high school students and

college student. The rest (70%) believe that they either have not changed or have actually become worse in writing. Most students cite being out of practice or lacking confidence in their current writing skills; the type of writing they were engaged in and the absence of pressure for state tests accounts for confidence during these early years. One student should bottle and sell his cure for what he sees as widespread student negativity and lack of confidence: “writing Viagra.” Research similarly supports the finding that students trace their dislike of writing to middle or high school, when rigidity and structure in five-paragraph essays replaced creative assignments of elementary school (Autrey, 1989). In this study, those with negative attitudes about the FCAT were more likely to feel less confident in their skills as writers; conversely, the three who believed they have improved as writers all had positive attitudes about the FCAT.

Influences and Factors Impacting Test Scores

Students perceive that strong essay writers practice, prepare, and use writing formulas and essay conventions, but teachers perceive that learning essay conventions and meeting evaluators’ expectations account for strong essay writing; both agree that teachers can impact writing test scores. All eight students who took the writing portion of the FCAT scored average (3.0 on a 0.0 to 6.0 scale) or above average. Without exception, these students cited practice, including writing essays similar to actual test essays, and preparation, including honing grammar skills, as positive factors that accounted for their high scores. These perceptions stand in sharp contrast to teachers’ perceptions. All three teachers (100%) agree that those who perform well on essay tests are not necessarily the strongest writers or the strongest thinkers; they have simply learned to master the conventions of the five-paragraph essay and to structure an essay to meet or exceed evaluators’ expectations. Though a high number of students (5 of 8) did cite following essay formulas or conventions as reasons for their scores, the fact that no teacher mentioned practice or preparation indicates that they believe consistent practice of five-paragraph essays is not so important. Thus, teachers believe the learning curve for essay writing—in following a structure or formula—is steep, not the time-intensive process that students believe it to be. Importantly, teachers suggest that the FCAT is less a measure of deeper, more ambiguous facets of writing such as strong ideas and creative or analytical thinking than it is of easily definable aspects such as essay structure.

The next highest factor accounting for high FCAT scores was the use of some form of writing formula or following essay conventions, cited by five (63%); other factors included level of seriousness, good style and word choice. A writing formula endorsed at one school helps students: they are given a “structure and all they had to do is fill in the blanks with the information.” FCAT practice at another school did not require much thinking, just “writing by the numbers.” Consistently, they cited time on task and hard work in their practice and preparation for the test in making a difference in their scores. This suggests a widespread belief that essay writing improves with time and experience; writing skill as measured in essays written for the state is a function of nurture, not nature.

Teachers believe that all of the factors—from writing context and race/ethnicity to socioeconomic class and peers—make up who students are, and who they are is reflected to some degree in their writing. Students, in contrast, focus on their teachers as their major influence: six students (75%) believe teachers positively impact scores the most, followed by peers, cited by three (38%); writing context, mentioned by two (25%); and schools, singled out by two (25%). For students, everyone is on a level playing field; everything else is of little consequence. Thus, students are not writing about who they are and where they are coming from; their writing is not saturated with experiences and understandings that reflect or reveal

anything about themselves other than the teacher who taught them. If writing is worthy or authentic, then it must come from the writer's lived experiences, not a contrived series of sentences assembled for the scrutiny of evaluators who are more concerned with how the writing is structured, developed and focused. But this is not necessarily students' fault; they have been trained to think this way about essays: writers' unique voices must be silent; their pages should be colorless. Is this what the state believes real writing is—cookie-cutter writing and fill-in-the-blank thinking?

Motivation and Attitudes Toward Writing

The FCAT writing assessment impacted the motivation and attitudes of some students toward writing. Students as well as teachers were divided in their responses as to whether the state writing test changed their motivation and attitudes. Becoming more motivated was cited by four (50%), having no change in motivation was cited by two (25%) and having less motivation was cited by two (25%). However, this change in motivation, either positive or negative, was short-term or fluctuated. Writing attitudes were affected by the exam: five students (63%) cited a positive change in attitude, but some also added that their attitudes were affected only short-term or became positive only about “real” writing. One student remarked, “My education really picked up after I got through the FCAT, writing-wise.” One high school promised incentives for good performance, but essentially undermined intrinsic motivation by tying achievement to extrinsic rewards; a teacher at this school remarked that the FCAT preparation and testing reinforce the notion that writing is “a skill needed to pass the [test], not a skill that will help them throughout life.” Another teacher found no effect of the test in motivation or attitudes but felt that teaching students to pass a test “is something that I do to my dogs; we should expect more of our students than we do of our dogs.” This finding supports research by Salhi (1998) about factors influencing student negativity; students who are given no choice or control of their topics, as is the case with FCAT, feel negatively about writing.

Implications

The effect of the Florida writing test pervades students' and teachers' writing perceptions, making a stronger case for writing across the curriculum than previous research. Through writing across the curriculum initiatives, students increase confidence in their writing abilities and learn to connect learning, thinking, and writing (Hilgers, Bayer, Stitt-Bergh, & Taniguchi, 1995) Writing should help students see knowledge as interrelated, honor students' interests and values, and build relationships between and among students, schools and communities. When asked about assignments that would encourage and strengthen students' writing, both students and their teachers cited student-centered writing activities involving student choice and relevance to students' beliefs and experiences. Although all students cited practice in FCAT essay writing as key to their success, not one endorsed it as a way to encourage or strengthen writing; this underscores their belief that school-sponsored writing should have a purpose besides improving test scores. Pre-service teachers should learn—and faculty in all disciplines and in all levels of instruction should reinforce—the principle of writing as an instrument of thinking and learning.

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Professional Growth and Performance Appraisals of School Administrators: A Contemporary Model

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Abstract: A sound performance appraisal process for school administrators contains key components in accordance with legislation, board policy and contractual agreements. This paper examines the performance appraisal process for administrators in one Canadian school district that may serve as a guideline for individual educators who are committed with on-going professional development.

There is on-going concern in education today that the evaluation strategies used to evaluate education personnel are insufficient. The discussions tend to focus on the level of effectiveness and suitability of the performance appraisals process (Scriven, 1994; Seyfarth, 2002) School districts are revisiting their policies and procedures in order to revamp and define its goals and objectives in a more concise manner.

In this paper I will explore and describe the school administrator appraisal process currently being implemented in one Canadian school district. The Labrador School District #1 has undergone many changes over the course of ten years due to the restructuring and re-culturing to meet the educational demands in an ongoing era of change and accountability. One of the more current changes is the development of a new performance appraisal system for school administrators and teachers. This paper will briefly explain how the process developed and who participated in its development. The focus will be on only the professional growth and development of the administration rather than on other components.

Few of us need to be persuaded about the contribution we must make as leaders. In education people are continually shifting collaborations of individuals who make performance and change happen. According to Seyfarth (2002) the successful administrator is one who has personal habits, values, trait, and competencies to engender trust and commitment from those who take their direction whereby focus is on improved practices that lead to improved results. In essence we want our administrators to be personally credible and organizationally capable (Begley, 2001). The image of the school administrator's role is in constant transition due to the changing social and political demands on educational institutions. At best, administrators indirectly influence learning outcomes; therefore role-based administrator assessment should focus primarily on social interactions including administrator's own role as evaluator of teachers and others in school (Heck & Glasman, 1993).

Diverse role expectations that create conflicting demands on administrators (i.e., one who provides support and one who evaluates) and varied school contextual settings present obstacles to developing administrator evaluation systems (Cangelosi, 1991). Administrators need strategies that have the capacity to motivate and inspire, providing a sense of purpose and meaning that unite people in a common cause. They should be aware of the key factors for effective schools.

It is generally agreed that effective administrators must be well-organized managers and artistic, passionate leaders. They have two roles – leader and manager. As leader they nurture the vision that express the school's core values; as manager they develop structures and policies that institutionalize that vision (Begley, 2001; Seyfarth, 2002). The evaluation of administrators, like

that of teachers, has two distinct purposes. The first is *formative*, the process that occurs to improve the professional performance of the administrator. The second is *summative*, whereby decisions are made relating to employment. Both have the primary purpose of increasing the effectiveness of individuals in their professional environment by assisting them in their professional growth and reaffirming their competency in their profession (Seyfarth, 2002)

The following section describes the evaluation policy within this Canadian school district and how it supports administrators with their various responsibilities and how they are required to maintain standards of performance (Labrador School Board, 1999). Finally, for purposes of comparing evaluation policies, there is a brief overview of another appraisal model commonly known as Duties-Based Teaching Evaluation Model.

Policy Development on Performance Appraisal

The Performance Appraisal Process was developed over a period of one year with the cooperation of Human Resource Personnel, teachers, administrators, School Councils, and School Board Trustees. Since the school board had recently been re-established as a result of amalgamation and non-denominational infrastructure the schools were following their former appraisal policies. This resulted in a great deal of inconsistency among administrators and teachers within the board due to unclear expectations. Consequently, a revised policy was necessary. This revised policy (as mentioned above) was sent to each school to be implemented in September 1999.

The policy clearly defines the roles of the various players involved in the appraisal process. As part of the appraisal package there is a questionnaire for self-evaluation attached and a questionnaire for teachers to complete on their administrators. The questionnaires are specific in focus and encompass all areas that appraise an administrator's performance, organization capabilities and personal/professional credibility. The Director and Assistant Directors administer the appraisal by talking with the administrator, teachers, parents, and in some cases the students.

The plan is to carefully monitor the policy and to modify it periodically if and when necessary. All appraisers and appraisees are aware of the process in advance; therefore, there should be no surprises. It keeps with the general principles of Hickcox (1990) policy checklist.

Professional Appraisal, Growth, and Improvement Component for Administrators

This component incorporates three distinct sub-components. Each of these are clearly defined in the policy and identified as Appraisal (formative), Growth (formative), and Improvement (summative). The latter is used to work with an administrator to improve performance if a significant weakness has been identified. The following is a brief synopsis of the contents for each component as it applies to probationary and/or tenured administrators. There is a set of criteria outlined in the policy: (Labrador School Board, 1999)

Description of the Performance Appraisal Component (Probationary Administrators)

The Director or designate initiates with the administrator the development of a growth plan with an explanation of expectations and specific timelines that encompasses a self-assessment exercise which is conducted at the end of September. An initial conference is then scheduled for October to discuss the professional growth plan. The growth plan is then developed and implemented between October and March. In January, a second conference is scheduled to discuss the progress of the administrator concerning his/her growth plan followed by a mid-year report. In March, a summary of the growth plan is presented to the Assistant

Director of Human Resources who reviews the administrator's progress and makes a recommendation to the Director no later than mid-April. If the administrator is in disagreement with the summary report he/she can undergo an appeal process immediately after.

Professional Growth Component (Tenured Administrators)

The process is set within the context of the school's improvement plan and the district's strategic plan. At the same time, it permits the administrator to establish personal and professional growth objectives. In this component tenured administrators may form a support group (elements of a team/support growth plan are outlined in the document) to carry out this stage in a collegial manner. The purpose and intent of the professional growth plan are clearly defined in the document. It encompasses the same as above with slightly different timelines

Performance Improvement Component (Tenured and Probationary Administrators)

The main objective in this component is to ensure acceptable standards of performance and conduct as well as to foster professional growth. For the majority of administrators, after the probationary period, the growth and development process will continue in a less formal mode. However, there may be administrators whose performance may be considered less than satisfactory and may require significant improvement. The performance improvement component involves two phases: (see table below)

Phase 1. Significant improvement is required (when major deficiencies appear either during the regular professional growth cycle, or at any time)

Phase 2. Unsatisfactory performance (initiated after major deficiencies have been addressed in Phase 1 and performance continues to require major improvement)

Phase 1	Phase 2
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Notification from the Director in writing b. Criteria for improvement c. Conference d. Improvement plan e. Implementation plan f. Evaluation of progress (Due process) g. Decision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Notification from Director and Assistant Director in writing b. Criteria for improvement c. Improvement plan d. Implementation plan e. Evaluation of progress (Due progress) f. Decision g. Director's evaluation/recommendation

A Brief Comparison: Duties-Based Teaching Evaluation

While not necessarily endorsing one model over the other it is important to compare contemporary models to determine similarities and differences. It also becomes important to adopt and replicate components from one and use in the other if it can improve levels of effectiveness. Scriven (1994) asserts that the Duties-Based Teaching Evaluation (DBTE) model

is another comprehensive policy that certainly provided some breakthrough in evaluation. It addresses many purposes of appraisals that need addressing. However, unlike the Labrador District policy, DBTE is deficient in the area of peer evaluation. It does not have a peer evaluation component whereas the Labrador appraisal model encourages peer feedback by encouraging team evaluations among its administrators as a means to learn from each other and promote professional growth. DBTE is unique in that it defines the duties of teachers and administrators in a list that was compiled by several thousand educators whereas the Labrador model was designed by a single group of educators and other stakeholders who did a needs assessment surveys strictly within that region. The validity of this model lies within the mutual understanding of contracting parties. It specifies minimum to excellent standards. However, the DBTE model does not place any emphasis on style, only on skill whereas the Labrador model supports and encourages administrative style and skill development. Style and skill are essential components of any model of evaluation. It would be interesting to see how administrators could look past style to get to performance. Nevertheless, the DBTE model fits well with the current policy of administrator appraisal in the Labrador District in that the fit with culture and prior experience are taken into account.

The administrators in the Labrador School District, according to its administrator policy for appraisal (1999), are evaluated regularly based on a list of criteria that sets standards for all administrative evaluations. Unfortunately, many of the appraisers in a general sense, who are delegated administrator appraisals have been removed from the realities of what school administrators face daily. Seyfarth (2002) argues that the background and experience of the appraiser have such an enormous impact on quality of performance appraisals. Even when criteria are defined it takes some level of expertise to recognize and appreciate it. There is a great deal of training necessary for someone outside the profession, or who have been away from the daily activities of schools for awhile, before they could realistically be expected to play a useful role in the appraisal process.

The DBTE is without doubt a more intense and thorough assessment process. The time factor to conduct such an appraisal could pose problems unless directors of education shuffle their priorities. With the policy in the Labrador School District that is precisely what must happen in order to effectively conduct the appraisal as outlined. Fortunately this policy is a priority that is board-wide accepted and seen as being workable. Presently (2003), while there have been changes in the education infrastructure of the Labrador School Board (i.e., school closures, amalgamation of schools, downsizing of central office administrators, administrator transfers), much remains to be examined to determine whether this new performance appraisal model has had any impact on the leadership development and practice of school administrators in the areas of knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviors as well as on student achievement.

Conclusion and Research Implications

The perfect evaluation schema seems impossible to create but it is an ideal that school districts can work toward and constantly improve. There are many similarities and some differences between the DBTE and the Labrador School District Model for Administrator Appraisal protocols. Both models assure the public of accountability. The current performance appraisal document encourages all administrators to turn their aspirations into actions. The process allows them to assess their personal and organizational strengths and weaknesses as well as goals and directions. It assists them with time management and allocation of resources, which in turn will strengthen their schools. Building the performance management system where

organization behaviors are expected and accounted for is critical (Drucker, 1996). School districts need to see performance goals become realities, not just wishes.

Further research is required on contemporary models of performance appraisal systems of school administrators to determine the impact on student achievement. Additionally, it would be seem appropriate to examine the performance appraisal systems currently in place with the Miami-Dade Public School District and Broward County Public School District in Florida to determine whether or not these performance appraisal systems have any effect on the level of leadership effectiveness of practicing school administrators.

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Recruitment, Socialization, and Accountability of School Administrators in Two Urban School Districts

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Abstract: Due to the impending shortage of qualified candidates for administrator positions, school districts are faced with the challenge of attracting and preparing candidates for the administrator role. This empirical study focused on leadership succession planning and leadership development in response to meeting the demands of the social preoccupation of accountability.

Few areas of public policy in the last two decades have witnessed the flurry of reforms and innovations that have characterized K-12 public education. Spurred by a national concern about the quality of public education, among the trends that are having the most profound effect on the work of school administrators are the changing demographic characteristics of students and fiscal realities of schools. There are currently more special needs classrooms than ever as well as more classrooms that regularly include students whose first language is not English (Garcia, 2000). Funds for education have been dramatically reduced over the past number of years and many decisions about education have become centralized (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1999). Reform is being implemented in all areas of education simultaneously including curriculum, governance, structures, assessment, and accountability. Although the value and impact of the educational reform movement over the past two decades may be cause for debate, many researchers have asserted that one fact remains clear: the role of the school administrator has increased in its complexities (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1999; Leithwood, Steinbach & Begley, 1992; Sackney, 1991).

At a time when school districts are re-examining every aspect of education in the search for more effective schools, many school districts report problems with finding qualified leaders for their schools. Due to the relatively low number of qualified candidates who pursue the administrator role, research has shown that many school districts are now looking beyond the education system in their quest for leaders (Gutheries & Saunders, 2001). A recent article in the New York Times Supplement (January, 2001) showed that the trend in recruitment practices for many school districts in the United States have moved towards considering the appointment of professionals from outside the realm of public education to lead their school districts. For example, Seattle has recently renewed its schools under the leadership of a retired Army General, while Atlanta has just recruited a retired Army Colonel as superintendent of operations in its district office; Los Angeles has turned to a former Colorado governor to lead its school district; Milwaukee employed a highly visible Social Service Director as superintendent; San Diego is relying on a former prosecuting attorney; Philadelphia schools have been led under the direction of an ordained minister while New York City has taken the leadership reins from respected and experienced educators and handed them to a securities industry lawyer. School systems everywhere are discovering that it is quite difficult to attract candidates to fill leadership positions, particularly at the school level. Across North America, there is an unusual shortage of qualified candidates applying for entry to the administrative recruitment pools for the critical school leadership roles-- vice-principals and principals. The research on effective schools clearly emphasizes the importance of the school administrator's role, both principal and vice-principal,

in school and student success (Abbott, 1994; Ashby & Krug, 1998; Daresh & Playko, 1992). The administrators' work can be characterized by brevity, fragmentation, and variety (Gregory, 2000).

Without strong school leaders, efforts to improve student achievement will falter (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1999). This idea that strong leaders are required is not new. In the 1960's, Harvard Scholar Ron Edmonds (1981) noted that effective schools tended to have effective administrators. An effective administrator can create a climate that fosters excellent teaching and learning, while the ineffective administrator can quickly hamper the progress of the most dedicated reformers (Edmonds, 1981). There are relatively few empirical studies at this time on leadership succession planning as it pertains to school and school district administration. However, among the studies done in this area, primarily concerning the dynamics among teachers and school administrators, the research literature and expert opinion literature confirms "leadership succession" as an organizational event of great potential importance to those who work in schools (Hart, 1993; MacMillan, 1996; Johnson, 2001).

The purpose of this study is to further explore and examine leadership succession planning practices in two school districts. Millions of dollars are invested into leadership development activities in school districts across the United States and Canada. Local school districts, state departments of education, as well as local and national foundations have provided funds for programs that are focused on retraining current leaders and preparing future leaders for our schools. While there is much activity, less is known about the impact of this investment.

Method

Two large Canadian urban school systems were selected for this study. Both districts have developed and implemented various strategies of leadership succession planning for the preparation of aspiring administrators as well as ongoing support structures for new and practicing administrators. The two districts were similar in size and began succession planning for administrators at approximately the same time due to the impending shortage of qualified candidates for administrative roles as a result of the current rate of retirements. A purposive sample selection process was used to ensure a cross section of educators for the study. Criteria for inclusion included administrative candidates, new and practicing vice-principals, new and practicing principals, and senior administrators at the district offices. Data collection methods included individual interviews, focus group interviews, observations and a review of documents. Twenty-two participants in District A were selected from the purposive sample of individuals who were currently enrolled in the administration preparation program (candidate), have already completed the administration preparation program (a vice-principal, a principal), or represented central office personnel. Twenty-one participants were selected from District B based on the same criteria. Data analysis began during data collection and gave direction for follow up in subsequent site visits. There were 18 interviews that were guided by the research questions. The data from the interviews and other data (documents, journals) were read and re-read, keeping track of themes, patterns, hunches, and ideas across cases (Merriam, 1998). All data were coded by listing themes and concepts that were evident in the data, or suggested in the conceptual framework.

Leadership Succession Planning: Findings

The findings of this study reveal a picture of the leadership succession planning processes and structures that two school districts currently have in place for the preparation of candidates to school administrator positions. First, a discussion on recruitment and selection processes is presented. This is followed by an overview of professional and organizational socialization processes. Finally, leadership succession in the context of accountability is discussed.

Recruitment and Selection of School Administrators

In both District A and District B, consideration was given to how the position demands, expectations, and responsibilities of school administrators have changed before launching what many senior administrators referred to as “appropriate” recruitment and selection processes. Many administrative candidates were at a stage in their careers where they were comfortable in their instructional practices and wanted to have influence on a broader scale. Yet, others were less experienced as classroom teachers but had been recognized by their principals or area superintendents as potential school administrators. While personnel in District A continued to seek ways to improve their recruitment practices, District B personnel had a structured procedure in place. In District B there was a “project” team in place that was responsible for arranging all recruitment activities. In District A and District B only internal candidates were recruited, trained and promoted throughout the ranks of teaching and administration. There was no written policy on external recruitment in District B. However, in District A there was a brief written protocol in place, but it was rarely needed. Usually, in District A and B, the tendency was to re-advertise rather than recruit and select external candidates. There were issues of time and contractual considerations that participants in both districts felt needed to be considered when planning the recruitment and selection process. More time for mentoring was needed to help candidates prepare for the selection process as well as more time needed for practicing administrators to prepare to release their “mentee” to take on a new position. A few days to prepare was not considered adequate. In both districts it had been a recent practice to permit unqualified aspiring administrators to take positions as “interim” vice-principals. There were stipulations attached to these agreements that involved consultation between the district office and the Teachers Federations as well as the Ontario College of Teachers. These two organizations had to give approval accordingly.

Professional and Organizational Socialization of Administrators

Both districts offered similar professional development and training activities to aspiring and practicing administrators that ranged from formal activities such as training programs, deliberate mentoring and job-shadowing to informal activities such as administrator in-services, dialoguing, networking, study groups, relationship building with subordinates and superordinates, learning about work settings and discussions on policies, procedures and priorities. Many administrators in District A felt they had just enough professional development time while some principals in District B felt they had too much, and that too much time away from school had caused a concern for them and their teaching staffs.

Newly appointed administrators made reference to the importance of opportunities to discuss entry strategies with other colleagues through professional development opportunities. One experienced principal who had been recently transferred indicated that he generally had positive entry experiences. Newly appointed principals with less experience indicated they had no entry strategy in place and were uncertain what to expect.

In District A and District B central office personnel were aware of the career patterns of teachers and dynamics of administration and used this knowledge to plan development activities.

In both districts it was the mentoring-protege and on-the-job experiences that participants considered to be the most valuable in preparing them for the administrator role. However, the same participants felt that there was inadequate time for the mentoring process to be fully successful. Many formal university courses were considered of little value to the administrator role. Although there was not a full consensus among participants these two socializing influences were noted by many participants as having little effect or impact on how well they performed their tasks as school administrators. However, some participants felt that the Principal's Qualifications Program was very helpful depending on the venue where the program was offered.

Leadership Development in the Context of Accountability

Across the two districts in this study, one commonality that was evident among participants was their understanding of the purpose and intention of their district's leadership succession planning. Participants referred to the importance of succession planning as a means to ensure quality instructional leadership preparation that could lead to student success. At the same time school administrators felt they were being held accountable by district office personnel to participate in the leadership succession planning activities. Despite the need and importance for succession planning in each district neither District A nor District B had any formal evaluation of the program in place.

Another commonality among all participants in this study across both districts was their shared understanding of the purpose of educational accountability. They believed that accountability was the best way to ensure the best course of action to support student learning and to justify the operation of schools. Furthermore, they believed that accountability in education systems meant that information must be made available to the public, to taxpayers and to parents in a form that allows them to have reasonable expectations of the system. Another commonality that existed across both districts was the lack of understanding of how the accountability system worked. A common statement across districts was "We are accountable for everything that happens in the school." A vice-principal added, "I'm not sure what I'm accountable for but I do know that if I do something wrong it's not long before I know about it." The participants did express concern that accountability as an educational issue was not discussed in more detail in either the Principal's Qualification's Program or the District Administration Preparation Program.

The perspectives varied among focus groups across districts concerning to whom they were held accountable, and how they were held accountable. A number of candidates and newly appointed vice-principals felt they were "accountable to everybody for everything done at school level," while other candidates and newly appointed vice-principals remained uncertain as to whom they were held accountable. Another issue among all participants, except for the senior administrators, was the lack of regular feedback on what their roles were as school administrators. They felt that if they were to be held accountable for doing something they must first be held accountable for knowing how to do it. For them, an accountability system must link standards, testing, professional development of administrators and teachers, reporting, and some form of consequences not only for failures but for successes as well. Without careful alignment of the component parts, testing alone was thought to have little effect. In summary, leadership development and leadership succession planning for both school districts involved professional development for school administrators whereby many of their professional needs were met.

Conclusion and Educational Implications

Based on the findings from this study, there are two specific implications for future research. These relate to clarifying the nature and function of leadership succession and a pervasive social preoccupation with accountability. These implications are outlined below.

Leadership Succession Success

The two school districts in this study are in the early stages of leadership succession planning. It is difficult to surmise at this time the overall outcomes of implementing these leadership succession activities. Finding relevant information requires searching under other labels and categories of literature such as “effective school districts” and “educational governance” and “transformational leadership” and “organizational learning.” In particular there is a need for research that clearly conveys the links between leadership succession and more generalized school district leadership practices. Leadership succession cannot be treated as a lone concept in isolation, but rather as a component of organizational governance and procedural structures within a school district.

Accountability

There is a considerable gap between the perceptions of academics and educational practitioners when it comes to the meanings associated with accountability. Compared to the consensus apparent across the conceptualizations of accountability presented by Kogan (1986), Wagner (1989) and Leithwood (1999) there seems to be a broad range of interpretations and ideologies reflected by practitioners in the field. The findings of this study indicate that senior school district administrators seem to articulate notions of accountability consistent with those of the literature. However, many of the other participants in the study – principals, vice principals, and aspiring administrators—revealed perspectives that were much more varied and scattered. Clearly there is a need for much more research and documentation of school district based leadership succession processes.

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A Study of Intercultural Adjustment Regarding Time Orientation of Russian Students in the U.S. Academic Environment

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Abstract: The study investigates intercultural adjustment (IA) of Russian students to the U.S. academic environment. IA is examined through the lens of the Time orientation (T orientation) of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) theory of value orientations. The study reveals students' T orientation and degrees, perceived difficulties, and strategies of adjustment.

Increased international contacts over the last few decades have influenced exchanges in the field of education. This increase in international educational exchanges has received attention of researchers from various fields who have seen the need to study the complex nature and structure of intercultural exchange processes. Dillon and Swann (1997), Dinges and Baldwin (1996), Kim (2001), Ting-Toomey (1999), and Ward and Kennedy (1993) focus their efforts on investigating origins, nature, and consequences of cultural differences, on the inter- and intrapersonal processes involved, and on ways of facilitating intercultural understanding. Recently, research has shifted from examining primarily traumatic experiences of cross-cultural transitions traditionally associated with culture shock to "the learning and growth facilitating nature of the same process" (Kim, 2001, p. 50) commonly termed as the intercultural adjustment process which can be identified as "the dynamic process by which individuals, upon relocating to new, unfamiliar, or changed cultural environments, establish (or reestablish) and maintain relatively stable, reciprocal, and functional relationships with those environments" (p. 31). Continuing that focus, this paper explores the nature of adjustment process of international students and ways to facilitate it.

Within this framework, the present study is given impetus by several deficiencies in the existing research on IA. First, a degree of confusion in terminology is apparent among scholars: some (Searley & Ward, 1990; Tsang, 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 1993) refer to the process as adjustment; some (Matsumoto et al., 2001; Ting-Toomey, 1999) as adaptation. Second, the current study agrees with Dillon and Swann (1997) and Dinges and Baldwin (1996) who insist that scholars have not yet come to agreement on the factors that impact international students' IA. For example, several researchers (Tsang, 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 1993; Ward, Okura, Kennedy & Kojima, 1999) distinguished its two domains: psychological and sociocultural. At the same time, Kealey (1996) and Matsumoto et al. (2001) concentrate only on the psychological components. Additionally, findings vary among the studies. While Searle and Ward (1990) found four variables that influence psychological adjustment, Ward and Kennedy's (1993) study supported only two of them. In short, this paper supports Ward et al. (1999) who state, "considerable controversy remains about the process of adapting to a new culture and the patterns of adjustment over time" (p. 277), and propose two causes of the problem: the lack of a strong theoretical foundation of the concept and the lack of an objective instrument. Remarkably, little research focuses specifically on students' adjustment to the U.S. academic environment. The literature review revealed only one study (Toyokawa & Toyokawa, 2002) that investigated the role of extracurricular activities and the students' adjustment to campus life. Finally, no study of Russian students' IA was found; meanwhile, among foreign scholars in 2000, Russians

became “the second largest group of scholars from Europe [in the U.S.] and the seventh largest worldwide” (Davis, 2000, p. 23).

To address the deficiencies, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck’s (1961) theory of value orientations was adapted. Briefly, while exploring cross-cultural variations in perceptions of the world, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck assumed the number of problems every society faces and has to solve is limited and suggested five questions that each society must answer. Proposing the answers to these questions would vary across cultures, they developed a system of five basic elements, essential for every culture, which they call value orientations. Each of the five layers in this paradigm (human—nature, man-nature, time, activity, and relational) deserves special attention; however, this paper focuses on one – T orientation-- and combines it with Sorokin’s (1943) theory of sociocultural time. Researchers (Adler, 1997; Chen & Starosta, 1998; Clarke, 1994; Inglehart & Baker, 2000; Ting-Toomey, 1999) agree the U. S. is situated at the far right extreme. For the purposes of the present study, based on the sources cited above, the author identified five most cited characteristics of the future oriented society found in the U.S. culture: (a) T as precious commodity, (b) short and medium-term planning ahead, (c) security by order, (d) activity evaluation in terms of future benefits, and (e) change and innovation.

Literature reveals no particular study has applied Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck’s (1961) theory to Russian culture. However, since Russia has been culturally and historically close to both Europe and Asia, it is reasonable to infer that it fits the profile of a past oriented society. This assumption corresponds to comments about Russian emphasis on past by Harris and Moran (1996) and Inglehart and Baker (2000) and findings by Stepanova and Trofimova (2000) that 42.3% of Russian students would prefer to live some of the past periods of Russian history. Therefore, this data suggest that Russian students are located on the past or past-present point of the T orientation continuum.

Consequently, this inquiry is based on the assumption that if emphasis on T orientation is different in different cultures, individuals might experience difficulties in adjustment during their cross-cultural transition. The study incorporates above-mentioned five characteristics of a future-oriented society, applies them to the context of a U.S. university, and examines if and how Russian students adjust to the characteristics and, hence, academic context. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to reveal: (a) Russian students’ T orientation, (b) whether their T orientation shifts towards the future after studying at a U.S. institution of higher education, (c) whether this shift in T orientation can be attributed to the students’ IA to the academic environment, and (d) what the adjustment process involves.

Method

In order to qualify for the study, a sample of Russian students enrolled at the University of Northern Iowa (UNI) was non-randomly selected. The study data were collected from 25 Russian students, of whom 18 were females and 7 were males, attending UNI during the Spring 2002 semester. To be qualified to participate in the study, the students needed to have been enrolled at this institution for at least two semesters. The average length of stay was three semesters. All participants identified themselves as Russian and were graduate students.

Two instruments were used to assess the students’ T orientation and IA. The first instrument, the Value-Orientation Schedule (T section), was borrowed from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck’s (1961) original questionnaire. It is a section of the instrument regarding T orientation which represents five scenarios followed by three possible answers. This instrument was used to identify the participants’ T orientation in order to test the construct validity of the

second instrument. The second instrument, the Time and Adjustment Instrument, was designed by the author to identify the participants' T orientation and to measure their IA. Since the present study was to investigate IA regarding T orientation in the academic setting, the sole use of the original instrument was considered insufficient. This instrument represents an open-ended interview which is based on five scenarios that were created for this study. To develop the scenarios, the original instrument used by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck was adapted so that each scenario consisted of (a) a problem, (b) three possible answers, and (c) several discussion questions. Each problem represents an academic situation that new international students might encounter during their studies at a U.S. university and reflects one of the five characteristics of a future oriented society. The three possible answers to the problems were based on the literature identified above and reflect views of people with the three T orientations. Each of the answers contains (a) a solution to the particular academic problem, (b) its explanation, and (c) general statements about the topic from the perspective of people with the three T orientations. The discussion questions are divided into two parts to generate discussion concerning the academic situation and to examine the participants' T orientation (a) prior to coming to UNI and (b) after their experiences of studying at UNI.

To conduct the study, the researcher scheduled meetings with 25 students who met the criterion and agreed to participate during May 2002. By random selection, 12 students were asked to fill out the demographic sheet and both instruments at times convenient for them. The other 13 were additionally invited for an interview during which the discussion questions of the Time and Adjustment Instrument were asked.

Results

First, results show that upon their arrival, students chose past T orientation 29.6% of the time, present T orientation 52.8% of the time, and future T orientation 17.6% of the time. Therefore, the majority of Russian students had present T orientation upon arrival in the U.S. Second, the proportion of times in which a past, present, or future T orientation was selected indicated the students' T orientation was different after the students had studied at UNI compared to the time of their arrival. The number of answers reflecting past T orientation decreased by 16.8% and present T orientation by 22.4%. The number of choices reflecting future T orientation increased by 39.2%. Therefore, these findings suggest that Russian students' T orientation shifted after studying in the US, more often adopting future T orientation that is prevalent in their host country. Additionally, the greatest increase of future T orientation occurred in regard to such characteristics as security by order by 17 choices and the least increase was observed in regard to short-term planning ahead by only 2 choices. These data suggest that Russian students have made adjustment to future T orientation that characterizes the academic environment they experience at UNI.

Next, 8 of the 25 respondents showed a shift in T orientation in three scenarios. The information about these students obtained by the demographic sheet reveals two patterns. First, six of these students were majoring in fields related to foreign languages. Second, this group consisted of a large number of students who indicated their intent to stay in the U.S. after graduation. Two respondents did not show any change in T orientation. Though degrees of the perceived difficulty in adjustment are similar across situations, T as precious commodity was perceived as representing the highest degree of difficulty and short-term planning ahead was perceived as the easiest. The results indicate that the degrees of the perceived success in adjustment to the cultural characteristics are quite alike across the situations. The students

reported that they were more successful adjusting to T as precious commodity and the least successful adjusting to change/innovation.

A further examination of the students' responses across the five scenarios reveals several patterns concerning their adjustment process. The attitudes accompanying the students' adjustment to the five cultural characteristics fall into three categories: survival, necessary and voluntary integration, and willing acceptance of a characteristic because of its quality or the motivation to succeed academically. Moreover, the study results indicate that across the scenarios the adjustment process occurred at two levels: T management and knowledge and skills.

Discussion

T orientation

First, the findings showed present T orientation among a group of Russian students and suggest perceptions of T orientation might not be homogeneous among Russian students. Based on studies by Stepanova and Trofimova (2000) and Shmotkin (1991) and the interviews data, it is reasonable to conclude that Russian international students represent a group of young adults who are more socially mature than other Russian students of their age and who actively invest in their lives. The results show that the students' T orientation was different after they studied at a U.S. university and changed from present to future due to the individuals' IA. The respondents themselves attributed the change in their choices to their academic experiences at UNI and reported various learning gains which point to their IA and correspond to Kim (2001).

The results reveal that the greatest increase in future T orientation occurred with regard to security by order that imposed novelty in everyday academic life, was tightly connected to the students' academic performance, and lacked flexibility, forcing students to adjust and lead to the most shift in reported T orientation. Also, the participants' intent to stay in the U.S. was related to their shift in T orientation. Furthermore, the least change in T orientation occurred in regard to short-term planning ahead, which the students connected with freedom of choice and independence and reported absent in Russia. Therefore, among all five characteristics, planning ahead represents the most culturally distant one and, hence, negatively affects the adjustment process.

Intercultural Adjustment

The Russian students reported various degrees of perceived difficulties and successes of IA. Similarly to previous studies of IA, the present research identified several factors that affected students' perceptions of the cultural characteristics as the easiest/most difficult to adjust to and those that result in the least/most success in IA. Specifically, this inquiry revealed such factors as cultural distance (Ward & Kennedy, 1993; Ward et al., 1999), prior knowledge, skills and experience and their transfer (Dillon & Swann, 1997; Tsang, 2001; Ward et al., 1999), motivation to achieve academically, personal flexibility and empathy (Kealey, 1996; Martin & Harrell, 1996; Matsumoto et al., 2001). Three other factors, namely personal favor/disfavor of the cultural characteristics, students' plans after graduation, and language-related majors, appear to be good predictors of their IA.

Importantly, the study supported findings by Ward and Kennedy (1993) that employment of adjustment strategies positively affects international students' IA. First, the adjustment strategies concerned T management embraced both academic and personal life. This study revealed the second group of adjustment strategies related to academic requirements and utilization, expansion, or development of students' abilities, skills, and knowledge. These

strategies concerned language skills (Dillon & Swan, 1997; Tsang, 2001), communication skills (Redmond & Bunyi, 1991), computer skills, academic rules and expectations both inside and outside the classroom.

Limitations and Implications

The present study attempted to contribute to the existing knowledge of sojourners' IA adjustment by providing new theoretical grounds for research, developing an instrument, and providing new evidence for the complexity of the adjustment process. This research enriches the literature on intercultural adjustment in several ways. First, it shows that traditional theories of cross-cultural research, like Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961), can provide valuable grounds for contemporary research. However, they should be re-examined from a dialectical perspective on intercultural communication. The current study revealed the sociocultural domain of T orientation is not uniform for one culture's population. Although Russian international students share many commonalities with other Russian people and students, they represent a distinct group. The framework of the current study did not allow the researcher to determine if and to what extent this shift in perceptions is caused by the sojourners' necessity to effectively function in the foreign culture or is internalized by the sojourners. Further research is needed to establish whether this variation is a result of generational difference or changes in the society's perception of T due to its modernization. Furthermore, the dynamics of the adjustment process is disclosed by the evidence that sojourners engage in the process of learning a new culture and undergo some shift in their perceptions, which become closer to the perceptions of the hosts. Follow-up studies are needed to determine whether the shift in perceptions has a permanent or temporary nature and the factors affecting it.

Importantly, this study provided evidence that sojourners' IA should be examined within the primary context of their activities during the cross-cultural experiences. Also, the current study supports Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) argument that T represents a sociocultural phenomenon intertwined with people's activities and social institutions; people's perceptions of T impact their cross-cultural experiences and should be included in intercultural training programs. Also, the study showed that adjustment to different sociocultural T requires sojourners to implement specific T-related adjustment strategies, which presents an interesting topic for intercultural training programs.

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Moral Leadership: A Model for Educational Leaders in the 21st Century

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Abstract: Furthering the understanding of and exploring the literature on moral leadership models is the purpose of this research paper. A review the literature was undertaken, synthesizing concepts and offering a new paradigm for educational leaders.

The roles of the educational leader are many: coach, teacher, counselor and sometimes parent. The tools of the trade are equally varied: counseling, revitalizing, sharing, teaching, leading and pointing the way. Leading means articulating a vision and then creating the structure for that vision to come to fruition. As an educational leader, one must be willing to serve, serving those around one and subordinating oneself to the vision and best interests of the organization. The following quotation epitomizes what educational leadership for the 21st century should be:

The new view of leadership in learning organizations centers on subtler and more important tasks. In a learning organization, leaders are designers, stewards, and teachers. They are responsible for building organizations where people continually expand their capabilities to understand complexity, clarify vision, and improve shared mental models—that is, they are responsible for learning (Senge, 1990, p.340).

How do educational leaders act as “stewards” for their respective institutions? What are the practices that make for an ethical and moral educational setting? How do these practices affect students? Do these practices teach our students to act in the manner we intend or are we teaching unintended lessons? These are the questions that educational leaders must ask themselves as they lead our educational institutions into the 21st century. Failure to answer these important questions in a thoughtful and intelligent manner will result in an increase in the kind of moral and ethical difficulties with which we are faced today. In the 21st century, more than at any time in our collective past, educational leaders must be moral role models.

Leadership in any endeavor is a moral task, but even more so for educational leaders. Educational leaders are not only responsible for the success of their particular institution, but their work can impact various other institutions now and in the future, those who are led will be the future leaders of tomorrow. “Adults need to demonstrate to young people that it is possible to live one’s values and advocate for a more just and responsible society” (Berreth & Berman, 1997, p. 25). Educational leaders must be constantly vigilant about their actions as they speak volumes about the values that the educational leader supports. It is impossible for an educational leader to take an action that does not signify some comment about how things *should* be done – which by definition is moral action – and everyone is watching, especially the students.

Organization of Paper

The first section of this paper presents a discussion of school culture, climate and community. The second section introduces the three principles for educational leaders and the third section describes a model for principal actions. Finally, implications for educational administration are presented.

School Culture, Climate and Community

“Schools constitute minisocieties within the larger culture. They are structured by norms and conventions that frame the affective, personal, and moral elements of the school experience” (Nucci, 2001, p.141). The principal is the key player in a school; for it is from the principal that the climate of the school will come. The climate of a school is the moral feeling of the place derived from the values that the principal advocates and makes actionable. The climate significantly impacts the culture. The culture is defined by the practices, both explicit and implicit, in which the constituents of the school are involved. These behaviors may be either codified and sanctioned, as in a specific way for addressing grievances within the school, or they may be unspoken assumptions about how one achieves his/her objectives within the community. The climate and culture of the school impacts the type of community that a school will be. The sense of community is defined by how the relationships within the school are created, valued, sustained and managed. Is the school focused on normative behavior, enforced by rules and regulations, or is there a sense that the community places a value on democratic participation and on positive, affirming relationships among all members of the community above any other considerations?

The responsibility for directing the creation of a sense of community within the school lies with the principal. The principal’s actions shape the experiences within the school, directly and indirectly, affecting and determining the norms and conventions of the institution, giving form to the climate, culture and, ultimately, the community. “[A] sense of community in school [is] a pivotal condition for children’s ethical, social and emotional development, and also for their academic motivation” (Schaps, 1998, p.6). Understanding that a sense of community strongly influences student development, educational leaders must focus their attention on activities that enhance the sense of community within the school. Bureaucratic initiatives, policies and procedures are not enough. The leader must create rituals and traditions that symbolically represent the values of the community. These rituals and traditions give life to the values that are espoused by the leader, but more than that they become the foundation on which the climate, culture and community is grounded. These activities teach lessons to all involved in the school community.

Three Principles For Educational Leaders

With the knowledge that lessons are being taught and understanding that one is a steward of the school, the educational leader needs to have self-knowledge – knowledge of one’s own values - and the ability to translate that knowledge into action. “Integrity is a fundamental consistency between one’s values, goals, and actions. At the simplest level it means standing for something, having a significant commitment and exemplifying this commitment in your behavior” (Evans, 1996, p.185). For the principals, the first moral lesson that they teach is that they have beliefs that are valuable and on which they are willing to take action, demonstrating integrity and practicing authenticity. If leaders do not act from a place of “integrity” then their “authenticity” will be questioned (Evans, 1996, p.184). “Authentic” leaders are those who are

trusted, and they are trusted because they "...do what they say they will do – meet their commitments, keep their promises – are trustworthy" (Evans, 1996, p.184). For the educational leader the first principle of moral leadership is authenticity: acting in accord with one's beliefs, or as the colloquial expression goes, "If you talk the talk, then you better walk the walk." For example, a principal who believes in Kohlberg's concept of a "just community" (Power, Higgins, & Kohlberg, 1989a, 1989b as cited in Nucci, 2001. p.158) may create a structure for joint decision making and democratic participation that involves all stakeholders, demonstrating in action his/her belief in cooperative power sharing; such a structure will communicate to the community a very strong message about the leader, but even more so it will communicate that the climate, culture and community is founded on such values.

The first principle for educational leaders is "authenticity." The second principle is balance – balance between the ethics of justice and the ethics of care. Too often educational leaders align themselves with one to the exclusion of the other when what is needed is a balance. More often than not this focus on one rather than the other is an unconscious decision; therefore, the educational leader must make a conscious choice acting with volition to find the balance.

So how is this achieved? The ethics of justice focuses on "problems of oppression, problems stemming from inequality, and the moral ideal... of reciprocity or equal respect (Gilligan, Ward, Taylor, & Bardige, 1988, p. xvii). There is a need for a focus on the ethics of justice; although this is a necessary condition for the creation of a morally healthy community, it is not sufficient. The ethics of care must also be actively pursued. "From the perspective of someone seeking or valuing care, relationship connotes responsiveness or engagement, a resiliency of connection that is symbolized by a network or web" (Gilligan, et al., 1988, p. xvii). Education is primarily about relationships; the ethics of care supports this notion. Yet, once this point is conceded, one must then consider how all the various relationships within a school community will be managed. An ethically responsible educational leader will focus on the primacy of relationships and the understanding of the interrelatedness of all the stakeholders within the community, while simultaneously creating a climate in which each individual is free from oppression, is treated with equality and the "golden rule" is enacted in the relationships between members of the community. Linking these two ideals then is the test of the educational leader as moral role model.

The third and final principle for educational leaders is systems thinking. Senge (2000) says, "[T]he discipline of systems thinking provides a different way of looking at problems and goals – not as isolated events but as components of larger structures...A system is any perceived whole whose elements 'hang together' because they continually affect each other" (p.78). Linking the ethics of justice with the ethics of care in an authentic manner in order to affect the school community is approached from a systemic perspective, understanding that the leaders words, actions and/or inactions, and the tenor of his/her relationships have an impact across the entire system. This knowledge forces the educational leader to reconsider his/her role. The days of unilateral decision-making are over. A leader focusing on the systems perspective must rely on others, affirming the interconnectedness and interrelatedness of the stakeholders within the community. Working closely with others and building constructive relationships becomes key. "Systems often take their shape from the values, attitudes, and beliefs of the people in them. That's because our mental models, our theories about the way the world works, influences our actions, which in turn influence the interactions of the system" (Senge, Cambron-McCabe, Lucas, Smith, Dutton & Kleiner, 2000, p. 83).

A Principal's Actions

Although there is no formulaic way for the educational leader to exercise all of the three principles – each leader will respond in a unique fashion - one possibility will be offered. The principal, focusing first on the primacy of relationships, begins his/her tenure at a school by cultivating relationships, engaging all stakeholders in a dialogue about the function of the school - remembering that the first principle is “authenticity.” The focus of this dialogue will be on unearthing the “mental models” of which Senge (2000) speaks. As the principal authentically engages members of the community in dialogue, s/he is modeling behavior for the others in the community, creating values that will begin to affect the climate and culture of the school. These first values will be: relationships matter, listening matters and everyone has a voice.

As the dialogue continues with the various constituents of the community, the questioning of the current structures and practices begins. How were these structures and practices created? What purposes did they serve? Are they still useful? Have they caused unintended consequences? The lesson that the leader begins to model during this part of the process is one of inquisitiveness and curiosity - two of the most important qualities for any learning community. “It means that learning and the acceptance of uncertainty that is always part of learning are part of the culture, or the genetic code of the system. [L]eaders expect themselves and others to be uncertain, inquiring, expectant of surprise, and perhaps a bit joyful about confronting the unknown” and questioning the known (Senge et al., 2000. p. 417). However, there is one caveat about this aspect of the process. It must be done with a degree of reverence for the current practices, as they are a part of the present climate, culture and community. Even if the stakeholders are uncomfortable with some of the current practices, they are theirs and to question them in a manner that could be perceived as disrespectful may feel to some in the community like the leader is undermining their very personal foundation, as well as that of the community.

The next step in this process is the most crucial. Since the leader has been clear and open from the beginning, the community will not be surprised by the next phase; actually they will expect it. It is at this point that the need for change is genuinely examined. The educational leader's authenticity will be most important during this time. Those practices that were discovered to be ineffectual and/or archaic will have to be replaced. Here is where the educational leader must focus his/her energies on the synthesis of the principles. “When faced with such complexity, convening the appropriate people in the system and facilitating their conversations and learning is called for” (Senge et al., 2000, p. 414).

Decisions about what needs to be done, by whom and when, must be considered in the context of the ethics of justice and the ethics of care and from a systems perspective. How will these changes assist all students in fully developing their individual potential? How do the proposed changes empower stakeholders, and which ones? Are some individuals having their power diminished? Are all individuals and perspectives being respected? What are the long-term benefits and/or consequences of the action across the entire system? Will this positively affect the relationships within the community or will they be diminished? And finally, what are any other costs and benefits from the proposed change? All of these questions, and many others must be considered, but if the leader has done his/her groundwork the constituents will trust that the decisions were arrived at in a competent manner because they were involved in the process. Ron Heifetz, as cited in Senge (2000.), defines leadership as “the ability to mobilize people to tackle tough problems” (p. 414). The task of the educational leader is the constant review and evaluation of current practices and structures and, where needed, the establishment of new

practices and structures that will create the intended climate, culture, and, in turn, community of the school. Understanding that this is a process of constant evaluation and re-evaluation, will allow the community to continue to question itself and its practices making sure that the community is functioning in the intended manner with the goal always of serving the best interests of the students.

As educational leaders attend to the three principles of moral leadership – authenticity, balance, and systems thinking – they are teaching lessons to all within the community, especially the students. The principal is developing a community in which the “[a]dults exemplify positive moral values in their work with one another and with the students...model[ing] behavior by developing codes of conduct for [their] own work” and their interactions with one another (Berreth & Berman, 1997, p. 25). This task cannot be overstated, as it is the very foundation of a vital education. Frequently, educational leaders focus on curriculum, policy-making and other bureaucratic functions to the exclusion of the truly vital function of education, assisting students in becoming the very best people that they can be. This must be understood in a holistic context. That is to say that each individual is a thinking, feeling and acting being attempting to make meaning of his/her life. Education, therefore, must focus on the shaping of the whole child and the learning community must be structured in such a way that all of the actions of the school demonstrate the values that the community espouses; for the students will follow the example that the adults on campus set. Supporting this notion, Sizer and Sizer (1999) state that, There has to be a unified (if not precisely uniform) culture. And there has to be room for the appropriate expression of individual convictions. These two are not necessarily in opposition, but they can be. Among a few very important things, school is about helping young people to gain the habit of seeing the virtue of such a balance, not only at school but in all the years that follow. One is true to oneself. One is also true to one’s communities. Each citizen must find his or her most defensible balance. School exists to help along that process (pp.17-18).

It is this holistic focus that must be the guiding thought for the educational leader as role model. S/he must exemplify this balance in all that s/he does, assisting others in the process, allowing for mistakes, but always guiding individuals to the appropriate path; for the educational leader as moral role model must be the thoughtful, caring, intellectually inquisitive guiding force of the learning community.

To find the core of a school, don’t look at its rulebook or even its mission statement. Look at the way the people spend their time – how they relate to each other, how they tangle with ideas. Look for the contradictions between words and practice, with the fewer the better. Try to estimate the frequency and the honesty of its deliberations. Though it will always want to spruce up for visitors, its hour by hour functioning is what is important. Judge the school not on what it says but on how it keeps (Sizer & Sizer, 1999, p.18).

Implications for Educational Administration

For successful educational leadership, educational leaders need to (a) articulate a vision and create the structure for that vision to come to fruition; (b) be symbols of the institutional values of the school that they lead; (c) be cognizant of the symbolic nature of their position when taking action; (d) be role models for students, staff and faculty; (e) teach lessons with what they

support and how they act; and finally (f) be conscious of the possible implications of all of their decisions and actions.

Conclusion

The “keeping” of the school rests with the institution’s leadership. The principal as moral role model must work to create a climate, culture and community that exemplifies the very values that s/he espouses. Through the use of the three principles of moral leadership – authenticity, balance and systemic thinking – the educational leader can successfully create that community. As s/he acts, so s/he instructs, guides, and leads. True leaders understand that their “actions speak louder than words,” and that they must “practice what they preach” for inevitably they “shall reap what they sow.” Although all of these adages are cliché they serve as a map for the educational leader because of the powerful evidence of experience. Educational leaders will testify that the climate, culture, and community are a direct reflection of the leader’s leadership. The relationships the leader creates, the structures that s/he supports, and the decisions that s/he makes will impact the entire school. Therefore, the leader must consciously and intentionally take the actions that s/he believes are in the best interests of the students (authenticity/integrity), while modeling the importance of caring and just relationships (balance) and understanding that his/her decisions have consequences across the entire system (systems thinking). Doing this will afford the leader the opportunity to cooperate with all the stakeholders in the community, assuring that the school will reflect the communities intended goals - to assist young people in fully realizing their potential, with the understanding that they are connected to others through a web of interrelationships of which they may not even be conscious, but one that exists none the less. To do this should be the goal of every educational leader, especially those who understand that they are role models for ethical and moral action.

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Improving the Preparation of Teachers Wishing to Work in Two-Way Bilingual Education Programs: Listening to the Practitioners

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Abstract: Two-way bilingual school principals were interviewed to find out their views on staffing. Finding candidates proficient in Spanish to provide content area instruction in this language was their greatest challenge. They suggested that the university offer content courses taught in Spanish and courses focusing on the mechanics of the language.

Limited English Proficient (LEP) students have grown from 1,553,918 (1986-1987) to 4,148,997 (1999-2000), comprising nearly 9% of the national public school enrollment (National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1999). A large majority of this population does not have a command of English that allows them to be placed in mainstream classrooms (Nieto, 2000); therefore, it has been necessary to implement different programs in order to meet their linguistic and academic needs. Most programs differ in the languages of instruction, but their common underlying characteristic is a subtractive view of bilingualism (Lambert, 1980; Ovando, Collier, & Combs, 2003), since they do not aim at maintaining the students' native languages.

Two-way bilingual education, however, is a program that promotes bilingualism and biliteracy (Ovando, Collier, & Combs, 2003; Ovando & Pérez, 2000) by placing both language majority and language minority students in the classroom to receive instruction in and through two languages. Some models provide equal amounts of time in each language (de Jong, 2002a; Lindholm-Leary, 2001) while others provide 60% of the time in and through English and the remaining 40% in and through the minority language (Castro Feinberg, 1999), and others provide 90% of the time in the minority language in Kindergarten, with the percentage of time devoted to English increasing throughout the grades (Crawford, 1999; Nieto, 2000).

In spite of their beneficial effects on students' academic achievement (Alanis, 2000; Cazabon, Lambert, & Hall, 1993; de Jong, 2002b; Kirk Senesac, 2002), attitudes toward bilingualism (Cazabon, Lambert, & Hall, 1993; Lambert & Cazabon, 1994; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2001), and academic achievement and attitudes toward bilingualism (Lindholm & Aclan, 1993), the number of two-way bilingual programs is still very limited in the U.S. (261 in 23 states [Center for Applied Linguistics, 2002]), due to their complex nature. For Lindholm (1990), two-way programs should incorporate long-term treatment, integration of language arts with curriculum, separation of languages for instruction, additive environment, opportunities for speech production, administrative support, high-quality teachers, and home-school collaboration.

Two-way school principals point to staff who is proficient in the minority language to ensure the program's success. Teachers' proficiency in the minority language is an invaluable skill (Castro Feinberg, 2002; Guerrero, 1998; Lindholm, 1990), because it ensures high status for both languages of instruction (Castro Feinberg, 2002). However, the lack of second language learning opportunities in mandatory education in the U.S. (Guerrero, 1998) has caused a scarcity of teachers who are biliterate (U.S. Department of Education, 1993). As a result, many bilingual teachers are not good models in the non-English language (Brecht & Ingold, 1998; Collier, 1995), which affects the quality of instruction received by their students (Gaarder, 1977; Trueba, 1989).

Since hiring staff members who are proficient in the minority language appears to be one of the key decisions to be made by two-way program administrators (Castro Feinberg, 2002), the main goal of the present article was to examine the opinions of principals of two-way programs on this issue. A second goal of the project was to obtain input from them that would allow the researchers to improve the university's teacher preparation program.

Method

Setting

The research was conducted in six schools in the Miami area that followed the BISO (Bilingual School Organization) model, as well as in the middle school receiving students from two of them. BISO schools are "Special Developmental Bilingual/Biliterate" programs in the terminology used by M-DCPS to describe schools that place two culture groups together so that they study one another's native language and cultural background (Beebe & Mackey, 1990). They provide English for Speakers of Other Languages, Spanish as a Second Language, Spanish for Spanish Speakers, Curriculum Content in Spanish, the introduction of basic concepts and skills in the student's home language and reinforcement in the second language, as well as the district's instructional program in English (Miami-Dade County Public Schools, 2002). The middle school was included because many students who had attended two of the BISO schools continued their education there, and the principal wished to offer them bilingual content curriculum.

Subjects

Participants were the six principals of the elementary BISO schools and the principal of the middle school. However, since one of the principals did not return the researchers' phone calls, the study was limited to six principals. They were all experienced administrators (ranging from 5 to 14 years of experience) and educators (averaging 25 years in education), having worked as teachers, bilingual and instructional coordinators, and assistant principals. They all held Bachelor's and Master's degrees. Three were enrolled in doctoral programs.

Instrument

The researchers developed a semi-structured interview that asked the principals (a) to describe the qualities of their ideal candidate, (b) to identify the weaknesses applicants needed to overcome, (c) to explain whether they had difficulties finding suitable candidates, (d) to describe their expectations regarding prospective teachers' preparation, second language proficiency, and familiarity with their programs, and (e) to offer insights on how FIU's teacher preparation program could be improved. Since candidates' preparation and qualifications appeared to be the principals' main priority, the order was altered, but all the topics were covered in depth.

Procedures

Data Collection

The aforementioned topics were discussed in a meeting with each one of the principals. Two of the researchers were present at each meeting, which lasted an average of 50 minutes and their notes were cross-checked afterwards. A follow-up letter was sent to each principal thanking them and encouraging them to add any considerations not discussed in the interview.

Data Analysis

Subjects' responses allowed the researchers to identify five major topics: (a) challenges faced at the time of recruiting new faculty, (b) qualifications of suitable candidates, (c) selection procedures, (d) strategies to support teachers, and (e) suggestions to help improve Florida

International University's teacher preparation program, but only the first, second, and fifth topics were relevant for this project.

Results and Discussion

Challenges Faced by the Principals

Five principals agreed that candidates wishing to work at two-way bilingual schools needed to achieve higher levels of Spanish proficiency to teach the Spanish component of the program, especially in 4th and 5th grades. The principals explained that since many of the new teachers were second and/or third generation Spanish speakers, their command of Spanish, their heritage language (Krashen, 1998; Tse, 2000; Valdés, 2001), was adequate to maintain informal conversations at home or with their friends, but did not allow them to deliver academic instruction in Spanish in the upper grades. Three principals pointed out that because many candidates had been schooled mostly or only in English, they lacked cultural background in Spanish. As a result, their students could not be as exposed to Spanish folktales, songs, or rhymes as they were with similar enrichment activities conducted in English. Finally, three of the principals stated that credential-related issues and the perception that teaching in Spanish required more work seemed to prevent more appropriate placements. Thus, they explained that some teachers might be certified in Elementary Education but not in Spanish or vice-versa and, therefore, they were not authorized to teach certain classes, and that some teachers were reluctant to teach in Spanish because they felt that students "are not motivated," since English was perceived as the more prestigious language.

Qualifications of Suitable Candidates

The principals thought that suitable candidates should have four characteristics: proficiency in Spanish, commitment to the program, theoretical preparation, and willingness to work with others.

All the principals agreed that candidates should possess knowledge of oral and written Spanish in order to deliver content area instruction effectively and that they had to show positive attitudes towards two-way instruction. As one of them stated, "They have to have their heart in the bilingual program." Four principals pointed to the applicants' knowledge of the rationale of dual language instruction as an important asset to be considered for a position, and spoke about the importance of staff members getting along and working well with others because articulation is required to ensure the success of the program.

Suggestions to Help Improve the University's Teacher Preparation Program

Principals' responses appeared to concentrate on two areas: augmenting the Spanish proficiency of the candidates and developing collaborative efforts university-schools

Augmenting the Spanish proficiency of the candidates. All the principals agreed that teacher preparation programs should include content (Literature and Contrastive Rhetoric) and language (Spelling, Grammar, Linguistics, and the writing process) classes taught in Spanish to augment students' proficiency and background in this language. Along these lines, four principals suggested that the university offer an experimental "Methods of Teaching Content Areas in Spanish" class taught by a professor proficient in Spanish. Instruction, students' presentations, demonstration lessons, and lesson plans in this class would be conducted in Spanish. For three principals, it was necessary to increase the number of hours devoted to fieldwork and a heavier emphasis on hands-on approaches in the instruction provided at FIU.

Developing collaborative efforts between the university and the BISO schools. Five principals emphasized the need to establish university-school partnerships that allowed pre-

service teachers to work as paraprofessionals in two-way schools. Three principals advocated holding orientation sessions at BISO sites to help familiarize students with the programs' goals and aims.

Outcomes of the Project

The information gathered revealed the need to improve the university's teacher preparation program in TESOL and Elementary Education. The researchers analyzed the suggestions and ranked them according to feasibility (solutions that belonged within their realm) and rapid implementation (possibility of being put into practice in a short period of time).

Offering a course in Spanish and holding orientation meetings for interested students at one of the two-way school sites appeared to meet both criteria. The researchers decided to explore the possibility of offering one of the sections of the Methods of Teaching Science course entirely in Spanish during the Fall 2003 semester.

Holding meetings at BISO schools would not entail major inconveniences for the students, since one of the BISO schools is located on campus. Students would have access to: (a) information about TESOL, Modern Language, and Elementary Education programs, (b) educators working in successful two-way programs, and (c) augmenting their knowledge of BISO programs.

Conclusion

Principals identified candidates' lack of proficiency in the minority language as their greatest challenge at the time of finding qualified individuals for their schools (Campbell, 1996; Draper & Hicks, 2000), and suggested that the university offers content courses taught in the minority language in order to promote it (Krashen, 1998; Valdés, 2001).

The outcomes of this project reveal the need to open channels of communication between universities and schools that result in mutual benefits for both institutions (Goal IV of M-DCPS' District Strategic Plan: "Schools will maximize opportunities to increase the number of students who are bilingual and biliterate"). In promoting the teaching and learning of Spanish in addition to English (Fradd, 1996), the researchers hope to start a reversal in the overwhelming trend toward subtractive bilingualism surrounding universities and colleges in the United States (Guerrero, 1998). This will be achieved by encouraging students to expand their knowledge of other languages and cultures (Brecht & Ingold, 1998; Krashen, 1998), by exemplifying the benefits of additive bilingualism (Lambert, 1980), and by increasing the bilingual force who can contribute to the economy in the area (Fradd, 1996).

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Reflections on the Writing Process: Guiding the Work of Writing

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Abstract: A heuristic process was used to examine the experience of teaching writing for publication. Faculty and student reflections are presented.

Graduate students learn that writing for publication is a different skill than writing a good quality term paper. Unfortunately, the transition from writing a term paper to an academic paper is difficult to make. Graduate students have few opportunities to take courses concerned with writing for publication, few opportunities to observe faculty members critiquing a manuscript or struggling to write the first sentence for a new manuscript. The result of this is that few students pursuing a doctorate ever publish and when they do, it is likely to be the dissertation (Berquist, 1983). There is a gap in graduate school training that includes teaching the process of writing for publication (Jackson, Nelson, Heggins, Baatz, & Schuh, 1999; Rippenberger, 1998) which is frequently assumed to be something students innately know how to do (Gaillet, 1996) or the job of other faculty (Sullivan, 1994).

Method

A problem facing adult and higher education faculty is how best to encourage and direct students towards greater participation and success in the writing process. This is important not only for students who want to go on to faculty and research positions, but is also [important for the development of reflective practitioners. Using Moustakas (1990), we have embarked on a heuristic study of the ways we have attempted to foster students' scholarly writing. The questions we are struggling with are: (a) How do we facilitate or teach scholarly writing? (b) How do we mentor students to become practitioner researchers and scholars? and (c) How do we best model the scholarly writing process?

The heuristic method of self-dialogue utilizes self disclosure of oneself and others to elicit tacit and explicit knowledge around a phenomenon (Moustakas, 1990). The students and faculty are at different phases in Moustakas' six phase process of initial engagement, immersion into the topic or question, incubation, illumination, explication, and culmination. The faculty and students are at different phases due to our educational and professional experiences preparing us differently. The lead researcher has been thinking about the issue of graduate student writing for publication for years as a research and service issue while the other faculty author has thought about it more in terms of mentoring. While some of the students enrolled in the course to learn the mechanics of writing just to achieve the end of publication, others continue to actively struggle with the writing process by participation in a writing group begun after the class ended and by continuing to work on writing projects from this course and others.

Between us (the faculty authors), we have attempted to teach, mentor, and model the writing process in six ways: a course on writing for publication, a course that involved students in a sponsored research project, a structured literature review course, the formation of a writing group, development of students' individual writing projects, and co-authorship with students. This paper will reflect on these attempts with the primary focus being on the structured literature

review course offered in the summer of 2002. Consistent with Moustakas (1990) and with our own efforts to encourage student writing, we invited students to be full participants in writing this paper. The first step was a request for them to share their reflections to a set of specific questions, which we emailed them at the formal end of the structured literature review course. The questions were: (a) What did you know about writing and research before taking this class? (b) What do you know now about writing and research that you did not know before taking this class? (c) What did you like best about this class? (d) What did you like least about this class? (e) What suggestions for improvement would you give us? Ten of the thirteen students enrolled in the course responded to each of these questions, one student sent a summary paragraph, and two others have not responded. The summary of responses was sent to the entire group of students with the request that they look for themes in the data, define the themes, and provide examples for them. The discussion below begins with the faculty interpretation of the responses and is followed by a discussion of the student interpretation of the responses. Finally, the students and faculty interpretations are contrasted and discussed.

Faculty Reflections

Four areas of reflection emerged from a preliminary analysis of the student responses to the questions above. They have been named reflection process, approach, modeling, and dilemmas. The reflection process revealed a range of abilities to self-reflect. The approach students took towards writing had four orders: mechanical, technical, committed, and beginning scholarly. Modeling was attempted in a variety of ways using the faculty authors' work, students work, and examples from other scholars. Dilemmas surrounded issues of us vs. them, conceptual framework, understanding method, and excitement for the topic.

Reflection Process

One of the lessons we took from this is that graduate students are not prepared to reflect on their own work. They might be able to critique the work of others but are not prepared to critique their own work. Another is that the majority of students saw the writing process as a series of mechanical steps directed towards completing a task. Some of them started to understand that scholarly writing involved more technical aspects than they had at first realized. In this way, they were able to differentiate between term papers and writing for publication. While this was a positive development, many students missed that scholarly writing involves and requires interpretation. They started to realize that writing was a process and not just a task to be completed in compliance with a course deadline. They also recognized that they needed to read more widely and in greater depth than what would normally be required for a course.

Despite this, many tended to see scholarly writing as a collection of facts supported by citations. The students had difficulty viewing the literature for the conceptual framework as useful to support or refute the argument they were developing. Instead it was a reporting of the literature to which the students' work was tacked on at the end. Students had not found their own voice or style but instead looked to mimic not model academic writers. One student thought that the literature review would reveal truth while another thought that academic writing was something that others did.

Approach

The students took different approaches towards the work of reviewing literature in a field. These approaches have four orders: mechanical, technical, committed, and beginning scholarly. The four orders build on each other so that a student who is approaching the writing project

using the beginning scholarly approach has incorporated the other approaches into her or his view of writing.

Mechanical. Mechanical is an approach to writing that sees writing as a series of tasks to be completed. We view this as a lower order approach to writing or what students might call the “literature dump” or as students stated “simply compiling others’ thoughts and ideas without synthesizing it” because “truth is found...[in] the literature surrounding the subject.” The mechanical approach provided a comprehensive reporting of the literature but lacks an understanding of the use of the literature review in the research process.

Technical. Technical writing is at a higher order and includes the mechanical steps, but the student understands there is a purpose and rationale for these steps. Students still struggle with the relationship between the use of conceptual frameworks, interpretation and the purpose of the paper but understand that these are a vital part of academic writing.

Committed writing. Committed writing has the same status as technical writing. The approach, however, comes first from a passion for and then a commitment to the topic. When a technical view is combined with inspiration, a passion, and commitment to a question, then scholarly writing can occur in a conscious and cautious way.

Beginning scholarly. For a student approach writing from a beginning scholarly perspective, the other three orders are in evidence. Four to six of the students fell into this category. Their passion and commitment have kept them working on their projects for almost a year after the course ended.

Modeling

Modeling occurred in several ways: by sharing our own writings, in sharing what we considered high quality academic work on the topic of critical race theory, and through team teaching. Our shared writings were published pieces, a manuscript accepted for publication, and another manuscript under review. The manuscript under review went through a major revision as a result of the review process. However, students saw the work of the faculty as perfect examples of scholarly work to follow precisely, even though our intent was to share work in process so students could see the development of a piece of writing. Students could not understand how to use these pieces as a point of departure for their papers or that their purposes in conducting a structured literature review were different than the faculty examples of a structured literature review. Some students reported that they read research both for content and to seek a model for their own work.

Team teaching proved to be most problematic because students were accustomed to classes that followed a set sequence with clear answers. When we answered questions in different ways and showed students that more than one approach was possible, it created a cognitive dissonance. One of the problems was that instead of seeing this as a sharing of multiple perspectives on a problem, some viewed this as lack of coordination between the professors, not realizing that reviewers of any piece of writing might have divergent or even opposing views on how to improve a piece of writing. In addition, critiques provided in class and online were taken as individual critiques and not related to another’s work. In other words, students who made the same mistakes or shared the same issues in their writing did not recognize the issue as one they shared in common. This made it difficult for us to form a collaborative learning community where the exchange of ideas around the writing process were given and taken by peers. Instead, throughout the term, faculty were seen as instructors, possessors of knowledge, and purveyors of wisdom that the students were to receive and absorb.

Dilemmas

Dilemmas surrounded issues of us vs. them, conceptual framework, understanding method, and excitement for the topic. The inability to form a collaborative learning community highlights the dilemma of “us and them.” Students saw the professors (us) as the experts from which knowledge and criticism flowed (to them). The notion of a conceptual framework as something important but intangible was evident. For instance, the suggestion was made to have another class to help students “create their theoretical frameworks, because ... this was one of my major set backs” after “concrete” discussion of the theory used as a lens in the structured literature review. That a theoretical or conceptual framework was important, students seemed to understand but exactly what it is or how to use one was difficult for them to articulate or demonstrate in their own writing. The method for conducting a structured literature review was also a problem. At the first class session, we discussed a variety of ways to approach a structured literature review, believing and suggesting that students decide an appropriate method for their project. Since they could not understand that the manuscripts and articles written by the faculty were models, they instead tried to replicate the methods used in these pieces without regard to the purpose or intent of their own projects. This quotation from one student exemplifies this dilemma:

I wish method were introduced earlier. It is true we had exemplary papers to read, but I think we all lacked some theoretical explanation about method. Most of us simply imitated what we had seen in the articles, because we didn't know how to approach our critique in a different way.

Since students had not taken the initiative or become self-directed learners around this issue of method, we introduced a content analysis method that we thought would be useful to most students. Another dilemma is that most (if not all) of these students had research courses but had not learned how to translate what they had learned in the courses into action that produced scholarship.

Students' Perceptions and Reflections

Prior to taking the Critical Race Theory (CRT) class (the structured literature review class referred to by the faculty authors), many of the students had some understanding of writing and research. Quite a few of the respondents stated that they had developed researching skills in other classes, but as one of them said “a paper of this magnitude and at this level” was a new experience for them. All of the students were exposed to the CRT literature for the first time, and many of them struggled with the principles or tenets that are at the heart of CRT. As one of the professors stated during one of the class sessions, just being exposed to CRT meant that these students knew more about it than ninety-nine percent of the general U.S. population. The purpose of this class was to have the students examine peer-reviewed publications that focus on issues in their particular fields by using CRT as the theoretical framework to evaluate these publications. Four themes emerged from four the students: an autobiography of writing and research styles, the process of writing, beliefs and perceptions, and the purpose of writing.

Autobiography of Writing and Research Styles

An autobiography of writing and research styles is a personal account of one's own approach to writing and research in regards to the initial stage of writing. For instance, students indicated that they began with the stage of creating an outline or overall structure for the paper. Their systematic personal approach when collecting data or information included structure, format, and content. In describing their approaches to writing and research, most of the

respondents stated that they usually selected a topic first, and then they would conduct research. This research was usually done in a manner that reinforced their preconceived notions about a particular topic. They seemed to be citing authors in a haphazard way. Many of the students stated they would simply find authors whose articles were in line with their opinions. This approach to writing and research is a very superficial one because by collecting sources to backup one's research, the writer may not know (a) what type of contributions a particular author brings to a field, (b) if these contributions have generally been accepted or rejected by colleagues, and (c) if what he or she is writing is adding new insight on the particular topic. When reviewing the responses from these students, one will notice that many of the students appear to approach writing and research in ways that are faulty. In all but a couple of cases, the respondents' approaches to writing and research are less than systematic and lack thoroughness.

Process of Writing

The process of writing refers to the internal dialogue that accompanies the formulation of a topic area or conceptual framework for a paper. The dialogue moves in a fluid manner among internal-group-class dialogue. It is ultimately the sharing of thoughts and the receiving of feedback. All of the respondents agreed that after taking the class, they had a better understanding about how writing and research should be conducted. They all concurred that one part of the process is dependent on the previous part. As one student said, "Prior to this class I found myself duplicating my research efforts and had difficulty assembling all of my research material." Many of their responses about what they now knew surrounded the idea that conducting writing and research in an organized fashion is preferable to what they had previously done. Some of the changes in their approaches were that they read more and with a more critical eye.

Beliefs and Perceptions of Writing and Research

Beliefs and perceptions of writing and research included the fear, frustration, and the commitment that are intertwined in the writing and research process as well as examining one's beliefs and value system in an external fashion by using concrete written words. There are three components to this: past experience, present experience, and future expectations. As far as their beliefs about writing and research, many of the respondents recognize that it is a very involved undertaking. These beliefs contradict what many of these respondents said about how they approach writing and research. Another interesting observation about their beliefs is that a few felt that writing and researching are very personal. As a matter of fact, there was a strong emphasis on the personal in many of the responses to reflection questions about the course.

Reflections on Writing and Research

Reflections on writing and research occurred when students examined their reasons for pursuing writing and the purpose of their writing projects. The three components of this are personal, professional, and scholarly. There was diversity in professional experiences, CRT authors, types of papers, and also insights from the co-instructors. The least liked aspects of the course were the lack of readings by original CRT authors and the difficulty of framing and planning the method section. Many of the suggestions for improvement of the class centered on how to better teach students the application of theory to the writing process.

Implications for Adult and Higher education

Many books on writing suggest that in order to improve one's writing, one needs to change an attitude (Apps, 1982), or that a scheduled time needs to be set aside to write (Rankin, 1999). These are simplistic approaches to a problem that begins with faculty responsibility. We

must change the way we approach writing and treat scholarly writing as a continuous process that begins early in graduate education. This begins with a conscious decision to place a course on writing for publication early or later in the program. It also requires coordination between faculty within a program and between faculty in other programs teaching research methods. If advanced graduate students are to learn how to write for publication, then some form of scholarly writing should be taught in addition to the course content. Research courses should include writing projects where students apply methods to pilot research projects with the goal of submitting the work to conferences and further developing a piece of writing throughout the graduate program until it is suitable for submission. Graduate students need assistance to see the connections between concepts and tools learned in one course to work done in other courses. Finally, graduate students need to learn to view writing as a heuristic process that can help them learn not just how to write but how to discover their own voices and how to add their voices to a larger community.

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Decreasing Law Enforcement Applicants and Racial Profiling – Reversing the Trends

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Abstract: Valuing Polyrhythmic Realities and Critical Theories, specifically Critical Race Theory, is facilitated by Interdisciplinary inquiry. Racial Profiling will be utilized to demonstrate how acknowledging the lived experiences of individuals and viewing situations from the oppressed viewpoint will positively impact the number of Blacks in law enforcement.

The College of Education at Florida International University has a three-part mission statement: “To prepare professionals who have the abilities and dispositions to facilitate and enhance learning and development within diverse settings; the discovery and dissemination of knowledge related to learning, teaching and development; the development of professional partnerships to promote meaningful educational, social, economic and political change”(FIU, 2002, p. 212) Learning has been defined as “a relatively permanent change in behavior or in behavioral potentiality that results from experience and cannot be attributed to temporary body states such as those induced by illness, fatigue or drugs” (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Some educators acknowledge the influence power and oppression have on education and vice versa. The only way behavior or behavioral potentiality can be affected is by a multi-pronged approach. This approach will address many aspects of the individual that includes his/her surroundings and individual experiences. To fully understand and comprehend the complexities of power, oppression and the effects they have on individuals and our society, it is necessary to obtain information from at least two departments within the College of Education- Educational leadership and Policy studies and Educational Psychology Studies. This interdisciplinary inquiry exemplifies the theme of this conference, “Supporting Interdisciplinary Inquiry.”

To accomplish the purpose of this paper, the researcher must perform interdisciplinary inquiry of at least two departments within the College of Education--the department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies; and the department of Educational and Psychological Studies. Providing information regarding historical, comparative, cultural, social and philosophical foundations of education, the Educational Leadership department assists the researcher in better understanding the learner and the learner’s motivation or lack thereof. When information gained from this department is combined with the training received in Educational Psychology, to assist with meeting the needs of individuals who experience cognitive, academic, and/or social-emotional difficulties that negatively impact their lives, the researcher is better equipped to make a positive impact on our nation’s citizens and Blacks in law enforcement.

The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate that using a “bifocal lens” consisting of Polyrhythmic realities and Critical Theory will allow for better understanding and education of our nation’s citizens and their diverse applications of educational research and address their behavioral, psychological, and cultural viewpoints.

The explosive nature of racial profiling has polarized our nation and impacted individuals’ employability; however, in this paper, it will be used to demonstrate how interdisciplinary inquiry can positively impact our nation and increase the number of blacks in law enforcement. To some researchers this may be of little or no importance; however, if

researchers were to don the “bifocal lens” of polyrhythmic realities and critical theory when analyzing the shortage of individuals in essential career fields such as law enforcement, nursing and even education they would be able to better address the problem. Trends found in nursing and education are beyond the scope of this paper. Therefore, I will concentrate on law enforcement trends.

Polyrhythmic Realities

“Polyrhythmic realities” refers to the student’s (individual’s) life experience within a sociocultural, political, and historical context (Sheard, 1999). In order for individuals to enter into or participate in anything, the facilitator or educator must develop an understanding and appreciation of the individuals’ lived experiences. These experiences cause individuals to act or respond to various stimuli differently. Once these experiences have been acknowledged, they must be given voice by acknowledging the impact of race, gender and class. Giving voice can be outlined in a four-step approach: (a) one must first acknowledge their perceived power and control, (b) examine how their race, class, gender has either privileged them or oppressed them, (c) be willing to share power and control, and (d) create or welcome others histories and cultures.

Critical Race Theory

Critical Race Theory was developed after the civil rights movements of the 1960s and the critical legal studies movement (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Critical Race Theory (CRT) combines critical theory that started in the Frankfurt school and applies it to race. It looks at the movement for equal rights and seeks to re-evaluate the notions of equality that serve to hide important differentiations of power between groups. CRT examines the notions of equality and merit to promote change and all legal fairness. Understanding CRT involves examining the issue of race through the lens of an oppressed people. Most people who have not been oppressed will not comprehend the issues before them. Only when an examination of the issue from the oppressed lens is performed can an understanding of CRT be reached. Once an understanding of CRT is reached, then its application to other topics such as the hiring of blacks in law enforcement and human resource development will be done objectively.

Racial Profiling

The shortage of police applicants is just as alarming as the shortage of teachers and nurses. However, this is only one trend in law enforcement, the other being the number of allegations of racial profiling. In the interests of improving our communities, we must educate individuals about the opportunities in law enforcement and the negative effects of racial profiling.

If these trends continue within law enforcement departments, citizens could experience a decrease in their quality of life. Tremendously understaffed police departments could possibly lead to increased crime. This could cause our property values to decline, our insurance rates increase, and our safety to be imperiled; therefore we become virtual prisoners in our own home. As educators and human resource professionals, we must both educate and motivate individuals to improve our society.

According to the U.S. Census Bureau, the population of the United States was 281,421,906 in 2000: of this number, 194,552,774 (69.1%) are White; 33,947,837 (12.1%) are Black; and 35,305,818 (12.5%) are Hispanic (US Census Bureau, 2000) Historically, dominant cultures have systematically limited the power of minorities in their social, political, and

religious institutions. (Guy, 1999) Those persons who enjoy material and social privilege based on race, gender, or ethnicity often suffer from fear of crime and violence at the hands of minority group members (Guy, 1999). In 1997, the Bureau of Justice reported that of 326,968 full-time sworn law enforcement officers, Whites comprised 81%; Blacks, 10%; and Hispanics, 7%. The disparity between the population and those in law enforcement is contrary to the Community Policing philosophy, which indicates that personnel of the police agency should mirror the demographics of the community that it serves (Goldstein, 1990).

Racial profiling is defined as the law enforcement tactic of stopping individuals while walking or driving only because of the color of his or her skin and a fleeting suspicion that the person is engaging in criminal behavior (Meeks, 2000). Discussions of racial profiling increased in popularity after the 1999 revelation that the New Jersey State Police had an explicit policy of racial profiling (Alter, 2001).

The effects of racial profiling such as traffic citations, arrests, an overall distrust of law enforcement and the various subjective areas of the hiring process (i.e. oral board and background checks) have resulted in Blacks being underrepresented in the law enforcement profession. Some traffic citations and arrests are totally left to the discretion of the officer. If the officer is abusive with his or her discretion, the resulting citations and/or arrests will negatively impact the persons ability to hired as a law enforcement officer.

As a Black male and a police sergeant in a large metropolitan police department in South Florida, I can appreciate and understand the necessity to include Sheared's polyrhythmic realities of African Americans in law enforcement.

Due to my life experiences and my profession, I can understand two sides of the racial profiling issue: victim and law enforcement/crime prevention. My assignment in the Department of Internal Affairs and serving on the hiring oral board afforded me the insight into the hiring process for law enforcement officers. These positions exposed me to the hurdles that racial profiling creates for individuals when applying for law enforcement careers and other careers.

Based on my contact with Blacks and my familiarization with the various stages in the hiring process, racial profiling has a direct negative impact on Blacks in the field of law enforcement and has caused other Blacks to think negatively about police officers and not seek employment in this very rewarding career. If human resource development professionals would like to increase the percentage of Blacks in law enforcement, they should consider the positive impact community policing has had on bridging the gap between law enforcement and the minority community; recognize and begin to deconstruct the privilege that White males, especially White male police officers, possess; and strongly emphasize in adult and general education the areas of diversity, cultural sensitivity and law enforcement procedures. Supporting interdisciplinary inquiry and utilizing the "bifocal lens" to view all situations will allow the College of Education to be better suited to address the needs of our nation's citizens and their diverse applications of educational research. Further, we will be able to give voice to otherwise voiceless groups of individuals and ultimately reduce or eliminate oppression and its negative impacts.

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